

JAPAN
MANCHOUKUO
YEAR BOOK

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JAPAN MANCHOUKUO
YEAR BOOK

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READ CAREFULLY

IT WILL MAKE THE YEAR BOOK
WORTH MORE TO YOU

GENERAL DIVISION

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

HOW THE PARTS ASSIST EACH OTHER

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

STATISTICS

There are approximately 1,200 tables in this book. The sources of the tables will be found at the end of the respective chapters in which they appear. The sign "..." indicates that the figure is not available at the time of writing or that it is non-existent. The sign "—" indicates that the figure is either nil or negligible.

MAPS

Several maps are supplemented to this issue. The large map of the Far East contains some 3,000 place names, the spelling of which follow the form most in usage. There are also a map of the railways in Manchoukuo and an air service map of Japan, Manchoukuo and China.

IDENTIFYING CHINESE CHARACTERS

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

DESCRIPTIONS OF LEADING COMPANIES

Effort has been directed in this issue to present a comprehensive picture of the position of the leading concerns in Japan and Manchoukuo in the realm of finance, commerce and industry in view of their importance in the study of the economic fabric of the Japanese Empire. As an example, the position of the Meiji Sugar Mfg. Co. is mentioned in four different parts of this volume, viz. in the chapters on Foodstuff Industry and Commerce, in the Business Directory and under Konzerns. By referring to the General Index and the Business Directory Index information pertaining to the Company's production, authorized capital, paid-up capital, amount of profit, dividend rate, movement of its stocks, directorate, largest shareholders, date of establishment and address, etc. may be obtained.

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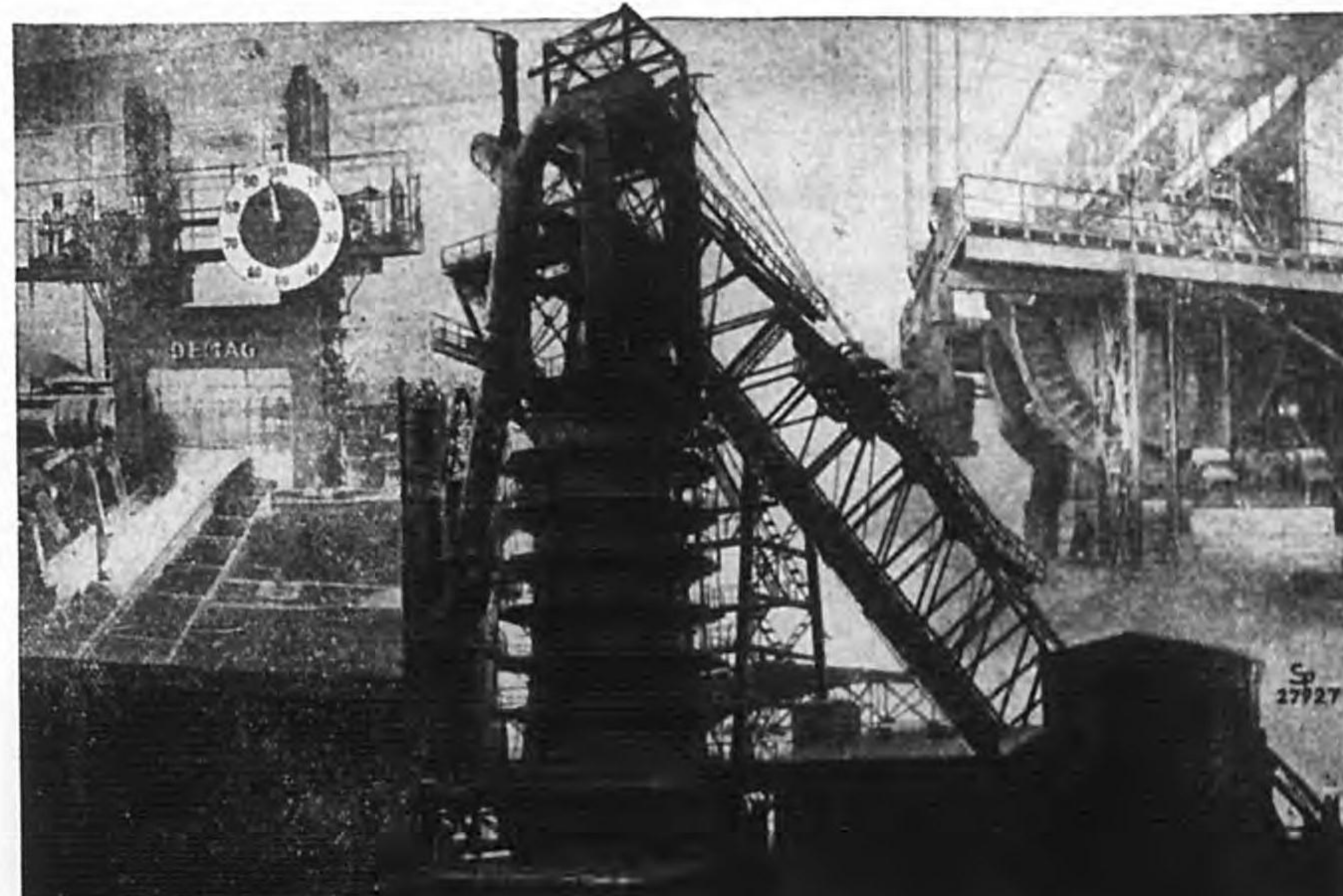
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President:
YOSHISUKE AIKAWA

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Paid-up ¥450,000,000

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BRANCH OFFICE:

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Dowa Automobile Co., Ltd.

(Dowa Jidosha Kogyo K. K.)

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Manchuria Colliery Co., Ltd.

(Manshu Tanko K. K.)

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(Manshu Keikinzoku Seizo K. K.)

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Manchuria Magnesium Industry Co., Ltd.

(Manshu Magnesium Kogyo K. K.)

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Manchuria Mining Co., Ltd.

(Manshu Kozan K. K.)

Established 1938. Capital Subscribed ¥100,000,000; Paid-up ¥90,000,000. Head Office: Hsinking.

Manchuria Lead Co., Ltd.

(Manshu Enko K. K.)

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Development Corporation

Manchuria Airplane Mfg. Co., Ltd.

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Tohendo Development Co., Ltd.

(Tohendo Kaihatsu K. K.)

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Manchuria Automobile Mfg. Co., Ltd.

(Manshu Jidosha Seizo K. K.)

Established 1939. Capital Subscribed ¥100,000,000; Paid-up ¥25,000,000. Head Office: Hsinking.

Manchuria Heavy Machine Co., Ltd.

(Manshu Juki Seizo K. K.)

Established 1940. Capital Subscribed ¥50,000,000; Paid-up ¥50,000,000. Head Office: Hsinking.

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(Nippon Kogyo K. K.)

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Nissan Steamship Co., Ltd.

(Nissan Kisen K. K.)

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Osaka Iron Works, Ltd.

(K. K. Osaka Tekkosho)

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(Hitachi Denryoku K. K.)

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(Nissan Jidosha K. K.)

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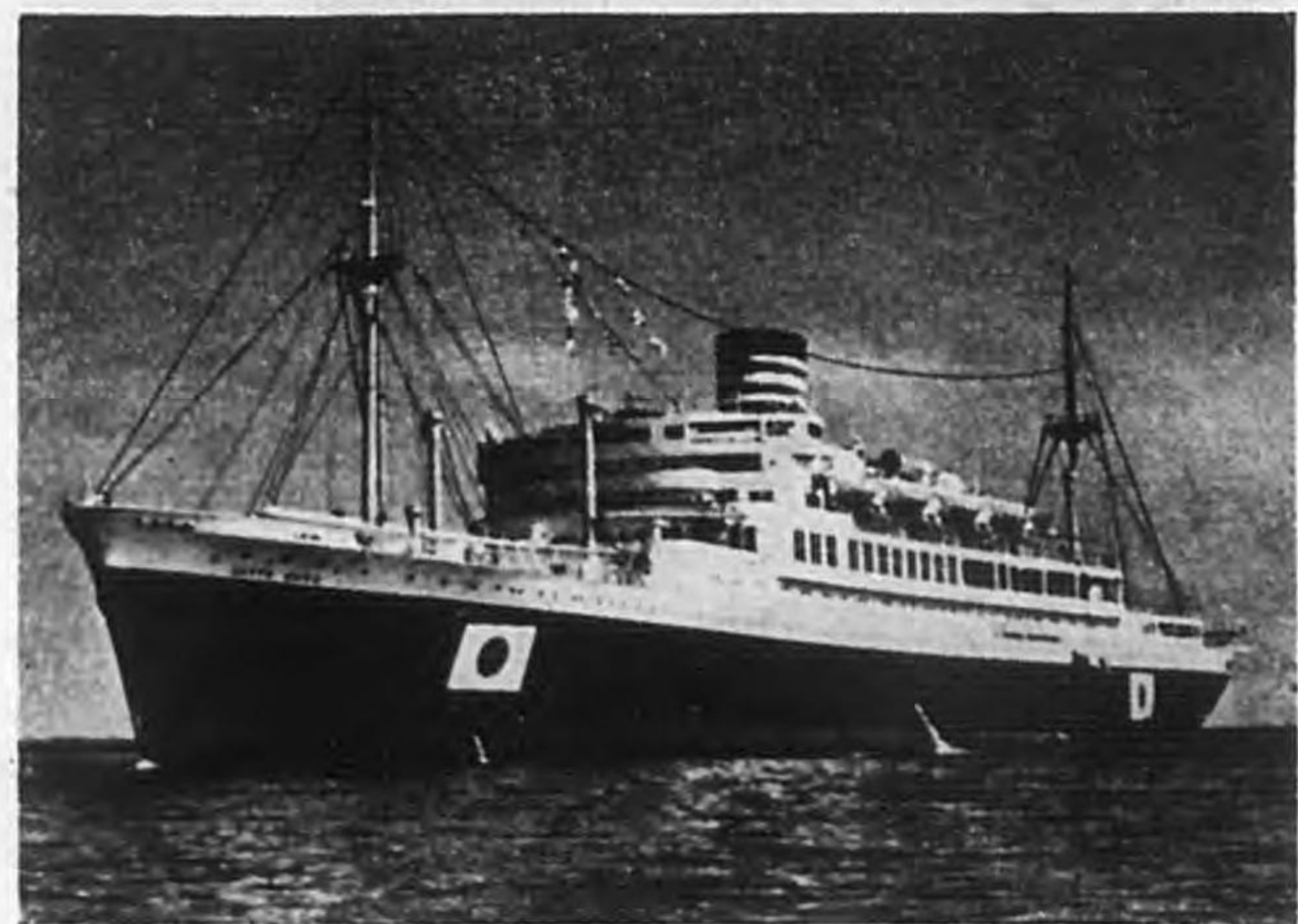
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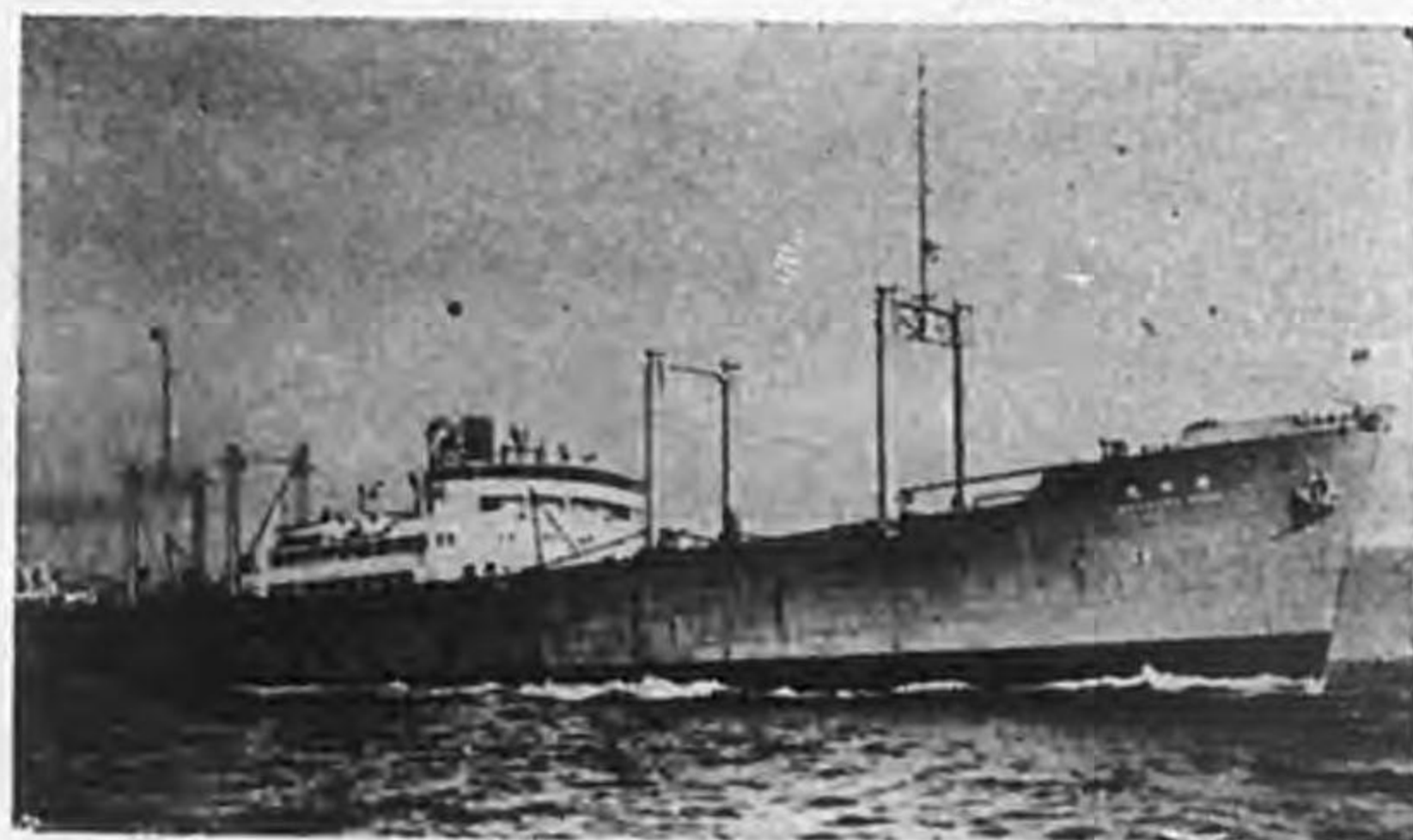
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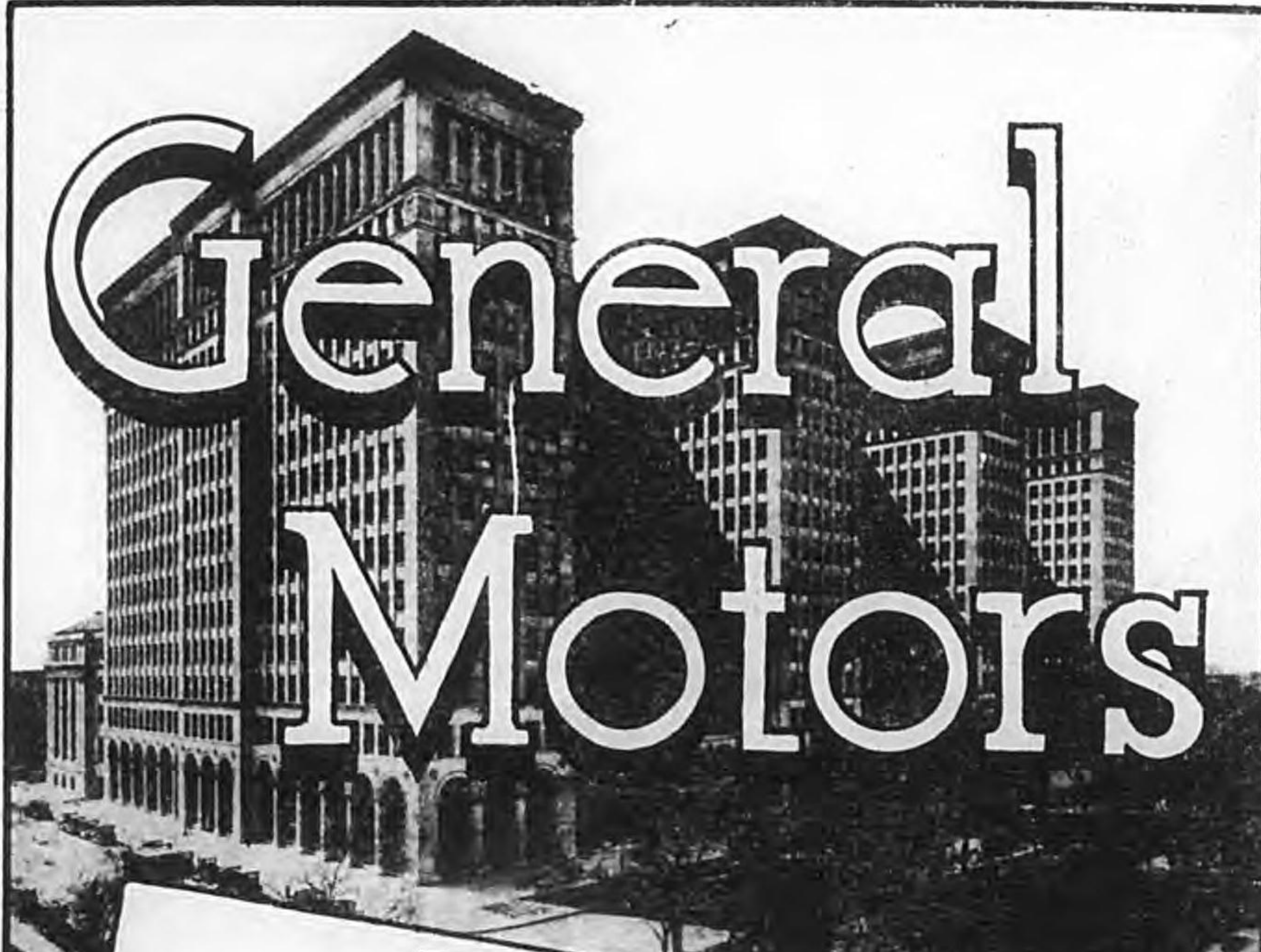
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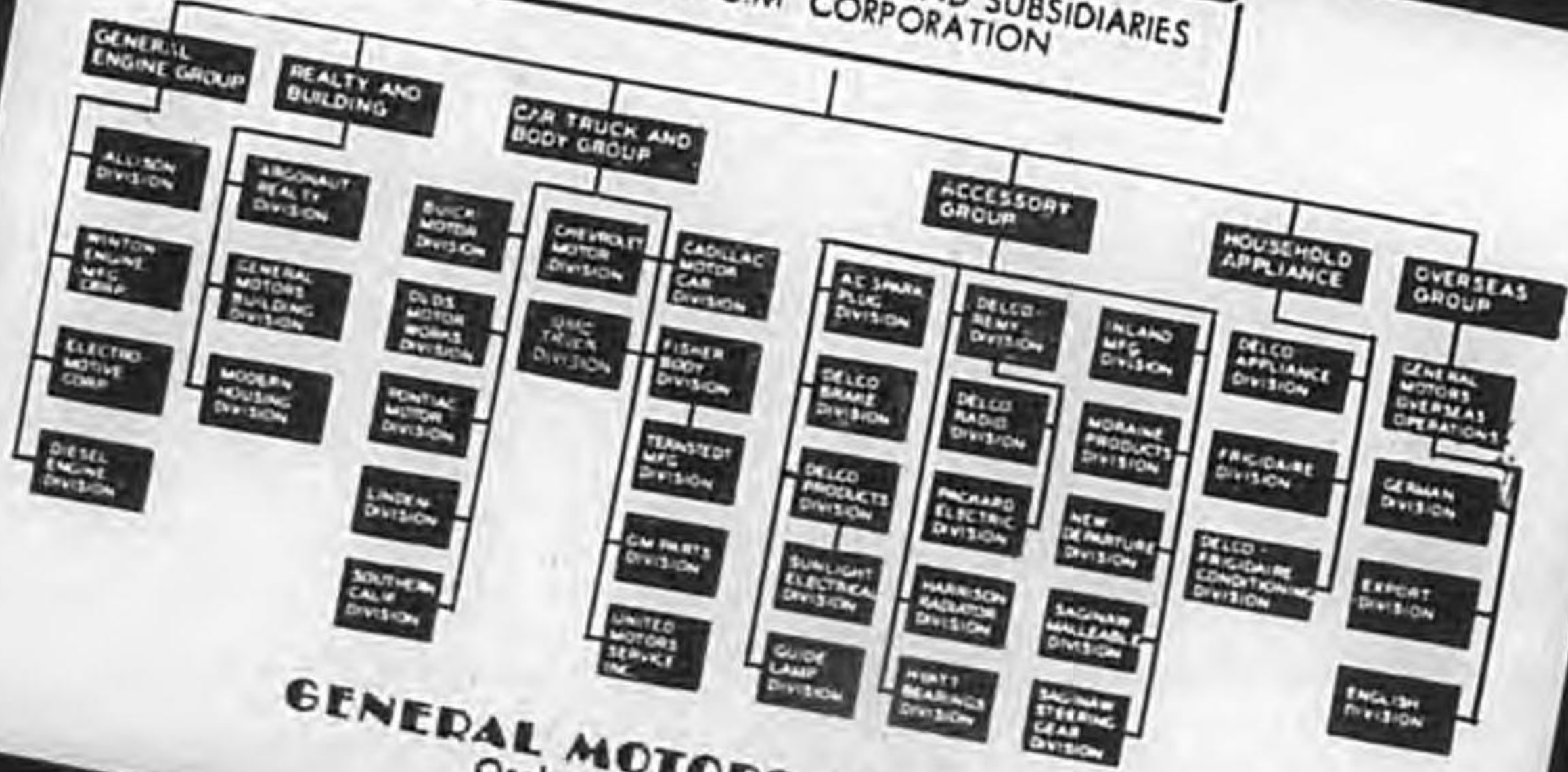



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FOREWORD

THE present issue of THE JAPAN-MANCHOUKUO YEAR BOOK was compiled in a period of significant changes. In Europe a war of the largest scale was being waged, while in the Far East the horizon was still fraught with uneasiness due to the continuance of the Sino-Japanese hostilities.

Under such conditions, drastic repercussions were felt in Japan and Manchoukuo. We have tried to present in the publication this changing kaleidoscope of events to the fullest extent with regard to their bearings on the two countries concerned.

In the editorial pattern no basic changes have been made from that of the previous years, the objective uppermost in our mind being as ever to improve upon past efforts in supplying to our readers textual and statistical materials on the important affairs of Japan and Manchoukuo.

In closing, we cannot over-emphasize the kindly cooperation and assistance extended to us from our many friends and collaborators who have made possible the compilation of materials in this momentous period.

THE JAPAN-MANCHOUKUO YEAR BOOK CO.

Tokyo, March 10, 1941.

FOREWORD

The present state of the JAPAN-MANCHOUKYO YEAR BOOK was compiled in a period of significant changes in Europe and Asia. At the present time, the world is in a state of transition. The Japanese Government has been working for the realization of a new world order. The Japanese people have been suffering from the hardships of the Sino-Japanese hostilities. Under such conditions, drastic reorganizations were felt in Japan and Manchuria. We have tried to present in the publication the following characteristics of events to the fullest extent with regard to the features of the two countries concerned.

In the cultural pattern no basic changes have been made from that of the previous years, the objective viewpoint in our mind being as ever to improve our past efforts in supplying to our readers textual and statistical material on the important affairs of Japan and Manchuria. In doing so, we cannot but emphasize the kindly cooperation and assistance extended to us from our many friends and colleagues who have made possible the completion of material in this yearbook.

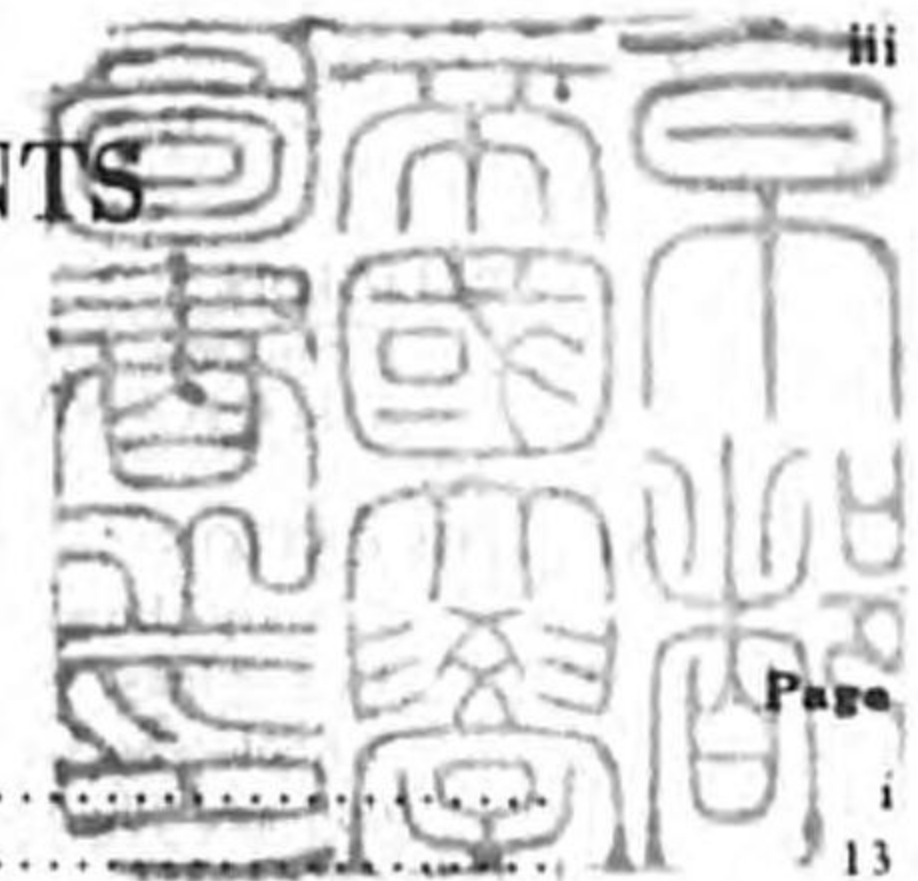
THE JAPAN-MANCHOUKYO YEAR BOOK CO.

Tokyo, March 10, 1941



TABLE OF CONTENTS

(Reference to Pages)
JAPAN SECTION



Chapter	Page
FOREWORD	i
YEAR DATE	13
WEIGHT & MEASURE	14
I. GEOGRAPHY	
Position—Physical Features—Area—Climate—Fauna and Flora	15-28
II. OUTLINE OF HISTORY	
Mythical Period—Legendary Period—Period of Foundation—Nara Period— Heian Period—Kamakura Period—Muromachi Period—Yedo Period— Modern Japan—Manchurian Incident—Sino-Japanese Hostilities—Chronicle of Important Events	29-34
III. GEOLOGY	
Geological Composition—Volcanoes—Hot Springs—Earthquakes	35-42
IV. POPULATION AND EMIGRATION	
Population of Japanese Empire—Population by Age Groups—Number of Births, Deaths, Still-Births, Marriages and Divorces—Foreign Residents, Legal Status of Foreigners—Naturalization—Emigration—Japanese Residing Abroad	43-53
V. IMPERIAL COURT	
The Imperial House—The Reigning Sovereign—Members of the Imperial Family—Royal House of Chosen—Area of Crown Landed Estate—Imperial Property Law—Decorations—Genealogy of the Imperial House—List of Japanese Year-Names	54-64
VI. ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEM	
The Central Government—Composition of Ministries—Civil and Military Service—Scale of Salaries—Pension System—Local Government—Reform in Japanese Administrative Machinery in Manchoukuo	65-72
VII. POLITICS AND POLITICAL PARTIES	
Politics—The Emperor—The Privy Council—The Cabinet—The "Genro"— The Imperial Diet—Composition of the Imperial Diet—The Electoral System—Cabinet Changes Since 1915—Economic Legislation—Enunciation of Japan's National Policy—Dissolution of Political Parties	73-86
VIII.	
Historical—Recent Situation—China Policy—Establishment of China's New Central Government—Japan-Germany-Italy Mutual Assistance Pact—List of Treaties	87-97
IX. NATIONAL DEFENCE	
Introductory Remarks—Board of Marshals and Fleet-Admirals—The Supreme War Council—The Court-Martial Law—Defence Expenditure—Conscription —Personnel of Active Service—Army Education—Distribution of Army Districts—Naval Districts and Bases—Naval Education—War Vessels Recently Launched—List of Warships	98-112

Chapter	Page
X. RELIGION	
Shintoism—Buddhism—Christianity—Temples—Churches—Missionaries—Y.M.C.A.—Y.W.C.A.—The Salvation Army—Tenrikyo	113-121
XI. EDUCATION	
Primary Education—Secondary Education—University Education—List of Universities—Technical Professional Education—Teachers' Training Schools—Societies and Council—School Hygiene—Museums—Moral Education and Physical Culture—Youths' Schools—Boy Scouts	122-135
XII. JUDICATURE	
Judicial System—Actions—Appeal, Revision and Complaint—Summary Proceedings—Acknowledgements—Sundry Fees—Lawyer's Fees—Age-limit for Judicial Officials—Jury System—New System—New Civil Procedure Law—Criminal Cases—Juvenile Courts—Police—Police Offences—Peace Preservation Law—Arrests by Police—Suicides—Unnatural Deaths—Fire Brigades—Prisons and Prisoners—Prison Revenue	136-145
XIII. SANITATION	
Introductory Remarks—Medical Practitioners—Hospitals and Consulting Offices—Insane Asylums—Tuberculosis—Leper Hospital—Trachoma—Epidemic Cases and Mortality—Deaths Classified by Causes—Mortality of Infants—Port Quarantine—Aerial Quarantine—Expectancy of Life—Japanese Red Cross Society	146-154
XIV. PRESS AND PUBLICATIONS	
Introductory Remarks—Peculiar Features of Japanese Press—The Press Law—Censorship and Freedom of Discussion—Circulation, Capital and Prices—Leading Journals—News Agencies—Publications	155-158
XV. ARTS AND CRAFTS	
Japanese Painting Since Meiji Era—Art Societies and Exhibitions—Imperial Board of Art—"Bunten" Fine Art Exhibition—Private Art Societies—Cultural Decoration—Art Museums and Schools—National Treasures—Japanese Music—Western Music—Motion Picture—Western Pictures in Japan	159-165
XVI. COMMUNICATIONS	
Introductory Remarks—Post Telegraph Service—International Cable Service—Wireless Telegraphy—Telephone Service—Radio Broadcasting—Airmail—Postal Savings	166-173
XVII. SOCIAL PROBLEMS	
General Remarks—Prominent Social Affairs—Organs for Control, Deliberation and Arbitration—Paternalism in Labor Disputes—Cooperative Society—Mutual Aid Associations of Workers—Health Insurance—Unemployment and Employment—Women Problems—Eleemosynary Works—Social Welfare Works	174-183
XVIII. INDUSTRIAL PROPERTIES	
Main Features of the Laws—Patents, Utility Models, Designs, Trade Marks—Encouragement of Inventions—The Chemical & Physical Research Institute	184-189
XIX. TRANSPORTATION	
State Railways—State Railways Finance—Goods & Passengers Carried—Local Railways—Tramways—Road Construction—Public Works—Commercial Aviation—Japan Airways Company Law—Round-World Flight—Principal Airways—Aviation Records—Air Service Time Table—No. of Foreign Tourists in Japan—Hotels in Japan	190-210

Chapter	Page
XX. SHIPPING & SHIPBUILDING	
Development of Japanese Shipping—Importation of Old Vessels—Registered vessels—Leading Shipowners—Subsidized Service—Tramp Steamers—Freight Market—Idle Ships—Navigation—Salvage Work—Shipbuilding—Shipyards—Recent Situation	211-225
XXI. PUBLIC AND LOCAL FINANCE	
Budgetary System—Structure of the Budget—General Account—Special Account—Local Finance—National Debt—Domestic & Foreign Loans—Debentures Issued—National Wealth—State Monopolies and Undertaking—Taxation System—Recent Situation—1940-41 Budget—Temporary War Expenditure Special Account	226-253
XXII. BANKING & CURRENCY	
Banking System—Special Banks—Ordinary and Savings Banks—Foreign Banks in Japan—Monetary Organ for Poor Classes—Principal Bank Accounts—"Mujin"—Investment Funds—Currency System—Capital Issues—Currency in Circulation—Velocity of Circulation of Deposits—Gold Reserve—Discount Rates—Interest Rates—Foreign Exchange Business—Linkage of Yen to U. S. \$—Clearing-Houses—Trust Business	254-272
XXIII. INSURANCE	
The Big Five Life Insurance Cos.—Mortality Table—Capitalization of Insurance Cos.—Insurance Business Law—Foreign Insurance Cos. in Japan	273-283
XXIV. AGRICULTURE & STOCKBREEDING	
Value of Agricultural and Pastoral Products—Principal Crops—Horticulture—Industrial Crops—Camphor—Tea—Stockbreeding—Dairy and Meat Preserving—Poultry—Livestock Insurance—Recent Situation—Wartime Agricultural Reorganization—Economic Status of Farming Households—Fertilizers	284-300
XXV. SÉRICULTURE	
Climatic Characteristics—Cocooning—Raw Silk Production—Demand and Supply of Raw Silk—Movement of Raw Silk Price	301-304
XXVI. FORESTRY	
Forestry Output in the Japanese Empire—Area of Forest—Adjustment of State Forests—Natural Afforestation—Demand and Supply of Timber—Sawing and Lumbering	305-310
XXVII. FISHERIES	
Fishery Results in Japanese Empire—Marine Manufactures—Kinds of Fish—Aquatic Administration—Coastwise, Deep-sea Fishing—Whaling—Coral Collection—Fish-culture—Pearl Culture—Soviet Water Fishery—Fishing Vessel Disasters—Salt Industry	311-322
XXVIII. LABOR	
Peasant Movement—Number of Laborers—Factory Laborers—May Day Demonstration—Wages—Productivity of Labor—The Factory Law—Working Hours—Cost of Living—Labor Disputes—Tenant Disputes—Factory Accidents—Mine Workers—Wartime Labor Politics—Position of Small Tradesmen	323-325
XXIX. MINING	
Value of Mineral Production in Japanese Empire—Principal Mineral Output—Raw Material Supply—Recent Steel Demand and Supply—Productive Capacity—Industry Under Control—Five Year Plan of Steel and Iron	323-325

Chapter	Page
Production—Principal Gold Mines—Coal Mining—Petroleum Industry—Demand and Supply of Refined Oil—Petroleum Wholesale Price—Import of Petroleum—Coal Liquefaction	336-358
XXX. MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY	
Trend of Industrial Production—Factory Statistics—Fuel Consumption—Dependence on Foreign Raw Materials—Industrial Associations—Production Curtailment—Stocked Commodities—Three Year Production Expansion Program	359-368
XXXI. TEXTILE INDUSTRY	
General Remarks—Production Value per Operative—No. of Spindles—Cotton Spinning—Cotton Weaving—Raw Cotton Imports—Cotton Textile Exports—Japanese Factories in China—Silk Textiles—Rayon—Staple Fibre—Woolen Cloth and Worsted Yarn—Import of Wool—Hemp Cloth	369-382
XXXII. ELECTRIC AND GAS INDUSTRIES	
Japan's Position in Production of Electricity—Capacity of Hydro Power Generation Plants Classified by Rivers—Volume of Power Generated Classified—Consumption of Electric Power by Industries—Power Shortage in 1939—Gas Industry—Production of Gas by Kinds	383-389
XXXIII. CHEMICAL & CERAMIC INDUSTRIES	
Volume Indices of Chemical & Ceramic Production—Production of Chemical Fertilizers—Output of Industrial Chemicals—Ammonia Sulphate—Dye-stuff—Paint and Pigment—Bleaching Powder—Caustic Soda & Soda Ash—Paper—Pulp—Rubber—Ceramic Industry—Cement—Glass—Vegetable Oil—Fish Oil—Menthol—Soap—Camphor—Celluloid	390-406
XXXIV. FOODSTUFF INDUSTRY	
Sugar—Flour Milling—Brewing—Sake—Beer—Beer Companies—Soft Drinks—Canned Provisions—Dairy and Meat Products—Black Tea, Coffee and Cocoa—Ice Industry	407-413
XXXV. MACHINERY & ENGINEERING	
Output of Principal Machineries—Export and Import—Scientific and Medical Instruments—Production of Optical Instruments, Locomotives, Rolling Stock—Diesel and Semi-Diesel Engines—Cranes—Machine Tools—Automobiles—Bicycles—Watches & Clocks—Building Industry	414-427
XXXVI. MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES	
Knitted Goods—Hats—Lacquer Ware—Leather & Hide—Bamboo Manufactures, Brushes, Straw Braids—Pyrethrums—Electric Bulbs—Toys—Buttons—Matches—Fountain Pens, Pencils	428-432
XXXVII. COMMERCE	
Formation of Companies—Business Results of Leading Companies—Production Value of All Industries—General Statistics of Companies by Business—Chamber of Commerce & Industry—Exchanges—Value of Securities—Value Indices of Shares, Stocks, Bonds—Warehousing—Wholesale Prices—Commercial Museum—Yields of Bonds and Stocks—Principal Foreign Investments in Japanese Enterprises	433-449
XXXVIII. FOREIGN TRADE	
Introductory Remarks—Foreign Trade in 1940—Foreign Trade since 1889—Trade by Political Units, by Continents—Imports and Exports by Com-	

Chapter	Page
modities and by Countries of Origin and Destinations—Invisible Trade—Balance of International Payments—Commerce by Ports—Entrance of Steamers by Flags—World Foreign Trade Classified by Leading Countries—Import Tariff—Recent Trade Agreements	450-486
XXXIX. SIX PREMIER CITIES	
City Planning Law—Population of All Cities—Revenue & Expenditure of Cities—Social Works—Tokyo—Osaka—Kyoto—Yokohama—Kobe—Nagoya	487-496
XL. SPORTS	
Swimming—Baseball—Golf—Boxing—Basketball—Track and Field Athletics—Volley-ball—Soccer and Rugby—Hockey and Cricket—Lawn Tennis—Rowing—Wrestling—Skating and Skiing—Horse Riding and Races—Mountaineering—National Parks—Game Law—List of Game Birds & Beasts	497-509
XLI. CHOSEN (Korea)	
Geography—Population—Administration—Finance—Education & Religion—Sanitation—Garrison and Police—Public Works—Banking and Other Financing Organizations—Foreign Trade—Monopoly—Entrance of Ships—Salt—Tobacco—Value of Industrial Output—Agriculture—Sericulture—Fisheries—Mining—Principal Mineral Output—Forestry—Manufacturing Industries—Trade—Railways	510-532
XLII. TAIWAN (Formosa)	
Geography—Population—Administration—Finance—Education—Justice and Prisons—Manufacturing Industries—Forestry—Fishery and Marine Products—Mining—Agriculture—Fruits—Sugar Industry—Tea—Stock Farming—Monopoly—Salt Industry—Camphor—Tobacco—Foreign Trade—Public Works—Communications—Railways—Banking	533-554
XLIII. KARAFUTO (Southern or Japanese Saghalien)	
Geography—Climate—Population—Finance—Banking—Sanitation, Religion, Education—Agriculture—Immigration—Fishery—Forestry—Mining—Railways—Industrial Output	555-563
XLIV. NANYO (The South Sea Mandated Islands)	
Geography—Climate—Race, Language, Manners and Customs—Administration—Population—Finance—Justice and Police—Education—Religion—Police—Agriculture—Sanitation—Forestry—Fisheries—Commerce and Industry—Mining—Foreign Trade—Communications—Railways	564-579

MANCHOUKUO SECTION

I. GEOGRAPHY & GEOLOGY	
Physiographic Division—Area—Mountains—Volcanoes—Rivers—Lakes—Coastline—Harbours—Geology—Climate—Flora and Fauna	581-598
II. OUTLINE OF HISTORY	
Ancient Times—Aboriginal Tribes—Mongols—Manchuria under Manchou Rule—Modern Times—Independence of Three Eastern Provinces—Founding of Manchoukuo—Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol—Birth of Imperial Regime—Chronology of Important Events	599-609

Chapter	Page
III. POPULATION	
Yearly Comparison of Population—Population by Provinces, Cities, Races—Population by Age Groups—Population by Occupation—Foreign Population	610-612
IV. COLONIZATION	
Movement of Chinese Laborers—Japanese Settlers—Twenty Year Immigration Plan—Reorganization of Manchuria Colonial Development Company ..	613-618
V. ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEM	
Central Government—The Emperor—Legislative Council—State Council—Local Administrative Units—Special Municipality—The Hsien—Banner—Concordia Association—Occupants of Leading Manchoukuo Government Post	619-630
VI. JUDICATURE	
Courts and Jurisdiction—Trial System in Mongolia—Number of Courts—Conciliation Act—Police System—Police Boards—Consular Jurisdiction—Finger-print Supervision Bureaux	631-638
VII. DIPLOMACY	
Recognition by Foreign Countries—Relations with China—Manchoukuo and the Tripartite Pact—Anti-Comintern Pact—Boarder Transgressions—Extraterritoriality—Foreign Diplomatic and Consular Officials in Manchoukuo	639-642
VIII. NATIONAL DEFENCE	
Army Organization—Composition of the Army—Location of Army Headquarters—Military Educational Organs—Terms of Post—New National Army Law—Manchuria Incident Expenses—Bandit Suppression—National Mobilization Law—National Defence Act	643-651
IX. FOREIGN TRADE	
General Survey—Value Percentages of Exports & Imports—Foreign Trade By Principal Countries—Commerce By Customs Districts—By Principal Commodities—Invisible Trade—Vessels Entered and Cleared—The New Customs Tariff—Foreign Trade Control Law—Manchoukuo-German Trade Agreement	652-671
X. RAILWAY	
Location of Railways—Railway Investment—Operation of Railway—New Railway Lines—Railways Built Since 1933—Railway Map—History—Freight Traffic	672-679
XI. AGRICULTURE	
Lands Utilized Classified—Farming Land and Population—Agricultural Division—Methods of Farming—Area under Various Crops—Principal Crops—Industrial Crops—Agriculture—Vegetables—Stock Farming—30-year Wool Production Plan—Poppy Growing—Life of Manchoukuoan Farmers ..	680-695
XII. FORESTRY	
Distribution of Forest Zones—Wealth of Forest—Supply and Demand of Timber—Pulp Industry	696-700
XIII. FISHERY	
General Remarks—Salt Water Fishing—Fresh Water Fishing—Fishing Population—Exports and Imports of Marine Products—Fishery Catches in Manchoukuo and Kwantung—Salt Manufacture—Demand and Supply of Salt	701-704

Chapter	Page
XIV. MINING	
General Survey—Mineral Resources—Principal Minerals—Mining Policy—Legal Minerals—Geological Institute—Principal Coal Regions—Coal Output—Coal Consumption—Iron Regions—Production of Steel Materials—Showa Steel Works—Gold Output—Silver—Soapstone—Alumina Shale Reserves—Dolomite, Lead, Zinc and Copper—Mineral Resources of Tungpieniau Region—Petroleum—Fuhsin Oil Field—Coal Liquefaction—Shale Oil	705-722
XV. EDUCATION	
Primary Schools—National Schools—Children of Primary Education Age—Kindergartens—Higher Educational Organs—Private Schools—Text Books—Students Sent Abroad—Educational Expenditure—Libraries—Museums—Education of Mongols—Education of Russians—Japanese Educational Enterprise—Motion Picture Industry—Religion—Number of Foreign Missionaries	723-733
XVI. STATE FINANCE	
Yearly Comparison of State Finance—1940 Budget—Summary of State Revenue and Expenditure—National Loans—Taxation System—Maritime Customs—State Monopoly System	734-744
XVII. BANKING AND CURRENCY	
Deposits and Loans of Finance Organs—Bank Deposits—Bank Loans—The Central Bank of Manchou—Industrial Bank of Manchou—Ordinary Domestic Banks—Japanese Banks—Chinese Banks—Occidental Banks—People's Monetary Organs—Pawnshops Monetary Advances to Industries—Postal Savings—Money Rate—Clearing-house—Insurance Business—Currency—Note Issue and Amount of Reserves—Gold Purchase—Exchange Business—Foreign Exchange Rate—Exchange Control Law	745-760
XVIII. COMMERCE	
Introductory Remarks—Commercial Organs—Chamber of Commerce and Industry—Trade Marks—Exchanges—Commodity Market—Warehousing—Condition of Corporations—Number and Amount of Capital of Cos.—Cos. Classified By Business—Revision in Management Policy of Special Concerns—Rationalization of Business—Enterprises of Special Corporation—Principal Companies in Manchuria—Activity of Minor Manchu Merchants and Industrialists—Weights and Measures—Commodity Prices	761-779
XIX. COMMUNICATIONS	
Telegraph & Telephone—Radio Broadcasting—Statistics of Post Office—Manchuria Telegraph and Telephone Co.	780-787
XX. TRANSPORTATION	
Roads—Motor Bus Transportation—Number of Cars—River Transportation—Principal River Ports—Number of Registered Vessels—Air Transportation—Principal Airlines and Time Tables—Hotels	788-800
XXI. MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES—I	
General Remarks—Statistics of Factories in Manchuria—Capital Investments—Textile Industry—Chemical Industry—Bean Oil & Cake—Foodstuffs and Drinks—Sugar—Flour	801-817
XXII. MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES—II	
Electric and Gas Industries—Recent Power Projects—Sungari Power Plant—Statistics of Power Generation—Power Consumption—Machinery and Engineering—Machine Tools, etc.—Import of Machinery and Tools, Vehicles, etc.—Principal Machinery and Metal-ware Cos.—Motor Car Industry—Tobacco—Hides & Leather Industry	818-828

Chapter	Page
XXIII. SANITATION	
Public Health Organization—Medical Institutes and Physicians—People's Welfare Hospitals—Public Hospitals—Statistics of Epidemics—Nutrition—Foreign Medical Institutions—Opium Smoking—Narcotic Stations	829-835
XXIV. PRINCIPAL CITIES	
Anshan—Antung—Chiamussu—Chinchow—Dairen—Fuhsin—Tsitsihar—Harbin—Hsinking—Kirin—Liaoyang—Mukden—Mutankiang—Penhsifu—Ryojun—Ssuningkai—Tiehling—Tsitsihar—Yenki—Yingkow	836-844
XXV. LABOR	
Immigration Movement—Sources of Chinese Labor—The Coolies—Living Condition of Laborer—Organized and Individual Immigration—Wages—Indices of Cost of Living—Labor—Hours—Labor Disputes	845-854
XXVI. SOUTH MANCHURIA RAILWAY COMPANY	
Introductory Remarks—Early History—S.M.R. Lines—Co.'s Finance—General Balance Sheet—Business Results for the Year Ending March, 1940—Varied Undertakings	855-860
XXVII. ECONOMIC POLICY	
General Survey—Law Controlling Important Industries—Five-Year Industrial Plan—The Revised Five-Year Plan—Capital Resources—Results of Third Year of the Five Year Plan—Results for 1940—Japanese Investments—Position of Japanese Companies in Manchuria—Foreign Investment—Manchuria Industrial Development Corp.	861-872
XXVIII. KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY	
Geographical Position and Area—Administration—Defence Services—Finance—Education—Religion—Agriculture—Sericulture—Stock-breeding—Fishery—Manufacturing Industry—Dairen Customs—Communication System	873-877
XXIX. LAWS, TREATIES	
The Constitution of Japan—Index of Texts of Important Treaties, Laws, Regulations and Statements Appearing in Previous Issues of Publications ...	878-881

SUPPLEMENT

JAPAN'S ECONOMIC POSITION IN CHINA	
General Outlook—Basic Treaty Between Japan and China—Japan's Policy for the Economic Development of North China—Establishment of North China Development Co.—Central China Development Company—Foreign Investment—National Railways—Statistics of Foreign Trade—Maritime Customs Revenue—Cotton Production—Coal Production—Mineral Output—Iron and Pig Iron	882-894

APPENDIX

JAPANESE GOVERNMENT SERVICE DIRECTORY	895-903
DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SERVICES	904-912
WHO'S WHO	915-1038
BUSINESS DIRECTORY	1055-1133
KONZERNs IN JAPAN	1134-1176
BIBLIOGRAPHY	1177-1196
LEARNED AND SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS	1197-1203

Chapter	Page
INDEX	
ADVERTISERS	1204
BUSINESS DIRECTORY	1040
GENERAL	1205

MAP and DIAGRAMS

Air Route Map of Japan, Manchoukuo and China	204-5
Manchoukuo Railway Map	674-5
Diagrams	1-12

INDEX

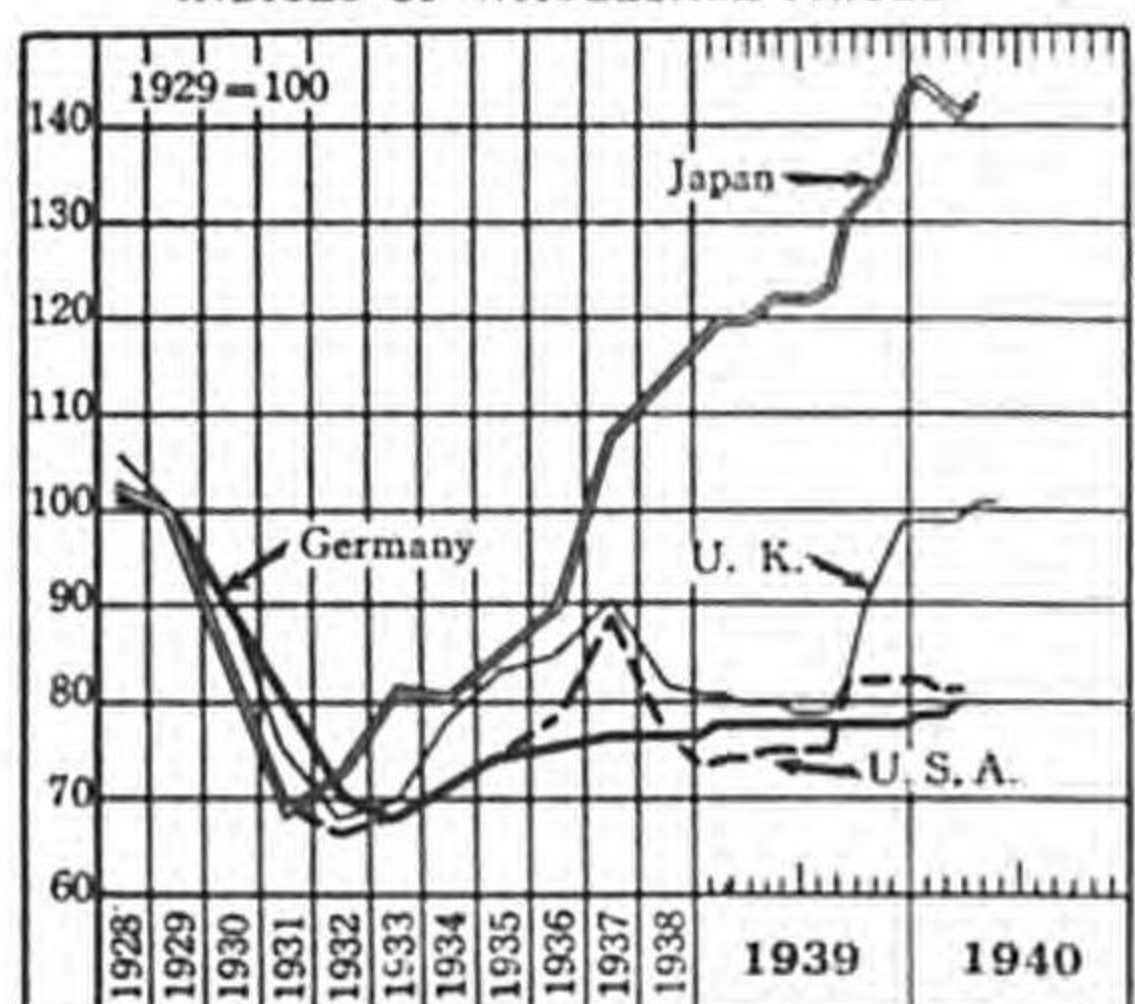
MAP and DIAGRAMS

SUPPLEMENT

APPENDIX

International Economic Comparisons

INDICES OF WHOLESALE PRICES



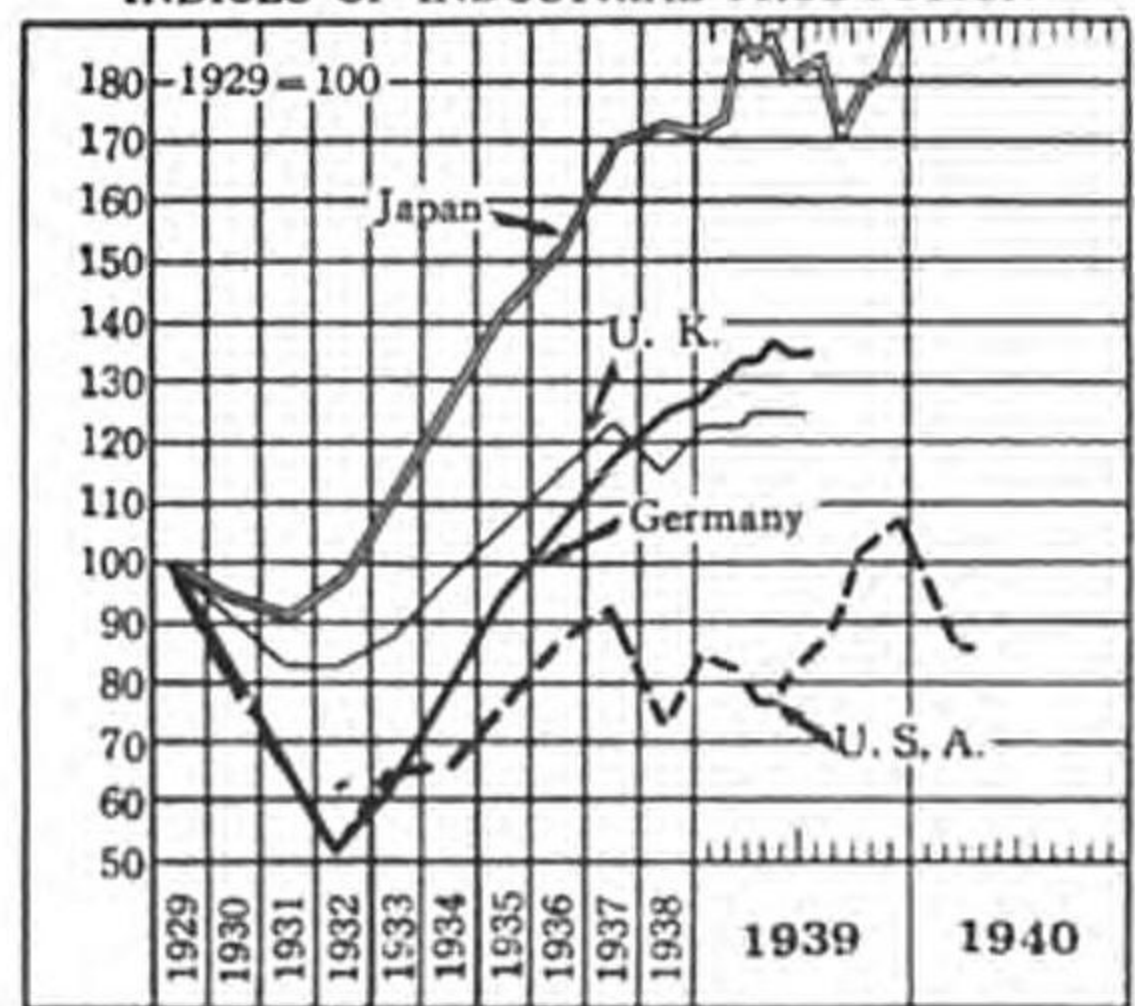
Sources: Bank of Japan (Japan)
Monthly Bulletin of Statistics,
League of Nations (U.S.A. U.K. & Germany)

INDICES OF MARKET VALUE OF INDUSTRIAL SHARES



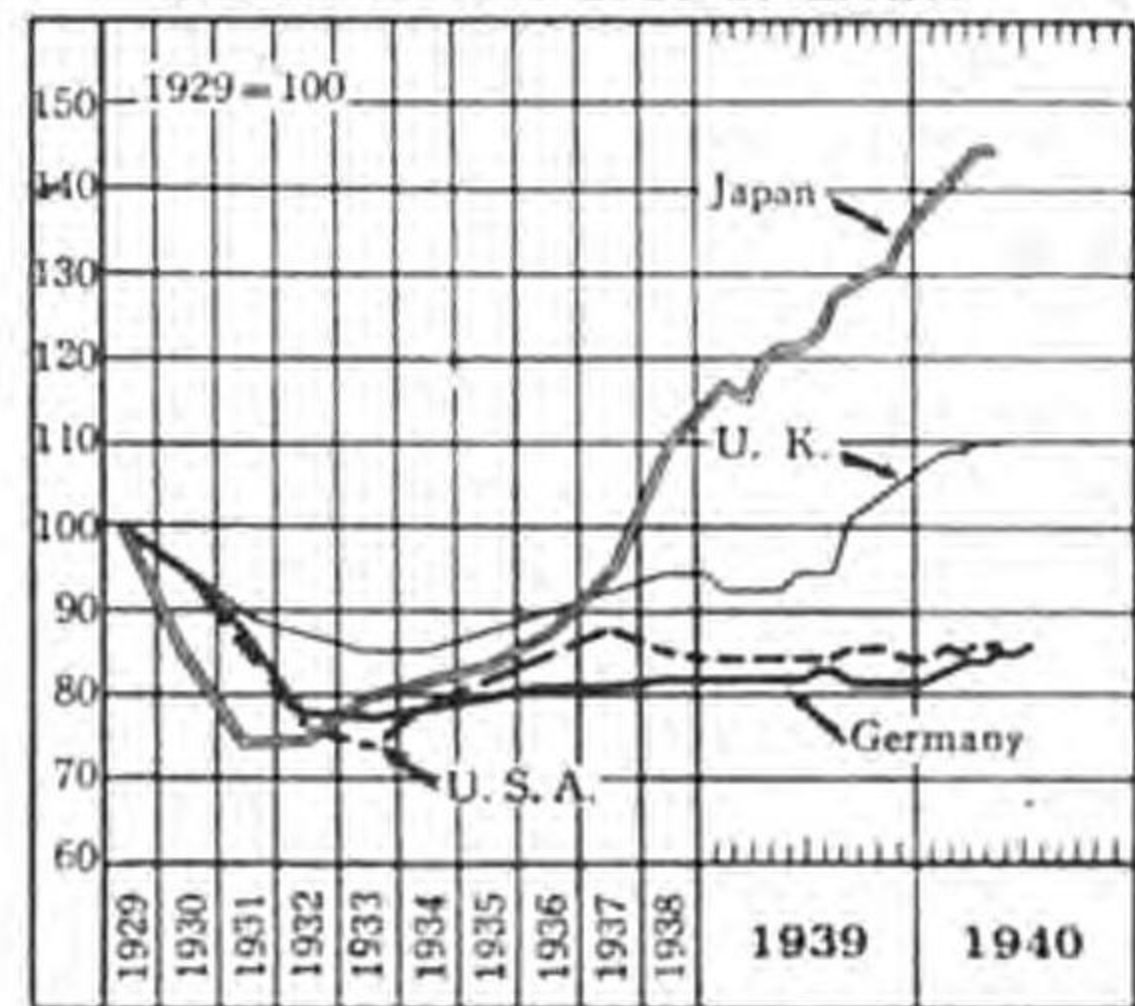
Sources: Mitsubishi Economic Research Bureau (Japan)
Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, League of Nations
(U.S.A. U.K. & Germany)

INDICES OF INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION



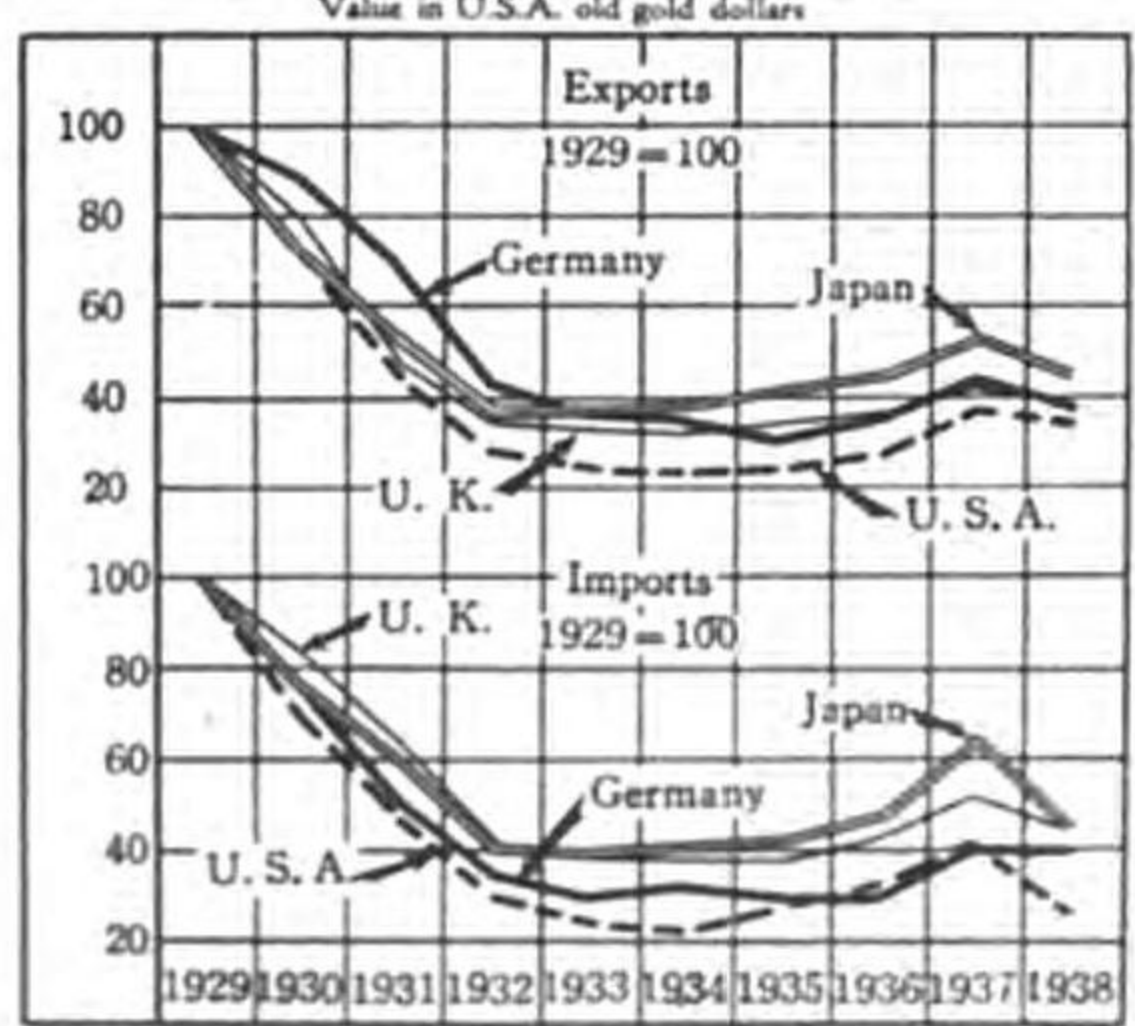
Sources: Dept. of Commerce & Industry (Japan)
Monthly Bulletin of Statistics,
League of Nations (U.S.A. U.K. & Germany)

INDICES OF THE COST OF LIVING



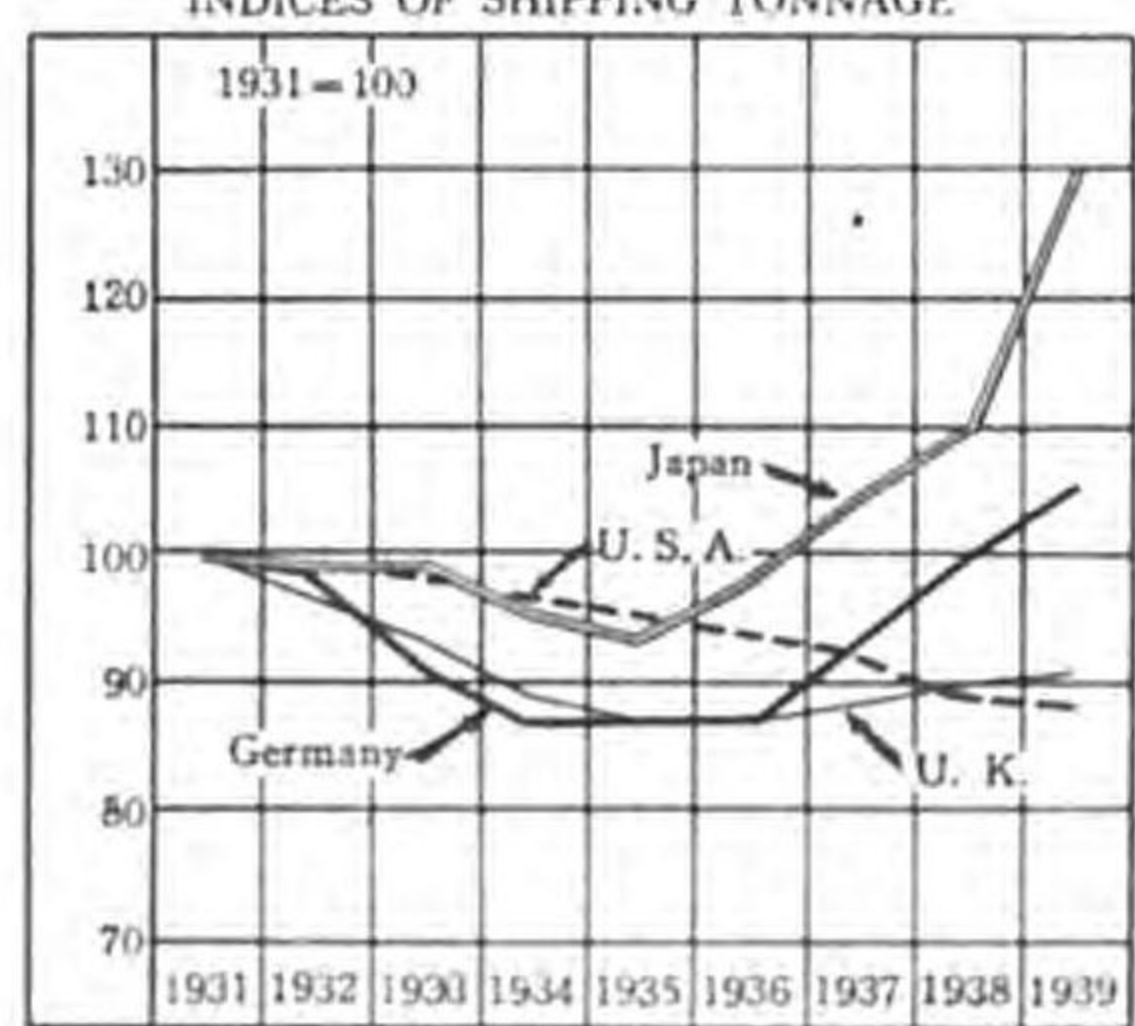
Sources: Bank of Japan (Japan)
Monthly Bulletin of Statistics,
League of Nations (U.S.A. U.K. & Germany)

INDICES OF FOREIGN TRADE



Source: Review of World Trade

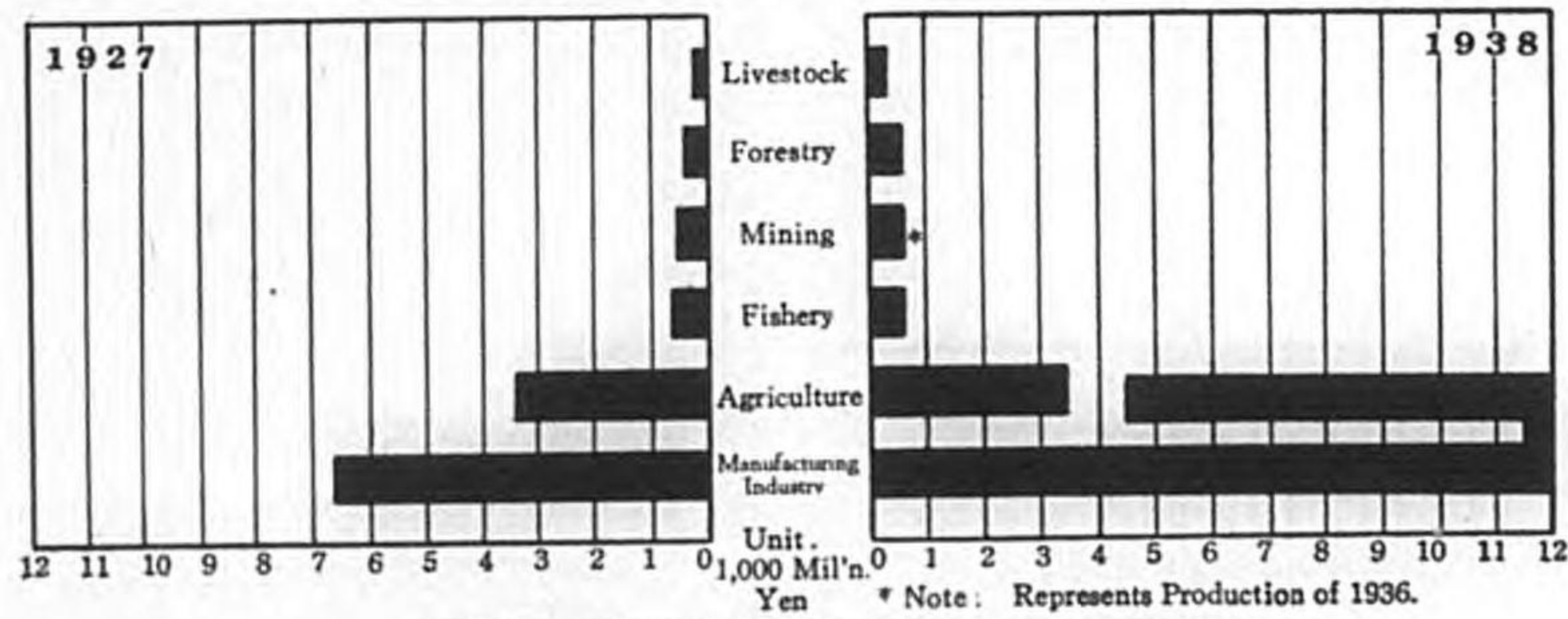
INDICES OF SHIPPING TONNAGE



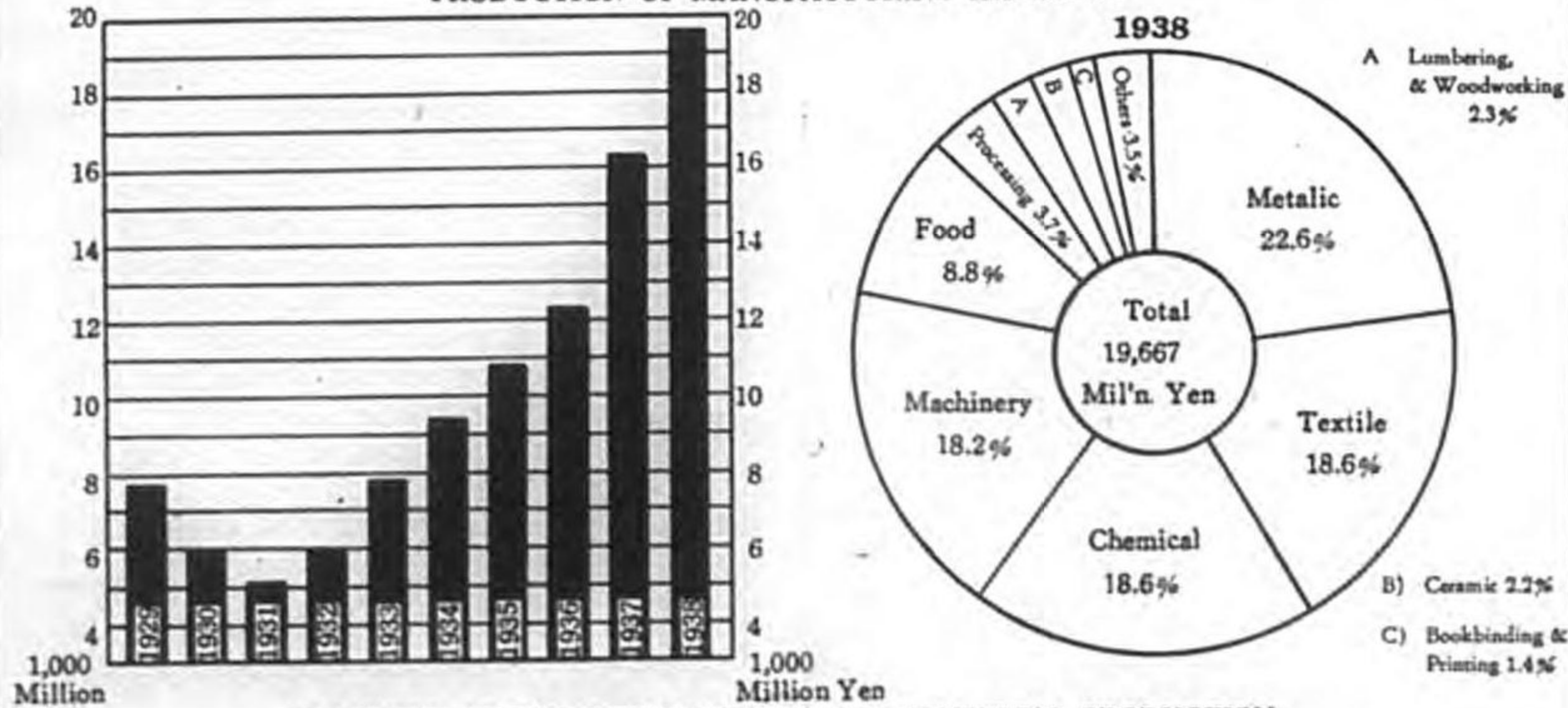
Source: Lloyd's Register of Shipping

Production in Japan

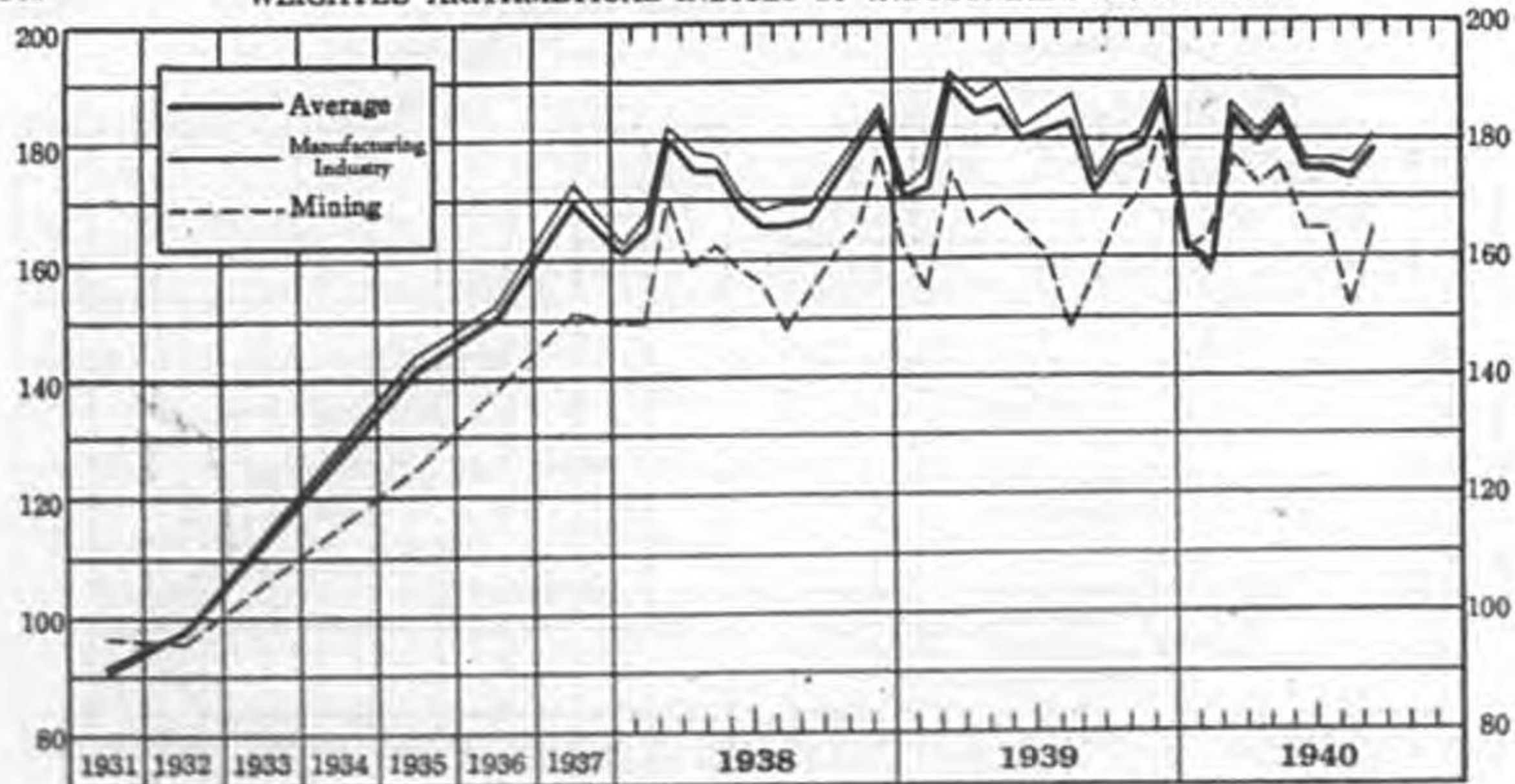
VALUE OF PRODUCTION BY INDUSTRIES IN JAPAN



PRODUCTION OF MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY

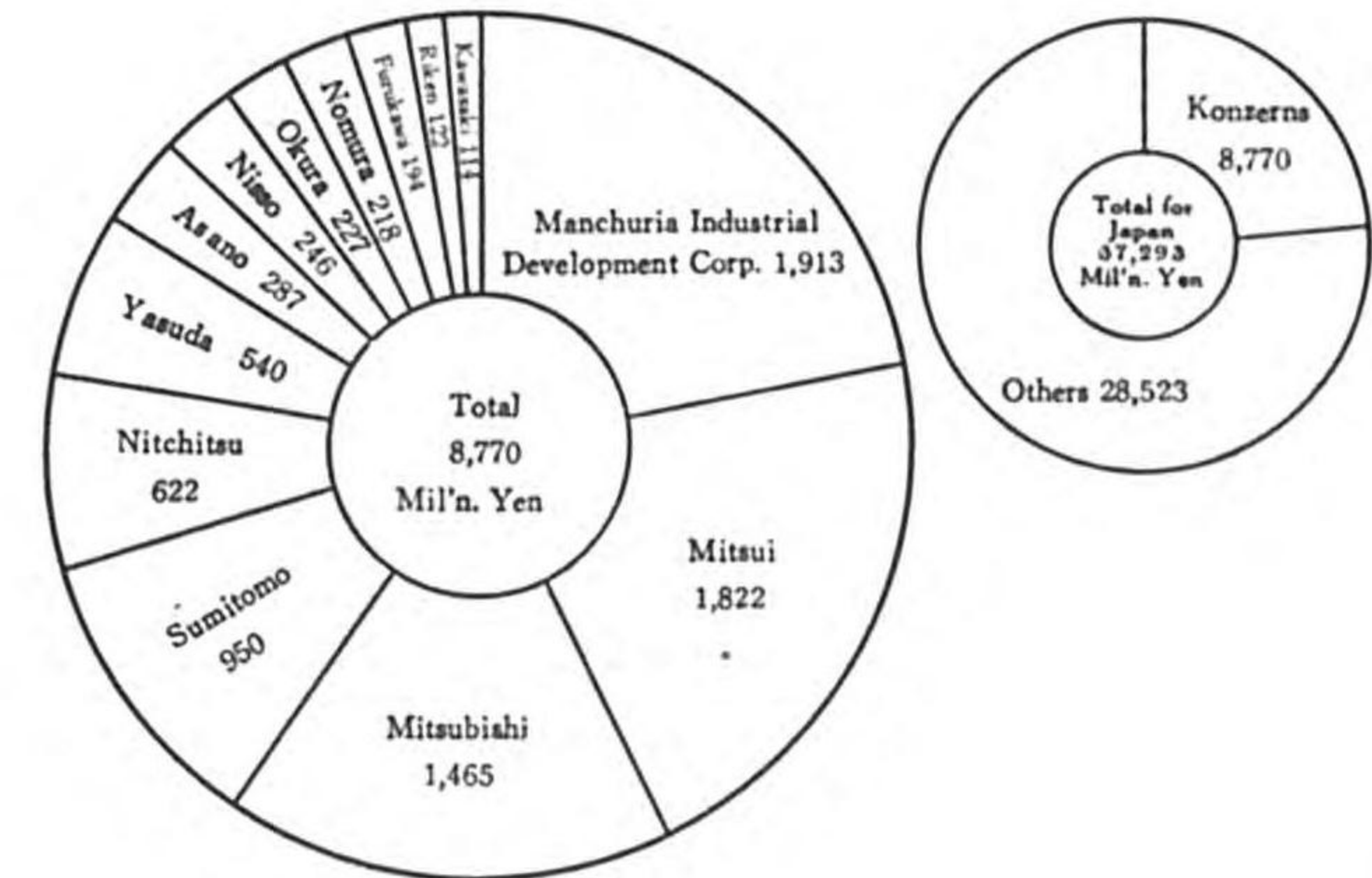


WEIGHTED ARITHMETICAL INDICES OF INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION

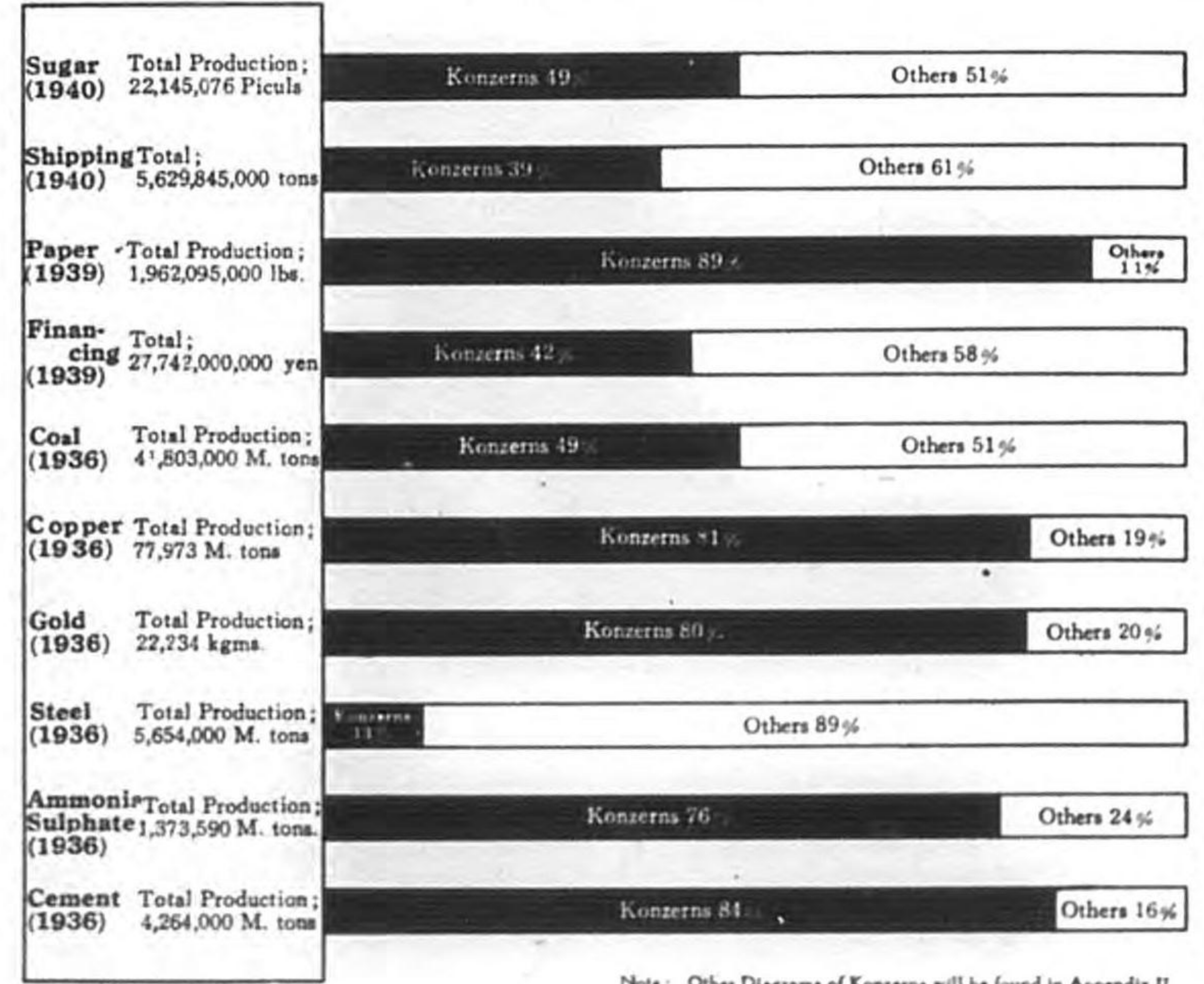


POSITION OF 13 KONZERNs IN JAPAN'S ECONOMIC STRUCTURE

Paid-up Capital of Konzerns (June, 1940)

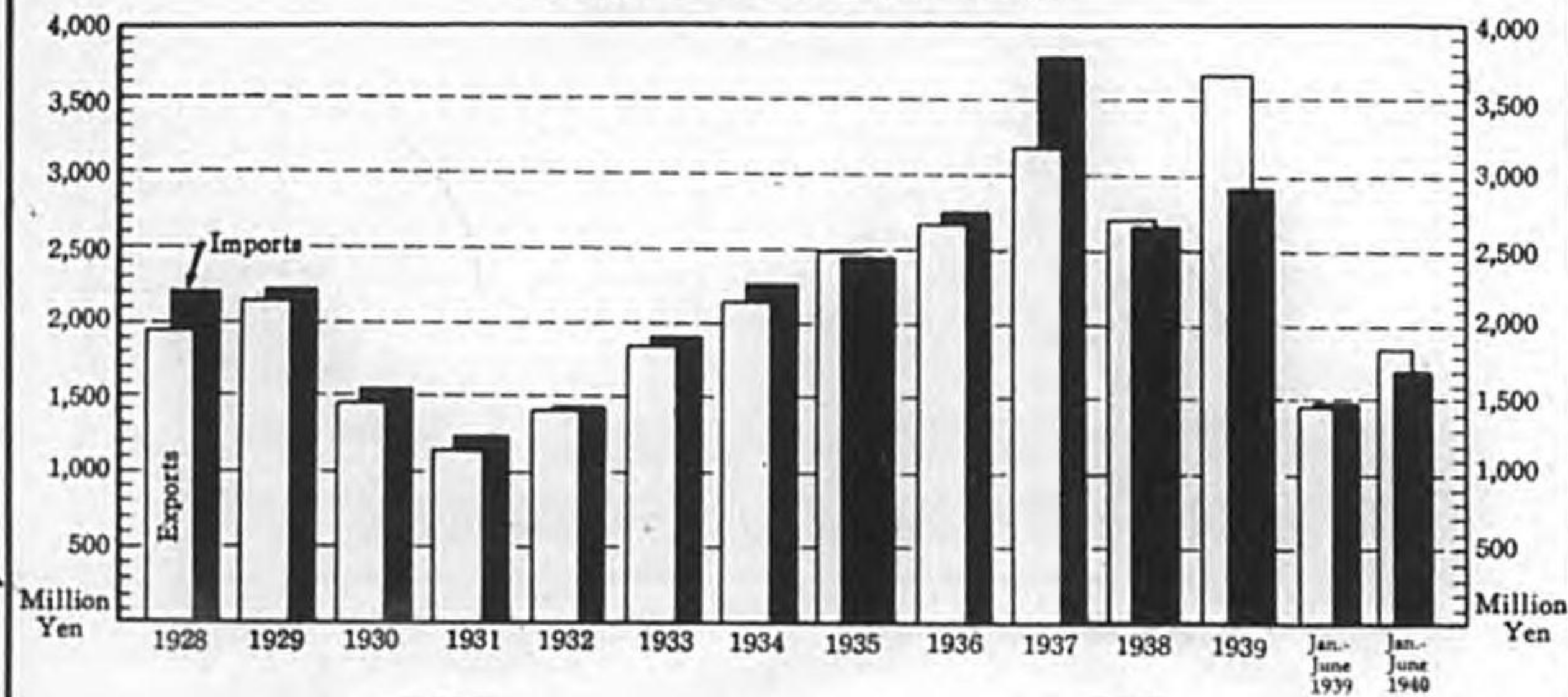


Position in Industries and Financing Resources of Entire Japan

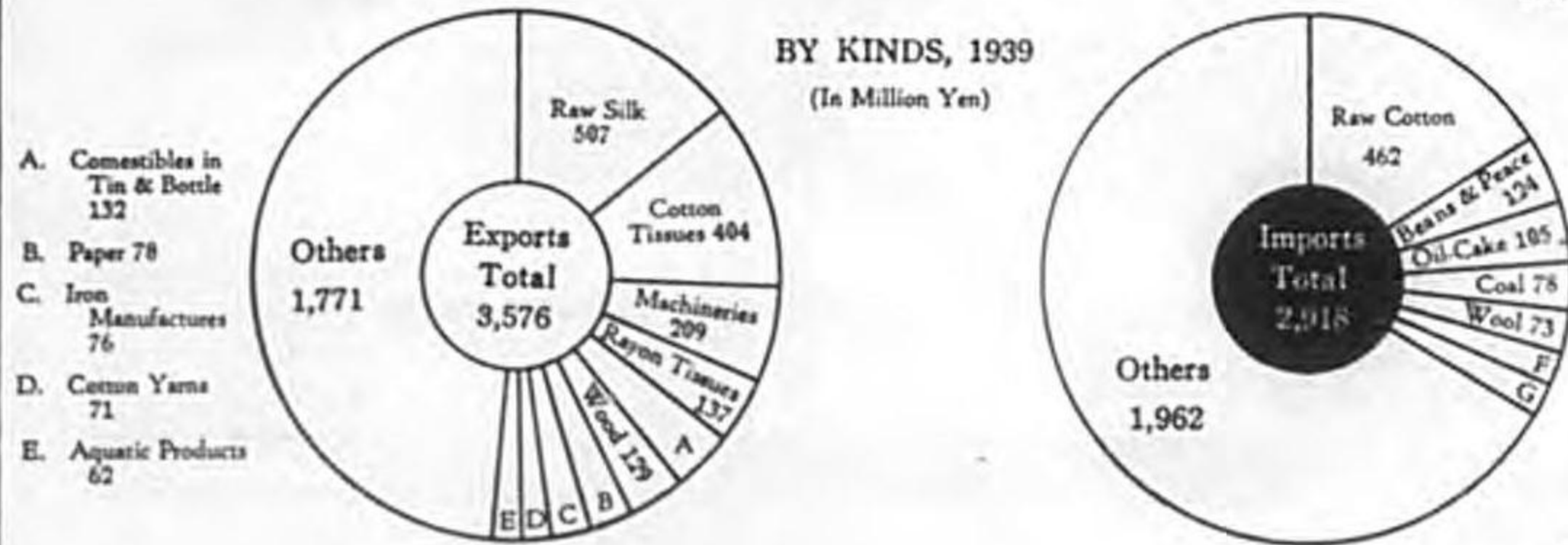


Note: Other Diagrams of Konzerns will be found in Appendix II

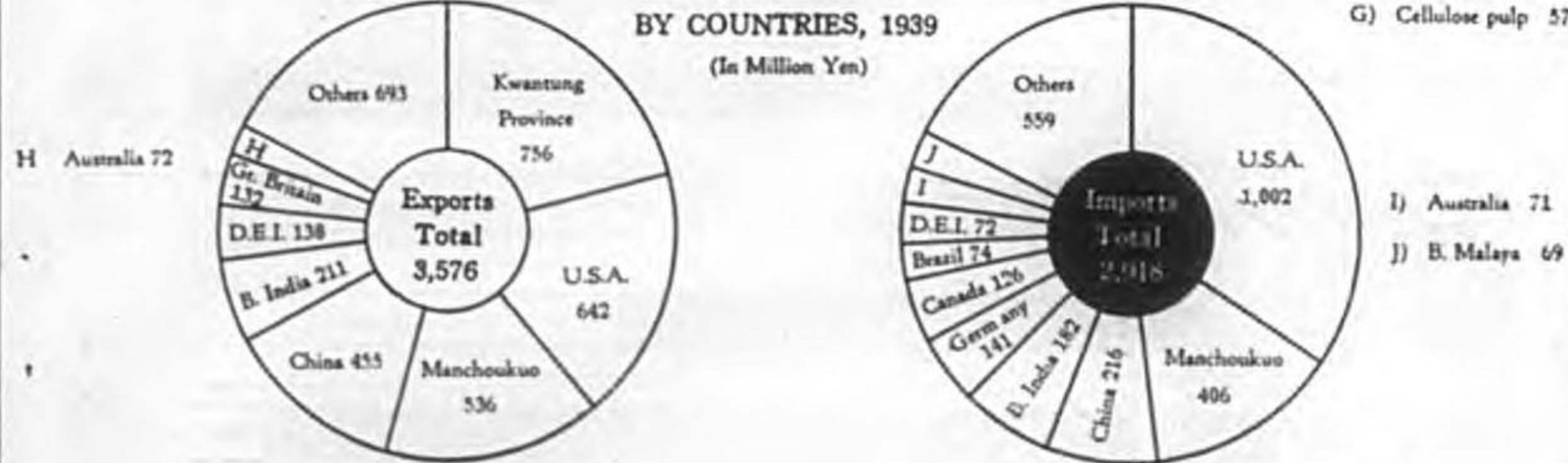
Foreign Trade of Japan Proper



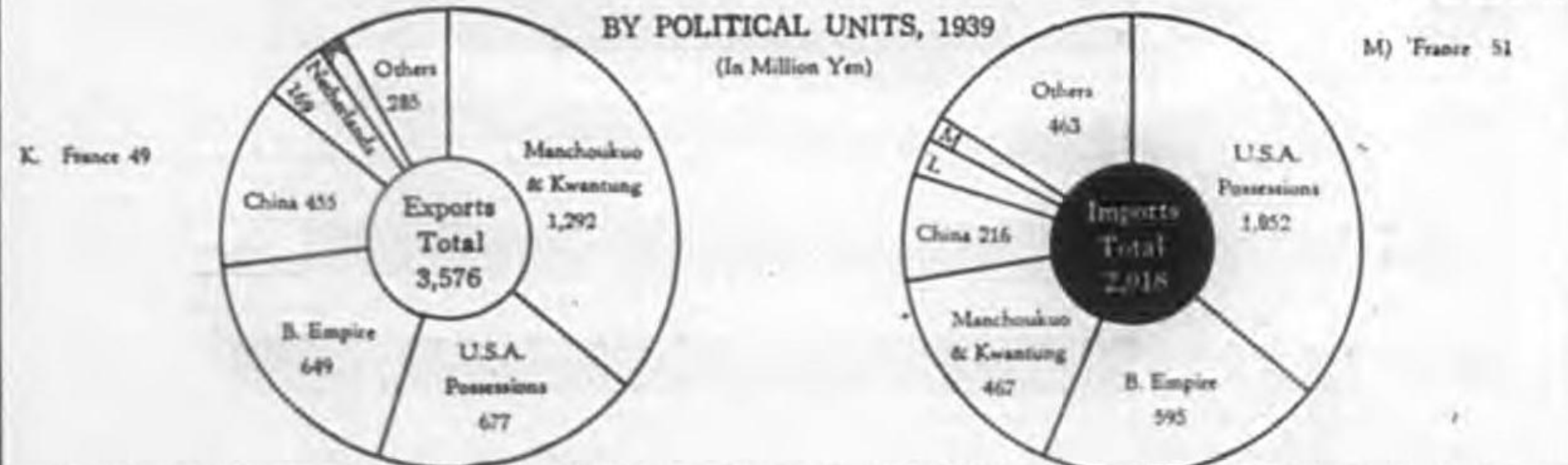
BY KINDS, 1939
(In Million Yen)



BY COUNTRIES, 1939
(In Million Yen)



BY POLITICAL UNITS, 1939
(In Million Yen)



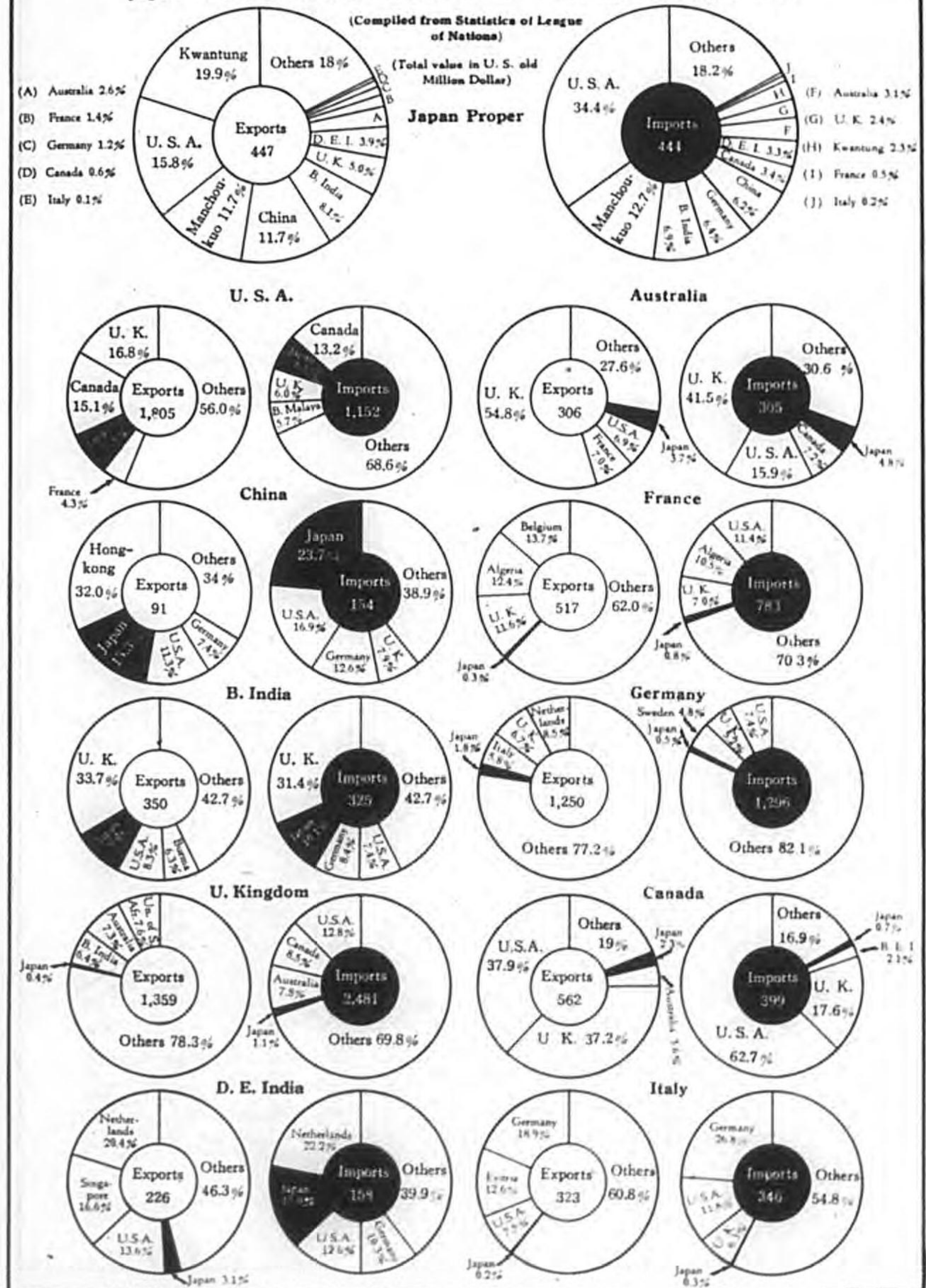
- A. Comestibles in Tin & Bottle 132
- B. Paper 78
- C. Iron Manufactures 76
- D. Cotton Yarns 71
- E. Aquatic Products 62

- F. Crude india rubber etc. 57
- G. Cellulose pulp 57

- I. Australia 71
- J. B. Malaya 69

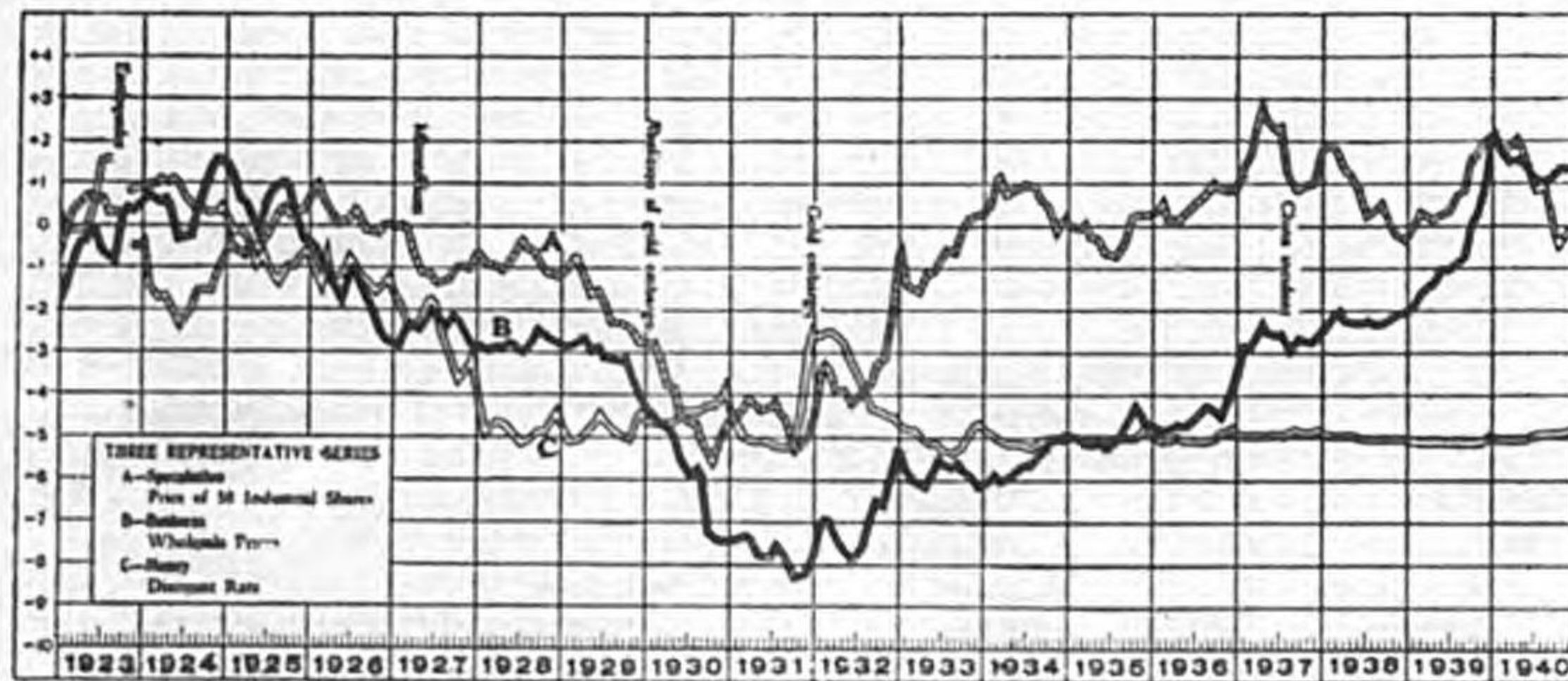
- L. Netherlands 74
- M. France 51

Japan's Position in the Foreign Trade of Leading Countries, 1938



Economic Barometers of Japan

GENERAL INDEX CHART



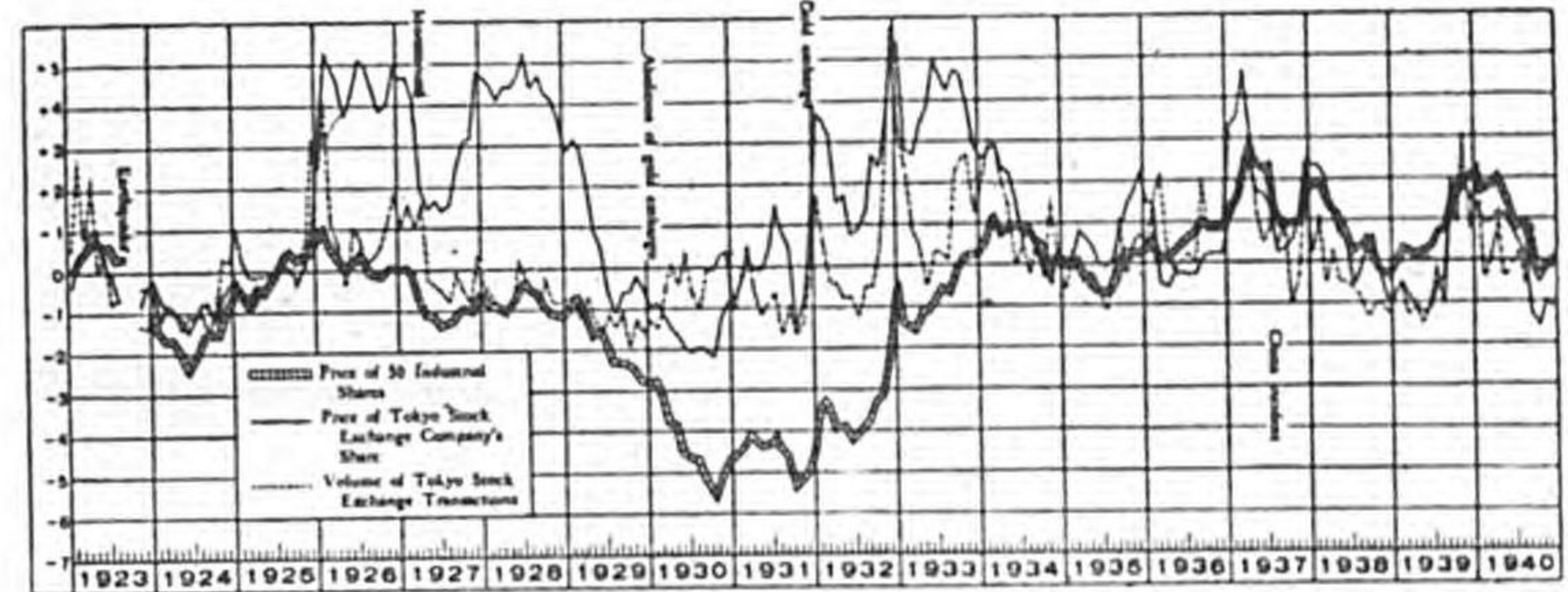
	Bank Clearings				Banking					
	Tokyo and Osaka		Whole country		All banks (a)			Commercial banks		
	¥ million	%	¥ million	%	Deposits	Advances	Bills discounted	Deposits	Advances	Excess of deposits over advances
1921-25 Average	4,831	100	6,191	100	10,347.1	9,790.7	1,051.1	7,757.7	6,303.1	1,454.6
1922 (Average)	3,516	73	4,405	71	11,078.7	9,350.9	1,070.3	8,378.1	6,040.3	2,337.8
1923	4,148	86	5,368	87	11,422.0	9,933.9	1,213.2	8,720.7	6,892.3	1,828.4
1924	4,015	83	5,222	85	12,416.0	8,376.1	1,211.2	9,040.4	5,921.6	3,118.8
1925	4,365	90	5,821	94	13,283.2	9,177.5	1,266.2	10,223.6	6,795.8	3,427.8
1926	5,357	111	7,106	115	14,690.3	10,220.8	1,702.4	11,508.2	7,258.0	4,250.2
1927	5,494	113	7,175	116	17,083.5	11,367.1	2,341.5	13,401.2	8,004.5	5,396.7
1928	6,724	139	8,929	144	21,288.6	13,206.9	2,561.0	16,726.4	9,693.9	7,032.5
1929 Dec.	6,918	143	9,090	147	19,117.0	12,222.6	2,475.7	16,641.9	8,715.8	6,367.1
1930 Jan.	4,352	90	5,936	96	18,991.9	12,182.0	2,398.4	14,909.4	8,701.5	6,207.9
Feb.	5,410	112	7,132	116	19,170.9	12,265.5	2,398.5	15,031.3	8,787.9	6,243.4
Mar.	6,480	134	8,493	137	19,465.9	12,382.1	2,402.9	15,296.7	8,966.8	6,329.9
Apr.	6,577	136	8,555	139	19,547.6	12,394.4	2,392.0	15,407.4	9,008.4	6,399.0
May	6,383	132	8,555	138	20,357.0	12,473.3	2,382.6	16,011.6	9,599.2	6,412.4
June	6,364	132	8,454	137	21,253.3	12,962.1	2,476.7	16,914.8	9,799.2	6,912.4
July	6,772	140	8,965	145	21,251.9	13,137.2	2,527.7	16,715.4	9,678.2	7,037.2
Aug.	6,507	135	8,656	140	21,636.2	13,409.9	2,545.2	16,959.7	9,918.2	7,041.5
Sept.	7,707	160	10,108	163	22,114.4	13,734.9	2,654.5	17,348.6	10,178.5	7,170.1
Oct.	7,474	155	9,861	159	22,803.1	14,089.6	2,738.5	17,923.1	10,521.6	7,401.5
Nov.	7,794	161	10,431	168	23,549.8	14,413.9	2,810.5	18,429.1	10,810.1	7,619.0
Dec.	9,957	204	13,151	213	26,091.7	15,028.1	3,056.1	19,793.6	11,152.3	8,641.3
1931 Jan.	7,303	149	9,969	160	24,337.4	14,996.7	3,082.1	19,150.2	11,110.4	8,044.8
Feb.	7,308	151	9,798	158	24,706.5	15,151.4	3,042.2	19,290.2	11,248.9	8,041.3
Mar.	7,943	164	10,544	170	24,961.5	15,446.7	3,169.3	19,528.8	11,522.3	7,986.5
Apr.	8,102	168	10,751	174	25,408.2	15,760.5	3,231.1	20,044.2	11,766.8	8,277.4
May	9,118	189	12,012	194	26,138.1	15,915.1	3,263.3	20,546.6	11,876.1	8,670.5
June	8,410	174	11,047	178	27,491.8	16,533.9	3,240.2	21,083.4	12,308.5	8,774.9
July	8,142	169	11,968	194	26,912.6	16,698.4	3,279.4	20,183.4	12,390.1	7,793.3
Aug.	8,771	182	11,256	182	27,664.9	16,326.4	3,238.8	21,471.4	12,577.8	8,893.6
Sept.	7,325	156	9,914	160	27,505.7	17,072.9	3,301.6	21,819.1	12,658.8	9,160.3
Oct.	8,306	170	10,710	173	28,252.4	17,171.4	3,303.9	21,819.1	12,658.8	9,160.3
Nov.	7,999	166	10,469	169	28,981.7	17,481.7	3,314.1	22,413.8	12,905.6	9,508.2
Dec.	10,580	219	14,469	233	31,189.8	18,371.1	3,638.4	24,389.5	13,563.9	10,825.6

(a) Excluding Bank of Japan.

(Prepared by Mitsubishi Economic Research Bureau)

Economic Barometers of Japan

SPECULATION



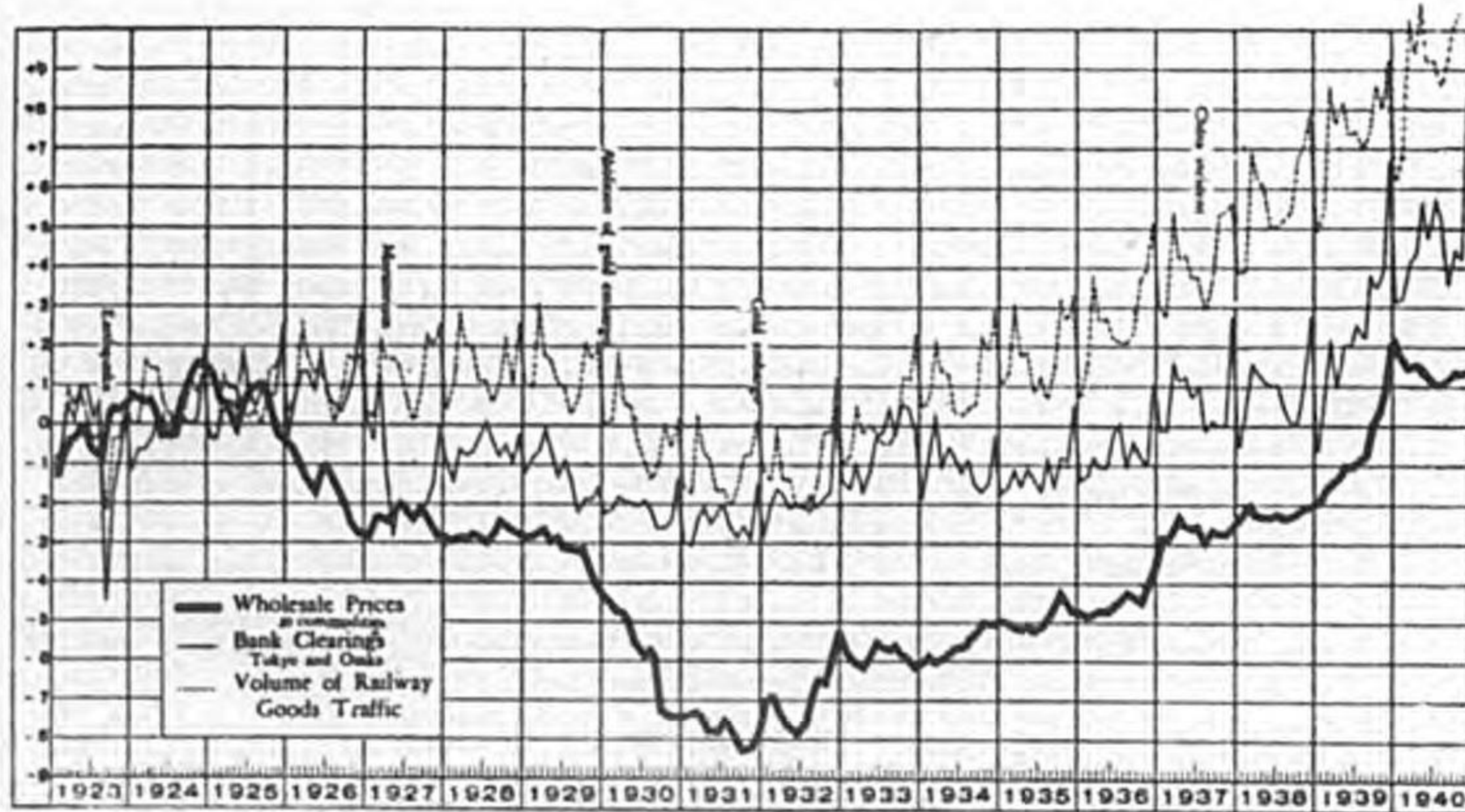
	Average Price of 50 Industrial Shares		Price of Tokyo Stock Exchange Company's Share		Tokyo Stock Exchange Long-term Transactions (Daily average)		Price of Government Bonds (Average yield during the month)		Average Yield (Average yield during the month)				
	yen	%	yen	%	shares	%	5% ("Kogo")	4% (1st series)	Stocks	Company debentures	National bonds	%	%
							yen	yen	%	%	%	%	%
1921-25 Average	72.15	100	128.60	100	122,875	100	86.44	75.36	18.70	18.32*	100	14.14*	100
1922 (Average)	46.05	65	163.05	127	146,641	121	92.50	9.71	16.01	16.876	80	15.390	91
1923	68.19	95	182.56	142	184,680	150	100.72	93.50	15.03	15.961	70	14.312	74
1924	78.50	109	146.76	114	176,923	144	104.98	99.03	14.90	14.961	64	14.594	74
1925	71.94	100	130.43	108	120,562	98	103.95	96.80	11.58	11.595	59	14.490	73
1926	77.71	108	130.74	102	154,906	129	101.76	101.31	11.39	11.391	64	14.456	68
1927	87.06	121	147.76	115	198,560	162	101.28	101.53	13.31	13.311	61	14.403	62
1928	78.91	109	136.11	107	175,724	144	103.29	102.53	5.64	5.641	51	14.306	63
1929	79.50	110	129.33	101	122,786	100	104.50	103.22	5.39	5.391	51	14.311	62
1929 December	70.25	97	116.41	91	71,337	58	105.62	103.00	5.93	5.931	68	14.343	62
1930 January	72.64	101	118.33	92	91,353	74	103.51	102.01	5.81	5.811	67	14.389	61
February	75.56	105	122.03	95	136,825	87	103.71	103.08	5.68	5.681	61	14.334	61
March	74.94	104	117.92	92	68,980	56	103.77	103.03	5.64	5.641	65	14.332	62
April	74.02	103	114.96	89	78,400	64	103.91	103.02	5.64	5.641	65	14.323	61
May	74.70	104	112.53	88	60,737	49	104.07	103.00	5.62	5.621	64	14.320	61
June	75.46	105	113.18	89	80,258	65	104.35	103.13	5.53	5.531	62	14.305	62
July	78.34	109	120.97	94	114,735	97	104.70	103.13	5.38	5.381	61	14.321	61
August	75.94	106	123.45	96	81,630	66	104.83	103.49	5.12	5.121	61	14.307	61
September	84.98	118	131.57	116	207,603	169	105.10	103.53	5.08	5.081	58	14.301	62
October	86.28	120	134.54	120	163,593	133	105.36	103.53	4.96	4.961	57	14.300	62
November	85.54	123	135.54	121	257,040	209	105.30	103.27	4.96	4.961	57	14.313	62
December	89.56	124	149.76	117	158,259	129	105.30	103.22	4.94	4.941	57	14.361	62
1931 January	89.90	125	146.08	114	225,472	184	105.86	103.54	4.91	4.911	56	14.322	61
February	86.86	120	140.88	110	119,915	90	105.99	103.68	5.01	5.011	58	14.320	62
March	88.07	122	141.26	110	134,476	109	106.13	103.72	4.93	4.931	57	14.320	62
April	89.67	124	144.85	113	164,779	134	106.68	103.75	4.91	4.911	56	14.340	61
May	87.47	121	142.29	111	110,316	90	106.98	103.79	4.97	4.971	57	14.344	61
June	83.46	116	139.37	108	119,646	87	107.14	103.79	5.08	5.081	58	14.345	61
July	79.51	110	134.43	105	132,188	107	106.96	103.81	5.33	5.331	61	14.351	61
August	80.33	111	130.05	101	100,427	81	105.17	103.79	5.38	5.381	62	14.351	62
September	75.52	105	111.61	87	159,601	129	104.76	103.19	5.51	5.511	64	14.354	61
October	69.73	97	107.68	84	123,687	101	103.85	102.20	6.91	6.911	69	14.307	61
November	72.06	99	116.32	91	120,330	98	102.69	102.36	5.96	5.961	67	14.307	61
December	71.80	98	113.41	88	129,171	104	104.21	102.20	5.77	5.771	65	14.350	61

* Jan.-June, 1921, excluded. † At the beginning of the month. ‡ Preliminary.

(Prepared by Mitsubishi Economic Research Bureau)

Economic Barometers of Japan

BUSINESS



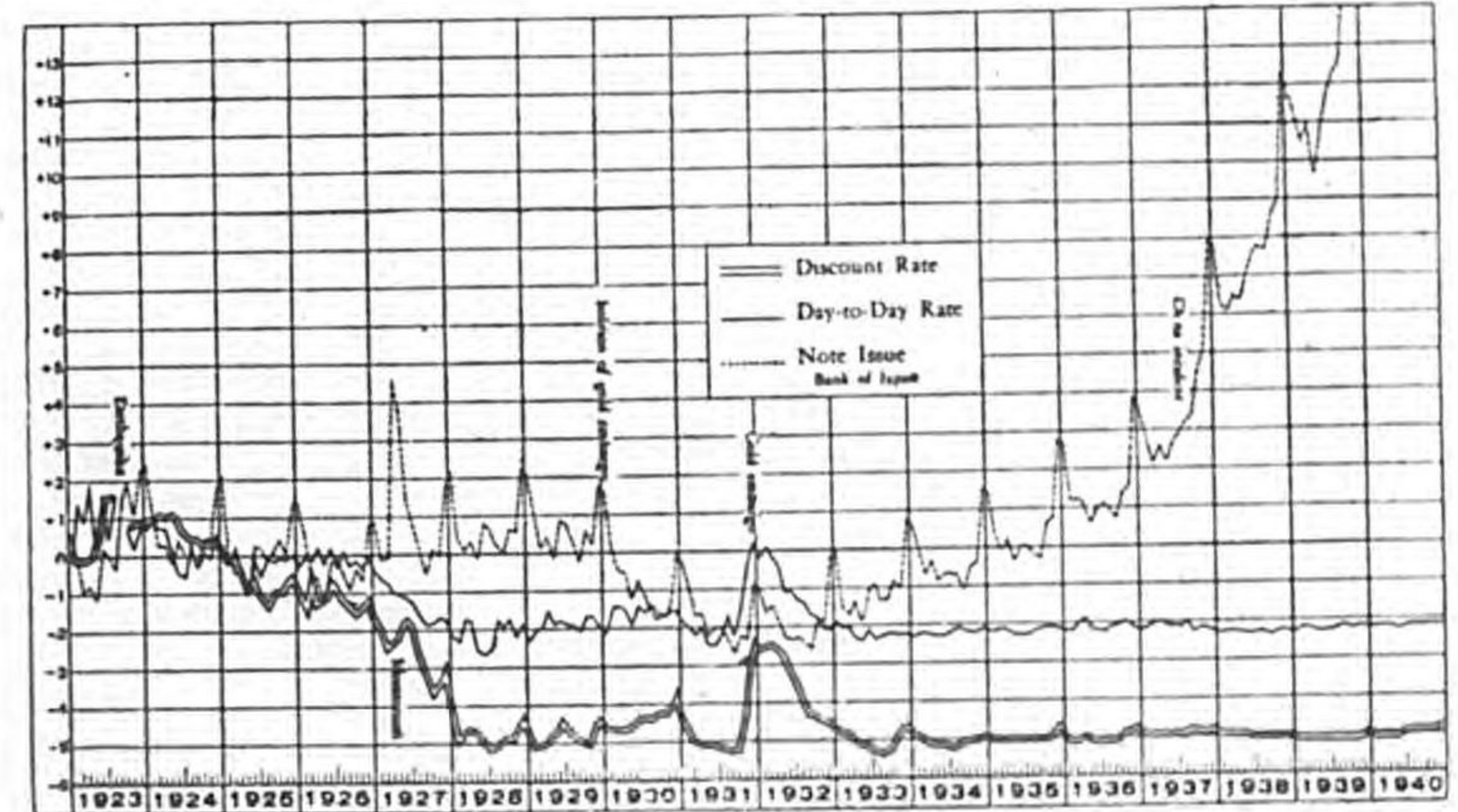
	Wholesale Price Index (a) (Weighted Average for 1923-14=100)			Retail Price Index (a) (July, 1914=100)					Cost of Living Index (b) (July, 1937=100)		Labour Indices (a) (Average for 1926=100)		
	General (20 art.)	Producers' goods (10 art.)	Consumers' goods (10 art.)	General	Food	Fuel & Light	Clothing	Miscellaneous	Working class	Salary men	Actual earnings	Rate of wages	Employment
1922 (Average) ...	116	109	123	137	158	161	92	133			88.1	88.1	74.7
1923 ...	132	133	130	146	161	160	105	145			89.2	85.1	81.9
1924 ...	135	126	143	149	164	164	109	147			91.2	82.9	91.3
1925 ...	148	132	157	152	170	163	108	149			91.1	81.3	99.9
1926 ...	150	137	163	159	184	162	111	150			91.8	80.7	105.5
1927 ...	175	174	176	174	202	214	131	170			96.9	82.4	117.3
1928 ...	181	173	190	200	210	207	154	196			105.5	85.4	129.2
1929 ...	204	196	213	224	228	274	186	220			119.6	92.3	142.0
1929 Nov. ...	183.0	170.2	196.7	200.7	201	209	172	207	113.0	112.1	110.3	86.9	132.8
1929 Dec. ...	183.6	170.1	197.1	211.9	204	271	173	209	113.4	112.6	115.5	87.8	133.5
1929 Jan. ...	185.2	172.6	197.8	211.3	203	271	172	210	114.4	113.5	112.6	89.1	134.1
1929 Feb. ...	189.6	176.5	202.8	214.1	203	271	181	212	115.3	114.6	114.9	90.1	135.0
1929 Mar. ...	191.6	178.5	203.3	213.0	200	271	180	214	116.0	115.0	118.2	91.1	137.1
1929 Apr. ...	193.6	182.8	204.4	217.0	208	271	180	215	117.9	116.8	115.4	91.4	142.9
1929 May ...	198.0	191.3	204.7	221.0	205	271	182	217	119.5	116.4	115.4	91.9	143.5
1929 June ...	197.8	189.8	202.4	220.5	202	273	183	219	119.0	117.9	117.5	92.7	143.9
1929 July ...	199.4	191.4	207.4	220.5	202	273	183	219	120.8	119.7	117.1	93.9	143.8
1929 Aug. ...	201.3	193.3	213.3	222.7	205	275	183	222	122.5	121.2	118.0	94.6	143.9
1929 Sept. ...	211.9	207.9	216.0	222.3	201	275	183	225	124.3	122.7	119.9	95.7	144.7
1929 Oct. ...	216.4	214.5	218.6	224.9	205	276	184	226	125.3	123.3	121.5	95.5	144.8
1929 Nov. ...	225.9	218.1	223.8	226.7	206	282	186	226	128.9	126.8	123.7	96.4	144.9
1929 Dec. ...	240.4	226.5	244.4	246.3	203	283	186	231	130.7	128.5	129.2	97.1	144.8
1930 Jan. ...	242.5	240.8	244.2	247.4	279	283	186	233	133.3	131.2	130.1	99.3	144.9
1930 Feb. ...	236.5	229.8	242.2	250.6	276	283	186	243	136.8	134.6	130.1	99.6	143.5
1930 Mar. ...	233.1	225.5	240.6	254.4	278	286	209	246	139.1	136.8	132.2	99.6	143.7
1930 Apr. ...	233.6	223.4	243.8	259.3	280	286	206	254	143.4	140.5	129.7	98.5	142.2
1930 May ...	235.1	221.9	244.5	262.7	281	286	202	256	144.3	141.2	130.6	98.5	142.3
1930 June ...	233.7	215.7	243.7	262.7	280	286	202	256	146.6	142.8	132.3	99.3	148.1
1930 July ...	227.3	213.6	241.0	266.5	280	286	202	256	149.6	147.1	134.6	100.7	146.8
1930 Aug. ...	227.0	213.4	240.5	265.0	287	286	202	250	147.5	145.9	135.9	101.5	146.1
1930 Sept. ...	228.6	216.3	240.6	264.5	289	284	210	260	147.2	144.4	136.4	102.1	146.4
1930 Oct. ...	230.8	221.3	239.9	262.0	278	294	215	265	142.9	140.9	136.0	102.1	146.2
1930 Nov. ...	230.8	224.2	236.9	260.7	275	292	214	263	143.9	141.1			
1930 Dec. ...	231.3	225.8	236.9	261.1	276	292	214	263					
1931 Jan. ...			238.5	273	292	302	210	264					

(a) Based on the indices of the Bank of Japan. (b) Compiled by the Cabinet Bureau of Statistics.

(Prepared by Mitsubishi Economic Research Bureau)

Economic Barometers of Japan

MONEY

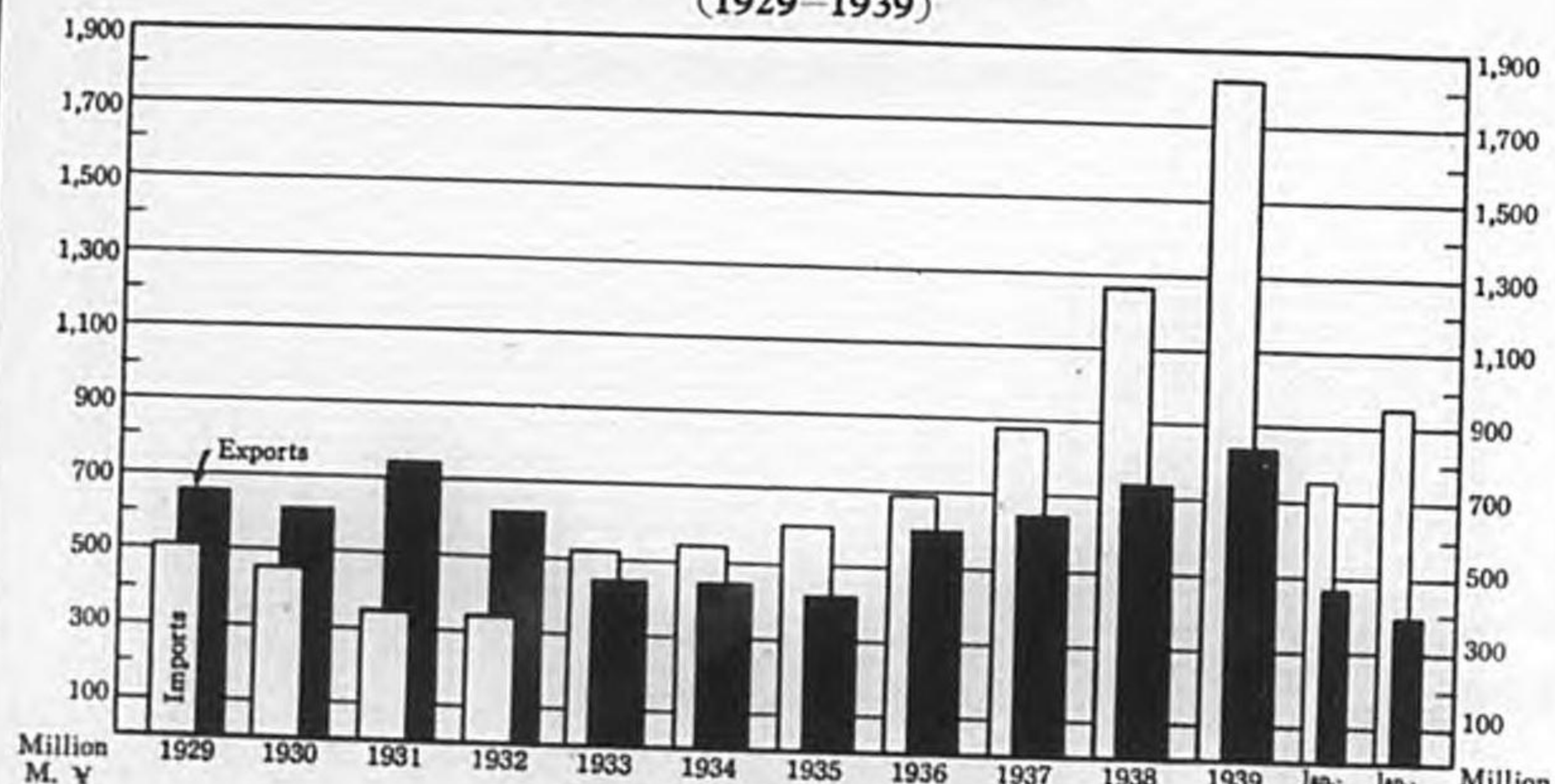


	Discount Rate		Day-to-Day Rate		Bank of Japan		Foreign Exchange *							
	Sen	% p.a.	Sen	% p.a.	Note Issue (Daily average) ¥ million	Advances & Dis- counts -Advances to Gov't excluded- (Daily average) ¥ million	Yokohama on New York (Average T. T.) ¥ per Old mint 100 par=100	Yokohama on London (Average T. T.) s.d. Mint per 100 = 100						
1921-25 Average ...	2.208	8.06	100	1.664	6.08	100	288.1	100	49.846	100	2/ 0.582	100		
1922 (Average) ...	1.419	5.18	64	1.183	4.32	71	1,041.1	86	774.1	269	28,066	66	1/ 7.128	7.8
1923 ...	1.097	3.86	48	0.690	2.32	41	1,114.4	93	706.6	245	25,292	61	1/ 2.488	6.9
1924 ...	1.099	3.79	47	0.693	2.49	41	1,178.5	98	707.3	246	26,587	60	1/ 2.140	6.6
1925 ...	1.062	3.88	48	0.695	2.54	42	1,247.5	104	704.7	245	28,565	58	1/ 2.047	6.7
1926 ...	1.054	3.85	48	0.734	2.68	44	1,340.3	111	673.5	244	28,976	58	1/ 2.060	6.7
1927 ...	1.078	3.94	49	0.718	2.62	43	1,536.4	128	621.8	234	28,717	58	1/ 1.962	6.7
1928 ...	1.058	3.86	48	0.642	2.34	39	1,919.3	159	486.2	169	28,444	57	1/ 2.060	6.7
1929 ...	1.037	3.79	47	0.675	2.46	41	2,376.1	197	473.2	164	25,985	52	1/ 2.084	6.7
1929 December ...	1.050	3.83	48	0.641	2.34	39	2,254.9	194	460.2	160	27,277	55	1/ 2.000	6.7
1929 January ...	1.038	3.79	47	0.624	2.31	38	2,296.6	191	438.6	152	27,229	55	1/ 2.000	6.7
1929 February ...	1.033	3.77	47	0.694	2.53	42	2,293.8	186	448.8	166	27,302	55	1/ 2.000	6.7
1929 March ...	1.033	3.77	47	0.682	2.49	41	2,178.1	181	436.3	151	27,309	55	1/ 2.000	6.7
1929 April ...	1.033	3.77	47	0.663	2.42	40	2,214.9	184	431.2	150	27,261	55	1/ 2.000	6.7
1929 May ...	1.033	3.77	47	0.663	2.31	38	2,660.6	174	418.5	145	27,295	55	1/ 2.000	6.7
1929 June ...	1.033	3.77	47	0.661	2.38	39	2,207.0	183	436.5	152	27,296	55	1/ 2.000	6.7
1929 July ...	1.033	3.77	47	0.663	2.42	40	2,296.7	190	431.3	150	27,279	55	1/ 2.000	6.7
1929 August ...	1.033	3.77	47	0.699	2.56	42	2,334.0	194	461.3	160	28,244	54	1/ 2.000	6.7
1929 September ...	1.033	3.77	47	0.700	2.56	42	2,358.8	196	452.3	157	28,500	47	1/ 2.000	6.7
1929 October ...	1.033	3.77	47	0.686	2.51	41	2,549.5	212	467.4	162	28,438	47	1/ 2.010	6.7
1929 November ...	1.026	3.78	47	0.700	2.56	42	2,542.6	219	470.9	164	28,438	47	1/ 2.023	6.8
1929 December ...	1.028	3.80	48	0.696	2.56	42	3,104.8	258	685.0	238	28,438	47	1/ 2.013	6.8
1930 January ...	1.051	3.84	48	0.690	2.52	42	3,133.0	260	732.1	254	28,438	47	1/ 2.177	6.8
1930 February ...	1.050	3.83	48	0.700	2.56	42	3,051.4	253	674.6	234	28,438	47	1/ 2.180	6.8
1930 March ...	1.050	3.83	48	0.706	2.58	42	3,011.8	250	684.8	238	28,438	47	1/ 2.025	6.1
1930 April ...	1.050	3.83	48	0.706	2.56	42	3,206.9	268	641.4	248	28,438	47	1/ 2.046	6.6
1930 May ...	1.050	3.83	48	0.696	2.51	41	3,189.7	268	620.2	181	28,438	47	1/ 2.146	7.0
1930 June ...	1.059	3.87	48	0.686	2.51	41	3,216.3	268	620.2	181	28,438	47	1/ 2.000	6.4
1930 July ...	1.075	3.92	49	0.700	2.56	42	3,206.0	278	730.7	254	28,438	47	1/ 2.780	6.0
1930 August ...	1.075	3.92	49	0.700	2.56	42	3,229.1	276	781.3	271	28,438	47	1/ 2.146	6.9
1930 September ...	1.075	3.92	49	0.700	2.56	42	3,303.9	274	821.9	283	28,438	47	1/ 2.000	6.7
1930 October ...	1.075	3.92	49	0.700	2.56	42	3,329.3	293	768.4	267	28,438	47	1/ 2.000	6.7
1930 November ...	1.080	3.94	49	0.700	2.56	42	3,349.7	296	612.3	213	28,438	47	1/ 2.000	6.7
1930 December ...	1.100	4.02	50	0.705	2.57	42	7,099.9	340	530.5	194	28,438	47	1/ 2.000	6.7

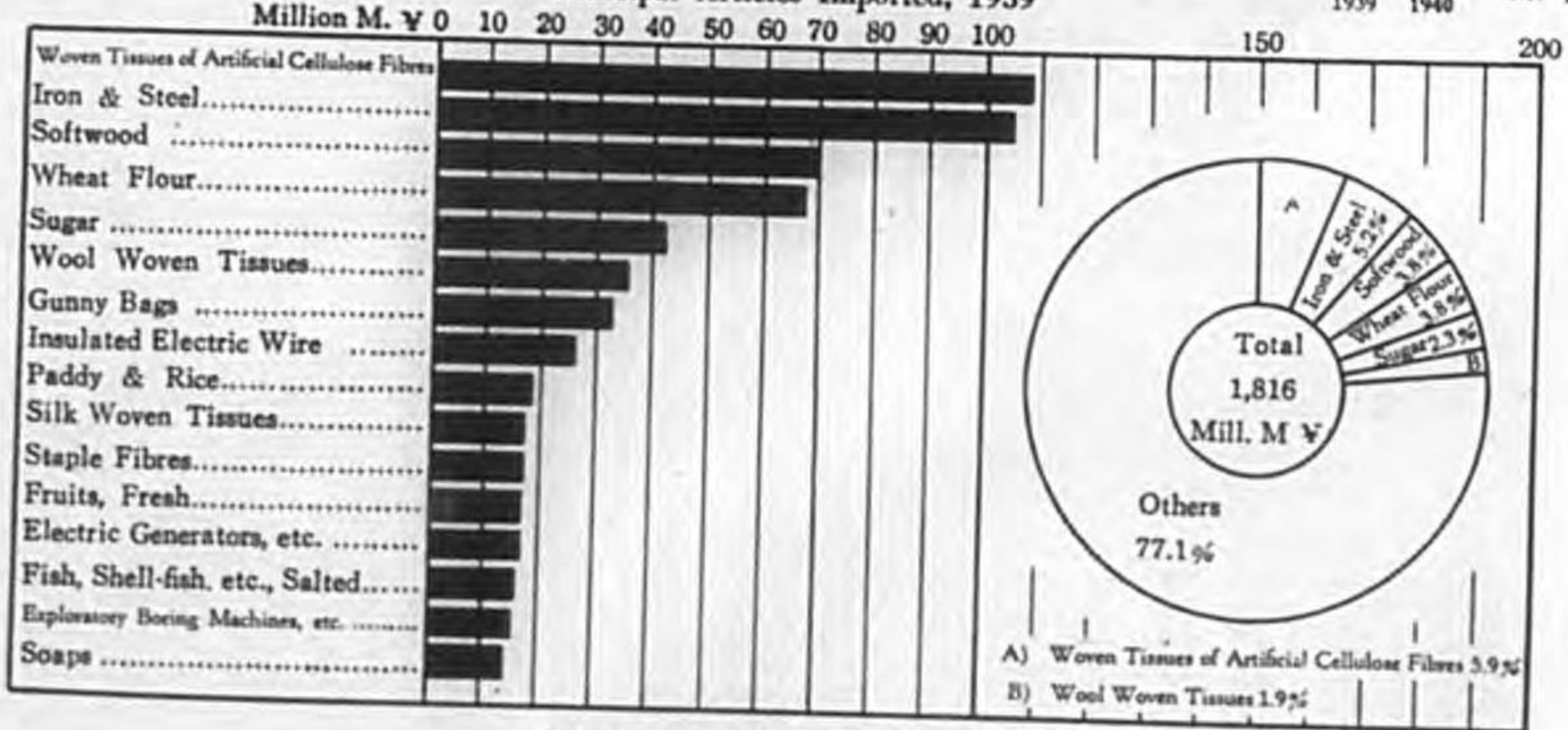
* After Dec., 1931, quoted by the Mitsubishi Bank.

(Prepared by Mitsubishi Economic Research Bureau)

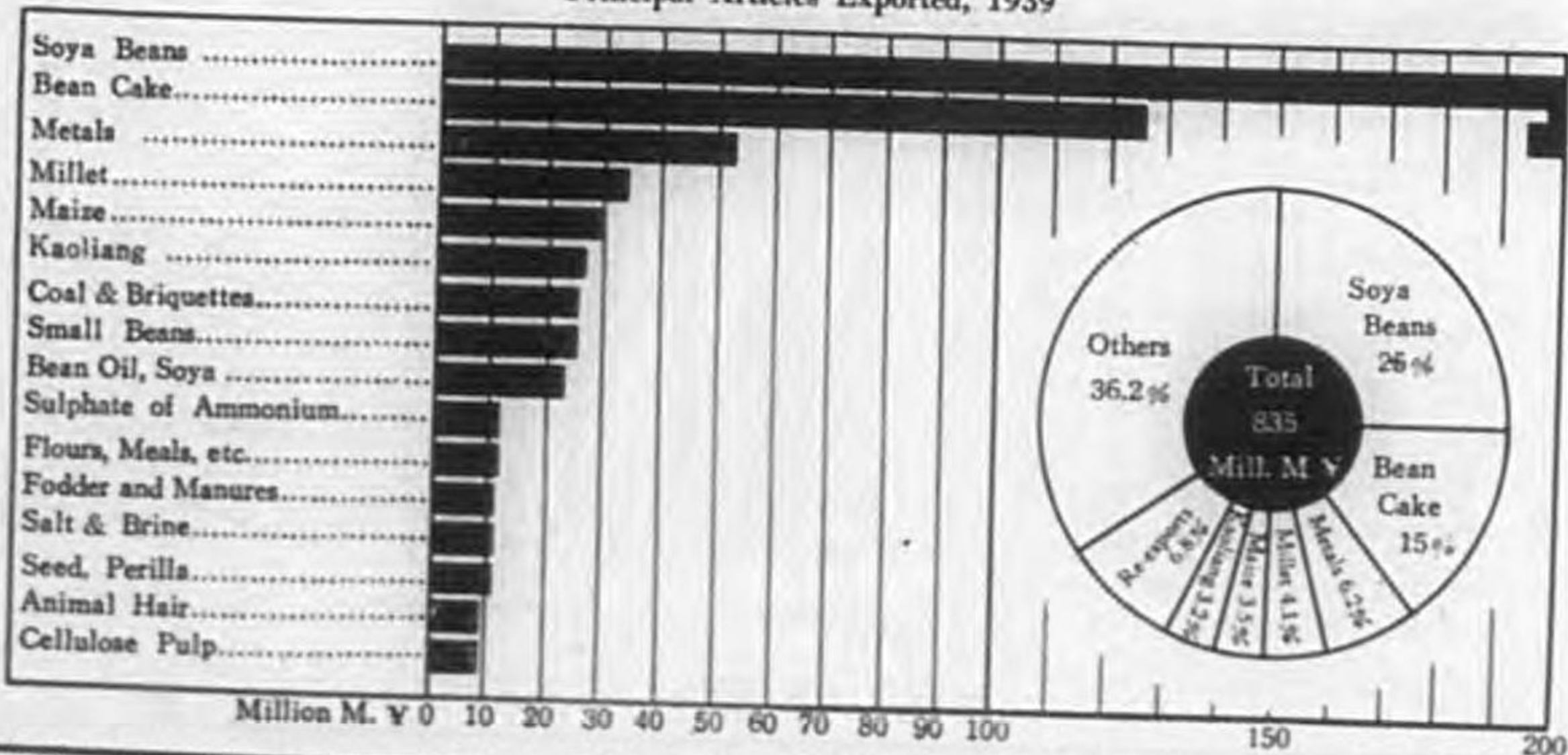
Foreign Trade of Manchoukuo (1929-1939)



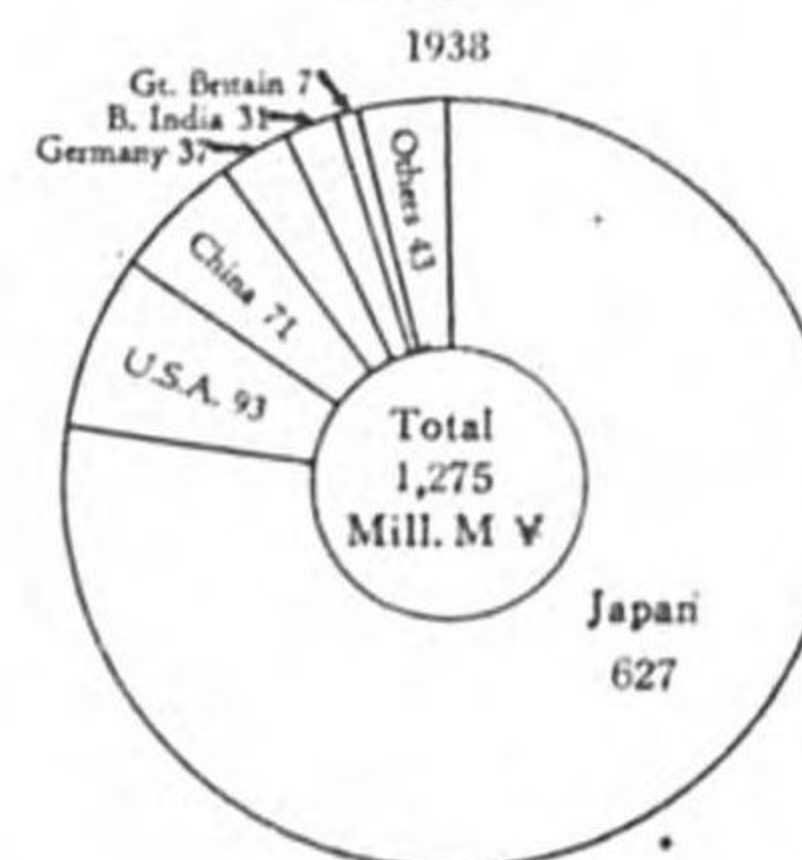
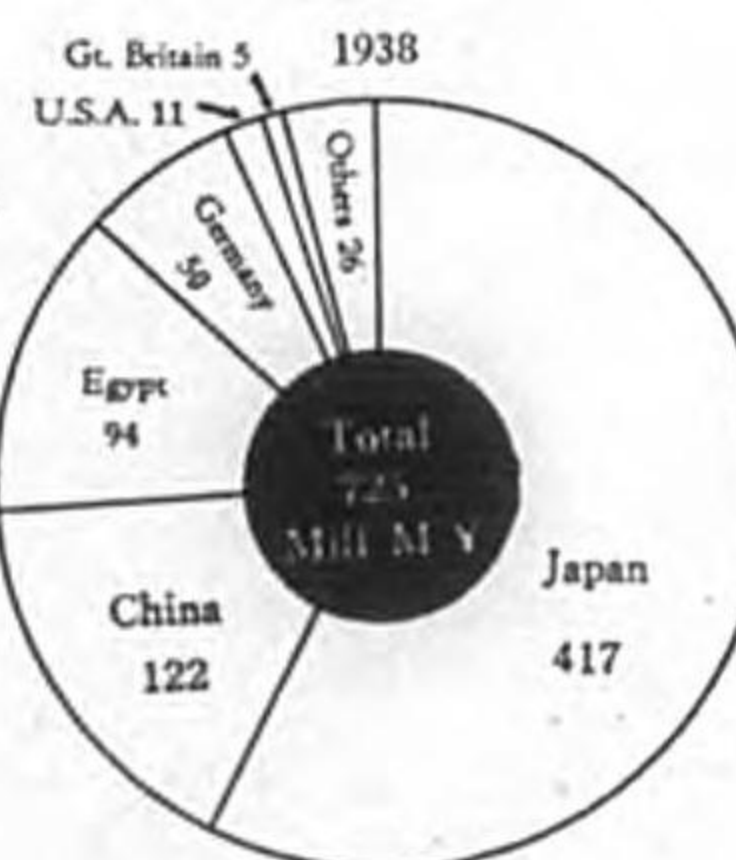
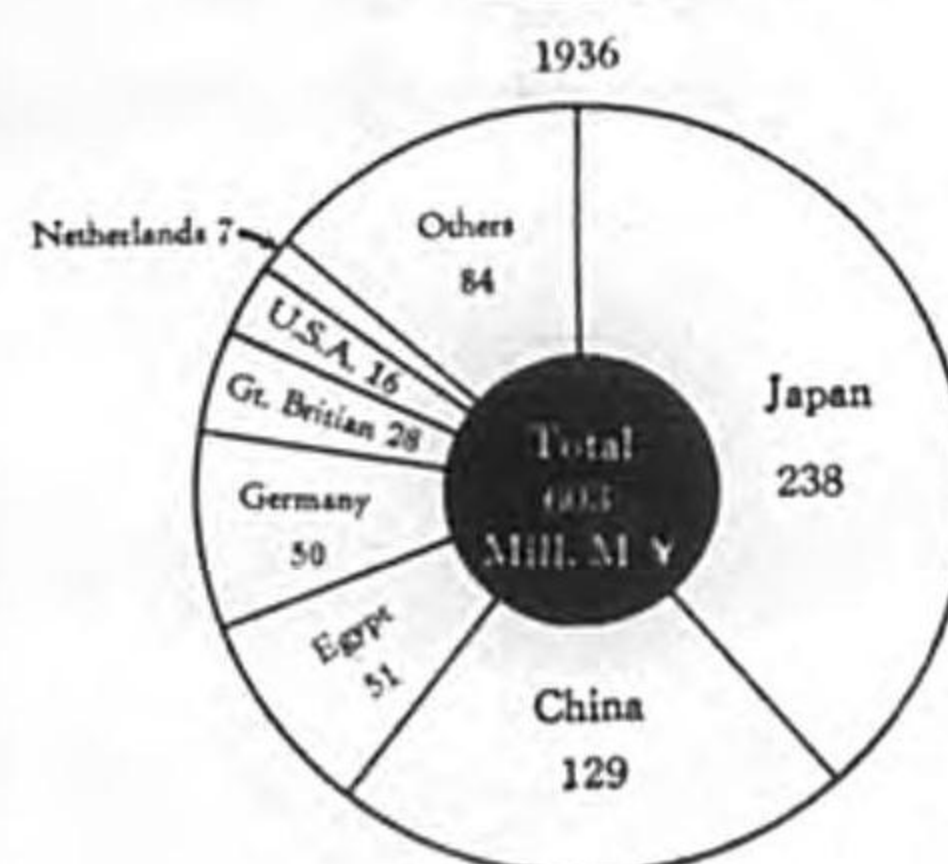
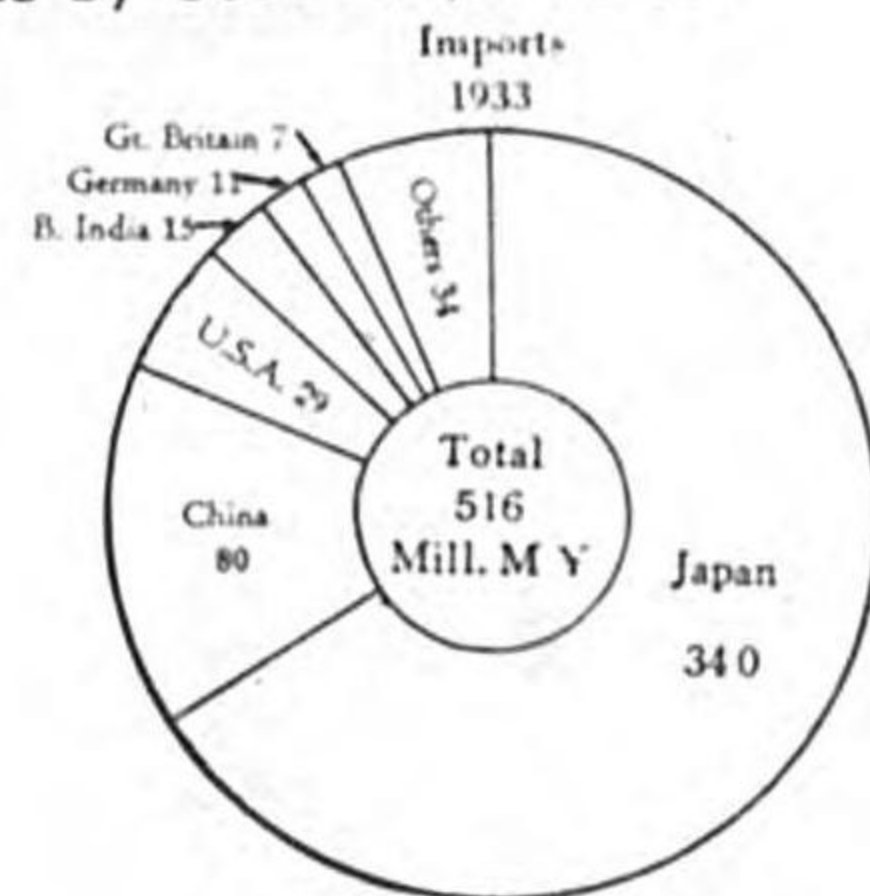
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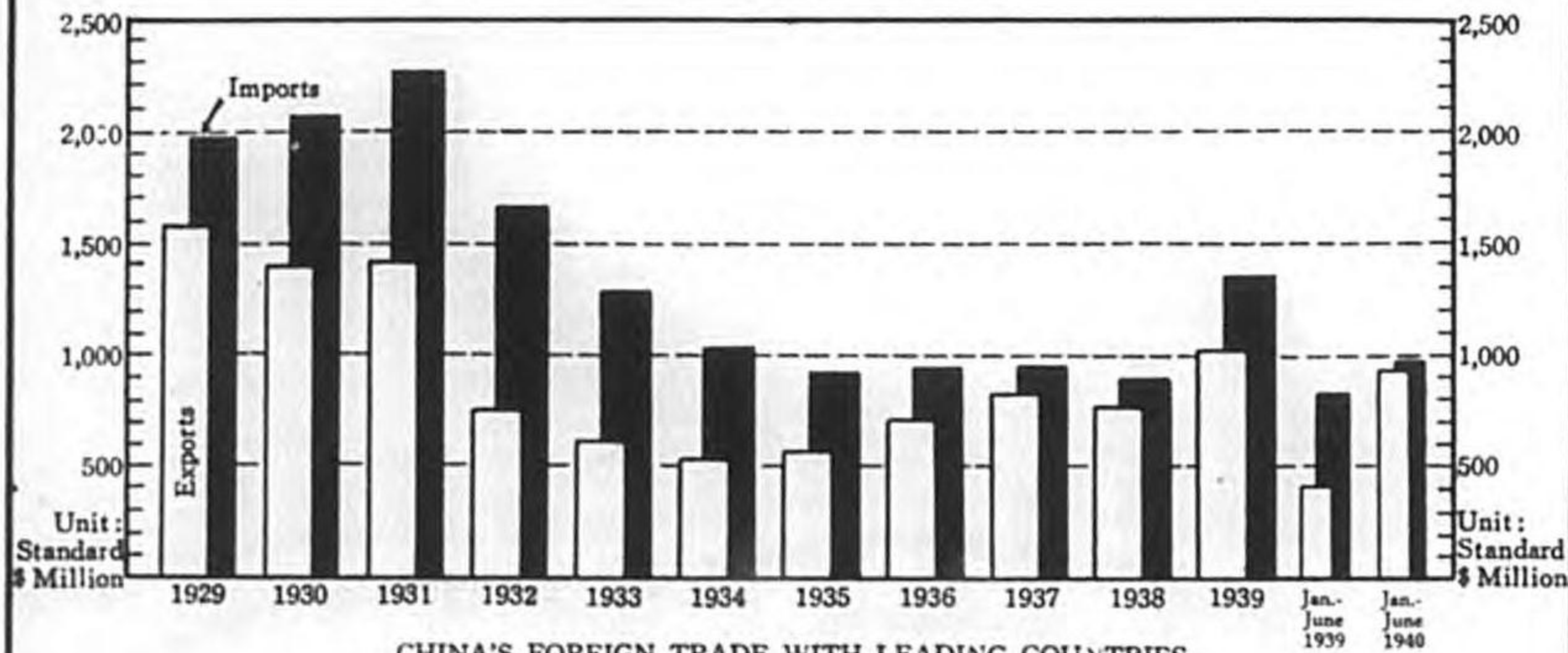
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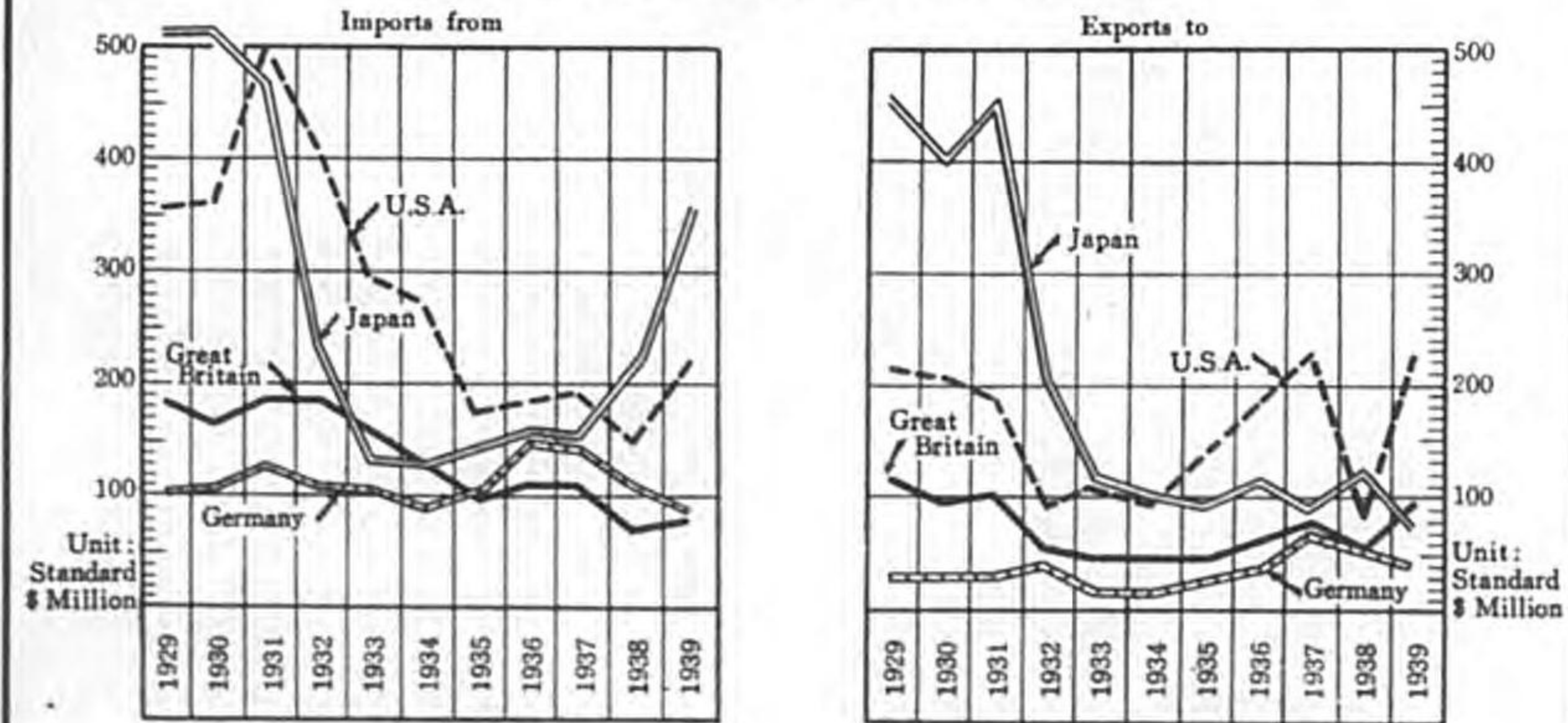
Foreign Trade of Manchoukuo by Countries, 1933-39



Foreign Trade of China

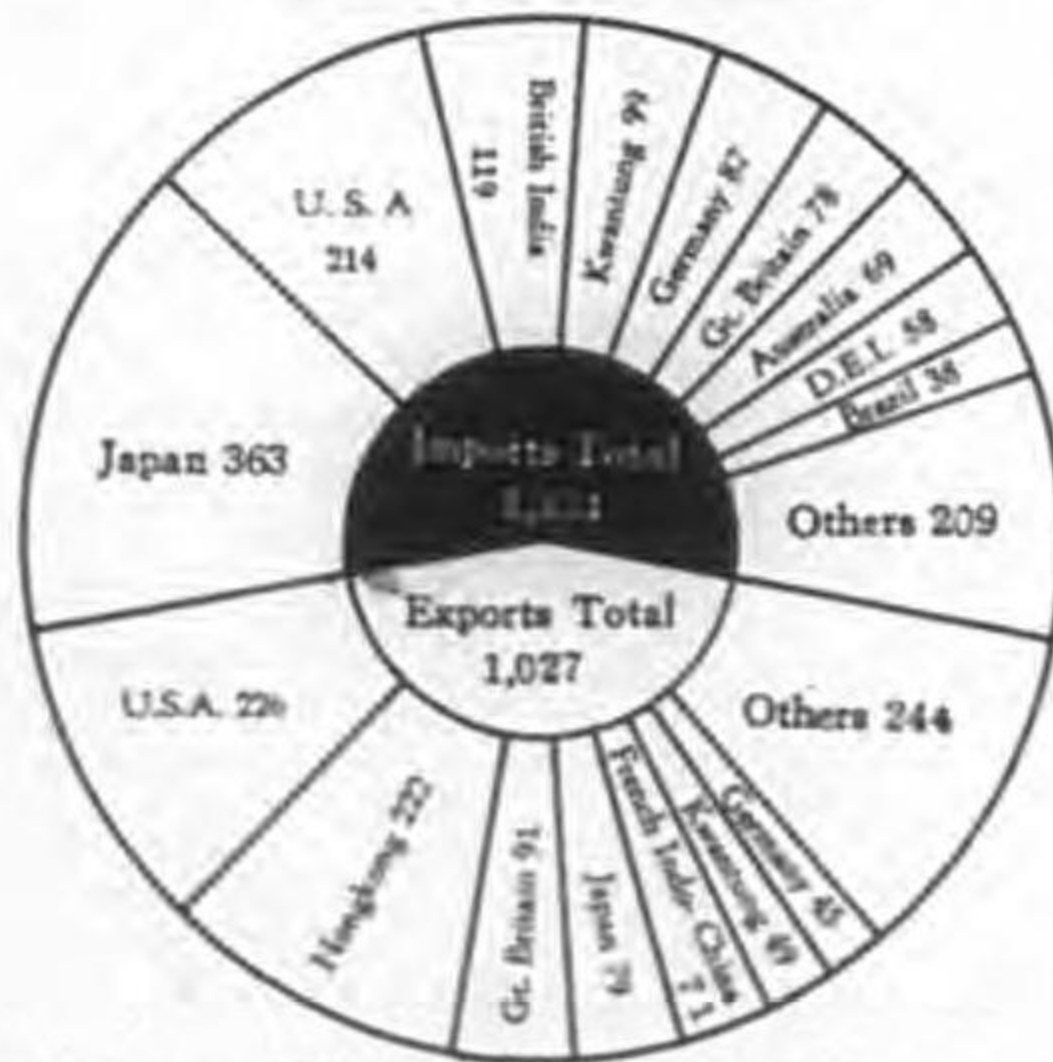


CHINA'S FOREIGN TRADE WITH LEADING COUNTRIES



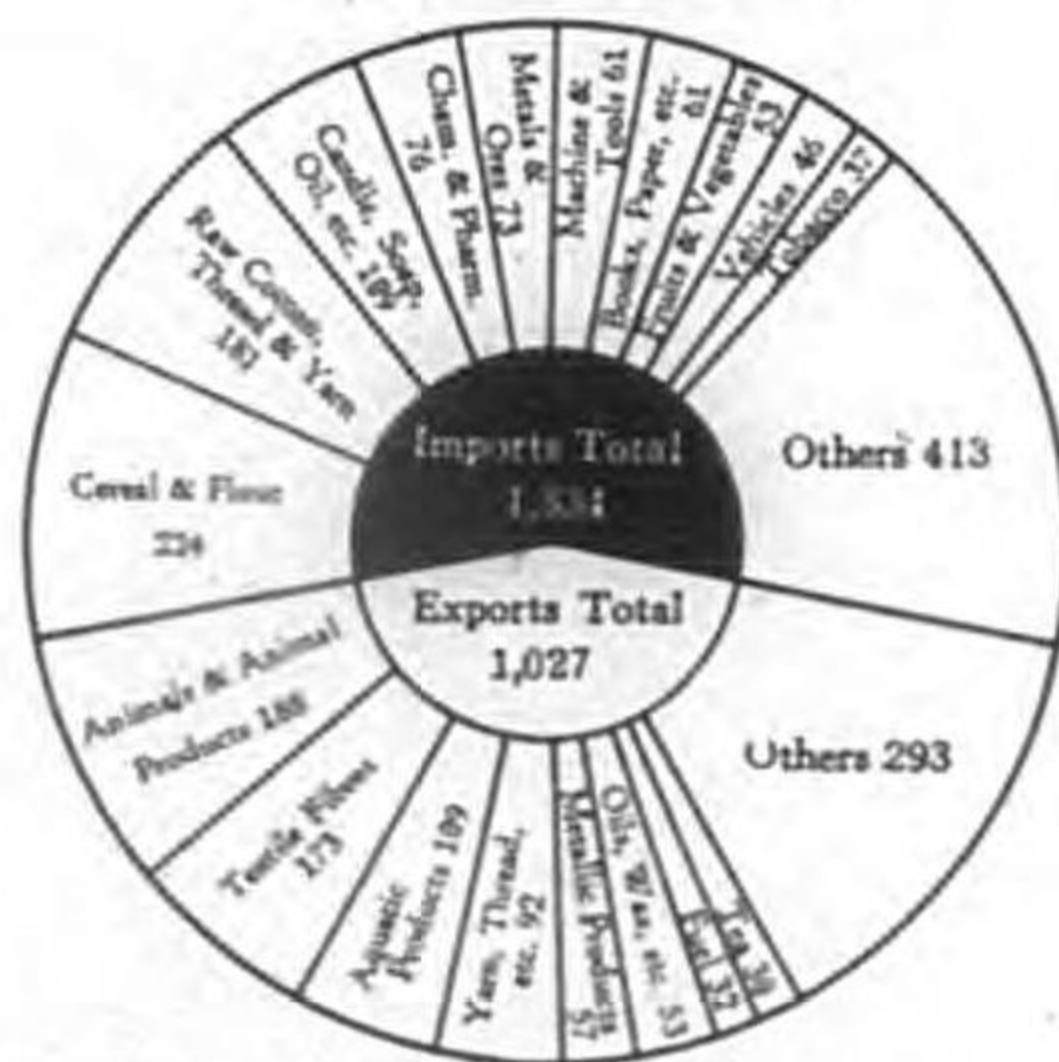
BY COUNTRIES

1939 (Unit: Standard \$ Million)



BY COMMODITIES

(1939 Unit: Standard \$ Million)



Year Names and Equivalents

Since Foundation	Japan Era	Manchoukuo	China	Christian Era	Since Foundation	Japan Era	Manchoukuo	China	Christian Era
1	Meiji	—	—	B.C. 660	2570	43	—	2	1910
2535	8	—	Kuang-su 1	A.D. 1875	2571	44	—	3	1911
2536	9	—	2	1876	—	Taisho 1	—	1	1912
2537	10	—	3	1877	2572	2	—	2	1913
2538	11	—	4	1878	2573	3	—	3	1914
2539	12	—	5	1879	2574	4	—	4	1915
2540	13	—	6	1880	2575	5	—	5	1916
2541	14	—	7	1881	2576	6	—	6	1917
2542	15	—	8	1882	2577	7	—	7	1918
2543	16	—	9	1883	2578	8	—	8	1919
2544	17	—	10	1884	2579	9	—	9	1920
2545	18	—	11	1885	2580	10	—	10	1921
2546	19	—	12	1886	2581	11	—	11	1922
2547	20	—	13	1887	2582	12	—	12	1923
2548	21	—	14	1888	2583	13	—	13	1924
2549	22	—	15	1889	2584	14	—	14	1925
2550	23	—	16	1890	2585	15	—	15	1926
2551	24	—	17	1891	2586	1	—	15	1926
2552	25	—	18	1892	2587	2	—	16	1927
2553	26	—	19	1893	2588	3	—	17	1928
2554	27	—	20	1894	2589	4	—	18	1929
2555	28	—	21	1895	2590	5	—	19	1930
2556	29	—	22	1896	2591	6	—	20	1931
2557	30	—	23	1897	2592	7	Tatung 1	21	1932
2558	31	—	24	1898	2593	8	2	22	1933
2559	32	—	25	1899	2594	9	Kangteh 1	23	1934
2560	33	—	26	1900	2595	10	2	24	1935
2561	34	—	27	1901	2596	11	3	25	1936
2562	35	—	28	1902	2597	12	4	26	1937
2563	36	—	29	1903	2598	13	5	27	1938
2564	37	—	30	1904	2599	14	6	28	1939
2565	38	—	31	1905	2600	15	7	29	1940
2566	39	—	32	1906	2601	16	8	30	1941
2567	40	—	33	1907	2602	17	9	31	1942
2568	41	—	34	1908	2603	18	10	32	1943
2569	42	—	Suan-tung 1	1909	2604	19	11	33	1944

Weights, Measures and Moneys (JAPAN)

With English and French Equivalents

Distance and Length

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

Land Measure

Square <i>ri</i> = 1296 <i>sq. cho</i>	= 5.95516 sq. miles	= 15.42345 kilometres carrés
<i>Cho</i> = 10 <i>tan</i> = 3000 <i>tsubo</i>	= 2.45064 ac. s	= 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>kwan</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

Money

<i>Yen</i> (¥) = 100 <i>sen</i> = 1000 <i>rin</i> = (at par)	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 2s. 0d. 581 \text{ (England)} \\ 12.72265 \text{ francs (France)} \\ 2.0925 \text{ marks (Germany)} \\ 0.49846 \text{ dollars (U.S.A.)} \\ 0.84459 \text{ dollars (U.S.A.)}^* \end{array} \right\}$
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* Revised rate: Dollar = 0.88067 gram of gold.

CHAPTER I GEOGRAPHY

Japan is situated in the east of the Continent of Asia and in the west of the Northern Pacific lying between 20° 25' and 50° 55' N. latitude and 119° 18' and 156° 30' E. longitude. The territory comprised within this limit consists of six large islands, i.e. Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu, Hokkaido, Taiwan (Formosa), Southern Karafuto (Saghalien below 50° lat.) and the Peninsula of Chosen (Korea) and about six hundred smaller islands. Of these islands Sado, Oki, Tsushima, Iki, Awaji and the four archipelagoes off Boko (Pescadores), Chishima (Kuriles), Ogasawara (Bonin) and Ryukyu (Luchu) may deserve mention, all the rest being insignificant. Japan Proper consists of the four large islands of Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu and Hokkaido, and is exclusive of Taiwan and its adjoining islands, Karafuto and Chosen.

After the Japan-China War (1894-1895) Japan acquired Taiwan including the Pesca-

dores, and after the Russo-Japanese War (1904-05) the southern half of Saghalien, and also obtained a free hand in Korea, which she later annexed and renamed it Chosen. The realm now covers 675,401 sq. kilometers.

Table 1. Japan's Position in Area and Population

	Area (1,000 sq. kms.)	Population (1,000)	Per sq. km.
Japan	675	100,943	149.5
Manchoukuo .. (1939)	1,303	39,454	30.0
China Proper.. (1935)	3,782	418,659	110.7
British India.. (1931)	4,684	352,838	75.3
U. K. (1938)	243	47,485	195.0
France (1938)	551	41,980	76.2
Germany (1939)	555	75,100	135.3
Italy (1939)	310	43,509	140.3
U.S.S.R. (1939)	21,175	170,467	8.0
U.S.A. (1938)	7,839	130,215	17.8
Canada (1938)	9,570	11,209	1.1

Table 2. Area of Japanese Empire

	Area			Coast line (kilometres)
	(Sq. kilometres)	(Sq. miles)	Percentage	
Japan Proper (incl. outlying islands)	382,561	147,492	56.64	30,605.46
Honshu (" " ")	230,550	88,622	34.13	11,904.08
Shikoku (" " ")	18,771	7,228	2.78	2,946.51
Kyushu (" " ")	42,079	16,246	6.23	8,662.30
Hokkaido (" " ")	88,775	34,276	13.14	5,484.50
Ryukyu (" " ")	2,386	921	0.35	1,648.06
Taiwan (Formosa) (" ")	35,961	13,884	5.32	1,888.18
Karafuto (Saghalien) (" ")	36,090	13,934	5.34	1,534.42
Chosen (Korea) (" ")	220,794	85,239	32.69	18,203.73
Total	675,401	260,783	100.00	52,231.79
Kwantung Leased Territory (")	3,462	1,336		1,216.75
Pacific Mandated Islands	2,1449	829		4,059.50

Note:—All the outlying islands having a coast line of over 2 miles and also smaller islands that are inhabited are included in the total area.

Inclusive of the Pacific Mandated Islands the Empire stretches latitudinally for 5,643.81 kilometers, the northernmost tip reaching to within 1,738.7 kilometers of the Arctic Circle, while the southernmost of the Mandated Islands touches the Equator. With the four main islands of Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu and Hokkaido as a nucleus, the cluster of islands divides into two forks, northward and southward. One

end of the northern fork projects to Saghalien and the other towards the Aleutians. The southern fork spreads one arm towards Taiwan and the other towards the Mariana, Marshall and Caroline groups of islands.

Japan proper which occupies 56.64% of the area of the whole Empire is smaller than Sweden or Poland but is larger than England Italy or Norway.

PHYSICAL FEATURES

Mountains.—The land is mountainous and volcanic. The most conspicuous ranges are, in the west and south, two branches of the Kwen-lun system of China of which, the Chugoku

range, traverses Kyushu and finds its way into the middle part of Honshu, while the other coming from Shikoku also enters the middle of Honshu. In the north there is the Saghalien

system which forms the ridges in Hokkaido and northern Honshu. These ranges encounter at the middle of Honshu, thereby producing upheavals popularly known among mountaineers as the Japan Alps, and other prominent peaks such as Fuji, Norikuradake, etc.

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

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

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

Table 3. Principal Peaks in Japan

Name	Locality	Height	
		(metres)	(feet)
Mt. Fuji	Suruga Kai	3,776	12,461
Shirane-Kitadake	Kai	3,192	10,534
Hodakadake	Shinano-Hida	3,190	10,527
Yarigadake	do	3,180	10,494
Akuzawa-Higashidake	Suruga	3,146	10,382
Akaishidake	Shinano-Suruga	3,120	10,296
Oku-Nishi-Kawachidake	Suruga	3,084	10,177
Ontake	Shinano-Hida	3,063	10,108
Shiomidake	Shinano-Suruga	3,047	10,055
Senjogatake	Shinano Kai	3,033	10,009
Nodoridake	Kai-Suruga	3,026	9,936
Norikuradake	Shinano-Hida	3,026	9,986
Tateyama	Etchu	3,015	9,950
Hijiridake	Shinano-Suruga	3,011	9,936
Tsurugidake	Etchu	3,003	9,910

Taiwan

Niitaka (Mt. Morrison)	3,950	13,035
Tsugitaka (Mt. Sylvia)	3,881	12,743
Shukoran-san (Maborasu-san)	3,833	12,649
Uramon-san	3,806	12,560
Tarakussha	3,758	12,401
Nankodai san	3,740	12,270
Trop	3,712	12,250
Chuo Sanzan	3,703	12,149
Harihe	3,702	12,146
Kwan-san	3,667	12,101
Daisukutsu-san	3,645	12,029

Chosen

Kanboho	2,541	8,355
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Rivers.—Due to the insular position and complicated topography, river are comparatively short and of rapid current. They are not navigable for large sea-going vessels, but owing to frequent rainfalls they sufficiently serve the purpose of irrigation and hydraulic power.

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

Table 4. Principal Rivers

Flowing into	Name	Length		Drainage basin		Navigable length*	
		miles	kms.	sq. mile	sq. kms.	miles	kms.
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	341	5,401	14,250	—	—
	Mogami (Honshu)	134	216	2,858	7,400	215	459
	Jinsu	78	126	1,073	2,780	27	56
	Noshiro or Yoneshiro	85	137	1,584	4,100	124	238
	Omo o (Honshu)	93	149	1,614	4,180	142	334
	Rakuto (Chosen)	327	525	9,212	23,860	215	344
	Shinano (Honshu)	229	369	4,734	12,260	344	703
	Teshio (Hokkaido)	193	306	2,247	5,820	—	—
	Tumen (Chosen)	325	521	4,061	10,513	54	95
Pacific Ocean	Abukuma (Honshu)	122	196	2,114	5,480	81	149
	Arakawa	110	177	1,209	3,180	154	475
	Ki	83	134	785	1,910	144	282
	Kiso	144	232	2,518	9,000	278	448
	Kitakami	162	243	4,139	10,720	225	606
	Naka	78	126	1,262	3,270	68	118
	Kumano	100	161	942	2,440	188	295

Flowing into	Name	Length		Drainage basin		Navigable length*	
		miles	kms.	sq. mile	sq. kms.	miles	kms.
Fuji	Fuji	100	161	1,749	4,530	65	90
	Tenryu	134	216	1,888	4,850	176	357
	Tokachi (Hokkaido)	122	196	3,389	8,780	176	357
	Tone (Honshu)	200	322	6,86	15,760	415	852
	Yoshino (Shikoku)	146	236	1,429	3,700	146	236
Inland Sea	Yodo (Honshu)	49	79	3,246	8,410	220	660
	Okhotsk Sea	90	146	1,027	2,650	—	—
East China Sea	Chikugo (Kyushu)	88	141	1,102	2,852	117	189
	Dakusui (Taiwan)	95	195	—	—	—	—
Yellow Sea	Daido (Chosen)	273	439	6,437	16,673	161	260
	Kan	320	514	10,673	26,279	205	330
	Oryokko (Yalu)	491	790	12,255	31,739	434	698

* Including tributaries

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

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

Table 5. Principal Lakes

Lakes	Locality	Area (sq. kms.)	Circumference (km.)
Biwa	Shiga	674.80	235.20
Hachiro-gata	Akita	223.29	80.63
Kasumigaura	Ibaraki	189.17	150.42
Taraike	Karafuto	180.06	80.63
Tomnai	"	168.18	90.90
Saroma	Hokkaido	150.53	77.00
Inawashiro	Fukushima	104.88	66.08
Nakanoumi	Shimane	101.60	95.83
Shinji	"	83.13	50.50
Kutcharo	Hokkaido	79.89	56.52
Shikotsu	"	76.18	40.98
Hamana	Shizuoka	72.04	125.22
Doya	Hokkaido	69.60	42.55
Towada	Akita-Aomori	69.58	46.20

Table 6. Principal Plains

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

Chuzenji in Nikko (11.29 sq. kms.), Ashi-no-ko in Hakone (6.89 sq. kms.), Suwa-ko in Shinano (14.45 sq. kms.) and Towada in Mutsu (59.58 sq. kms.) are noted mountain lakes.

Plains.—As might be expected from the hilly nature of her topography Japan cannot boast of large plains, and indeed land inclined 10° and below does not exceed a quarter of the whole area. But small alluvial plains are not scarce, the valleys of larger rivers being especially fertile. Of these the Kwanto plain, watered by two large rivers, Tone and Arakawa, is most important and contains Tokyo, Yokohama and many other towns and cities, supporting altogether over 15 millions of souls. The Nobi plain consists of the valleys of the Kiso and other rivers and feeds over 5 million people, clustered in Nagoya and other towns and cities. Other plains in Honshu are the Kinai plain with Kyoto, Osaka, Kobe, etc. in it, containing 9 million people, and traversed by the Yodo and other rivers; the Echigo plain traversed by the Shinano and Agano rivers; the Sendai plain watered by the Kitakami and the Abukuma. Hokkaido has Ishikari and six other large plains. The Tsukushi plain in Kyushu contains coal fields, where 60 per cent. of the coal produced in Japan is mined. In Chosen the valleys of the Kan-go (River Han) are reputed to be among the most developed. Principal plains in Japan Proper are as follows:—

Adjacent Seas.—The East China Sea is shallow except for the portion near Taiwan and the Luchu, but the Sea of Japan is deeper, the maximum being 9,435 meters. Great depressions are found in the Pacific waters not far from the coast. One of them, the Tuscarora deep, discovered by the American steamer Tuscarora in 1874, which extends for about 400 miles along the Chishima Islands (Kuriles) has a maximum depth of 8,514 meters, the Ryukyu deep being credited with 7,481 meters. The deepest sea-bottom in the sea about Japan which had hitherto been believed to be the Tuscarora Deep has been ascertained to be a spot lying about midway between the Hachijo and Ogasawara (Bonin) islands, 30° 49' N.L. and 142° 18' E.L., where a maximum depth of 9,435 meters was sounded by the warship *Man-shu* in October, 1926.

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

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

Tides.—Tides register a very high range on the Yellow Sea and East China Sea coasts, reaching as much as 34-5 ft. at Jinsen (Chemulpo) in Chosen. In Japan Proper the highest range is 16 ft. at Suminoe, Shimabara bay in Kyushu. The difference is approximately from 2 to 5 ft. in the Inland Sea, 3-5 ft. on the

Pacific coast and 4-5 ft. on the Okhotsk. The Japan Sea is one of the waters with the smallest tidal range in the world, being scarcely more than 2 ft. except at the Tsushima Straits. At Naruto, one of the narrow straits by which the Inland Sea communicates with the Pacific, the tidal streams form eddies and whirl-pools which present a unique sight.

Bays and Harbours.—The Pacific coast is far more diversified in outline than the Japan Sea coast. The coast line of the former measures in aggregate 10,310.3 miles against 2,818.6 miles of the latter. In Honshu alone, the outer coast measures 3,199.3 miles and the other only 1,588.6 miles. The eastern coast of northern Japan, i.e. from Cape Shiriya to Cape Inubo outside of Tokyo Bay, has only one continuous large inlet, the Bay of Sendai and the Bay of Matsu-shima embraced by the Ojika Peninsula, but for about 146 miles north of Sendai it is rich in smaller indentations and forms a Ria coast. The southern coast of Honshu extending from near Tokyo Bay to Cape Satta in Kyushu abounds in large indentations and furnishes several excellent anchorages. These inlets are Tokyo Bay, the Gulf of Sagami, the Bay of Atsumi, the Bay of Ise, the Straits of Kii and the Gulf of Tosa.

The Inland Sea may practically be regarded as one large inland basin being connected with the outer sea by four very narrow straits, i.e., Shimonoseki, Hayatomo, Yura and Naruto. It is dotted with small islets and renowned for its charming scenery, and is 255 miles long with a surface expanse of 1,325 square miles.

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

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

The monotonous nature of the Japan Sea coast of Honshu is somewhat diversified by the presence, here and there, of lagoons formed by the action of wind and wave. Nakanoumi Lagoon is one of such depressions. The only noteworthy indentation along the whole coast is that forming the Gulf of Wakasa on which are

situated the secondary naval port of Maizuru, and the harbours of Miyazu, Tsuruga, etc. One interesting geographical feature is that owing to the presence of the gulf the most constricted neck of Honshu exists there.

Between the Gulf of Wakasa and Tsugaru Promontory the curves formed by Noto and Oga (Ojika) Peninsulas are worthy of mention, whatever other inlets there may be being insignificant and at best forming river ports of no great value. The Oga Peninsula encloses the Hachirogata, a lagoon with beautiful scenery. The Gulf of Mutsu, in which lie Aomori and Ominato, a secondary naval port, opens to the Tsugaru Straits but the mouth is narrowed by the Shimokita Peninsula. The Tsugaru Straits separates Hokkaido from Honshu with a width of only 20,000 metres and a maximum depth of 111 fathoms. It is well known as Blackston's line.

The coast of Hokkaido and of Taiwan is not

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

CLIMATE

Atmospheric Pressure and Wind.—The climate of Japan is chiefly governed by the prevalence of monsoons, that is, the prevailing winds that periodically change their directions about every half year. During the warm seasons what is called the summer monsoon prevails, its direction being generally south to southeasterly while the winter monsoon that prevails during the cold season is north to northeasterly in direction. From the latter part of September to March a large area of high barometric pressure covers the whole of Eastern Siberia, its centre being the districts surrounding Lake Baikal. At the same time an area of low pressure appears over the northern Pacific, extending to the south of the Aleutian Islands. This results in the prevalence of anticyclonic wind over the whole of the Far East, its direction being west to northwest in Hokkaido, northwest in Japan Proper, north in the Luchu Islands, and northeasterly in Taiwan. One of the characteristics of the winter monsoon is its marked constancy in strength. It

continues to blow for many days running, being broken only by an occasional visitation of the atmospheric disturbances called "cyclonic storm." From the latter part of April to the end of August what is known as the grand Pacific high pressure occupies the central part of the north Pacific Ocean, its western margin reaching as far as the eastern coast of Japan. Then in the Tibetan plateau there develops a great low area with a secondary low area also developing over the Mongolian desert. Thus a system of cyclonic circulations of air is established all over the Far Eastern coast, and the air current from the Pacific flows in into the Continent past Japan and her neighbouring seas. This summer monsoon, however, is generally variable in strength and its duration is short.

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

Table 7. Average Atmospheric Pressure
(Average of 1906-1938)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Whole Year
Taihoku	86.3	84.8	83.5	80.6	57.7	55.4	54.3	53.9	56.9	61.5	64.2	65.7	60.4
Kagoshima . . .	66.5	64.8	63.8	61.6	59.2	56.5	57.0	55.9	58.5	62.2	65.2	66.2	61.5
Fukuoka	67.1	65.5	64.4	61.9	59.2	56.2	56.6	56.0	59.1	63.2	65.9	66.8	61.8
Hiroshima . . .	66.5	65.1	64.2	62.0	59.4	56.6	57.0	56.4	59.4	63.2	65.7	66.2	61.8
Osaka	65.4	64.2	63.6	61.9	59.3	56.6	57.1	56.6	59.3	62.7	65.0	65.2	61.4
Nagoya	64.7	63.4	63.1	61.8	59.5	57.0	57.5	57.2	59.6	62.5	64.7	64.6	61.3
Tokyo	62.7	61.9	62.0	61.4	59.4	57.1	57.6	57.5	60.0	62.6	63.7	62.8	60.7
Chichijima . . .	63.3	62.5	62.7	61.9	60.1	59.2	78.9	57.1	58.9	60.1	62.2	63.0	60.8
Niigata	63.8	63.1	63.1	61.9	59.5	56.9	57.3	57.1	59.9	63.0	64.4	63.7	61.1
Ishinomaki . . .	62.3	61.8	61.9	61.4	59.4	57.4	57.7	57.7	60.3	62.8	63.6	62.5	60.7

GEOGRAPHY

GEOGRAPHY

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Whole Year
Aomori	62.0	61.5	61.5	60.8	58.9	57.0	57.2	57.4	60.1	62.7	63.2	62.0	60.4
Sapporo	60.5	60.5	60.2	59.8	58.2	56.6	57.0	57.4	59.9	61.9	61.8	60.4	59.5
Nemuro	58.9	59.4	59.4	59.7	58.9	57.9	58.0	58.5	60.5	61.7	60.9	58.6	59.4
Otomari	59.8	60.3	59.3	58.7	58.0	57.2	57.2	57.7	59.8	60.6	59.9	58.5	58.9
Genzan	67.8	66.4	64.5	61.2	58.1	55.6	55.6	56.3	60.4	64.0	66.0	67.1	61.9
Dairen	71.4	69.5	66.5	62.0	58.1	54.8	54.3	55.7	60.9	65.3	68.3	70.4	63.1

Note: 700 m.m. should be added to all figures.

Cyclones and Typhoons.—In speaking of winds are most frequent in winter and are very rare in Japan and her neighbourhood, it is necessary in summer. The typhoon is of tropical origin to mention the violent rotatory storms called as hurricanes observed in the Gulf of Mexico cyclones and typhoons. The former are also and the Atlantic and the cyclones visiting the known by the name of Continental cyclones, Bay of Bengal and Arabian Sea. It is most and belong to the same category as the European frequent from July to October, the severest rotatory storms. A cyclone is caused by the curving usually in August and September. In intruding polar front of general circulation in winter this kind of atmospheric disturbance is the higher latitude. These continental cyclones rarely met with.

Table 8. Directions of Prevailing Wind (1922-1938)

	Jan.	Mar.	May	July	Sept.	Nov.	Whole Year
Taihoku	N84E	N82E	N78E	S84E	N85E	N86E	N83E
Kagoshima	N80W	N33W	N24W	S16W	N12E	N27W	N22W
Fukuoka	N52W	N35W	N21W	S83E	N47E	N73W	N:1W
Hiroshima	N18W	N18W	N57W	S48W	N 3E	N 1E	N16W
Osaka	N59W	N38W	N38W	S81W	N11E	N25W	N44W
Nagoya	N38W	N43W	S89W	S 1W	N31W	N:0W	N48W
Tokyo	N15W	N 5W	S 45E	S24E	N36E	N 6W	N10E
Chichijima	N37W	S 4E	S 29E	S42E	S 4E	N74E	S 43E
Niigata	N65W	N81W	S 49W	S89W	S 2W	S 85W	N87W
Ishinomaki	N53W	N67W	S 9E	S44E	N55E	N48W	N51W
Aomori	S 76W	S 81W	N76W	N37W	N64W	S 82W	S 87W
Sapporo	N71W	N85W	S 39E	S 85E	N85E	S 72W	S 7W
Nemuro	N45W	N43W	S 2W	S26E	S 44E	N77W	S 79W
Otomari	N 1W	N 1W	S 58E	S41E	S 37E	N 0W	N21W
Genzan	S 79W	S 83W	S 88W	S71E	S 59W	S 74W	S 81W
Dairen	N33W	N74W	S 13W	S12E	S 63W	N67W	S 64W

Table 9. Average Velocity of Wind (metre per second) (1908-1938)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Whole Year
Taihoku	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.0	2.9	2.1	2.5	2.6	3.1	3.5	3.8	3.6	3.1
Kagoshima	3.0	3.2	3.3	3.0	2.8	2.6	2.7	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.8	2.9
Fukuoka	3.0	2.8	3.0	2.8	2.5	2.4	2.6	2.4	2.1	2.1	2.4	2.9	2.6
Hiroshima	1.8	1.8	2.0	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.8
Osaka	3.4	3.3	3.2	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.5	2.7	3.3	2.9
Nagoya	2.9	3.3	3.4	3.3	3.0	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.8
Tokyo	2.8	3.1	3.3	3.3	3.1	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.5	2.6	2.9
Chichijima	2.6	2.9	2.7	2.4	2.4	2.2	1.8	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.4
Niigata	6.0	5.4	4.9	4.0	3.5	3.0	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.6	4.7	5.7	4.1
Ishinomaki	3.7	3.8	4.0	3.7	3.3	2.7	2.3	2.6	2.5	2.6	3.2	3.5	3.2
Aomori	4.1	4.0	4.0	3.7	3.4	2.9	2.5	2.3	2.4	2.7	3.5	4.1	3.3
Sapporo	3.1	3.0	3.6	4.3	4.3	3.6	3.0	3.0	2.7	2.6	3.1	3.0	3.3
Nemuro	5.4	4.5	4.9	5.1	4.9	4.1	3.8	3.7	4.2	4.9	5.6	5.5	4.7
Otomari	4.7	4.3	4.8	4.6	4.3	3.8	3.4	3.5	4.0	5.1	5.6	5.2	4.4
Genzan	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.7	2.4
Dairen	4.8	4.8	5.3	5.6	5.3	4.5	4.3	3.7	4.1	4.7	5.2	4.9	4.8

Table 10. Number of Stormy Days (velocity above 10 m/sec.) (Average of 1925-1938)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Total
Taihoku	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	4
Kagoshima	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	8
Fukuoka	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	7
Hiroshima	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	6
Osaka	2	2	2	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	3	15
Nagoya	5	7	7	6	3	1	1	1	1	2	3	4	41
Tokyo	2	3	4	4	2	1	1	0	1	1	1	2	21
Chichijima	1	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	17
Niigata	21	18	16	11	8	4	3	4	5	10	15	20	133
Ishinomaki	4	5	7	5	2	1	0	0	1	1	3	4	32
Aomori	10	9	10	10	7	4	2	1	2	3	7	10	73
Sapporo	4	3	6	9	7	2	1	1	1	1	4	3	41
Nemuro	12	6	8	10	7	3	2	3	5	9	12	14	91
Otomari	10	7	10	10	8	6	4	5	6	12	13	13	102
Genzan	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	7
Dairen	8	8	12	16	16	9	7	4	5	9	10	9	113

Air Temperature.—In winter the cold is intense in Japan Proper for its latitude, owing to the cold air currents brought over from the Asiatic Continent by the winter monsoon, while being much milder than in the districts of the same latitude in Manchuria, Siberia, etc. The climate of Chosen (Korea) is more continental and colder than that of Japan Proper, the territory forming part of the Continent. In Japan Proper the interior of Hokkaido is also marked by continentality of climate, the temperature once recorded in Asahigawa being as low as -14° C.

In the hot season the air temperature on land being already high due to insolation, the effect of the summer monsoon which prevails there is chiefly shown in the close or sultry air owing to the moisture borne from the sea. Summer in Taiwan (Formosa) is most unbearable, because of the high temperature which lasts from

the daytime far into the night, though the maximum is comparatively low. In Honshu and other islands of Japan Proper, however, the heat lessens in the morning and evening. In Hokkaido it is as hot as in Honshu in the daytime when tropical clothes are needful, but it grows so cool before sunrise and after sunset, that people are liable to catch cold. On the coast of the Setonai-kai, or the Inland Sea districts, land and sea breezes are well developed and consequently morning and evening calms marking the pause of these breezes occur very regularly. In the hours 7 to 9 p.m. during the hot season, the air in these districts is as still as dead, not a puff quivering the blades of grass, and one feels as if shut up in a hot house.

The appended table shows the monthly mean temperature:—

Table 11 Monthly Mean Temperature of Air (in °C.) (Average of 1906-1938)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Whole Year
Taihoku	15.1	15.0	16.8	20.7	24.1	26.8	28.3	28.0	26.4	23.0	19.9	16.9	21.8
Kagoshima	6.7	7.4	10.4	15.2	18.9	22.4	26.4	26.9	24.1	18.8	13.5	8.8	16.6
Fukuoka	4.7	5.1	8.0	13.0	17.2	21.5	25.9	26.5	22.0	16.3	11.4	7.0	14.9
Hiroshima	3.9	4.4	7.3	12.8	17.4	21.4	25.8	26.9	22.9	16.8	11.0	6.1	14.7
Osaka	4.3	4.6	7.4	13.1	17.8	21.9	26.3	27.4	23.4	17.3	11.7	6.8	15.2
Nagoya	2.9	3.7	6.7	12.8	17.3	21.4	25.7	26.5	22.5	16.4	10.5	5.3	14.3
Tokyo	3.1	3.8	6.9	12.7	16.8	20.5	24.5	25.9	22.0	16.1	10.7	5.4	14.0
Chichijima	17.6	17.4	18.3	20.5	22.8	25.4	27.2	27.3	26.9	25.5	22.7	19.5	22.0
Niigata	1.5	1.6	4.3	10.1	14.8	19.5	24.1	25.8	21.4	15.4	9.7	4.2	12.7
Ishinomaki	-0.5	0.1	2.9	8.6	13.0	17.1	21.4	23.5	19.7	13.8	7.9	2.1	10.8
Aomori	-2.6	-2.2	0.5	6.8	11.8	16.3	20.9	22.9	18.5	12.1	5.9	-0.1	9.2
Sapporo	-6.1	-5.2	-1.6	5.2	10.4	15.0	19.5	21.2	16.5	10.0	3.3	-3.3	7.1
Nemuro	-5.0	-5.7	-2.4	2.8	6.3	10.0	14.2	17.2	15.3	10.8	4.6	-1.6	5.5
Otomari	-11.1	10.2	-5.5	1.0	5.5	10.1	14.8	17.2	13.7	7.6	-0.2	-6.9	3.0
Genzan	-3.9	-2.4	2.4	9.5	14.9	19.1	22.7	23.5	18.8	13.1	5.6	-1.1	10.2
Dairen	-5.2	-3.5	1.8	9.4	15.4	20.2	23.6	24.5	19.9	13.7	5.2	-2.1	10.2

Precipitation.—During the cold season the northwesterly monsoon that comes from the Continent blows across the Japan Sea, where it takes up considerable quantities of moisture. This inflowing air current strikes the coast and is forced to ascend the slopes of the central mountain ranges running almost parallel to the coast. Due to the adiabatic cooling of this ascending moist air a considerable quantity of precipitation, especially in the form of snow, falls as long as the wind continues blowing. In consequence, during winter deep snow covers the ground in the districts facing the Japan Sea, i.e. from northern Kyushu to Hokkaido, especially the region extending from Kanazawa to Otaru. In the prefecture of Niigata, especially in the upper valley of the River Shinano, 10 to 20 feet of snow is the rule. In 1893 it measured 25 feet in Aoyagi village, Nakakubiki-gun, in that prefecture. The snowfall is also heavy in Hokkaido. Once a depth of 18 feet was recorded in Ebishima village, Ishikari province. In those snowy districts the drifts reach the eaves, so that the inhabitants make tunnels through them, or more generally live in the upper storey rooms, the street traffic being carried on the beaten track over the snow. As a drift frequently piles up to several feet in a single night, it baffles the operation of the Russel plough and railway trains are often held up for days. On the Pacific board, which is separated from the Japan Sea coast by the central mountain ranges, the northwesterly monsoon blowing as a descending current, the weather is mostly fair with the sky so clear and serene that not a speck of cloud dots it. Thus the winter weather along the Pacific and that along the Japan Sea board with high

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

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

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

Table 12. Amount of Precipitation (in mm.) (1938)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Total
Taihoku	89	140	194	172	225	284	226	278	233	121	59	72	2,093
Kagoshima	75	109	156	214	198	418	308	187	218	129	88	81	2,180
Fukuoka	70	79	104	131	109	261	234	131	216	105	82	77	1,598
Hiroshima	53	60	107	156	139	255	213	99	203	107	64	54	1,518
Osaka	44	63	88	124	123	189	140	114	184	130	75	50	1,322
Nagoya	53	75	102	149	151	198	170	164	230	167	86	58	1,602
Tokyo	51	85	111	132	148	178	128	166	266	217	91	56	1,627
Chichijima	92	84	109	135	204	140	90	153	149	158	149	134	1,594
Niigata	181	126	113	103	90	111	161	115	173	169	202	223	1,766
Ishinomaki	43	55	75	98	116	115	114	112	158	130	71	40	1,127
Aomori	154	110	89	69	72	80	126	111	135	121	151	162	1,380
Sapporo	95	73	62	59	66	65	87	113	131	121	122	100	1,094
Nemuro	43	31	68	84	90	90	114	110	154	111	90	51	1,030
Otomari	28	19	30	42	72	69	90	93	108	82	68	37	738
Genzan	31	37	50	71	89	124	270	313	172	76	69	29	1,332
Dairen	11	8	16	24	46	49	166	123	91	29	24	13	600

Table 13. No. of Days with Precipitation (Above 0.1 mm.)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Total
Taihoku	17	17	17	15	17	15	14	15	14	15	15	16	187
Kagoshima	14	14	15	14	13	19	16	15	15	11	12	14	170
Fukuoka	16	14	15	13	12	16	14	12	15	12	13	16	197

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Total
Hiroshima	11	11	13	12	11	14	13	10	14	10	10	10	138
Osaka	9	9	12	13	12	14	12	10	14	11	10	9	135
Nagoya	10	9	12	12	12	14	14	12	16	12	10	10	144
Tokyo	7	9	13	13	14	16	13	13	16	14	10	7	144
Chichijima	17	15	15	15	17	13	13	17	17	19	17	17	192
Niigata	28	23	22	15	13	13	14	12	17	19	22	27	222
Ishinomaki	11	11	13	12	13	13	15	14	16	14	12	11	153
Aomori	27	23	22	14	14	12	14	12	17	18	23	26	223
Sapporo	21	18	19	13	14	12	14	13	17	17	21	21	200
Nemuro	13	10	13	13	13	13	16	15	15	14	14	13	161
Otomari	15	12	13	12	13	11	13	12	14	14	15	17	163
Genzan	6	6	8	8	11	13	18	17	12	8	8	5	117
Dairen	4	3	4	5	7	8	11	10	7	6	6	5	76

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

Table 14. Average Frost Season

	Begin		End	
	Average	Earliest	Average	Latest
Taihoku	Jan. 5	Nov. 17, 1922	Jan. 22	Mar. 7, 1906
Kagoshima	Nov. 23	Oct. 20, 1926	Mar. 25	Apr. 22, 1929
Fukuoka	Nov. 10	Oct. 21, 1903	Apr. 21	May 11, 1913
Hiroshima	Nov. 18	Nov. 3, 1885	Apr. 7	May 5, 1893
Osaka	Nov. 15	Oct. 23, 1888	Apr. 9	May 9, 1935
Nagoya	Nov. 6	Oct. 13, 1899	Apr. 14	May 13, 1902
Tokyo	Nov. 13	Oct. 21, 1903	Apr. 9	May 16, 1926
Chichijima
Niigata	Nov. 24	Oct. 25, 890	Apr. 10	May 16, 1911
Ishinomaki	Nov. 3	Oct. 14, 1889	Apr. 22	May 19, 1931
Aomori	Oct. 23	Oct. 1, 19 5	May 5	May 27, 1919
Sapporo	Oct. 6	Nov. 9, 1 88	May 21	June 28, 1908
Otomari	Sept. 27	Sept. 11, 19 05	May 25	June 13, 1926
Genzan	Oct. 24	Nov. 30, 19 05	Apr. 16	May 4, 905

Humidity.—Due to her geographical position the climate of Japan is very moist, and this fact is responsible for the southerly wind in summer that travels with the Black Current and the northerly wind in winter which blows with the Tsushima Current. For reasons already stated, Japan is one of the rainiest regions in the world, the average record of rainfall ranging from 700 m.m. in Karafuto and Northwestern Chosen, and 3,312 m.m. in Hachijō Island off the Izu Peninsula. In Southern

and Northern Taiwan, the Luchu Is., and on the southeastern and Japan Sea coasts of Japan proper, it is generally above 2,000 m.m. In the middle part of the Inland Sea coast, the inland basins in Nagano and other prefectures, the gauge registers below 1,200 m.m. The Pacific coast of Northern Japan has generally little rain.

The following table shows the record of average humidity taken at principal obser- vatories:—

Table 15. Average Humidity (Taking saturation as 100) (%) (1938)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Whole Year
Taihoku	84	85	84	83	82	81	77	78	80	81	81	84	82
Kagoshima	74	74	74	76	77	83	82	80	80	76	77	77	77
Fukuoka	73	73	74	77	78	81	81	82	83	80	77	75	78
Hiroshima	72	71	70	73	73	78	79	76	77	74	75	74	74
Osaka	70	70	70	72	73	77	77	77	74	76	75	72	74
Nagoya	74	71	69	72	74	78	79	79	81	79	76	76	76
Tokyo	63	63	65	71	75	80	82	80	82	79	73	67	73
Chichijima	71	71	74	80	84	85	81	83	82	82	78	73	79
Niigata	80	78	74	73	75	79	81	78	79	77	76	79	78
Ishinomaki	75	73	72	76	81	86	90	89	88	83	79	77	81
Aomori	81	79	75	72	75	80	83	82	81	75	77	79	78
Sapporo	78	78	75	71	75	80	84	83	85	80	76	77	79
Nemuro	72	76	77	80	84	90	92	92	87	79	72	68	81
Otomari	81	81	80	80	82	86	89	88	85	79	76	79	82
Genzan	53	57	58	62	68	76	82	82	75	66	58	52	66
Dairen	63	62	59	57	61	71	83	80	70	74	61	61	66

As a natural consequence of the heavy precipitation of rain or snow, the number of sunny days is comparatively small. Rain or snow claims 150 days on an average, the remaining 215 days being fair. Thus Japan may approximately be said to have, in a year, 4 sunny days for every 3 days of rain or snow. The Pescadores (94.5 days) and Kamo (245.3 days) are the two extremes. In Chosen and Western Taiwan wet days do not exceed 120 while in Japan Proper they seldom fall below the figures. The Japan Sea board of Honshu and the Luchu, Bonin and Kurile Islands have more than 200 wet days. In the first-named region gloomy weather prevails in winter months (Nov. to Feb.) and over 23 days of the month are rainy or snowy.

Japan has two wettest seasons, one from the middle of June to the beginning of July, and the other from the beginning of September to October. The former called "bai-u" or "tsu-yu"

as mentioned before is especially marked on the Pacific coast of Southern Japan, due to the appearance of low pressure areas in the Yangtze valley of China which travels north-eastward. It occasions a long spell of drizzling rain. The latter is caused by the low atmospheric pressure that originates from the South Seas and is characterised by heavy precipitation.

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

FAUNA AND FLORA

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

Fauna

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

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

Land Fauna

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

1. Palaearctic region: (a) Eurasian sub-region, consisting of the Kurile group and Saghalien; (b) East Asia sub-region, in-

cluding Chosen (Korea) and Japan Proper, the latter consisting of Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu.

2. Oriental region, comprising the islands of Taiwan (Formosa) and Ryukyu (Luchu).

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

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

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

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

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

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

Hokkaido.—In mammals, the island appears to be less rich, having only about 25 species, of which more than a half are related to those of Saghalien and the Continent, either as identical or allied species. Amongst them, the species common to the districts just mentioned are Pallas' ground squirrel (*Eutamias asiaticus*), Siberian ermine (*Mustella erminea kanei*), sable (*Martes 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 Yeso-ptarmigan (*Sittiparus varius*), *Dryobates leucotos subcirris*, *Lynx torquilla hokkaidi*, etc.).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Of mammals there are more than 60 species which are invariably confined to the south of the Tsugaru Strait. Recently specified as "protected" is the racoon dog (*Nyctereutes viverrinus*) which, with other species of this genus, is the most typical representative of the animals characteristic of the East Asian sub-region. The birds ascertained to inhabit the islands reach an enormous number, a part of them being represented by forms widely distributed in China and Korea. The number of species and sub-species which appear to be peculiar are 6 in Kyushu and 17 in Honshu. One of the most notable species is the Japanese ptarmigan (*Lagopus mutus japonicus*) with habitat in the Japan Alps at the snow line. Recently specified as "natural monuments" or "protected" are some birds, which comprise, besides the Japanese ptarmigan, the cranes (*Megalornis mquachus*, *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 senicue*) and the Japanese shearwater (*Puffinus leucomelas*).

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

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

Taiwan (Formosa).—The mammals so far discovered are more than 60 in number, while the species which appear to be peculiar to the island number 45, the majority of them being considered only varieties of the species found in the Oriental and Palaearctic regions. The species not found anywhere outside of the island are Formosa flying fox (*Pteropus formosus*), Formosa macaque (*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. fulmenea* and *Dolichoelota formosensis*, *Formosana taiwanica*, *Tortaxis matsudai*, etc.

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

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

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

The Ogasawara (Bonin) Group.—This oceanic island group, together with the Sulphur group, shows tropical features in its fauna. The most remarkable of mammals is Bonin flying fox (*Pteropus pselaphon*) which flourishes here. One of the most notable features of the fauna of this island group is the fair abundance of birds. The endemic species in the group are *Horornis cantans diphone*, Bonin-island Bulbul (*Microcellis amaurotis squamiceps*), etc., and those in the Sulphur group, 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 mollusca are of *Hirasea*, *Mandarina*, *Otesia*, *Fametesta*, etc.

Marine Fauna

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

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

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

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

Of crustaceans, the most notable is the giant crab *Macrocheira kaempferi*, which attains more than 3 meters in the extent of legs. Beside we find *Tachypleus tridentatus* in the inland sea of Seto and Ariake Sea. In the depth of the Tosa, the Kii and the Sagami Seas occur three species of *Pleurotomaria* which are of great interest on account of their representing a relic of the geological period. One of the notable cephalopods is an oegopoid, *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 *Hyalanema*, *Euplectella*, *Rhabdocolyptus* and other silicious sponges.

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

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

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

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

Flora

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

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

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

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

Table 19. Flora Species

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

CHAPTER II OUTLINE OF HISTORY

I. ANCIENT TIMES

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

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

Period of Foundation (532—709 A.D.)

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

of the temples erected at that time. In 607 A.D. Japan first sent an embassy to China, then under the Tung dynasty. The arrogance of the Soga family invited their downfall in the reign of Tenchi Tenno (661-671), who, before accession to the Throne, had headed the faction that destroyed the family. The Court then recovered its supreme authority. Meanwhile Yezo (present Hokkaido) was subdued and the victorious arm was even extended to northern Manchuria. On the other hand, Japan lost the suzerainty over Korea. The reign of Kotoku Tenno (645-654) the predecessor of Tenchi, is remarkable for having thoroughly remodelled the administrative system on that of China, and introduced the Chinese custom "year name."

Nara Period (710—793 A.D.)

Gemmyo Tenno (707-715), the 5th Empress, removed the seat of the Court, which had been shifting its seat from one place to another, to Nara, where for about seventy years art and culture burst into splendour seldom equalled in some respects, as may be judged from the treasures, over 300 articles in all, kept in the storehouse of the Shoso-in Temple at Nara, and comprising the articles that were used by Shomu Tenno (724-749) and presented to the temple after his death in 756. The first Japanese book extant "Kokin", and first Japanese anthology "Man-nyo-Shu," were the production of the Nara Period (710-793). Buddhism retained its greater influence over the Court to such an extent that an infatuated Empress Koken Tenno (749-758) even contemplated elevating her favourite monk Dokyo to the Throne, though from this fate Japan was saved by the fearless opposition of Wake-no-Kiyomaro.

Heian Period (794—1191 A.D.)

Court of Kyoto.—Established as the Imperial Capital in 794 A.D. Kyoto was the centre of power and culture for about 400 years till 1192 when Minamoto-Yoritomo established at Kamakura the Shogunate government, and reduced the position of the Imperial city to one of nominal importance. Meanwhile the actual power at the Imperial Court had passed to the ministerial family of Fujiwara which was founded by 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 the refined amusement, leaving the

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

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

Kamakura Period (1185—1333 A.D.)

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

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

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

Muromachi Period (1338—1602 A.D.)

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

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

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

Nobunaga had even adopted the policy of encouraging Christianity, chiefly in order to check the rampant tendency of the Buddhist priests against whom he had led a crusade. Tokugawa Iyeyasu, the lord of Mikawa, Totomi and Suruga, was an ally of Nobunaga, but with the assumption of power by Hideyoshi to the exclusion of Nobunaga's two sons, Iyeyasu adopted an attitude of neutrality, and then one of hostility when one of the two sons, for having 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 were reconciled.

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

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

Edo Period (1602—1867 A.D.)

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 Hide-

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

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

Learning was encouraged by the Shogunate, chiefly to check the war-like 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 the early 19th century, demanding the conclusion of treaties of commerce, further tended to reveal their internal decay. Chiefly to gain time, the Shogunate applied to the Court at Kyoto for permission to open the country and thus involuntarily placed itself under the direction of the legitimate rulers. The Court then ordered the expulsion of the foreign missions. It was a highly irresponsible decision, but the Court had been long estranged from active politics and was moreover inclined to obstruct and annoy the Shogunate out of spite. It was in such peculiar circumstances that the sentiment of loyalty to the legitimate rulers became strangely associated with the anti-foreign policy, and gave rise to the "Sonno-joi" (loyalty to the Court and expulsion of foreigners) agitation, the slogan that

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

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

MODERN JAPAN

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

ceed in pushing ahead the prosperity of the nation and in expanding its prestige and credit.

Demise of Emperor Meiji—On July 31, 1912, Meiji Tenno died before attaining his 60th anniversary, but it may be said that his memorable reign was brought to a fitting close. His memory will forever be held in profound veneration by the people as one of the most illustrious sovereigns that have ever ruled over the country. With the immediate accession of his son Prince Yoshihito (Emperor Taisho) to the Throne began the new era of Taisho. The 45 years (1868-1912) compose the Meiji period.

The Dawn of a New Era

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

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

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

Prior to this, namely, in March-September, 1921, the Crown Prince made a journey to Eu-

rope to make observations and exchange courtesies with the sovereigns and rulers of European countries. It was an event unprecedented in the history of Japan, and was moreover an unqualified success in every respect. Then in November of the same year the Crown Prince was appointed Regent to undertake the conduct of State affairs in place of his Imperial father who was suffering from chronic illness and was incapacitated from attending to public duties. In the spring of 1924 the Crown Prince married Princess Naga-ko, first daughter of H.I.H. Prince Kuni. The Crown Prince's foreign tour was followed by that of his younger brother Prince Chichibu, 2nd Imperial son, who proceeded to England for study leaving Japan in May, 1925. He entered Oxford in October, 1926, which he had to leave on learning that his father was critically ill and returned home in January 1927. Then, in the spring of 1930 Prince Takamatsu, younger brother of Prince Chichibu, accompanied by his consort Princess Kiku-ko, made an extensive tour of Europe visiting the British Court on Imperial mission and also the Courts of other European countries, returning home in the spring of 1931 by way of America.

CHRONICLE OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

- B.C.600. Accession of the first Emperor, Jimmu Tenno.
A.D. 97-113. Prince Yamato-take conquers S. W. and E. Japan.
" 200. Conquest of Korea by the Empress Jingo.
" 285. First Chinese books brought to Japan.
" 552. Buddhism introduced from Korea.
" 603-800. Government remodelled on Chinese bureaucratic plan.
" 602. Chinese calendar introduced.
" 709-784. The Court resides at Nara.
" 712. First extant Japanese book published (Kojiki).
" 770. Printing introduced.
" 794. Kyoto made the capital.
" 809. Invention of the Hiragana syllabary.
" 1274-1281. Repulse of the Mongols.
" 1332-1392. Two rival lines of Emperors, the Northern and Southern Courts.
" 1542. The Portuguese discover Japan.
" 1549. St. Francis Xavier arrives in Japan.
" 1587. First persecution of the Christians.
" 1590. Yedo founded by Ieyasu.
" 1592-1598. Hideyoshi invades Korea.
" 1603-1868. Tokugawa dynasty of Shoguns.
" 1624. Japan closed and Christianity prohibited.
" 1639. The Dutch relegated to Deshima.
" 1708. Last eruption of Fuji.
" 1853. Arrival of Commodore Perry.
" 1854. First treaty signed with the United States.

The Manchurian Incident

The Manchurian Incident of September 18, 1931 and the subsequent establishment of the independent state of Manchoukuo form a landmark in modern Japanese history. Its significance lies in the crystallization of an inseparable relationship between the new Empire and Japan. In the years that have elapsed since the founding of Manchoukuo, the intercourse between the two countries have become increasingly cordial. Japan was visited in April, 1935 by His Majesty the Emperor of Manchoukuo, who returned the visit of the previous year of His Highness Prince Chichibu, younger brother of His Majesty the Emperor of Japan.

The Sino-Japanese Hostilities

The Sino-Japanese hostilities, which have since taken on the aspects of a war on a huge scale, broke out in July, 1937 from an incident at Fengtai, near Peking, on July 7. The war-front soon spread throughout North China and in August 1937 Shanghai was brought into the sphere of hostilities. Military operations have since been carried out over wide areas in Central and South China, extending as far inland as Hankow. In Mar. 1940 a new central government under Mr. Wang Ching-wei was formed at Nanking.

- " 1855. Great earthquake at Yedo.
" 1857-1859. First treaties with European Powers.
" 1858. Yokohama opened.
" 1860. First Japanese Embassy sent abroad.
" 1864. Bombardment of Shimonoseki.
" 1868. The Shogunate abolished and the Emperor restored.
" 1868-1869. Civil war between Imperial and partisans of the Shogun.

CHRONOLOGY SINCE 1869

A. Meiji Era (1868-1912)

1867. The Emperor Meiji enthroned.
1868. Meiji era begins with September.
" The Five Imperial Pledges proclaimed.
" Dajokan established.
1869. Capital removed to Tokyo.
" Surrender of fiefs by the lords.
" New organization of the Government.
" Telegraphic communications commenced.
1870. Ministers sent to foreign countries.
" Social castes abolished.
1871. Japan divided into 1 "Do" 3 urban prefectures and 72 prefectures for administrative purposes. (the number being reduced in 1889 to the present 1 "Do", 3 urban prefectures and 43 prefectures)
" The people allowed to cut off their queues and the samurai forbidden to wear swords.
1872. The national school system inaugurated.
" The Loochow Islands definitely included within Japanese territory.

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| 1872 | Railway line opened between Tokyo and Yokohama. | |
| 1873 | The solar calendar adopted. | |
| " | Conscription system of military service instituted. | |
| 1874 | Expedition to Formosa. | |
| " | Request for opening the House of Representatives. | |
| " | The Saga Affairs. | |
| 1875 | Karafuto exchanged for the Kuriles. | |
| " | First Convention of the local governors. | |
| 1876 | Kumamoto incident, a reactionary movement by the Jimpuren band of Kumamoto Samurai. Similar events occurred at Aki-tsuki and Hagi. | |
| 1877 | The "Seinan" incident, the rebellion of Takamori Saigo and his Colleagues. | |
| 1879 | Local assemblies opened. | |
| 1880 | New penal code promulgated. | |
| 1881 | Imperial Edict issued promising the opening of the national assembly. | |
| 1882 | Hirobumi Ito despatched to Europe for study of Western constitutional governments. | |
| 1884 | Drafting of the constitution started. | |
| 1885 | Institution of the cabinet. | |
| " | The Tientsin Treaty. | |
| 1886 | Japan becomes a member of the International Red Cross Society. | |
| 1888 | Institution of city, town and village divisions. | |
| 1889 | The Constitution of the Great Empire of Japan proclaimed (Feb. 11). | |
| 1890 | The First Imperial Diet convened in November. | |
| " | Imperial Rescript on Education issued. | |
| " | The system of courts of justice and promulgation of Court procedures instituted. | |
| 1894 | New Anglo-Japanese Treaty signed. | |
| 1894-1895 | Sino-Japanese War. | |
| 1895 | Shimonoseki Peace Treaty signed. | |
| " | The Three Powers' Intervention and return of the Lisotung Peninsula to China. | |
| " | Formosa ceded to Japan. | |
| 1897 | Gold standard adopted. | |
| 1898 | The Civil Law promulgated. | |
| 1899 | The Commercial Law promulgated. | |
| " | Boxer Uprising in China. | |
| " | New treaties come into operation, whereby all foreigners are brought under Japanese Law. | |
| 1902 | Anglo-Japanese Alliance signed. | |
| 1904-1905 | Russo-Japanese War. | |
| 1905 | Capture of Port Arthur, January 1. | |
| " | Battle of Mukden, March 10. | |
| " | Battle of the Japan Sea, May 27. | |
| " | Portsmouth Peace Treaty, September. | |
| " | Korea becomes Japan's protectorate, November. | |
| 1906 | The Kwantung Government-General established. | |
| 1907 | Opening of the Karafuto Office. | |
| " | The Revised Penal Code promulgated. | |
| 1910 | Korea annexed, August. | |
| 1911 | The Anglo-Japanese Alliance revised. | |
| " | Revision of Treaties with Western countries on equal footing. | |
| 1912 | Demise of the Emperor Meiji, July 30. | |

B. Taisho Era (1912-1926)

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| 1912 | Ascension of the Emperor Taisho, July 30. |
| 1914 | Capture of Tsingtao, November. |
| 1915 | New Treaty with China (so-called "Twenty-one Demands"). |
| 1917 | Gold embargo instituted. |
| 1919 | The South Sea Islands mandated to Japan. |
| " | Japan becomes a member of the League of Nations. |
| 1921 | The Crown Prince tours Europe. |
| " | The Crown Prince becomes Regent. |
| 1921-1922 | The Washington Conference. |
| " | Termination of the Anglo Japanese Alliance. |
| 1923 | Great Earthquake of Kanto district, September 1. |
| " | Conclusion of Treaty with the U.S.S.R. |
| " | Promulgation of the new Election Law (Universal Suffrage). |
| 1926 | Demise of the Emperor Taisho, December 25. |

C. Showa Era (1926-)

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| 1926 | Ascension of the present Emperor, December 25. |
| 1927 | Financial panic. |
| 1930 | Gold embargo removed. |
| " | The London Disarmament Conference. |
| 1931 | Outbreak of the Manchurian Incident, September 18. |
| " | Gold embargo re-imposed. |
| 1932 | The Shanghai Affair. |
| " | State of Manchoukuo established, March 1. |
| " | The 'May 15 Affair' (assassination of Premier Inukai). |
| 1933 | Japan withdraws from the League of Nations, March 27. |
| " | The World Economic Conference at London. |
| 1934 | Manchoukuo becomes an Empire and His Majesty Pu Yi is proclaimed as first Emperor, March 1. Year name changed to Kangte from Tatung. |
| " | Japanese Government notified the U. S. Government of intention to terminate the Washington Naval Treaty, December 29. |
| 1936 | Japan withdraws from the London Naval Conference, January 15. |
| " | The 'February 26 Affair' assassination of Makoto Saito, Korekiyo Takahashi, and General J. Watanabe. |
| " | Anti-Comintern Pact (Japan and Germany) signed November 25. |
| 1937 | Outbreak of the China Incident, July 7. |
| " | The war spreads to Shanghai, Aug. 13. |
| " | Anti-Comintern Pact (Italy German-Japanese) signed November 6. |
| " | Abolition of Extraterritoriality in Manchoukuo enforced November 5. |
| 1938 | Changkufeng Incident, July 12. |
| 1939 | Outbreak of Nommonhan Incident, May 11. |
| 1940 | U.S.A. abrogates Japan-U.S.A. treaty of commerce & navigation, January 25. |
| " | Japan-Germany-Italy Mutual Aid Treaty concluded September 27. |
| " | 2,600th Anniversary of National foundation held in November. |

CHAPTER III
GEOLOGY

A. GEOLOGY OF JAPAN

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

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

Geological Composition

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

Table 1. Geological Composition of Japan

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

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

Table 2. Sedimentary Formation and Contemporaneous Igneous Rocks

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

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

The Chichibu System

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

Economic Geology of Japan

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

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

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

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

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

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

C. HOT SPRINGS

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

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

Table 3. Number and Kinds of Hot Springs

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

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

Table 4. List of Popular Hot Springs

Name	Nearest Rly. station	Character	Above sea level (ft.)	Ave. Temperature	
				C.	F.
Arima	Arima	Simple carbon-dioxated	1,287	17.0°	62.6°
As mushi	Asamushi	Sulphated bitter	—	70.3°	159.5°
Atami	Atami	Earth-muriated Common salt	74	—	198.5°
Beppu	Beppu	Simple thermals	50	63.0°	127.4°
Dogo	Dogo	Simple thermals	35	44.5°	112.1°
Hakone	Odawara	Alkaline common salt	1,377	—	137.3°
Miyanoshita		Sulphur	2,760	—	113.0°
Ashinoyu					
Higashiyama	{ Aizu Wakamatsu	Saline bitter	(about) 850	47.5°	117.5°
Ikao	Shibukawa	Sulphated bitter	2,800	46.0°	114.8°
Ito	Atami	Simple thermals (Seaside)	—	46.9°	116.4°
Kinosaki	Kinosaki	Earth-muriated common salt	—	—	126.1°
Kusatsu	Kusatsu	Acid vitriol	4,500	62.0°	143.6°
Misasa	Kurayoshi	Simple thermals	50	71.0°	159.8°
Nagaoka	Nagaoka	Simple thermals	100	48.5°	119.3°
Nasu	Kuroiso	Hydrogen sulphide	(about) 4,500	—	82.4°

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

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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 these 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.

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(Emanation per liter of water in Mache's unit)

Hot Springs					
Name	Prefecture	Mache's units	Character	Temperature C.	F.
Misasa	Tottori	142.14	Simple	71.0°	—
Sekigane	"	39.12	Sulphur	44.0°	—
Tochiomata	Niigata	25.86	Simple	39.0°	—
Kawatana	Yamaguchi	11.88	Saline	40.0°	—
Cold Springs					
Masutomi	Yamanashi	828	Saline	21.5°	—
Takayama	Gifu	281	Simple	10.0°	—
Ikeda	Shimane	188	Carbonated	17.0°	—
Hirukawa	Gifu	60	Simple	19.0°	—
Murasugi	Niigata	50	"	25.6°	—

D. EARTHQUAKES

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

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

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

Japanese Arc

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

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

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

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

Table 6. Seismographic Record

Initial time	11h 58m 46s 5
Duration of preliminary tremor	12s 1
Maximum amplitude	80mm
Intensity	disastrous
Epicentre	Northern part of Sagami Bay;
Longitude	130°2 E...Latitude 35°1 N.

As to the origin of this terrestrial disturbance the hypothesis offered is that, judging from the distribution of geological strata and the nature of topographical features of the affected area, it was most probably due to the powerful strain to which the earth-crust between the Izu Peninsula, the most elevated portion, and the Sea of Sagami, the most subsided portion, in this region, must have been subjected for a considerable period of time. The shock caused severe dislocation of the strata of the disturbed area, the shores of Sagami Bay and the west coast of the Boso Peninsula marking sudden upheaval, as much as 55 metres at some places, while on the other hand the bottom of Sagami Bay fell by 20 to 40 metres. Among other noteworthy phenomena was the visit of seismic sea-waves or "tsunami" which attained the height of 8 metres at some parts on the eastern shores of the Izu Peninsula, though on the coast of Tokyo Bay the height was generally below one metre. Landslides occurred here and there, notably

Table 9. Seismic Record in Japan

When:	Where:	Damages	
		Houses	Lives
1605, Feb. 2	Tokaido & Shikoku (with tidal waves)	8,800	8,800
1611, Sept. 27	Aizu in Iwashiro	3,700	3,700
1611, Dec. 2	Hokkaido and Sanriku district	5,000	5,000
1633, Mar. 1	Odawara (Kanagawa Prefecture)	150	150
1649, July 29	Yedo (Tokyo)	several hundreds	several hundreds
1662, June 16	Places about Kyoto	3,000	800
1666, Feb. 1	Takata and Echigo	1,500	1,500
1694, June 19	Noshiro (Akita Prefecture)	2,760	394
1703, Dec. 31	Places about Yedo (Tokyo)	20,162	5,233
1704, May 27	Noshiro (Akita Prefecture)	1,200	58
1707, Oct. 28	Pacific coast of Tokaido, Kyushu & Shikoku (with tidal waves)	29,000	4,900
1711, Mar. 19	Mimasaka, Inaba & Hoki (Tottori, Okayama Prefecture)	500	400
1751, May 20	Takata in Echigo (tidal waves)	6,088	2,000
1766, Mar. 8	Hirosaki	7,192	1,335
1792, May 21	Hizen, Higo & vicinity (with tidal waves)	12,000	15,200
1804, July 10	Kisakata (Akita Pref.) (with tidal waves)	5,500	333
1828, Dec. 18	Sanjo in Echigo	11,012	1,443
1830, Aug. 19	Kyoto and vicinity	280
1847, May 8	Nagano and Niigata Districts	34,000	12,000
1854, July 8	Yamato, Iga & Ise (Miye & Nara Districts)	5,000	1,057
1854, Dec. 23	Tokaido, Tosando, Hokuroku, San-in, Sanyo	9,000	1,200
1854, Dec. 24	Tokaido and Shikoku (with tidal waves)	60,000	3,000

along the eastern shores of the Izu Peninsula, one at Nebukawa, about midway between Atami and Odawara, being most disastrous, while the hilly district of Hakone was also severely damaged from this particular dislocation of earth-crust.

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

Table 7. Number of After-shocks

(Sept. 1, 1923—Sept. 1, 1925)

Felt	about 1,600
Not felt	6,100

The seat of after-shocks is naturally shifting. So far two very strong passing vibrations of this description have occurred, one on September 2, 1923, off Katsu-ura on the southern coast of the Boso Peninsula and the other on January 15, 1924, in Sagami Bay. Its intensity is indicated by the following data:—

Table 8. Seismographic Record

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

When:	Where:	Damages	
		Houses	Lives
1855, Nov. 11	Yedo (Tokyo)	14,346	7,000
1858, Apr. 9	Northern Hida (Gifu District)	709	203
1872, Mar. 14	Hama in Shimane Prefecture	5,000	600
1891, Oct. 28	Mino and Owari (Gifu-Aichi District)	80,000	7,273
1894, Oct. 22	Shonai in Yamagata	6,006	720
1896, June 15	Sanriku District (Aomori-Iwate District) (with tidal waves)	10,370	27,000
1896, Aug. 31	Akita-Iwate District	6,079	206
1904, Nov. 6	Toroku, Kagi (Taiwan)	1,723	145
1906, Mar. 17	Kagi (Taiwan)	6,769	1,258
1909, Aug. 14	Omi (Shiga District)	976	41
1914, Mar. 15	Akita	640	90
1923, Sept. 1	Sagami Bay (epicentre), Tokyo, Yokohama and outlying districts	701,622	99,331
1924, Jan. 15	Sagami	1,273	14
1925, May 23	Northern part of Tajima (N. Himeji)	3,333	895
1927, Mar. 7	N.-W. part of Kyoto	16,026	3,017
1930, Nov. 26	Northern part of Izu	2,142	259
1933, Mar. 3	Sanriku District (with tidal waves)	4,086	2,986
1935, Apr. 21	Shinchiku and Taichu Districts (Taiwan)	17,835	3,322
1936, Feb. 21	Settsu, Kawachi and Yamato	108	9
1936, Dec. 27	Nii-jima and Shikine-jima (Ogasawara Is.)	508	3
1939, May 1	Ojika Peninsula	1,733	26

Seismic Zones

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

Seismic Prediction, Losses, Etc.

(See 1937 Issue)

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

ing 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.

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

Table 10. Number of Earthquakes Since 1923 Disaster

	No. of earthquakes	Daily average
1923 (after Sept. 1)	1,968	7.8
" (for the whole year)	2,786	16.1
1924	1,200	3.3
1925	1,886	5.2
1926	1,272	3.5
1927	2,069	7.4
1928	1,450	4.0
1929	1,443	4.0
1930	5,774	15.8
1931	1,740	4.8
1932	1,245	3.4
1933	1,511	4.1
1934	1,308	3.6
1935	1,584	4.3
1936	1,437	3.9
1937	1,395	3.8
1938	2,068	5.2
1939	1,269	3.5

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

The following table, also based on the investigation of the Central Meteorological Observatory, shows the number of earthquakes felt by human body that occurred in Tokyo and vicinity in the recent past.

Table 11. Number of Earthquakes in Tokyo and Vicinity

1912	119	1926	62
1913	95	1927	56
1914	86	1928	65
1915	184	1929	47
1916	122	1930	56
1917	111	1931	74
1918	110	1932	39
1919	100	1933	30
1920	68	1934	31
1921	30	1935	52
1922	42	1936	22
1923	1,374	1937	26
1924	203	1938	42
1925	66	1939	39

CHAPTER IV POPULATION AND EMIGRATION

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

The population of Japan is characterized by a density and a rate of increase comparable to those of the highest in the world. Although there are no accurate data to verify the population of Japan prior to the Meiji Restoration (1868), the number of inhabitants is put in approximate figures at thirty millions. It is computed that in the preceding century or more the population had remained almost at a standstill. The prolific increase in population is therefore a phenomena of the past 70 years during which time the number of inhabitants has more than doubled. The rate of increase by decades is as follows: 1870-1880, 5%; 1880-1890, 7.6%; 1890-1900, 10%; 1900-1910, 12%; 1910-1920, 13%; 1920-1930, 15%. For the quinquennial period, 1930-1935, the rate of increase fell off to 6.4%. The annual growth in population was highest in 1932 at 1,007,398, but since then a gradual decline has been noted.

Race.—According to the investigations made during 1937 throughout the Empire and those residing abroad, the number of the Yamato race (the main strain of what is known as the Japanese race) aggregated 75,006,239, Chosenese 22,916,256, Taiwanese 5,261,518 (5,136,175 of Chinese origin, and 25,343 of the Takasago race or aborigines). Other minor races are 50,741 of the South Seas with 47,773 Kanakas and 3,605 Chamorros. The Ainu race which inhabits the Hokkaido and Karafuto districts numbered 16,519 and 1,333, respectively. Besides the Ainu race, there are the so-called Karafuto natives numbering 513, including 276 Orokes, Yakutsk, etc.

Population of the Whole Empire.—The population of the whole Empire of Japan as enumerated by the 1935 census is 97,697,555. Contrasted with the 1930 census, it shows an increase of 7,301,512, or 8.1%. As for the increase shown by Japan Proper and her colonies during the five years, Japan Proper is represented by 4,804,143 (7.4%), Korea by 1,840,733 (8.7%), Formosa by 619,881 (13.5%) and Karafuto by 36,747 (12.5%).

The leased territory of Kwantung Province accounts for 1,134,704, the South Manchuria Railway Zone for 522,689 and the mandated South Sea Islands for 102,537. Adding these figures to the population of the whole Empire given above, the total is 99,456,818.

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

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

Table 1. Population of Japan Compared with Other Countries

	Year of Survey	Area (sq. km.)	Population (1,000)	Male (1,000)	Female (1,000)	Density per km.
Japanese Empire	1938	378,400	100,943	50,783	50,160	149
Of which Japan Proper	1939	382,561	72,876	36,502	36,374	190
Australia	1938	7,704,129	6,930	0.9
Belgium	1937	30,506	8,361	274
Canada	1938	9,569,658	11,209	69
China	1936	10,361,604	440,605	28
England	1938	229,849	46,200	22,193	24,007	201
France	1938	550,986	41,980	76
Germany	1939	7,554,700	774,828	36,426	38,400	135
Holland	1938	34,759	8,727	3,943	3,993	228
British India	1936	4,684,457	352,838	181,829	171,009	75
Italy	1939	310,190	43,509	21,068	21,851	138
Manchoukuo	1937	1,303,143	36,933	19,291	16,046	27
U. S. A.	1937	7,889,347	130,215	17
U. S. S. R.	1939	21,174,900	170,467	81,665	88,802	8

Note:—Exclusive of Colonies and dominions unless specially mentioned.

Table 2. Comparison of Population By Age Groups

Year	Total (million)			%						
	Male	Female	Total	1-14	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	Over 55	
Japan Proper	1935 (c)	34.7	34.5	69.3	36.9	18.4	14.3	10.7	8.6	11.1
British India	1931 (c)	180.2	169.6	349.8	39.9	18.5	16.3	11.5	7.4	6.4
U.S.A.	1935 (e)	64.2	63.2	127.2	27.3	18.2	15.8	13.9	11.2	13.6
Germany (1)	1937 (e)	36.4	38.4	74.8	23.1	13.6	18.0	15.2	11.8	18.3
U.K. (2)	1937 (e)	22.1	23.9	46.0	22.2	16.2	16.6	14.5	12.3	18.2
France	1936 (e)	19.9	21.4	41.3	25.2	12.9	16.0	13.9	11.9	20.1
Italy	1936 (c)	21.1	21.8	42.9	30.5	16.4	15.9	12.2	9.9	15.1
U.S.S.R.	1926 (c)	71.0	76.0	147.0	37.2	20.9	14.4	10.4	7.4	8.7

Note:—(e)=estimate. (c)=census. (1) including Austria. (2) England, Wales and Scotland only.

Table 3. Census Population of Japanese Empire (Unit: 1,000)

(Oct. 1st.)	Total population	Of which male	Of which female	Per 1 sq. km.	Male to 100 female
1872	34,806	—	—	—	—
1892	40,508	—	—	—	—
1912	50,577	—	—	—	—
1920	55,963	28,044	27,919	147	100.4
1925	59,737	30,013	29,724	156	101.0
1910	64,450	32,390	32,060	169	101.0
1935	69,254	34,734	34,520	181	100.6
1936*	70,258	35,224	35,034	183	100.5
1937*	71,253	35,710	35,543	186	100.5
1938*	72,223	36,183	36,040	188	100.4
1939*	72,876	36,502	36,374	...	100.3
1920	17,264	8,903	8,361	78	109.5
1925	19,523	10,021	9,502	88	105.5
1930	20,257	10,320	9,936	92	103.9
1935	21,891	11,116	10,775	99	103.2
1936*	22,048	11,206	10,842	100	103.4
1937*	22,355	11,352	11,003	101	103.2
1938*	22,634	11,489	11,145	103	103.1
1920	3,655	1,894	1,762	102	107.5
1925	3,993	2,053	1,941	111	105.8
1930	4,593	2,353	2,239	128	105.1
1935	5,212	2,660	2,553	145	104.4
1936*	5,452	2,794	2,657	152	104.4
1937*	5,609	2,862	2,747	156	104.2
1938*	5,745	2,928	2,819	...	103.9
1920	106	62	44	3	143.0
1925	204	122	81	6	150.4
1930	295	169	127	8	133.1
1935	332	186	146	9	127.8
1936*	322	175	147	9	118.7
1937*	327	176	151	9	116.8
1938*	339	183	156	...	116.6
1920	76,988	38,903	38,085	114	102.1
1925	83,457	42,029	41,248	124	102.3
1930	90,396	45,676	44,720	134	102.1
1935	97,698	49,243	48,455	145	101.6
1936*	98,080	49,399	48,690	145	101.6
1937*	99,544	50,573	49,444	147	102.3
1938*	101,594	51,102	50,494	...	101.2
1920	940	595	345	253	172.6
1925	1,054	644	410	283	157.4
1930	1,328	809	519	355	155.9
1935	1,657	995	661	441	150.5
1936	1,681	996	685	...	145.3
1937*	1,190	681	509	...	133.9
1938*	1,226	701	524	354	133.8
1920	52	28	24	24	115.7
1925	56	30	26	26	114.4
1930	70	38	32	32	119.7
1935	103	57	45	48	126.3
1936*	107	59	48	50	124.7
1937*	113	63	51	52	124.7
1938*†	121	69	53	56	130.7

Note:—The figures of Kwantung include those of the S.M.R. Zone up to 1937; from 1937 they are included under Manchoukuo due to the abolition of extraterritoriality. *—Estimate; †—June end.

Sex Ratio.—Of the total population of Japan Proper at the 1935 census given as 69,254,148, 34,734,133 are males and 34,520,015 females. The number of males exceeds that of females by 232,118. They are in a ratio of 100.6 to 100, which compares with 101.0 to 100 for the previous census.

Table 4. Urban and Suburban Population

	Urban	Suburban	Total
1920	12,269,210	43,693,843	55,963,053
1925	13,711,120	46,205,702	59,786,822
1930	15,444,300	49,006,705	64,450,005
1935	22,636,307	46,587,841	69,254,148

Table 5. Population of Tokyo Compared with Foreign Cities

City	Year	Population (1,000)
New York	1936	7,365
Tokyo	1939	6,581
Berlin	1933	4,299
London	1937	4,095
Paris	1935	2,830
Rome	1938	1,268

* Census results.

Table 6. Japan's Position in Rate of Birth and Death per 1,000 People

	Japan Proper		England		Germany		France		U.S.A.		Italy	
	Birth	Death	Birth	Death	Birth	Death	Birth	Death	Birth	Death	Birth	Death
1932	32.9	17.7	15.8	12.3	15.1	10.8	17.3	15.8	17.4	10.9	23.8	14.7
1933	31.6	17.8	14.9	12.5	14.7	11.2	16.2	15.8	16.6	10.7	23.7	13.7
1934	30.0	18.1	15.2	12.0	18.0	10.9	16.2	15.1	17.1	11.0	23.4	13.7
1885	31.6	16.8	15.2	12.0	18.9	11.8	15.3	15.7	16.9	10.9	23.3	13.3
1935	30.3	17.5	15.3	12.3	19.0	11.8	15.0	15.3	16.6	11.5	22.4	13.7
1937	30.6	17.0	15.3	12.6	18.8	11.7	14.7	15.0	17.0	11.2	22.9	13.9
1938	26.7	17.4	15.5	11.8	19.7	11.7	14.6	15.4	17.9	10.7	23.9	13.9
1939	30.6	17.0

Sterilization of Unfit

The Home Office is framing a bill for the sterilization of the mentally unfit. This action is being taken because an investigation, made in

cooperation with the Japan Eugenics Society, has revealed that 70 per cent of the 150,000 persons in Japan known to be suffering from mental diseases have inherited their handicaps.

RECENT TRENDS

The manner in which the effects of the China Incident have been reflected in the latest population changes of this country is a subject of profound interest. Statistics have already shown a conspicuous phenomenon in the form of a decrease in births during 1938, but before examining the effects of the Incident in detail, it is necessary to review briefly the changes in the population during the past few years.

The population of Japan Proper rose above 60 millions for the first time in 1926, when the census of October 1 showed a total of approximately 60,520,000 persons, and in 1937 the number had increased to more than 71,250,000, the gain during the 11 years being some

Natural Increase in Population.—The natural increase in population caused by the increase in the difference between births and deaths differs somewhat according to year, but it has on the whole pursued an upward course. This natural increase in population was reckoned at over 700,000 yearly about a quarter of a century ago. In 1918 the number seriously decreased to less than 300,000 due chiefly to the prevalence of the Spanish influenza. The following year the number increased to 500,000. Since then it gradually increased until 1926 when it reached a height of 940,000. Later the number dropped to the level of 800,000. In 1930 the number recovered the 900,000 level at 914,000, or 14.2 in 1,000 people. In 1932 the number reached the 1,000,000 level at 1,007,000, or 15.19 in 1,000 people. From the following year, however, the number began to decline.

The number of births and deaths for the whole of 1938 was 1,928,321 and 1,259,895 respectively. The proportion of the number of births per 1,000 population is 26.70 while deaths is 17.44.

10,730,000 or slightly over 17.7%. The latest estimate places the 1939 population at more than 72,875,800 persons, which signifies an increase of 12,353,000 in 13 years. This is, of course, a natural increase due to the excess of births over deaths. Up to about 1925 the number of births was generally in the neighborhood of two million annually. It exceeded that figure for the first time in 1920 and did so again in 1923, but did not consistently remain above the two million level until after 1925.

The absolute number of births, however, shows signs of decreasing when compared with the total population. The birth rate reached its peak in 1920 at slightly over 36 births per

1,000 of population, and has since declined every year, being slightly less than 35 in 1926 and 26.7 in 1938.

The number of deaths has shown no definite tendency either to increase or decrease, the absolute number having remained between 1,100,000 and 1,200,000 from 1926 until 1938 when it exceeded 1,250,000. Comparison of the deaths with the total population, however, reveals that the death rate has fallen from nearly 27 deaths per 1,000 in 1926 or 1927 to around 17 per 1,000 in 1938.

It may be inferred from the foregoing data

that the natural increase in population has not been advancing in recent years, because the decrease in birth has exceeded the decrease in deaths.

If the conditions in 1937 are regarded as generally normal, those in 1938 may be considered to have been affected by the China Incident. The actual increase of births against deaths in 1937 which was 973,000 in 1937 fell sharply to 669,000 in 1938. This corresponded to a decrease in the birth rate per 1,000 of population of from 30.6 in 1937 to 26.7 in 1938.

Table 7. Statistics of Birth, Death, Marriage and Divorce, etc.
(In Japan Proper)

	Marriage		Divorce		Birth		Still-birth		Death		Increase of Birth against Death	
	No. (1,000)	Per 1,000 pop.	No. (1,000)	Per 1,000 pop.	No. (1,000)	Per 1,000 pop.	No. (1,000)	Per 1,000 pop.	No. (1,000)	Per 1,000 pop.	No. (1,000)	Per 1,000 pop.
1928	500	8.04	49	0.79	2,186	34.88	120	1.93	1,237	19.91	899	14.47
1934	513	7.52	49	0.71	2,044	29.97	113	1.66	1,235	18.11	809	11.86
1935	557	8.04	49	0.70	2,191	31.63	116	1.67	1,162	16.78	1,029	14.86
1936	540	7.82	46	0.66	2,102	29.92	111	1.58	1,230	17.51	872	12.41
1937	675	9.47	47	0.65	2,181	30.61	111	1.56	1,208	16.95	973	13.65
1938	639	7.46	45	0.62	1,928	26.70	100	1.38	1,260	17.44	669	9.26

Table 8. Average Age of First Marriage

	Male		Female			Male		Female				
	1926	1927	1928	1929		1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
1926	27.13	27.18	23.07	23.05	1932	27.40	27.57	23.39	23.58			
1927	27.18	27.26	23.05	23.10	1933	27.40	27.70	23.39	23.70			
1928	27.26	27.36	23.10	23.23	1934	27.70	27.76	23.70	23.81			
1929	27.36	27.38	23.23	23.21	1935	27.76	23.92	23.81	23.92			
1930	27.38	27.29	23.21	22.25	1936	23.81	28.09	23.92	24.16			
1931	27.29		22.25		1937	28.09	28.39	24.16	24.41			
					1938	28.39		24.41				

Table 9. Census Population in Japan Proper Classified by Nationality, and Race

(A) Japanese Subjects By Race

Oct. 1st	Japanese	Korean	Formosan	Saghalienian	South Sea Islander	Total
1920	55,834,992	40,755	1,703	31	3	55,927,494
1930	63,972,025	419,009	4,611	22	18	64,395,685

(B) Foreign Residents By Nationality

	Chinese	Russian	American	British	German	French	Total incl. Others
1920	22,427	1,714	3,966	4,188	630	673	35,519
1930	39,440	3,587	3,640	3,114	1,218	694	54,320

Table 10. Census Population of the Cities

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

Cities	Population	No. of households	Increase of pop. on 1930 census	Cities	Population	No. of households	Increase of pop. on 1930 census
Akita	60,646	10,561	4,101	Fukuoka	29,158	55,184	40,914
Amagasaki	71,072	14,783	21,008	Fukushima	48,484	8,842	2,792
Aomori	93,414	17,693	11,334	Fukuyama	58,186	12,394	3,789
Asahikawa	91,021	16,356	3,796	Gifu	128,721	25,986	11,385
Ashikaga	48,875	8,999	4,977	Hechinohe	62,210	10,853	9,303
Beppu	62,345	13,596	5,155	Hachioji	59,494	11,338	7,606
Chiba	57,446	11,938	8,358	Hagi	32,587	7,160	481
Choshi	48,852	9,857	5,654	Hakodate	207,480	19,196	10,228

Cities	Population	No. of households	Increase of pop. on 1930 census	Cities	Population	No. of households	Increase of pop. on 1930 census
Himeji	91,375	18,210	7,396	Oita	61,732	11,168	4,438
Hiratsuka	38,346	7,640	4,850	Okayama	166,144	25,837	17,477
Hirosaki	46,014	8,555	2,677	Okazaki	77,195	15,650	11,688
Hiroshima	310,118	66,336	39,701	Omuda	104,992	20,685	7,693
Ichikawa	46,711	8,952	8,922	Onomichi	30,777	6,950	1,693
Ichinomiya	53,376	10,009	11,147	Osaka	2,983,874	630,232	536,301
Iizuka	39,629	7,777	380	Otaru	133,557	29,223	8,700
Imabari	51,602	11,020	3,563	Otsu	71,063	14,235	11,692
Ishinomaki	33,530	5,726	2,787	Saga	50,154	9,406	3,971
Kagoshima	181,736	35,647	15,366	Sakai	141,286	29,518	20,938
Kainan	29,917	6,376	1,231	Sakata	31,866	6,374	1,586
Kanazawa	163,733	35,399	3,576	Sanjo	34,649	6,331	3,393
Karatsu	31,058	6,230	909	Sapporo	196,541	38,019	22,262
Kawagoye	35,192	6,954	987	Sasebo	173,283	31,009	40,109
Kawaguchi	63,716	10,245	12,392	Sendai	219,547	39,883	23,685
Kawasaki	154,748	30,656	40,454	Seto	47,553	10,092	10,144
Kiryu	76,145	13,478	17,849	Shimizu	61,123	11,629	5,458
Kishiwada	39,097	8,565	8,935	Shimonoseki	132,737	28,833	12,671
Kobe	912,179	198,018	124,563	Shingyu	32,055	7,458	3,088
Kochi	104,405	24,033	3,277	Shizuoka	200,737	36,492	10,228
Kofu	82,664	17,063	3,217	Shuri	19,305	4,571	814
Kokura	110,372	22,798	22,323	Takamatsu	86,840	18,803	6,934
Koriyama	54,709	9,895	3,342	Takaoka	57,249	11,239	3,207
Kumagaya	37,649	7,27	1,736	Takasaki	64,283	12,907	4,355
Kumamoto	187,382	36,311	15,507	Takata	31,284	5,758	350
Kurashiki	34,716	7,366	4,604	Tobata	67,800	13,937	16,126
Kure	231,333	46,707	41,051	Tokushima	97,021	21,168	6,387
Kurume	91,920	16,468	8,911	Tokyo	5,875,667	1,191,939	904,823
Kushiro	56,170	10,237	4,584	Tottori	45,335	9,217	3,198
Kyoto	1,080,693	224,663	128,189	Toyama	83,324	17,262	3,778
Marugame	29,615	6,308	778	Toyohaashi	140,735	27,285	12,022
Matsumoto	73,853	14,851	1,212	Tsu	65,971	13,628	2,274
Matsuyama	81,940	18,363	537	Tsuruoka	37,224	7,191	2,908
Matsuye	52,033	10,623	3,261	Tsuayama	36,092	7,784	1,933
Matsuzaka	35,561	7,199	2,410	Ube	76,642	16,488	11,041
Mayebashi	87,181	16,953	2,256	Uji-Yamada	52,494	10,790	1,414
Mito	63,816	12,958	2,972	Urawa	44,328	8,772	7,482
Miyakonojo	36,576	7,201	1,063	Utsunomiya	87,129	17,355	6,741
Miyazaki	64,726	12,925	5,805	Uwajima	51,280	11,127	928
Moji	121,611	25,415	13,481	Uyeda	35,380	7,620	242
Morioka	69,180	12,847	6,881	Wakamatsu			
Muroran	65,095	12,343	9,240	(Fukushima-ken)	46,199	8,517	2,468
Nagano	77,325	15,483	3,413	Wakamatsu			
Nagaoka	62,152	11,860	4,286	(Fukuoka-ken)	73,845	15,253	7,283
Nagasaki	211,702	43,470	7,076	Wakayama	179,732	38,943	19,268
Nagoya	1,052,816	219,739	175,412	Yamagata	69,931	12,635	3,786
Nakatsu	30,328	6,105	1,765	Yamaguchi	31,803	7,156	2,418
Naokata	43,943	8,523	3,871	Yawata	208,629	42,922	40,412
Nara	55,968	11,840	3,184	Yawatahama	30,600	6,537	1,520
Nawa	65,208	15,241	4,673	Yokkaichi	58,471	12,311	6,661
Niigata	134,992	26,319	9,584	Yokohama	701,230	148,545	71,823
Nishinomiya	89,903	18,241	17,793	Yokosuka	182,871	31,640	39,610
Nobeoka	56,421	10,803	25,514	Yonago	36,635	7,950	1,415
Numazu	49,824	9,063	5,797	Yonezawa	50,448	8,878	5,717
Obihiro	35,695	6,980	7,560				

Table 11. Distribution of Urban and Rural Population

Population	Results of 1925 Census			Results of 1930 Census			Results of 1935 Census		
	No. of towns	Population	%	No. of towns	Population	%	No. of towns	Population	%
	Under 500	82	26,103	0.04	70	21,766	0.03	64	18,703
501- 2,000	2,542	3,848,410	6.45	2,350	3,543,608	5.50	2,265	3,408,136	4.92
2,001- 5,000	7,052	22,533,803	37.72	6,286	22,120,186	34.32	6,564	21,137,240	30.52
5,001- 10,000	1,784	11,476,200	19.21	1,878	12,472,034	19.35	1,953	12,938,344	18.63
10,001- 20,000	392	5,229,161	8.75	426	5,718,084	8.87	466	6,254,515	9.03
20,001- 50,000	145	4,437,992	7.43	158	4,690,674	7.28	146	4,244,122	6.20
50,001-100,000	51	3,444,916	5.77	65	4,402,415	6.83	54	3,685,020	5.32
Over 100,000	21	8,741,237	14.63	32	11,431,288	17.82	34	17,518,069	25.30
Total	12,019	59,736,822	100.00	11,865	64,450,005	100.00	11,546	69,254,148	100.00

Table 12. Population Classified By Calling (1930 Census)

	Employers		Independent		Employed		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Agriculture	4,084,190	192,976	485,592	243,732	3,173,283	5,960,334	14,140,107
Fishery	115,065	755	114,755	11,671	271,258	43,120	546,624
Mining	4,439	41	5,239	71	200,496	40,934	251,220
Industry	657,539	29,105	802,627	172,629	2,808,985	1,228,696	5,699,581
Trade	826,814	126,242	887,253	355,228	1,299,831	982,725	4,478,093
Transportation	60,162	806	120,423	925	848,020	77,248	1,107,574
(Civil service and Professional occupation	44,166	4,772	115,586	58,390	1,532,051	289,186	2,044,151
Domestic employees	—	—	—	—	84,203	697,116	781,319
Others	2,787	95	27,496	4,223	457,982	78,388	570,966
Without fixed calling	—	—	—	—	—	—	34,830,365
Total	5,795,152	354,792	2,558,976	836,869	10,676,109	9,397,742	64,460,005

Race:—According to the investigations made during 1937 throughout the Empire and those residing abroad, the number of the Yamato race (the main strain of what is known as the Japanese race) aggregated 75,006,239, Chosenese 22,916,256, Taiwanese 5,261,518 (5,136,175 of Chinese origin, and 25,343 of the Takasago race or aborigines). Other minor races are 50,741 of the South Seas with 47,773 Kanakas and 3,605 Chamorros. The Ainu race which inhabits the Hokkaido and Karafuto districts numbered 16,519 and 1,333, respectively. Besides the Ainu race, there are the so-called Karafuto natives numbering 513, including 276 Oroks, Yakutsk, etc.

Foreign Residents in Japan

The number of foreign residents in Japan as at the end of 1938, as shown by the returns of the Statistics Bureau of the Cabinet, stood at 28,817. It shows a decrease of 1,981 over the previous year. Hyogo tops the list with 7,483, followed by Tokyo with 7,075, Kanagawa with 4,616, Osaka with 2,270, Nagasaki 940, Hokkaido 563, Fukuoka 557, Aichi

Table 14. Foreign Residents By Occupation (Japan Proper)

Year	Agriculture, Forestry, etc.	Fishery, etc.	Mining & Mfg. Ind.	Com-merce	Trans- portation	Public & Free Oc- cupation	Student	Total incl. Others		Grand Total
								Male	Female	
1927	29	8	2,110	11,497	150	2,293	2,155	23,746	9,171	32,917
1934	5	1	1,372	11,026	119	2,549	2,673	21,895	10,746	32,641
1935	7	2	919	10,583	54	4,461	4,895	25,776	12,709	38,475
1936	6	—	1,539	11,754	148	3,308	6,451	27,502	13,363	40,865
1937	8	3	1,090	8,355	136	3,199	2,876	19,847	10,991	30,838
1938	15	—	1,190	6,825	52	4,011	2,834	18,364	10,493	28,857

Table 15. Foreign Visitors to Japan

Year	British	American	German	French	Russian	Chinese	Total incl. Others
1931	3,523	6,162	672	462	1,082	12,877	27,272
1932	3,525	4,310	721	478	1,066	7,792	20,960
1933	5,117	5,792	1,118	636	1,091	9,146	26,264
1934	6,391	7,947	1,313	833	1,427	12,676	35,196
1935	7,293	9,111	1,523	894	1,280	14,260	42,629
1936	6,932	9,655	1,315	920	1,315	11,398	42,568
1937	6,097	10,777	1,816	882	1,562	8,275	40,302
1938	3,209	5,148	1,861	511	1,045	4,021	28,072

481.

As for the nationality of foreign residents in Japan, Chinese come first with 14,807, Manchoukuoans with 2,236, Americans with 2,215, Britishers 2,152, Germans 1,842, White Russians with 1,299.

Table 13. Foreign Residents By Nationalities (Japan Proper: End of 1937)

Countries	1936		1938	
	Total	Male	Female	Total
British India	874	732	242	974
Canada	303	25	174	299
China	27,090	10,124	4,683	14,807
France	569	254	258	512
Germany	1,535	1,065	777	1,842
Great Britain	2,092	1,053	1,094	2,152
Holland	238	159	101	260
Italy	183	147	113	260
Manchoukuo	2,581	1,780	456	2,236
Portugal	214	101	118	219
Spain	112	42	75	117
Switzerland	215	138	101	239
Sweden	87	56	51	107
Thailand	100	105	16	121
U. S. A.	2,086	1,126	1,089	2,215
U.S.S.R.	268	82	84	166
White Russians	1,294	660	639	1,299
Total incl. Others	40,865	18,364	10,493	28,857

Table 14. Foreign Residents By Occupation (Japan Proper)

Year	Agriculture, Forestry, etc.	Fishery, etc.	Mining & Mfg. Ind.	Com-merce	Trans- portation	Public & Free Oc- cupation	Student	Total incl. Others		Grand Total
								Male	Female	
1927	29	8	2,110	11,497	150	2,293	2,155	23,746	9,171	32,917
1934	5	1	1,372	11,026	119	2,549	2,673	21,895	10,746	32,641
1935	7	2	919	10,583	54	4,461	4,895	25,776	12,709	38,475
1936	6	—	1,539	11,754	148	3,308	6,451	27,502	13,363	40,865
1937	8	3	1,090	8,355	136	3,199	2,876	19,847	10,991	30,838
1938	15	—	1,190	6,825	52	4,011	2,834	18,364	10,493	28,857

Table 15. Foreign Visitors to Japan

Year	British	American	German	French	Russian	Chinese	Total incl. Others
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1934	6,391	7,947	1,313	833	1,427	12,676	35,196
1935	7,293	9,111	1,523	894	1,280	14,260	42,629
1936	6,932	9,655	1,315	920	1,315	11,398	42,568
1937	6,097	10,777	1,816	882	1,562	8,275	40,302
1938	3,209	5,148	1,861	511	1,045	4,021	28,072

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 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. Certain subsidized companies such as the Nippon Yusen Kaisha and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha or the banks under special protection like the Bank of Japan, the Yokohama Specie Bank, etc. are not allowed to take foreigners as shareholders.

Alien Landownership

This was first sanctioned in 1910 by law, but as the date for putting it into operation was left unfixed the law remained a dead letter. A new law voted in the 50th session of the Imperial Diet and promulgated on April 1, 1925, has replaced the original enactment, the measure being put in force on November 10, 1926. The law in question is essentially based on the spirit of reciprocity and recognizes the rights of alien ownership as mutual concession. In other words, 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 rights of Japanese subjects. According to the law, foreigners cannot own land or acquire superficies or emphyteusis in certain districts of strategic importance without permission of the Ministers of Army and Navy, such districts being designated in the ordinance relating to the operation of the alien landownership law, promulgated on November 1st, 1926.

Naturalization

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

The above conditions are much modified for those whose fathers, mothers or wives were Japanese subjects, and for those who were born in Japan of either Japanese father or mother. Those who have lived in Japan for ten years or more may be naturalized even when they have not domiciled for five consecutive years, while for those who have made distinguished services to Japan the process of naturalization may, with Imperial sanction, be made very simple, i.e., continuous residence or domicile in Japan for at least one year and good morals. The nationality can also be acquired by being adopted by a Japanese subject. Naturalization still remains comparatively insignificant in number, the bulk being supplied by Chinese living in Taiwan.

Table 16. Naturalization

Year	By Marrying into Family Male	Adopted		Naturalized		Rehabilitated		Expatriation of Japanese	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1927	—	4	4	8	1	7	10	805	258
1933	4	1	1	—	—	70	54	1,863	333
1934	1	—	—	5	—	86	81	943	201
1935	—	2	—	3	1	91	66	359	62
1936	—	1	—	3	—	80	51	667	120
1937	—	—	—	1	3	76	69	849	111

EMIGRATION

Expatriation of Japanese

Until 1916 Japan did not recognize expatriation of her sons and daughters who acquired foreign citizenship, excepting those females who married foreign subjects. The result was the Japanese who legally became American citizens, for example, still figured on Japanese census

register so that they stood on the peculiar status of double nationality. This procedure was at last changed and the Law of Nationality was revised in August, 1916. The law was further amended in December, 1924 and the foreign countries to which the expatriation applied was designated to be (1) U.S.A., (2) Argentina, (3) Brazil, (4) Canada, (5) Chile, and (6) Peru. It

may be noted that those American or Canadian-born Japanese boys not yet expatriated are still technically liable to the Japanese conscription law, so that the crux of "double nationality" question remains unsolved.

While the annual rate of increase of the population of the Japanese Empire is between 800,000 and 1,000,000 in recent years the number of emigrants is roughly 12,000 yearly, or 1.2% of the total increase in population when the latter is taken at 1,000,000 per year. The number of Japanese residing abroad, exclusive of those living in Kwantung Province and

the South Seas Mandated Islands, was 1,059,913 on the 1st of October, 1938. Inclusive of those residing in the aforementioned places the total Japanese overseas population aggregates 1,264,088.

The small outflow of emigrants is due to the imposition of immigration restrictions by a number of countries, on one hand, and to the difficulties confronted by the Japanese in competing against the nationals of the countries where immigration of Japanese is allowed, on the other hand.

Table 17-A. Principal Occupations of Japanese Residing Abroad (Oct. 1, 1937)

	Total Japanese	Agriculture %	Fishery %	Mining %	Mfg. Ind. %	Commerce %	Domestic workers %	Civil service etc. %	Without Occupation*
British Malaya & Strait Settlements	7,028	3.4	16.9	3.1	3.8	18.3	3.5	5.5	46.0
British Borneo and Salawak	921	18.7	23.4	..	3.7	16.0	1.0	2.2	35.9
D. E. I.	6,484	4.3	4.8	0.3	4.2	35.6	1.7	2.8	45.1
Philippines	23,991	25.4	4.9	..	7.7	14.0	0.4	1.6	48.5
Brazil	197,728	19.4	0.5	9.9	0.2	3.4	79.0
Argentina	6,267	18.2	20.3	14.7	2.2	0.9	40.1
Peru	22,150	9.3	2.1	18.6	0.5	0.7	68.0
Manchoukuo	411,866	1.6	..	0.8	5.7	13.4	1.2	9.2	57.0
China	53,327	3.2	27.0	1.3	8.3	64.2
U. S. A.	114,718	14.0	0.9	0.2	2.8	11.2	2.6	2.3	65.0

Note:—* Consists mostly family members.

Table 17-B. Number of New Emigrants in Recent Years

Year	Brazil	Guam & Philippines	Peru	Canada	U.S.S.R.	Malay States	D.E.I.	Argentina	Mexico	Australia	Total incl. Others
1930	18,741	2,635	831	137	1,512	835	558	489	434	75	21,828
1931	5,565	1,109	299	106	1,238	549	447	362	283	34	10,884
1932	15,108	746	369	98	1,096	356	533	239	149	101	19,028
1933	23,299	941	480	91	1,095	322	468	135	85	59	27,817
1934	22,960	1,544	473	105	1,320	598	356	112	80	105	28,087
1935	5,745	1,802	814	57	322	583	389	201	53	92	10,813
1936	5,357	2,891	593	82	297	534	145	349	62	223	11,119
1937	4,675	3,876	166	109	259	414	131	307	65	222	10,744

Table 18. Emigrants Going and Returning and Remittances

Year	Number of Emigrants			Those Emigrating Again (Men and Women)	Money Remitted by Emigrants (\$1,000)
	Male	Female	Total		
1926	10,555	5,629	16,184	2,862	24,945
1927	11,735	6,306	18,041	2,270	24,441
1928	12,502	7,348	19,850	2,103	27,612
1929	16,330	9,374	25,704	1,873	28,145
1930	14,130	7,699	21,829	1,199	23,195
1931	7,052	3,832	10,884	1,058	17,914
1932	11,408	7,625	19,033	1,204	20,066
1933	15,919	11,398	27,317	700	20,307
1934	16,419	11,668	28,087	2,011	20,532
1935	6,654	4,159	10,813	1,645	..
1936	6,913	4,127	11,041	1,718	..
1937	7,055	3,689	10,744	1,542	..

South America

Brazil.—It was in 1911 that the first Japanese emigrants were sent to Brazil. From 1913 to 1919 several thousand emigrants crossed over to that country. From 1923 the number began

distinctly to increase until it reached 12,000 in 1927 and 15,000 in 1929. In 1934 emigrants numbered 22,960 and 4,675 in 1937. The large migration is partly due to Government subsidy being granted to emigrants. The number of

Japanese residents in Brazil as on October 1, 1938 as shown by the returns of the Foreign Office, stood at 170,165.

As for the occupation of these Japanese emigrants, the majority of them are engaged in farming for the reason that Brazil is a great agricultural country, and that almost all our emigrants have sailed to that country for the purpose of pursuing agriculture. It is estimated that over 160,000 are engaged in farming 2,000 in commerce, and 1,000 in the manufacturing industry. Of the rest, about 400 attend to public and other duties and 250 are domestic servants.

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

Argentina.—The Japanese emigrants sailed to Argentina for the first time in 1907. But the number of emigrants to that country has always been quite limited. The number, which stood at 362 in 1931, decreased to 239 in 1932, to 135 in 1933 and advanced to 306 in 1937. The total number of Japanese residents in that country as on October 1, 1938 was 6,659. Of this number about one-half were in Buenos Aires and the rest are scattered over many other parts of the country. As for their occupations, industry comes first with about 1,100 followed by agriculture with 1,000, and commerce with 900. Most of these industrialists are engaged in spinning. The agriculture pursued by the Japanese emigrants consists chiefly of the cultivation of cotton and tea.

Peru.—The first emigration of Japanese to Peru dates back to 1899. To give the number of emigrants to that country in recent years registrations were 299 in 1931 and 369 in 1932 and 481 in 1933 and 166 in 1937. The total number of Japanese residents on October 1, 1938 was 21,503. The majority of them, or 19,000 were in Lima and the rest scattered over various localities. Classifying Japanese residents according to occupations, about 5,000 are engaged in commerce, 2,000 in agriculture, 500 in the manufacturing industry and 150 attend to official and other duties.

The Japanese residents are tending to concentrate on Lima, Callao and other cities. Almost all the Japanese residents in the above

mentioned two cities are engaged in commerce, their number being estimated at more than 9,300.

Other South American Countries.—Other countries in South America, as Chile, Colombia, Bolivia, Paraguay, Venezuela, etc., do not restrict in any way the entry of Japanese emigrants. All these countries are well suited to agriculture, but Japanese residents are still quite limited. There were 695 Japanese in Chile, 875 in Bolivia, 289 in Colombia, 89 in Uruguay, 520 in Paraguay, and 25 in Venezuela in 1938.

Central America

No country in Central America has a larger number of Japanese residents than Mexico. In 1897 Japanese emigrants first sailed to that country. The inauguration of the Gentlemen's Agreement between Japan and America greatly stimulated emigration to Mexico. 1906 and 1907 saw a tremendous increase in Japanese emigrants. Owing to the prevalence of pestilence and the revolutionary disturbances in that country, the number of emigrants has since seriously decreased. New emigrants numbered 283 in 1931, 149 in 1932, 85 in 1933, 80 in 1934, 53 in 1935 and 65 in 1937.

The total number of Japanese residents in Mexico as on October 1, 1938 stood at 2,545. About a half of them were in Mexico City and other places in the central part of the country and the other half in the three north-western states and other localities.

The principal occupations of the Japanese residents are agriculture, horticulture, stock-farming. Besides Mexico, there are 358 Japanese in Panama and 714 in Cuba.

Philippines

At present the Philippines come next in importance to South America in regard to Japanese emigration. They are preceded only by Brazil in the yearly number of settlers. The first emigration of Japanese to the islands was in 1900. Though their number was then very small, it so swiftly increased that 1903 saw over 2,200 new emigrants. The total number of Japanese residents in the islands as on October 1, 1938 was 25,837. As for the distribution of these Japanese residents, 8,396 were in Manila, 17,441 in Davao. Most of the Japanese are engaged in agriculture, Manila hemp being their principal product.

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

Most of the Japanese residents are clerks of

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

Table 19. Japanese Residents Abroad By Continents

	North America	Asia	Europe	South America	Africa	Oceania	Total
1931	127,964	109,866	3,997	142,648	69	125,210	509,754
1932	131,152	205,777	3,696	146,678	104	147,820	635,227
1933	129,429	228,208	3,778	160,387	152	150,312	672,266
1934	174,280	339,998	2,954	201,740	201	153,684	872,807
1935	123,611	247,116	3,840	200,786	948	113,518	689,818
1936	187,587	447,576	2,629	223,655	210	155,458	997,115
1937	141,481	515,440	2,882	228,478	198	154,933	1,043,412
1938*	142,895	558,745	2,807	200,820	213	154,933	1,059,913

* Estimate.

Table 20. Number of Japanese Residing Abroad By Consular Jurisdictions

(Oct. 1, 1938)

ASIA:	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Eastern Russia						
*Vladivostok ..	36	18	54			
*Havarovsk ...	7	1	8			
*Alexandrovsk .	677	103	780			
Oha	910	55	965			
*Blagoveschensk	13	4	17			
Total incl.						
others	1,649	182	1,831			
Manchoukuo						
*Chientao	2,368	1,698	4,066			
Yenki	6,596	5,242	11,838			
*Tumen	2,116	1,798	3,914			
Hunchun	954	752	1,706			
*Antung	10,538	9,406	19,944			
*Fengtien	78,314	63,706	142,020			
*Shanchengchen.	2,292	1,744	4,036			
*Hsinking	46,613	37,298	83,911			
Harbin	24,246	18,554	42,800			
*Mutankiang ..	9,496	6,115	15,611			
Chiamussu ...	3,485	1,863	5,348			
Tsitsihar	8,625	6,546	15,171			
*Kirin	6,885	5,422	12,307			
*Chinchow	5,033	3,903	8,936			
*Yingkow	8,058	6,751	14,809			
Hailar	2,058	1,469	3,527			
*Chengteh	2,814	1,969	4,783			
Suifenho	2,867	2,449	5,316			
Total incl.						
others	233,842	184,473	418,315			
China						
Tientsin	14,589	10,468	25,057			
Tsingtao	8,983	7,684	16,667			
Tsinan	3,634	2,595	6,229			
Shanghai	19,520	15,056	34,576			
Hankow	1,491	1,125	2,616			
*Hankow	856	844	1,700			
Total incl.						
others	54,379	41,129	95,508			
Hongkong	405	179	584			
Thailand	351	171	522			
*French Indo-China	123	118	241			
British India & Ceylon						
Calcutta	209	156	365			
Bombay	286	210	496			
Rangoon	277	188	465			
Colombo	26	38	64			
Total	798	592	1,390			
*Singapore	4,697	3,254	7,951			
Straits Settlements & Malay States	4,145	2,885	7,030			
Liban	8	5	13			
*Iran	24	8	32			
*Afghanistan	22	10	32			
*D. E. I.	4,391	2,094	6,485			
Philippines						
Davao	11,301	6,140	17,441			
Manila	5,947	2,449	8,396			
Total	17,248	8,589	25,837			
Total in Asia ..	317,938	240,807	558,745			
EUROPE:						
*England	809	503	1,312			
Germany	338	99	437			
France	345	158	503			
Belgium	36	28	64			
*Spain	3	1	4			
*Holland	16	3	19			
*Switzerland	50	20	70			
*Italy	48	31	79			
*Austria	18	15	33			
*Hungary	1	—	1			
*Rumania	8	6	14			
*Greece	3	8	11			
*Sweden	13	7	20			
*U.S.S.R.	62	38	100			
*Poland	13	5	18			
Portugal	12	9	21			
Latvia	7	12	19			
Czechoslovakia .	10	4	14			

	Male	Female	Total
Turkey	21	13	34
Finland	16	—	16
*Denmark	11	7	18
Total Europe	1,840	967	2,807
NORTH AMERICA:			
U. S. A.			
San Francisco..	26,867	20,067	46,934
Los Angeles ..	25,037	18,442	43,479
Portland	2,615	1,930	4,545
Seattle	9,051	6,656	15,707
Chicago	765	444	1,209
New York ...	2,209	847	3,056
New Orleans..	495	348	843
Total	67,039	48,734	115,773
Canada			
Ottawa	115	87	241
Vancouver ...	12,986	9,818	22,804
Total	13,140	9,905	23,045
Mexico	1,487	1,058	2,545
Panama	247	104	351
Cuba	488	184	672
Salvador	5	4	9
Total North America ...	82,406	59,989	142,395
SOUTH AMERICA:			
Brazil			
San Paulo....	33,320	27,340	60,660

	Male	Female	Total
Bauru	51,618	39,532	91,213
Total incl.			
others	95,116	75,049	170,165
Argentina	4,828	1,831	6,659
Uruguay	56	33	89
Paraguay	293	227	520
Peru	13,261	8,242	21,503
Bolivia	591	284	875
Chile	450	245	695
Colombia	175	114	289
*Venezuela	20	5	25
Total South America ...	114,790	86,030	200,820
AFRICA:			
Egypt	36	36	72
Fed. of S. Africa	21	22	43
B. E. Africa	44	31	75
French Algeria .	1	—	1
French Morocco .	11	11	22
Total of Africa	113	100	213
OCEANIA:			
*Sydney	2,538	488	3,026
*Guam	35	22	57
Hawaii	78,830	37,020	115,850
Total of Oceania ...	81,403	73,530	154,933
GRAND TOTAL.	598,490	461,423	1,059,913

Note: * Oct. 1st, 1937.

References:

Table Nos.: 1-11 a, 12 b, 13-14 c, 15 b, 16-17 d, 18-19 e.
 Key: a—Investigation of the Cabinet Statistics Bureau.
 b— " " " Home Office.
 c— " " " Department of Railways.
 d— " " " Department of Overseas.
 e— " " " Department of Foreign Affairs.

CHAPTER V IMPERIAL COURT

THE IMPERIAL HOUSE

The Reigning Sovereign

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

On March 3rd, 1921 His Majesty (then Crown Prince) proceeded to Europe to make observations and exchange courtesies with the sovereigns and rulers of European countries, returning home in September the same year. It was an epoch-making event in the history of the Japanese Imperial House as it was the first Crown Prince of the Empire who ever stepped out of the country and visited foreign lands, and moreover it was an unqualified success in every respect, particularly having had the result of promoting and further cementing the happy relations between Japan and her friendly Powers in the Occident. After returning from the foreign tour, he was appointed Regent in November, 1921, to conduct affairs of State in place of his Imperial father who, on account of chronic illness, was incapacitated from performing his onerous duties as Emperor. In January, 1924, he married Princess Nagako, eldest daughter of H.I.H. General Prince Kuniyoshi Kuni. Then on the 25th of December, 1926, following the death of his father Emperor Yoshihito (Taisho Tenno) he ascended the Throne as the 124th Emperor, the new era named Showa being adopt-

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

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

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

The Crown Prince

Taigu-no-Miya Akihito, first son of the Emperor, born on December 23rd, 1933.

Other Children of the Emperor

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

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

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

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

Takako (Suga-no-Miya), fifth daughter of the Emperor, born March 2nd, 1939.

Brother of the Emperor

Chichibu-no-Miya (Residence—Akasaka-ku, Tokyo).

Prince Yasuhito, present head (1st of the line) and second son of the late Emperor Taisho, born June 25th, 1902. His house-name was formerly Atsu-no-Miya, but on attaining majority in June, 1922 the Prince founded a new house (Chichibu-no-Miya) by Imperial order. After finishing the 2nd year class of the

middle school course of the Peers' School, entered the Central Military Preparatory School in 1917 to receive military education; further studied at the Military Academy, graduating in 1922; appointed Sub-Lieutenant (infantry) Regiment of the Imperial Guards Division; promoted to Lieutenant, 1925; further studied in Europe, 1925-26; returned in 1927; promoted to Captain, 1930; graduated from Military Staff College, 1931; promoted to Major, 1935; attended British Coronation, 1937; Lieut.-Col., 1938; Colonel, 1939. The Prince is Honorary President, Japan-British Society (Tokyo), Swedish Association of Japan, Peers' Club. Honorary member, Ski Club of Great Britain, Alpine Ski Club of England.

Princess Setsuko, consort of the above, is daughter of Mr. Tsuneo Matsudaira, Minister of the Imperial Household; was born Sept. 9th, 1909; educated at the Peereses' School and later in the United States; married the Prince Sept. 1928.

Takanatsu-no-Miya (Residence—Takunawa Nishidaimachi, Shiba-ku, Tokyo).

Prince Nobuhito, present head (1st of the line) and third son of the late Emperor Taisho, born January 3, 1905. Graduated from Cadets School, 1924; appointed 2nd Sub-Lieut., December 1925; 1st Sub-Lieut., 1927; studied at Naval Gunnery School, 1931-32, promoted to Lieutenant 1930; appointed squadron commander of the warship Takao, 1932; transferred to Fuso in the similar capacity, 1933; promoted to Lieut.-Commander, 1935; graduated from Naval Staff College, 1936 then attached to the Naval Staff Board; went abroad in 1930 to return the courtesy of the British Court accompanied by the Princess. The Prince is Honorary President, the Japan Fine Arts Assn., Turco-Japanese and Japan-Denmark Societies, Japan-Brasil Central Assn., International Cultural Encouragement Society and the Imperial Invention Assn. The Prince was formerly called Teru-no-Miya and established the House of Takamatsu-no-Miya 1913.

Princess Kikuko, Consort of the above, is sister of Prince Yoshimitsu Tokugawa, born Dec. 26, 1911, married in 1930.

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

Prince Takahito, present head (1st of the line) and fourth son of late Emperor Taisho and the youngest brother of the reigning Emperor, born Dec. 2nd, 1915. The Prince finished the middle school course of the Peers' School

in 1932; the Military Academy in June, 1936; is attached to the 15th Regiment (Cavalry) as Cadet. On attaining his majority in 1935, the Prince was granted the name of Mikasa and founded a new house.

Other Members of the Imperial Family

Other members of the Imperial Family are as follows:—

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

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

Prince Kotohito, head (6th of the line), Field Marshal, Supreme War Councillor and Chief of General Staff. Is the 16th son of the late Prince Kuniie Fushimi; born Sept. 22nd, 1865; studied at the Military Preparatory School and then at the Military Academy; later studied in France; took part in the Japan-China and the Russo-Japanese War; promoted to Lieut.-General in 1905; appointed Commander of the Imperial Guards Division in 1906; promoted to General and made Supreme War Councillor in 1912; Field Marshal in 1919; appointed Chief of General Staff, since Dec. 1931. In 1921 the Prince accompanied the Crown Prince (present Emperor on his tour of Europe. Prince is Hon. President of the Japan Red Cross Society, the Japan Sericultural Association, the Franco-Japanese Society, the Russo-Japanese Society, the Tokyo Geological Society, the Military Club, the Tokyo Club and many other similar bodies.

Princess Chieko, Consort of the above, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Sanetomi Sanjo; born May 25th, 1872. Married the Prince Dec. 19th, 1891. The Princess is Honorary President of the Japan Women's Education Association.

Prince Haruhito, 2nd son of Prince Kotohito, born Aug. 3rd, 1902. Studied at the Peers' School and then at the Military Academy; is Captain of Cavalry attached to the Cavalry School as instructor and superintendent of research department, appointed Major of Cavalry, July, 1937.

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

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

The House was set up by the late Adm. Prince Yorihito, 17th son of the late Prince Kuniie Fushimi, and younger brother of Marshal Prince Kan-in. The Prince died heirless in 1922.

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

Fushimi-no-Miya (Residence—Kioi-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo).

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

Prince Hiroyasu, present head (23rd of the line) and eldest son of the late General Prince Sadanaru; born October 16th, 1875; married Princess Tsuneko (deceased 9th daughter of Prince Keiki Tokugawa) in 1897; succeeded to the House of Prince Kwacho in 1883, but returned to the present House in July 1904; studied at the Naval Academy and then in Germany; took part in the Russo-Japanese War and was wounded on board the Mikasa in the battle of the Yellow Sea (Aug. 1904); studied in England, 1909-10; was in command of the Takachiho, 1910; Vice-Admiral, 1917; Supreme War Councillor, 1920; full Admiral, 1922; appointed Chief of Naval Staff Board, Feb. 1932; Admiral of Fleet, May 1932. The Prince is Hon. President of the Imperial Life Boat Association, the Japan Seamen's Relief Association, the Cancer Research Society, the Naval Club, the Japan-German Society, the Scientific & Chemical Research Institute, etc.

Prince Hiroakira, eldest son of the late Prince Hiroyoshi, born 1932.

Princess Tokiko, consort of the late Prince Hiroyoshi, (the eldest son of Prince Hiroyasu), 3rd daughter of Prince Saneteru Ichijo, born 1902. Married Dec. 23rd, 1919, widow 1938.

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

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

Prince Takehiko, head (3rd of the line), eldest son of the late Prince Kikumaro; born

Feb. 13th, 1898; studied at the Naval Academy; attached to the Naval Aviation Corps as Sub-Lieutenant and attached to the Naval Staff Board; retired from active service in 1927 on account of declining health; promoted to Lieut.-Commander in 1929 and at the same time placed on waiting list. Married in 1922 to Princess Sakiko (deceased in 1932), 2nd daughter of the late Prince Kuniyoshi Kaya-no-Miya. Was at one time an aviation enthusiast for which the Prince was popularly called "Prince of the Air" and established a private aviation institute (Mikuni Aviation School).

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

Kaya-no-Miya (Residence—Samban-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo).

Dowager Princess Yoshiko, Consort of the late Prince Kuninori, and eldest daughter of the late Marquis Tadayoshi Daigo. Born Oct. 20th, 1865, widow, 1910.

Prince Tsunenori, head (2nd of the line) and eldest son of the late Prince Kuninori. Born Jan. 27th, 1900. Graduated from the Military Academy in 1921 and Military Staff College in 1926; promoted to Major of Cavalry and instructor at the Military Staff College, 1931-34; appointed Commander of the 10th Cavalry Regiment Aug. 1925, then commdr. 16th Cavalry Regiment.

Princess Toshiko, consort of the above and 5th daughter of Prince Michizane Kujo. Born May 16th, 1903; married in 1921.

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

Dowager Princess Chikako, consort of the late Prince Kuniyoshi, 7th daughter of the late Prince Tadayoshi Shimazu. Born Oct. 19th, 1879; married 1899; widow, Jan., 1929. Is also mother of the present Empress.

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

Prince Asakira, head (3rd of the line), eldest son of the late Marshal Prince Kuniyoshi Kuni. Born Feb. 2nd, 1901; studied at the Naval Academy; made Lieutenant in 1928; promoted to Lieut.-Commander in 1931; attached to the Naval Staff Board; Chief Gunner of the cruiser Kiso; transferred to the cruiser Yakumo in the same capacity in August, 1934, promoted to Lieut.-Commndr. and now attached to the Navy Office.

Princess Tomoko, consort of the above and 3rd daughter of Prince Hiroyasu Fushimi. Born May 18th, 1907; married the Prince Jan. 25th, 1925.

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

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

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

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

Prince Yasuhiko, head, 8th son of the late Prince Asahiko Kuni; born Oct. 2nd, 1887. Studied at the Military Academy and then in France; Major-General and instructor at the Military Staff College in 1930, later appointed Commander of the 1st Infantry Brigade; promoted to Lieut.-General and appointed Commander of the Imperial Guards Division in Aug. 1933; appointed Supreme War Councillor, 1935; commanded Japanese forces in China 1938; General, 1939.

Higashi Kuni-no-Miya (created in Nov. 1906)

(Residence—Ichibei-cho, Azabu-ku, Tokyo).

Prince Naruhiko, head, 9th son of the late Prince Asahiko Kuni; born Dec. 3rd, 1887; set up the present house in November, 1906, by order of the late Emperor Meiji. Studied at the Military Academy and later in France where he stayed from 1920 till 1926; married Princess Toshiko May 18th, 1915; Major-General and Commander of the 5th Infantry Brigade in August, 1930; promoted to Lieut.-General and appointed Commander of the 4th Army Division in August 1934; appointed Chief of the Military Aviation Department, July, 1937; commanded Japanese forces in China; promoted to full general, 1939; is Honorary President of the Press Association of Japan.

Princess Toshiko, consort of the above, is the youngest daughter of the late Emperor Meiji. Born May 11th, 1896; married the Prince May 11th, 1915.

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

Prince Nagahisa, head (4th of the line), eldest son of the late Prince Nagahisa; born Feb. 19th, 1910, killed in action Sept. 4th, 1940 in China.

Princess Sachiko, consort of the above, is the 2nd daughter of Baron Yoshinori Tokugawa. Born Aug. 26th, 1916, married in 1935.

Prince Michihisa, eldest son of the late Prince Nagahisa; born May 2nd, 1937.

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

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

Dowager Princess Masako, consort of the late Prince Tsunehisa; is the 6th daughter of the late Emperor Meiji, born Sept. 30th, 1888; married the late Prince Tsunehisa 1908; widow in 1919. Died on 8th March, 1940.

Prince Tuneyoshi, head (2nd of the line), eldest son of the late Prince Tsunehisa; born in 1909. Studied at the Military Academy; was appointed Sub-Lieutenant of Cavalry in 1930 and attached to the 1st Cavalry Regiment; promoted to Lieutenant in August, 1933, Captain in August, 1936.

Princess Mitsuho, consort of the above, is the youngest daughter of Prince Kinteru Sanjo. Born Nov. 6th, 1915; married in 1934.

Royal House of Chosen

Ri, the former royal family of Chosen (Korea).

Shotoku-no-Miya (Residence—Kioi-cho, Kojimachiku, Tokyo).

Prince Gin, head of the family and younger brother of Prince Chiok (the late head of the house), born October 20th, 1897 in Keijo (Seoul). Brought up in the royal palace in the former Korean capital but later moved to Tokyo to receive education. Graduated from the Military Academy in Tokyo in 1920; married in 1920; promoted to Captain and attached to the 2nd Infantry Regiment of the Imperial Guards Division in 1926; visited Europe in 1927 for study and observation accompanied by Princess Masako; later attached to the General Staff Office; promoted to Lieut.-Colonel and attached to the Military Training Department; appointed Colonel and Commander of the 59th Infantry Regiment August, 1935, appointed head instructor of the preparatory course, Military Staff College, July, 1937; promoted to Major-Gen. July, 1938.

Princess Masako, consort of the above, eldest daughter of H.I.H. Prince Morimasa Nashimoto; born November 4th, 1901; married Prince Gin in 1920.

Princess Im, consort of the late Prince Chiok Ri, born September 19th, 1894; widow in 1926, (Residence—Seoul, Chosen).

House of Ri Ken (Residence—Tokiwamatsu, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo).

Prince Ri Ko, 5th son of the late Grand

Prince Ri and father of Prince Ri Ken; born March 30th, 1877.

Princess Kin, consort of the above and eldest daughter of the late Baron Kin; born December 22nd, 1880; married December 6th, 1893.

Prince Ri Ken, eldest son of Prince Ri Kang, born October 28, 1909. Graduated from the Military Academy; is Captain of Cavalry attached to the Imperial Guard.

Princess Yoshiko, consort of the above, eldest daughter of Mr. Hiroshi Matsudaira; born October 6th, 1911; married in October 1931.

House of Ri Gu (Residence—Keijo, Chosen; Residence in Tokyo—Tokiwamatsu, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo).

Prince Ri Gu, 2nd son of Prince Ri Kang; born November 15th, 1912. Graduated from the Military Cadet School and is now Captain of Artillery.

Princess Sanshu, consort of the above and daughter of Marquis Boku; born December 11th, 1914; married May 3rd, 1935.

THE IMPERIAL ESTATE AND CIVIL LIST

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

The land and other property belonging to the Emperor is divided into hereditary and ordinary estates. As existing at the end of 1935, the Court owned 1,271,583 "cho" (about 3,115,000 acres) of landed estates consisting of palace grounds, other building land, forests, farm land, etc., the figure being composed of 209,090 "cho" (about 512,160.50 acres) of hereditary estate and 1,060,737 "cho" (about 2,599,548 acres) of ordinary estate, the whole being valued at about 650,000,000 yen.

Table 1. Area of Crown Landed Estates (Unit in cho: 1 cho=2.45 acres)

Year end	Palace Ground	Forests	Farmland	Building site	Total incl. others
1926	677	1,359,480	162,352	311	1,528,236
1928	685	1,244,938	69,075	241	1,317,111
1935	707	1,226,828	39,564	225	1,271,583
1938	714	1,262,998	39,391	226	1,307,652
of which:					
Hereditary	478	208,511	...	37	209,090
Ordinary	236	1,054,487	39,391	189	1,098,562
Total	714	1,262,998	39,391	226	1,307,652

In consideration of the food question and so forth, the Imperial Court several years ago decided to sell or otherwise transfer to public or private ownership part of the Crown estate, and in 1921 such transfer was made to the extent of 289,259.25 acres of land and forest, that is, about 26.6 per cent. of the total area of the hereditary estates, which at the end of 1929 was returned as 539,305.35 acres. Further in 1930 the Court decided to discontinue

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

There were besides buildings, household effects, and furniture, livestock and many other items. Then the Court owns shares of several banking and other business concerns such as the Bank of Japan, the Yokohama Specie Bank, the Hypothec Bank of Japan, the Industrial Bank

the compounds of the Imperial Palace. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha 161,000; Mitsui Bank Department is divided into several boards or 54,000; Hypothec Bank 10,000; Oji Paper of Japan, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the Imperial 62,000; S.M.R. 38,000; Tokyo Electric Light Hotel, etc., all these coming up to hundreds of 24,000; Bank of Japan 141,000; Taiwan Sugar millions of yen. As in 1938 some of the major Mfg. Co. 40,000.

share holdings of the Court were as follows:

Table 2. Imperial Estates

Name	Locality	Area
The Imperial Palace	Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	637,170 (tsubo)
Akasaka and Aoyama Palaces	Akasaka-ku, Tokyo	185,775 ..
Hama Detached Palace	Kyobashi-ku, Tokyo	75,489 ..
Kyoto Detached Palace	Kamikyo-ku, Kyoto	270,692 ..
Nijo Detached Palace	Nakakyo-ku, Kyoto	83,051 ..
Katsura Detached Palace	Ukyo-ku, Kyoto	13,167 ..
Shugakuin Detached Palace	Sakyo-ku, Kyoto	84,245 ..
Hakone Detached Palace	Ashigara Shimo-gun, Kanagawa Pref.	51,798 ..
Shosoin Treasury	Nara, Nara Prefecture	5,161 ..
Takanawa Imperial Estate	Shiba-ku, Tokyo	33,772 ..
Ueno Estate	Tokyo	32,012 ..
Minami Toshima Estate	Yotsuya and Shibuya, Tokyo	263,582 ..
Unebiyama Estate	Takaichi-gun, Nara Prefecture	33.34 (cho)
Chigashira Estate	Shizuoka Prefecture	38,370.21 ..
Tanzawa Estate	Kanagawa Prefecture	4,880.85 ..
Sejiri Estate	Iwata-gun, Shizuoka Prefecture	1,598.78 ..
Kiso Estate	Nagano and Gifu Prefectures	155,975.14 ..
Nanamune Estate	Gifu Prefecture	1,563.01 ..
Danto Estate	Kitashitara-gun, Aichi Prefecture	6,090.04 ..

Note: 1 cho=2.45 acres; 3,000 tsubo=1 cho.

Other Imperial Palaces, Villas, etc.

Name	Locality
Kasumigaseki Detached Palace	Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo
Muko Detached Palace	Kobe City
Hayama Imperial Villa	Hayama-cho, Kanagawa Prefecture
Tate-ishi Rest-House	Nishiura-mura, Kanagawa Prefecture
Numazu Imperial Villa	Agehara-machi, Numazu City
Nikko Imperial Villa	Nikko-machi, Tochigi Prefecture
Tamozawa Imperial Villa	" " " "
Shiobara Imperial Villa	Shiobara-machi, Tochigi Prefecture
Nasu Imperial Villa	Nasu-mura, Tochigi Prefecture
Ikaho Imperial Estate	Ikaho-machi, Gumma Prefecture

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

IMPERIAL PROPERTY LAW

The Law as gazetted in December, 1910 and put in force in January, 1911 provides that the land and other property belonging to the Emperor is divided into hereditary and personal 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 purpose except those of public utility, or undertakings sanctioned by the Emperor. The property of the members of the

Imperial House is subject to levy when it does not conflict with the Imperial House Law or the present law. However, this does not apply to the estates belonging to the Grand Empress Dowager, Empress Dowager, Empress, Heir-Apparent, his consort, eldest son and his consort, and other unmarried members of the Imperial Family who have not yet attained majority.

THE IMPERIAL HOUSEHOLD DEPARTMENT

The Imperial Household Department controls and conducts affairs relating to the Imperial Household, members of the Imperial Family, Peers, etc., and is independent of the Government departments, its offices being located in

bureaus, including the Board of Chamberlains, the Board of Masters of Ceremonies, Board of the Imperial Families and Peerage, the Board of the Imperial Mausolea, the Board of Archives, the Board of Court Physicians, the Imperial Treasury, the Bureau of Architecture, the Bureau of Imperial Mews and the Bureau of Culinary Affairs. Besides these and not subject to the control of the Household Department, there are also in the Imperial Palace the offices of the Lord-Keeper of the Privy Seal, the Temporary Bureau of Compilation, the Imperial Board of Audit, the Imperial Forest and Estate Bureau, the Imperial Poetry Bureau, etc. Attached to the Household Department and placed under control of the Minister of the Imperial Household are also the Peers' Schools, the Peeresses' School and the Imperial Household Museum, these being, however, located at different places outside of the Imperial Palace grounds. The chief official of the Imperial Household Department is the Minister of the Imperial Household, who, besides supervising the affairs of the Department also, acts as advisor to the Emperor on all matters relating to the Imperial Household and controls the peers (including Korean peers), and in executing his official duties he is assisted by a Vice-Minister. Besides those mentioned above and apart from the officials of the Imperial Household Department, there are several important offices such as Court Rituals who have charge of the Imperial Sanctuary known as the "Kashiko-Dokoro" and the Imperial Ancestral Halls known as "Koreiden" and "Shinden" and officiate at all religious ceremonies conducted at the Imperial Court, Chief Aide-de-Camp and Aides-de-Camp to the Emperor, Lord Steward to the Empress, Lord Steward to the Empress Dowager, etc., who usually attend to the Emperor, the Empress or the Empress Dowager, respectively. Then there are Court Councillors, Lords-in-Waiting at the Jakō Hall and Lords-in-Waiting at the Kinkei Hall, which are, however, all mere honorary posts or titles and have no particular duties assigned to the holders thereof. All these constitute what generally goes by the term "Court officials."

The total number of officials in the service of the Imperial Household, as existing at the end of May, 1939, stood at 5,372, the figure including 2,311 employees, the stipend for the entire force amounting to 4,512,276 yen for the year.

Privy Council.—Besides the Household Department there is in the Imperial Household a special organ acting as advisory body to the Emperor on all important affairs of State. This special organ named "Sumitsu-in" or Privy

Council, consists of 26 members with its own President and Vice-President, the members being all veteran statesmen who have played important parts in the administration, and though no longer taking an active share in it, their age and prestige entitle them to universal respect. The functions of the Privy Council are chiefly of a consultative nature. It meets to deliberate on any important matter of State, when its opinion is asked for by the Emperor, and advises him according to its lights. The principal matters on which it is usually consulted are those coming under the jurisdiction of the Imperial House Law, all important legislations, relating to Articles of the Constitution, the issuing of proclamations of the law of siege and of Imperial ordinances and all matters relating to international treaties, and pledges, etc.

DECORATIONS

There exist eight kinds of decorations, viz., the Grand Order of Merit (Daikun-i); Supreme Order of Chrysanthemum (Daikun-i Kikka-sho), the Grand Cordon of Chrysanthemum (Kikka Daijusho), and the Grand Cordon of Rising Sun and Paulownia (Kyokujitsu Toka Daijusho); all granted to the holders of the Grand Order of Merit; the Order of Rising Sun (Kyokujitsu Daijusho), 1st to 6th grade; the Order of Sacred Treasure (Zuihoshō), 1st to 8th grade, granted both to men and women; the Order of Crown (Hokansho), 1st to 8th grade and only for women; and lastly the Military Order of the Golden Kite (Kinshi Kunsho), 1st to 7th grade. Besides there exists the Collar of Chrysanthemum (Kikkasho Kubikazari), a special mark of honour granted to those holding the Grand Order of Merit. The Order of Rising Sun sometimes carries an annuity. The Collar Chrysanthemum, the Grand Order of Merit and the Grand Cordon of Chrysanthemum are the highest honours accessible to Japanese subjects.

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

Then there are the Blue-ribbon medals conferred on ordinary people who distinguish 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 Dark Blue-ribbon medals conferred on those who make monetary contribution in aid of public utility enterprises; the Yellow-ribbon medals (gold or silver) conferred on those who make similar contribution to the national defence funds.

Table 3. Number of Decorations Granted

	G.O.M.	1st O.M.	2nd O.M.	3rd O.M.	4th O.M.	5th O.M.	Total incl. lower ranks	
							No.	Holders
1930	18	375	1,300	7,190	12,754	18,833	1,240,933	1,155,937
1935	18	519	1,705	9,295	17,319	23,966	1,453,963	1,368,164
1935	19	524	1,746	9,426	17,492	24,489	1,464,322	1,377,885
1937	18	512	1,859	9,848	18,771	26,527	1,557,843	1,472,018
1938	17	518	1,978	10,451	19,524	27,686	1,573,746	1,497,945
Chrysanthemum with Collar	3	3	3
Chrysanthemum	14	11	14
Rising Sun & Paulownia	50	39	50
Rising Sun	159	447	1,793	5,765	7,811	804,220	839,641
Sacred Treasure	298	1,510	8,654	13,750	19,853	681,647	732,000
Crown	21	21	4	9	22	2,016	2,029
Cultural	—	—	9	9

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

THE PEERAGE, COURT RANK, ETC.

Though the peerage as a distinct social rank dates only from 1884, it practically existed from ancient times, courtiers or Kuge and feudal princes or Daimyos of olden days corresponding to the Peers of to-day. The Peerage is divided into five grades, viz. Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount and Baron. There is no intermediate rank corresponding to the British Baronetcy. By origin the Japanese Peers may be classified into four distinct groups, i.e., those who are descendants of the former courtiers or Kuge; descendants of the former Daimyos; those created Peers in recent times, and lastly Korean Peers who were created after the annexation. The number of Peers (exclusive of Korean peers) as at the end of 1939 was as follows:—

Prince 19, Marquis 41, Count 109, Viscount 375, and Baron 406, total 950.

Korean Peers.—In Oct. 1910, 67 distinguished Koreans including five members of the former Royal family, were created Peers, i.e., 6 Marquises, 3 Counts, 22 Viscounts, and 45 Barons. The new Peers were given monetary grants. The number of the Korean Peers at the end of Sept. 1939 was 7 Marquises, 3 Counts, 17 Viscounts and 32 Barons, making a total of 59.

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

spectful to the Court as before.

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

Posthumous Honours.—The peculiar custom of conferring posthumous honours still lingers in Japan, though it was abolished years ago in China, the country of its origin. The idea is based on the principle of ancestor-worship. Theoretically the honour is a parting gift to one on his death-bed, and is granted with this official announcement: "promoted by one degree for special consideration." In most cases the honour is posthumous, as it usually comes after the death of the beneficiary and Japanese of exalted rank have therefore two different dates of death, i.e., physiological dissolution and official death. What is still more interesting is that notable persons dead several centuries are sometimes 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.

Table 4. Genealogy of the Imperial House

Table with 7 columns: Names of Emperors, Number of years after Jimmu Tenno, Period of reign (years), Accession to Throne B.C., Names of Emperors, Number of years after Jimmu Tenno, Period of reign (years), Accession to Throne B.C. Rows include Jimmu Tenno, Suizei, Annei, Itoku, Koshō, Kōan, Kōrei, Kōgen, Kaika, Sujin, Suinin, Keikō, Seimu, Chūai, Empress Jingō, Ojin Tenno, Nintoku, Richū, Hanzei, Ingyō, Ankō, Yuryaku, Seinei, Kenzō, Ninken, Buretsu, Keitai, Ankan, Senka, Kimmel, Bidatsu, Yōmei, Sushun, Suiko, Jomei, Kōgyoku, Kotoku, Saimei, Tenji, Kōbun, Temmu, Jitō, Mommu, Genmei, Genshō Tenno, Shōmu Tenno, Kōkan, Junnin, Shōtoku, Konin, Kammu, Heizei, Saga, Junna, Nimmyō, Montoku, Sōwa.

Table with 2 columns: Emperors, Period of Reign. Rows include Sujin (97-30 B.C.), Sushun (587-592), Sutoku (1123-1141), Suzaku (930-946), Taishō (1912-1926), Takakura (1168-1180), Temmu (672-686).

Table with 2 columns: Emperors, Period of Reign. Rows include Tenji (661-671), Toba (1107-1123), Tsuchimikado (1198-1210), Uda (887-897), Yōmei (585-587), Yōzei (876-884), Yōryaku (456-479).

Table 5. List of Japanese Year-Names

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

Table with 4 columns: Year-name, Period, Year-name, Period. Lists various Japanese year names such as An-ei, An-gen, An-sei, An-tei, An-wa, Bun-mei, Bun-pō, Bun-an, Bun-chu, Bun-ei, Bun-ji, Bun-ka, Bun-ki, Bun-kyū, Bun-ō, Bun-reki, Bun-roku, Bun-sei, Bun-shō, Bun-wa, Chō-gen, Chō-hō, Chō-ji, Chō-kan, Chō-kyō, Chō-kyū, Chō-reki, Chō-roku, Chō-shō, Chō-toku, Chō-wa, Dai-dō, Dai-ei, Dai-ji, Ei-chō, Ei-en, Ei-hō, Ei-ji, Ei-kan, Ei-kyō, Ei-kyū, Ei-man, Ei-nin, Ei-ryaku, Ei-roku, Ei-shō, Ei-shō, Ei-so, Ei-toku, Ei-wa, Em-bun, Em-pō, En-chō, En-gen, En-gi, En-kei, En-kyō, En-kyū, En-ō, En-ryaku, En-toku, Gen-bun, Gen-chū, Gen-ei, Gen-ji, Gen-kei, Gen-ki, Gen-kyō, Gen-kō, Gen-kyū, Gen-na, Gen-nin, Gen-ō, Gen-roku, Gen-ryaku, Gen-toku, Haku-chi, Haku-hō, Hei-ji, Ho-an, Hō-ei, Ho-en, Ho-gen, Hō-ji, Hō-ki, Hō-reki, Hō-toku, Ji-an, Jingo-keiun, Jin-ki, Ji-reki, Ji-shō, Jō-ei, Jō-gen, Jō-ji, Jō-kan, Jō-kyō, Jō-ō, Jō-wa, Ju-ei, Ka-ei, Ka-gen, Ka-hō, Ka-kei, Ka-kitau.

Year-name	Period	Year-name	Period
Kam-bun (寛文).....	1661—1673	Nin-na (仁和).....	885—889
Kam-pei (寬平).....	889—898	Ô-an (應安).....	1368—1375
Kam-po (寬保).....	1741—1744	Ô-chô (應長).....	1311—1312
Kan-ei (寬永).....	1626—1644	Ô-ai (應永).....	1394—1428
Kan-en (寬延).....	1748—1751	Ô-ho (應保).....	1161—1163
Kan-gen (寬元).....	1243—1247	Ô-toku (應徳).....	1084—1087
Kan-ji (寬治).....	1087—1094	Ô-wa (應和).....	961—964
Kan-ki (寬喜).....	1229—1232	Rei-ki (寬龜).....	715—717
Kan-kô (寬弘).....	1004—1012	Reki-nin (曆仁).....	1238—1239
Kan-nin (寬仁).....	1017—1021	Reki-ô (曆應).....	1338—1342
Kan-ô (寬應).....	1350—1352	Sai-kô (齊衡).....	854—857
Kan-sei (寬政).....	1789—1801	Shi-toku (至徳).....	1384—1387
Kan-sei (寬正).....	1460—1466	Shô-an (承安).....	1171—1175
Kan-toku (寬徳).....	1044—1046	Shô-an (正安).....	1299—1302
Kan-wa (寬和).....	985—987	Shô-chô (正長).....	1428—1429
Ka-ô (嘉應).....	1169—1171	Shô-chû (正中).....	1324—1326
Ka-reki (嘉曆).....	1326—1329	Shô-gen (正元).....	1259—1260
Ka-roku (嘉祿).....	1225—1227	Shô-gen (承元).....	1207—1211
Ka-shô (嘉承).....	1106—1108	Shô-hei (承平).....	931—938
Ka-shô (嘉祥).....	848—851	Shô-hei (正平).....	1346—1370
Ka-tei (嘉禎).....	1235—1238	Shô-hô (承保).....	1074—1077
Kei-an (慶安).....	1648—1652	Shô-hô (正保).....	1644—1648
Kei-chô (慶長).....	1596—1615	Shô-ji (正治).....	1199—1201
Kei-ô (慶應).....	1865—1868	Shô-ka (正嘉).....	1257—1259
Kei-un (慶應).....	704—708	Shô-kei (正慶).....	1332—1333
Kem-bu (建武).....	1334—1338	Shô-kyû (承久).....	1219—1222
Kem-pô (建保).....	1213—1219	Shô-ô (正應).....	1288—1293
Ken-chô (建長).....	1249—1256	Shô-ô (承應).....	1652—1655
Ken-ei (建永).....	1206—1207	Shô-reki (正曆).....	990—995
Ken-gen (建元).....	1302—1303	Shô-reki (承曆).....	1077—1081
Ken-ji (建治).....	1275—1278	Shô-tai (昌泰).....	898—904
Ken-kyû (建久).....	1190—1199	Shô-toku (承德).....	1097—1099
Ken-nin (建仁).....	1201—1204	Shô-toku (正徳).....	1711—1716
Ken-ryaku (建暦).....	1211—1213	Shô-wa (正和).....	834—848
Ken-toku (建徳).....	1370—1372	Shô-wa (承和).....	1312—1317
Kô-an (弘安).....	1278—1288	Shô-wa (昭和).....	1926
Kô-an (康安).....	1361—1362	Shu-chô (崇鳥).....	686—701
Kô-chô (弘長).....	1261—1264	Tai-hô (大寶).....	701—704
Kô-ai (康永).....	1342—1345	Tai-ka (大化).....	645—650
Kô-gen (康元).....	1256—1257	Tai-ji (大治).....	1126—1131
Kô-hei (康平).....	1058—1065	Tai-shô (大正).....	1912—1926
Kô-ho (康保).....	964—968	Tem-bun (天文).....	1532—1555
Kô-ji (康治).....	1142—1144	Tem-meï (天明).....	1781—1789
Kô-ji (弘治).....	1555—1558	Tem-pô (天保).....	1830—1844
Kô-koku (興國).....	1340—1846	Tem-puku (天福).....	1233—1234
Kô-ka (弘化).....	1844—1848	Tem-pyô (天平).....	729—749
Kô-nin (弘仁).....	810—824	Tempyô-Hôji (天平寶字).....	757—765
Kô-ô (弘應).....	1389—1390	Tempyô-Jingo (天平神護).....	765—767
Kô-reki (康應).....	1379—1381	Tempyô-Shôhō (天平壽實).....	749—757
Kô-roku (康祿).....	1528—1533	Ten-kei (天慶).....	938—947
Kô-shô (康正).....	1455—1456	Ten-an (天安).....	857—859
Kô-toku (康徳).....	1452—1455	Ten-chô (天長).....	824—834
Kô-wa (康和).....	1099—1101	Ten-ei (天永).....	1110—1113
Kô-wa (弘和).....	1381—1384	Ten-en (天延).....	973—976
Kyô-ho (享保).....	1716—1736	Ten-gen (天元).....	978—983
Kyô-toku (享徳).....	1452—1455	Ten-ji (天治).....	1124—1126
Kyô-wa (享和).....	1801—1804	Ten-ju (天授).....	1375—1381
Kyô-an (久安).....	1145—1151	Ten-ki (天喜).....	1053—1058
Kyô-ju (久壽).....	1154—1156	Ten-nin (天仁).....	1108—1110
Man-en (萬延).....	1860—1861	Ten-ô (天德).....	781—782
Man-ji (萬治).....	1658—1661	Ten-roku (天禄).....	979—973
Man-ju (萬壽).....	1024—1028	Ten-ryaku (天曆).....	947—957
Mei-ji (明治).....	1868—1912	Ten-shô (天承).....	1131—1132
Mei-ô (明徳).....	1492—1501	Ten-shô (天正).....	1573—1592
Mei-reki (明曆).....	1655—1658	Ten-toku (天徳).....	957—961
Mei-toku (明徳).....	1390—1394	Ten-wa (天和).....	1681—1684
Mei-wa (明和).....	1764—1772	Ten-yô (天養).....	1144—1145
Nim-pyô (仁平).....	1151—1154	Toku-ji (徳治).....	1306—1308
Nin-an (仁安).....	1166—1168	Wa-dô (和銅).....	708—715
Nin-ji (仁治).....	1240—1243	Yô-rô (養老).....	717—724
Nin-ju (仁壽).....	851—854	Yô-wa (養和).....	1181—1182

References: Tables 1 & 2—Imperial Household Department, Bureau. Tables 3 & 4—Researches of the Cabinet Statistics Bureau.

CHAPTER VI ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEM

I. THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

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

The Central Government is composed of thirteen Departments, namely, those of Foreign Affairs, of Home Affairs, of Finance, of Army, of Navy, of Justice, of Education, of Agriculture and Forestry, of Commerce and Industry, of Communications, of Railways, of Overseas Affairs and of Welfare.

Each of these departments has its chief of-

ficial, who is a Minister of State and who besides controlling the department and supervising its affairs is held responsible to the Emperor as a Minister of State. The Minister is assisted by a permanent vice-minister in controlling and supervising the affairs of the department, and also by a parliamentary vice-minister in directing political affairs of the department and matters relating to parliamentary affairs. Under the parliamentary vice-minister there is in each department a parliamentary counsellor whose duty is to assist the parliamentary vice-minister. Each department is divided into several bureaux, each bureau having its head or bureau director, and again each of these bureaux is divided into more than one section, each section having its chief official or sectional chief. Under these chief officials there is a number of clerks who are attached to different bureaux or sections as the case may be.

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

II. CIVIL AND MILITARY SERVICE

Classification

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

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

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

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

“Han-nin” or Clerical staff.—Assistant engineers, etc.

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

Appointment

Under the Appointment Regulation in force the “Choku-nin” officials are appointed, in prin-

DIAGRAM OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEM
THE CABINET



...ple, from among those "So-nin" officials of higher rank who have been in the service for over 2 years or others possessing similar qualifications, the Army and Navy officers of the rank above major-general or rear-admiral or corresponding rank having the privilege to be appointed the "Choku-nin" officials (civil) of the Army or Navy Department respectively. The "So-nin" 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 "So-nin" grade. The "Han-nin" officials are appointed from among those who have passed the examination for ordinary civil service or graduates of middle schools or other schools of similar status and recognized as such by the Education Minister, or others having similar qualifications, or those junior clerks or employees who have been in the public service for over 4 years successively.

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

The total force of the staff of Government service is as follows:—

Table 1. No. of Civil Officers and Salary (Above "Han-nin" Rank)

	Choku-nin		So-nin		Han-nin		Total	
	Number	Amount (¥1,000)	Number	Amount (¥1,000)	Number	Amount (¥1,000)	Number	Amount (¥1,000)
1923	1,252	7,518	18,663	88,650	113,877	110,403	128,742	156,572
1934	1,567	8,206	14,513	38,800	120,563	118,486	136,643	164,972
1935	1,619	8,458	14,808	38,836	126,985	124,344	143,412	171,639
1936	1,679	8,442	15,245	39,647	132,060	128,779	148,984	176,848
1937	1,786	9,089	16,194	42,049	141,811	110,764	159,877	190,788
1938	1,834	9,447	16,939	43,178	148,570	144,570	167,343	197,195

Scale of Salaries

The scale of salaries for the officials in the Government service of all ranks excluding Premier, Ministers of States, 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:—

(b) "Choku-nin" Rank

Pres. of Imp. Universities	6,200—5,350
Gov. of Hokkaido	6,200—5,800
Vice-Pres. of Manchurian Affairs Board	5,800—5,100
Pres. of Social Bureau	
Financial Commissioners Abroad	
Pres. of Monopoly Bureau	
Pres. of Patent Bureau	5,800
Pres. of Supreme Court (Taiwan)	
Dir.-Gen. of Kwantung Bureau	
Chief Secretary of Cabinet	
Pres. of Legislation Bureau	5,800—4,650
Vice-Ministers (Parl. and Perm.)	
Dir.-Gen. of Civil Affairs (Taiwan)	
Chief Engineer of Home Department	
Inspector-Gen. of Metropolitan Police Board	5,800—4,050
Pres. of Supreme Court (Chosen)	
Vice-Pres. of Cabinet Planning Board	
Ministers Plenipotentiary	
Embassy Counsellors	5,800—4,650
Embassy Commercial Counsellors	
Bureau Dir. of Chosen Govt.-Gen.	5,800—4,050
Judges and Procurators	
Gov. of South Sea Is. and of Karafuto	5,350—4,650
Pres. of Public Universities	
Chief of National Cultural Research Office	
Gov. of Prefectures	

Table 2. Scale of Salaries
(a) "Shin-nin" Rank

	Salary per annum
Prime Minister	¥9,600
Ministers of State	6,800
Gov.-Gen. of Chosen	
Pres. of Privy Council	6,600
Gov.-Gen. of Taiwan	
Ambassador	
Pres. of Administrative Litigation Court	6,500
Pres. of Supreme Court	
Public Procurator-General	6,200
Pres. of Board of Audit	
Pres. of Board of Planning	6,200
Vice-Pres. of the Privy Council	
Dir.-Gen. of Admin. Affairs (Chosen)	
Pres. of Manchurian Affairs Board	5,800
Privy Counsellors	

Pres. of Decoration Bureau	5,100
Chief Sec. of Privy Council	
Chief Sec. of the Houses of Diet.	5,350-4,650
Gov. of Kwantung Province	
Parliamentary Councillors	
Bureau Directors	4,650
Con. ul-General	

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

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

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

(d) "Choku-nin" Rank

Ambassador: Salary ¥6,600 per Annum

Service Allowance per Annum:

¥45,000..... (U. S. A.)
40,000..... (Gt. Britain & France)
35,000..... (Germany)
30,000..... (Russia, Italy, Brazil and Turkey)
25,000..... (Belgium)
20,000..... (China)
18,000..... (Manchoukuo and Poland)

Minister Plenipotentiary and Envoy Extraordinary:

Salary (a) 5,800
(b) 5,100
(c) 4,650 per Annum

Service Allowance per Annum:

25,000..... (Iran, Argentina & Canada)
22,000..... (European Countries)
18,000..... (Mexico, Chile, Peru & Egypt)
15,000..... (Thai)

Embassy Counsellors and Embassy Commercial Counsellors:

Salary (a) 5,800
(b) 5,100
(c) 4,650 per Annum

Service Allowance per Annum:

¥15,000-7,300

Consul-General: Salary ¥4,650 per Annum

Service Allowance per Annum:

¥15,000-13,000..... (New York)
14,000-12,000..... (San Francisco)
12,000-10,000..... (London, Hamburg, Sydney, Honolulu and San Paulo)
11,000-9,000..... (Shanghai)

10,000-8,000... (Habarovsk, Vladivostok, Alexandrovsk, Harbin, Singapore & Calcutta)
9,000-8,000..... (Tientsin, Tsingtao, Nanking, Hankow & Manila)
8,500-7,500... (Tsinan, Canton, Hongkong, Hanoi & Batavia)
7,000-4,100... (in Manchoukuo and some Chinese Cities)

Consul: Salary ¥4,050-2,150 per Annum

Service Allowance per Annum:

¥9,000..... (Havana)
8,500..... (Seattle, Chicago and New York)
8,150..... (London)
8,000..... (Liverpool, Marseilles, Los Angeles, Portland, New Orleans, Vancouver, Panama Bauru, Para & San Salvador)
7,800..... (San Francisco)
7,650..... (Hamburg)
7,500..... (Lyons, Milan, Anvers, Odessa & Lima)
7,000... (Rangoon, Colombo, Bombay, Alexandria, Port Said, Mombassa, Cape Town & San Paulo)
6,800..... (Sydney and Honolulu)
7,500..... (Saigon and Durvao)
6,000-4,000..... (in other places)

Vice-Consul: Salary ¥3,050-1,300 per Annum

Service Allowance per Annum:

¥7,750-1,650

(e) Imperial Household Service

	Salary per Annum
Minister	¥6,800
Lord Keeper of Privy Seal	6,800
Director of Peerage Bureau	
Grand Chamberlain	6,200-5,800
Grand Master of Ceremonies	
Vice-Minister	5,800
Lord Steward to Empress	
Lord Steward to Empress Dowager	5,800-5,100
Pres. Peers' School	
Grand Chamberlain to Prince Ri ...	
President of Imp. Estate Bureau...}	5,800-4,650
President of Imp. Board of Audit...}	

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

(f) Judicial Service

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

(g) Army Service

General	¥6,600
Lieut.-General	5,800
Major-General	5,000
Colonel	4,150
Lieut.-Colonel	3,220
Major	2,330
Captain	1,900-1,470
Lieutenant	1,130 1,020
Sub-Lieutenant	850
Bandmaster (1st)	2,150-1,750
" (2nd)	1,540-1,390
" (3rd)	1,240-1,130

(h) Navy Service

Admiral	¥6,600
Vice-Admiral	5,800

Rear-Admiral	5,000
Captain	4,150
Commander	3,220
Lieutenant-Commander	2,330
Lieutenant	1,900-1,470
Sub-Lieutenant (1st)	1,130-1,020
Sub-Lieutenant (2nd)	850
Special Commission Sub-Lieut.	2,070 1,910
" " Sub-Lieut. (1st)	1,740-1,630
" " Sub-Lieut. (2nd)	1,470-1,368
Cadet	670

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.

III. THE PENSION SYSTEM

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

Ordinary Pension.—Civil officials who retire after a series of 15 years or more (5 years in

the case of Ministers of State and 10 years in the case of police and prison officers) are entitled to ordinary pension, the amount being fixed according to the length of service and the sum of salary drawn at the time of retirement. The rate is 50/150 of the annual sum of salary for one whose service extended 15-16 years, 1/150 to be added 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.

Table 3. Pension System for Army and Navy

Length of service	Generals & Admirals	Colonels (Captains) to Lieutenants	Non-Commissioned & Warrant Officers	Private
11	¥2,500-1,867	¥1,534-467	¥490-225	¥200-150
15	2,700-1,017	1,656-505	432-253	224-174
20	2,950-2,204	1,803-552	472-288	254-204
25	3,200-2,392	1,961-600	512-329	284-234
30	3,450-2,579	2,113-647	552-358	314-264
35	3,700-2,797	2,266-695	592-398	344-294
40	3,950-2,954	2,418-742	632-428	474-334
45	4,200-3,229	2,571-790	673-463	403-381
50	4,500-3,329	2,703-837	712-498	534-384

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

Invalid Allowance.—This is granted to military men of the rank of non-commissioned and

warrant officers and privates or blue-jackets who retire from service on account of ill health or wounds suffered while on duty, though not disabled for life. The rates which differ according to rank as well as the cause and degree of incapacity range between ¥132 (min.) and ¥1,650 (max.) for non-commissioned officers and warrant officers, and between ¥120 (min.) and ¥1,500 (max.) for private and blue-jackets.

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.

Table 4. Retiring Allowance for Army and Navy

Rank	Minimum	Maximum
Generals and Admirals	(a)	¥4,375 ¥6,250
	(b)	3,250 5,417
	(c)	2,333 5,417
Colonels to Lieutenants	(a)	1,333 3,833
	(b)	988 3,492
	(c)	642 2,708
	(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)	56 863

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

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

The order of family members entitled to this

IV. LOCAL GOVERNMENT

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

These 46 prefectures are subdivided into 627 smaller administrative districts, which are called "gun" or counties, and these in turn are subdivided into villages or "mura" and towns or "machi." Originally sub-prefectural administrative division, the "gun" system was abolished in 1926 and "gun" now remains as a mere relic of olden times. As existing on March 31, 1937, there were 9,568 villages, 1,707 towns and 141 autonomous cities or "shi."

The chief administrator of a "fu" or "ken" is called "chiji" or prefectural governor and is ap-

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. Annuities attached to the decorations are added.

Table 5. Pension (a) Civil Service

	Year	Pension		Annuity to family	
		No. of recipients	Total amount	No. of recipients	Total amount
(a) Civil Service	1927	53,876	¥30,833,565	21,052	¥5,711,918
	1934	68,087	43,527,986	29,088	8,623,104
	1935	68,843	44,387,896	30,100	9,101,607
	1936	70,231	45,641,318	31,823	9,646,257
	1937	71,232	46,744,144	33,052	10,106,088
	1938	71,931	47,128,240	35,005	11,198,525
	(b) Army Service	1927	113,951	47,359,321	84,157
1934		109,821	49,703,523	77,953	16,267,497
1935		108,158	49,782,784	77,437	16,307,663
1936		107,664	50,439,770	76,048	16,177,565
1937		107,491	51,062,464	77,363	16,693,238
1938		102,572	50,590,554	89,035	26,871,243
(c) Navy Service		1927	59,476	21,827,293	13,655
	1934	71,899	27,180,508	17,529	4,250,514
	1935	74,366	28,051,601	18,278	4,439,978
	1936	78,464	29,535,190	19,387	4,744,138
	1937	80,231	30,282,370	19,925	4,905,834
	1938	77,986	29,602,568	21,047	5,853,063

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

	Year	Golden Kite		Rising Sun	
		No. of recipients	Total amount	No. of recipients	Total amount
Golden Kite	1927	65,056	¥11,727,600	3,975	¥254,506
	1934	61,424	10,967,550	2,951	172,310
	1935	60,849	10,894,150	2,840	173,155
	1936	59,767	11,001,300	2,844	171,980
	1937	58,194	10,411,400	2,840	171,565
	1938	56,409	10,077,850	2,819	169,660
Rising Sun	1927	3,975	¥254,506	2,951	172,310
	1934	2,951	172,310	2,840	173,155
	1935	2,840	173,155	2,844	171,980
	1936	2,844	171,980	2,840	171,565
	1937	2,840	171,565	2,819	169,660
	1938	2,819	169,660		

pointed by the Minister of the Interior, where as the mayor of a city or the headman of a town or village is elected by indirect popular votes usually for the term of four years. Thus when we say local government, the term includes all these different administrative organs, the chief executives of which are prefectural governor, mayor, and headman.

Prefectures

Each prefecture has its own prefectural assembly, which is composed of at least 30 members elected by popular votes. Every male Japanese subject of the age of over 25 years, residing over one year in the prefecture and en-

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

Cities

The city with a population of over 30,000 has a municipal government. The mayor of a municipal city is elected by its city council, which is composed of at least 30 members elected by the qualified voters. Hence a city-government in Japan is in a sense a self-government, though the power of the mayor and city-council is still very much limited. A municipality can own and control electric, gas and water plants, and sewer systems; and it manages all matters concerning the primary education of its citizens, and its sanitary affairs. Within the limit defined by law, a municipality can make its own regulations and can tax its citizens. It can also make contract of loans. But all the power the mayor and the city-council of a city can exercise is under the strict supervision of the central as well as the prefectural government. No municipality in Japan is given the power to control the police forces within its city-limits, and even in Tokyo they are subsidiary to the Home Office.

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

The Municipal System

The municipal system in force was revised in 1921, together with partial reform in the law for the control of the election of the members of the city-council, next in 1926 and again in 1929. By the last revision the scope of franchise was considerably enlarged to prepare a way for the enforcement of general manhood suffrage for the election of parliamentary members. The extension of franchise through the revision has considerably increased the number

of voters, by about 204 per cent., the number swelling to 80 voters for a population of 1,000 against 26 voters for a population of the same number under the old rules.

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

Towns and Villages

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

Revision of Local System

The year 1926 saw an epoch-making revision in the local administrative system, in other words, the principle of the new election law for parliamentary members was adopted for the election of the members 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.

Election under Universal Suffrage System

The first elections of prefectural assembly members under the universal suffrage system came off in 1927-28 with the following results.

No. of voters, 12,406,311; No. of votes, 9,960,230; ratio of absentees, 19.7%. The votes polled as classified by party distinction were as follows:—

Seiyukai (Ministerial)	4,350,633
Minseito (Opposition)	4,262,580
Proletarians	471,131
Others	866,886

Table 7. No. of Cities, Towns, Villages, etc. (In Japan Proper)

Year Ending March 31:	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total	No. of "Gun"
1927	101	1,584	10,294	11,979	133
1934	124	1,683	9,788	11,595	627
1935	127	1,702	9,721	11,512	627
1936	19	1,720	9,662	11,511	627
1937	141	1,707	9,568	11,416	625
1938	146	1,711	9,524	11,381	625

Table 8. Members of Local Assemblies

	Prefectural		Municipal		Town and Village	
	Mem.	Electors (1,000)	Mem.	Electors (1,000)	Mem.	Electors (1,000)
1929	3,870	2,700	154,621	9,496
1930	1,881	12,129	3,868	2,819	154,816	9,575
1931	1,901	12,373	3,886	2,935	154,086	9,613
1932	4,092	3,645	151,918	9,167
1933	4,451	3,810	152,542	9,112
1934	1,901	19,373	4,585	4,034	150,737	9,161
1935	1,902	12,871	4,624	4,203	150,865	9,201
1936	3,842	4,417	149,883	9,168
1937	5,259	4,555	146,211	8,687
1938	5,412	4,613	149,427	8,684

REFORM IN JAPANESE ADMINISTRATIVE MACHINERY IN MANCHOUKUO

The question of reforming the Japanese administrative machinery in Manchoukuo was settled in December 1934. According to the regulations published on December 26 through the Official Gazette with reference to the new offices set up, the new Manchurian Affairs Board (Taiman Jimukyoku) is under control of the Premier and takes charge of the following business:—

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

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

The Ambassador to Manchoukuo superintends the Kwantung Bureau, himself being under the supervision of the Premier. In matters of foreign relations, however, he is amenable to the control of the Foreign Minister.

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

The Kwantung Government is provided for Kwantung Province, which is divided into five

References:

Table Nos.: 1 a, 2 b, 3-4 c, 5-6 a, 7-8 d.

Key: a—Cabinet Statistics Bureau. b—List of the Government Officials. c—Army and Navy Offices.

d—Statistics Section, Home Minister's Secretariate.

administrative districts, each having a civil administrative office.

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

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

China Affairs Board (Koa-in)

The China Affairs Board was created in December, 1938 to conduct the following affairs:

1. Affairs relating to politics, economy and culture for the settlement of the China incident.
2. Establishment of policies apropos of the aforementioned affairs.

3. Supervision of companies established under special laws for the purpose of carrying on enterprises in China (such as the North China Development Company) and of the activities of persons carrying on commerce and industry in China.

4. Control unification of administrative measures concerning China of the various Ministries.

The president of the Board will be the Prime Minister ex-officio, and the four vice-presidents will be the Ministers for Finance, Foreign Affairs, Army and Navy. A liaison committee will be attached to the Board to deal with affairs between the various Ministries at home and organizations in China.

CHAPTER VII

POLITICS AND POLITICAL PARTIES

INTRODUCTORY

POLITICS

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

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

The Emperor

Prince Hirobumi Ito, the chief framer of the Constitution, expounds the constitutional status of the Emperor with the following words: "The sovereign power of reigning over and governing the State is inherited by the Emperor from 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, the Emperor is absolute, and the people believe him to be sacred and inviolable according to the letter of the Constitution. In state affairs the Emperor has acted traditionally only by the advice of his highest servants, including the Prime-Minister. And constitutionally he is inviolable in the sense that "he can do no wrong."

The Privy Council

Next to the Emperor, the Privy Council in Japan occupies a peculiar position in the constitutional system of her government. It is not like the Privy Council of England, out of

which the British cabinet system has grown, and in which the Cabinet Ministers have their legal existence. The Cabinet and the Privy Council in Japan form two separate and independent institutions.

The functions of the Privy Council are chiefly of a consultative nature. It meets to deliberate on any important matter of State, when its opinion is asked for by the Emperor, and advises him according to its lights. The principal matter on which it is usually consulted are those which come under the jurisdiction of the Imperial House Law, all important legislations relating to Articles of the Constitution, the issuing of the 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 President and Vice-President. They are all veteran statesmen who have played very important part in the administration, and though no longer taking an active share in it, their age and prestige entitle them to universal respect. As may be expected they are extremely conservative in their political ideas and sentiments.

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

ultimately prevails, and not that of the Privy Council.

As to international treaties and pledges, the Privy Council is always consulted, and it is the only 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 1928 three important cases were submitted to the approval of the Privy Council. The disapproval of the Wakatsuki Ministry's Bank of Taiwan relief measure in April, 1927 on constitutional ground caused its fall, while a similar proposal made by the succeeding Cabinet and the Peace Preservation Emergency Ordinance proposed in July, 1928 by the same Cabinet were both passed. The latest instance was a hot dispute raised in June, 1929 that the phrase in the Kellogg Anti War Pact; "in the names of their respective peoples," was not compatible with the Constitution.

The Cabinet

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

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

In Japan, the Cabinet Ministers, unlike those of England, are not always party-men; they may hold their office independent of the House of Representatives. The representative system

of government has not yet developed in this country to such a stage as to make the Cabinet Ministers necessarily responsible to the Diet.

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

But the above instances are unusual, and as a matter of fact, those days are now passed.

The "Genro"

The "Genro" or so-called Elder Statesmen as a body has no constitutional status, but as surviving builders of the grand work of the Imperial rehabilitation over half a century ago the Council of Genro was, until the beginning of 1922, an important institution in the political system of Japan, though with functions not legally formulated. It then consisted of four Elder Statesmen, 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 more, and though the Prince is still held in great respect by politicians of all parties as one to be consulted on important questions of State, age no longer allows him to take any active part.

The Imperial Diet

The Imperial Diet is bicameral, consisting of a body has no constitutional status, but as surrogates. The former is composed of Princes of the Blood; ordinary Princes and Marquises who sit by virtue of their right; representatives of Counts, Viscounts, and Barons; Imperial Nominees and representatives of the highest taxpayers.

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

Although, as far as outward appearances go, the members of the House of Peers occupy a better fortified position, for the House of Peers is not subject to dissolution as the House of 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 that the 125 Imperial Nominees in the House of Peers are mostly ex-officials of government, who hold their position on a life tenure, while the rest are aristocrats either by birth or by wealth. Naturally their sympathy has almost always been with the Cabinet Ministers independent of and irresponsible to the House of Representatives.

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

In the House of Representatives, there are very clear-cut divisions, and no matter how many parties there are, the House is usually divided into two camps, the government party and the opposition, though this party division does not come from any political principle or conviction. Of late things have become more complicated in the House owing to the absence of a party commanding absolute majority and to the manoeuvre engineered by minor 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 majority by one way or other. When a political party in Japan supports the Government, it is because its leader is the Prime Minister or holds a certain portfolio in the Cabinet. Then again some parties or individual members too often give support to the Government from consideration of interest, while, on the other hand, the Government can sometimes force them to support its policies either by intimidation or through threat of dissolution.

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

COMPOSITION OF THE 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 Marquis 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 Em-

peror; (e) Four members of the Imperial Academy elected from among the members thereof and nominated by the Emperor; (f) Representatives of the highest tax payers elected by means of mutual election from among the highest tax payers in each prefecture, the number thereof being one or two for each prefecture. The number of members representing each of three inferior orders of the peerage is 18 for Counts, 66 for Viscounts and 66 for Barons.

The House is composed as follows:

Table 1. Composition of the House of Peers

End of June	Princes of Blood	Princes	Marquises	Counts	Viscounts	Barons	Imperial Nominees	Imperial Academy members	High tax payers	Total
1931	16	13	28	18	66	66	123	4	64	398
1935	18	16	35	18	66	66	123	4	66	412
1936	18	16	25	17	66	66	118	4	65	405
1937	18	16	36	18	66	66	125	4	66	415
1938	17	17	36	18	65	65	124	4	65	411
1939	16	17	37	17	66	66	121	3	65	408

As mentioned elsewhere in this chapter, there are clear-cut political divisions or parties in the Upper House as in the case of the other House, still the members excluding those Imperial Princes having seats in the House now belong to one or the other of several groups or associations which exist as organs to form the opinions

of the members of the respective groups or important political or other problems. Of those organizations, the most influential is the Kenkyukai, whose attitude very often controls opinions of the House on the bills of important issue. The relative strength of those quasi-political groups in the House is as follows:—

Table 2. Factions in House of Peers

At close of session	Princes of Blood	Kenkyukai	Kayo-kai	Kosei-kai	Koyu club	Dowa-kai	Dosei-kai	Independence	Total
68th Jan. 1936	19	158	42	67	39	36	23	28	412
69th May 1936	18	156	41	67	37	35	22	29	405
70th Mar. 1937	18	163	42	67	35	34	22	32	413
71st Aug. 1937	18	163	42	66	35	34	22	32	412
72nd Sept. 1937	18	163	42	66	35	34	22	32	412
73rd Mar. 1938	17	165	44	67	34	32	22	30	411
74th Mar. 1939	16	160	44	69	35	31	21	36	412

The President of the House of Peers in 1939 was Count Yorinaga Matsudaira, who succeeded Prince Fumimaro Konoe; the Vice-President, Marquis Yukitada Sasaki, and the Chief Secretary, Yasuji Seko.

The House of Representatives

As under the new election law passed in the 50th session of the Imperial Diet in 1925, and enforced in 1928, the House is composed of members elected by male Japanese subjects of not less than 25 years of age, who are qualified

for eligibility to the franchise with some exceptions. The whole country is divided into 119 electoral district, Taiwan (Formosa) and other colonies being excluded of course, each district returning from 3 to 5 members to the House, with the total number of members fixed at 466. A general election is to take place every four years, and is carried on by secret ballot, one vote for one man. The allotment of seats, which formerly was 305 for the rural districts and 75 for the urban districts, was increased to 352 and 112 respectively in 1928.

THE ELECTORAL SYSTEM

The Election Law in Japan has a separate existence from the Constitution; and that is very fortunate for her, revision having been effected already four times solely on account of this convenient arrangement. The Constitu-

tion, 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 tabular form:—

Table 3. Important Features in Original and Revised Election Laws

Original:	Elector		Candidate		No. of Members	Voters (in 1,000)	No. of Members per electoral district
	Age	Tax	Age	Tax			
1890	25	¥15	30	¥10	300	500	1-2
Revised:							
1900	25	¥10	30	none	381	1,500	4-12
1920	25	¥8	30	none	464	8,070	1-3
1925	25	none	30	none	466	3,288	3-5
1934	25	none	30	none	466	13,000	3-5
1935	25	none	30	none	466	13,000	3-5
1936	25	none	30	none	466	14,075	3-5
1939	25	none	30	none	466	14,618	2-5

The revision in 1925 is memorable as an epoch-making event in the democratic movement in Japan and as a distinct triumph realized by those espousing the cause of universal suffrage. It is essentially a general manhood suffrage system somewhat limited in application, but as such it occasioned intense contest from

the 42nd session (1919-20) to the 50th (1924-25) in and out of the Diet between the two opposing parties and it even caused at one time the dissolution of the House. The law as it stands was a result of compromise at the conference of the two Houses.

Revised Election Law

The result of the removal of the tax qualification in the revised election law of 1925 has increased the number of those eligible to franchise to upward of 14,000,000 as against approximately 3,000,000 under the former system. Excluding from that figure those who are disqualified for franchise because of their receiving public or private relief or help towards a living on account of poverty, the number of those entitled to vote will come down to about 10,000,000.

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

Students; Teachers of primary schools; Shinto or Buddhist priests and other persons engaged in religious work; Persons doing work for the Government under contract; Government and public officials connected with election affairs, who have not resigned their office 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 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 candidate must send in applications to the chief election commissioners within 7 days before the date of the election, and must deposit a sum of ¥2,000 either in cash or public bonds as security. In case the num-

ber of candidates falls short of the fixed number of members to be returned from a certain election district the candidates will be elected as members for that district without going through the proceedings of voting.

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

Strict Control over Campaigns:—In the new law only election commissioners and election committees, their number not to exceed fifty persons, are permitted to take part in the campaign. These are allowed to receive remuneration from candidates to cover the cost incurred or they may be employed on wage basis by candidates. The number of election offices to be established by a candidate in one electoral district is limited 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 servitude or imprisonment for a period not longer than 3 years as the heaviest penalty, as against the maximum amount of a fine of ¥500 and imprisonment without hard labour of the old law.

Upper House Reform

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

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

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

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

The highest tax paying members in the House shall be effected from among those paying direct national tax to the amount of ¥300 and upward in connection with landed property, industry or commerce, the age-limit for such members being fixed as 40 years and upwards. The number of such members for each prefecture is limited to 1 or 2, according to the size of popu-

CABINET CHANGES SINCE 1885

The bureaucratic statesmen monopolized the administration from 1885 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 Cabinet either purely bureaucratic or with a thin veneer of party element. Of the sixteen administrations that were in power from the fall of the Okuma Cabinet down to the formation of the 2nd Kato Cabinet, seven were purely bureaucratic and the other nine mixed. So far the Hara Ministry and its extension, the Takahashi Ministry, have risen to the highest level accessible to party politics under the peculiarly complicated circumstances in which various political organizations work in Japan. The Hara Administration is noteworthy as the first Cabinet of Japan formed by an avowed party leader (Seiyukai) and an untitled commoner. The Hamaguchi Cabinet and its extension, namely 2nd Wakatsuki Cabinet, was another.

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

lation, the total number not exceeding 66.

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

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

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

General Election

The general election takes place every four years, this being the regular term for Commons. The extraordinary session must, according to the Constitution, be convened within five months from the date of dissolution. In general three or four months intervene between the date of dissolution and that of general election. Of the 19 general elections since the 1st election held in 1890 only four, i.e. those of 1902, 1908, 1912 and 1936, were regular and were held after the natural expiry of the 4 year term.

The results of the latest general election are as follows:—

Table 4. Results of General Election (April 30th, 1937)

Name of Party	
Seiyu-kai	175
Minsei-to	179
Showa-kai	19
Kokumin Domei	11
Shakai Taishu-to	37
Toho-kai	11
Total incl. others	466

Sessions and Relative Party Strength

Leaving out of account all those minor groups of temporary existence, the relative strength of those permanent parties as at the close of the respective sessions is shown below:—

Table 5. Relative Strength of Political Parties

At close of session:	Date	Seiyukai	Minseitō	+Daichi Gōin Club	Tohokai	Shakai Taishu-to (Social Mass Party)	Total incl. others
67th Session	Mar. 1935	260	118	—	—	—	466
68th	Jan. 1936*	242	127	—	—	—	466
69th	May. 1936	170	204	—	—	—	466
70th	Mar. 1937*	171	204	—	9	20	466
71st	Aug. 1937	175	180	49	11	36	466
72nd	Sept. 1937	174	179	49	11	36	466
73rd	Mar. 1938	173	179	47	12	34	466
74th	Mar. 1939	168	177	46	10	34	466

Note: * Session dissolved. † Consists of former Showa Club, Kokumin Domei, Nippon Kakushinto, etc.

Number of Franchise-Holders.—The election law revised in 1925 and enforced in 1928 increased the number of franchise-holders to 14,618,000 in 1937.

Table 6. Franchise Holders

Election	M.P.'s	Franchise holders (1,000)	Franchise-holders per 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	56.60	80.33	19.67
16th (1928)	466	12,530	26,889	199.75	83.34	16.66
17th (1930)	466	12,943	27,496	198.81	81.68	18.32
18th (1932)	466	13,096	28,102	200.34	78.65	21.35
19th (1936)	466	14,304	30,695	206.54	73.40	26.30
20th (1937)	466	14,453	31,014	205.71		

Profession of Members.—Comparing the professions of the members returned in the general election of 1936 with those on former occasions the decrease of farmer members and increase of those of other origins are quite noticeable, the relative percentage being as follows:—

Table 7. Occupation of M.P.

Election	Public Service	Army & Navy	Physician etc.	Publisher & Journalist	Lawyer	Business man	Com- merce	Agriculture & Forestry	Total incl. Others
15th (1924)	12	3	14	20	63	96	29	83	464
18th (1932)	39	1	7	52	79	79	7	73	466
19th (1936)	27	0	8	53	92	72	13	91	466
20th (1937)	8	8	10	66	82	86	10	80	466

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

Table 8. Age of M.P.'s

Election	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	over 60	Total
8th (1903)	24	65	84	103	64	19	17	376
15th (1924)	10	56	82	93	81	16	46	464
18th (1932)	2	19	54	105	113	80	93	466
19th (1936)	2	20	39	86	108	93	118	466
20th (1937)	3	22	56	80	98	94	113	466

Violation of Election Law.—The record since the 1st election is as follows:—

Table 9. Statistics of Violation of Election Law

Election	Imprisonment	Penalty	Acquitted	Unseated	Total
1st (1890)	26	211	47	—	286
2nd (1892)	65	183	69	4	323
3rd-4th (1894)	217	501	403	24	1,155
5th-6th (1898)	249	611	152	15	1,029
7th (1902)	173	1,348	335	5	1,861
8th (1903)	140	1,642	212	2	1,998
9th (1904)	25	280	28	1	244
10th (1908)	128	1,419	274	—	1,921
11th (1911)	325	3,437	188	—	3,950
12th (1915)	448	7,194	671	19	8,332
13th (1917)	1,283	21,245	319	530	23,377
14th (1920)	148	5,166	145	37	5,496
15th (1924)	56	9,434	36	1,825	11,351
16th (1928)	241	7,559	—	69	12,869
17th (1930)	221	12,690	—	59	12,970

Table 10. Cabinet Changes Since 1915

(* indicates additional post)

Date Established:	Oct. 9, 1915	Sept. 29, 1918	Nov. 13, 1921	June 12, 1932
Premier:	Masaki Terauchi	Takashi Hara *Yasuya Uchida	Korekiyo Takahashi	*Tomosaburo Kato *Yasuya Uchida
Foreign:	{ Masaki Terauchi Ichiro Honma Shimpei Goto	Yasuya Uchida	Yasuya Uchida	Yasuya Uchida
Home:	{ Shimpei Goto Rentaro Mizuno	Takejiro Tokonami	Takejiro Tokonami	Rentaro Mizuno
Finance:	{ *Masaki Terauchi Kazue Katsuta	Korekiyo Takahashi	*Korekiyo Takahashi	Otohiko Ichiki
Army:	Ken-ichi Oshima	{ Giichi Tanaka Hanzo Yamanashi	Hanzo Yamanashi	Hanzo Yamanashi
Navy:	Tomosaburo Kato	Tomosaburo Kato	Tomosaburo Kato	{ *Tomosaburo Kato Takeshi Takarabe
Justice:	Itasu Matsumuro	{ *Takashi Hara Tokichi Ohki	Tokichi Ohki	Keijiro Okano
Education:	Ryohei Okada	Tokugoro Nakahashi	Tokugoro Nakahashi	Eikichi Kamada
Agriculture & Commerce:	Kiyoshi Nakakoji	Tatsuo Yamamoto	Tatsuo Yamamoto	Kentarō Arai
Communications:	Kenjiro Den	Utaro Noda	Utaro Noda	Toshisada Maeda
Railways:	—	Hajime Motoda	Hajime Motoda	Tokichi Ohki
Date Established:	Sept. 2, 1923	Jan. 7, 1924	June 11, 1924	Aug. 2, 1925
Premier:	Gombei Yamamoto	Keigo Kiyoura	Takaakira Kato	{ Takaakira Kato Reijiro Wakatsuki
Foreign:	{ *Gombei Yamamoto Hikokichi Ijuin	Keishiro Matsui	Kijuro Shidehara	Kijuro Shidehara
Home:	{ Shimpei Goto	Rentaro Mizuno	Reijiro Wakatsuki	Reijiro Wakatsuki
Finance:	Jun-nosuke Inoue	Kazue Katsuta	Yuko Hamaguchi	Yuko Hamaguchi
Army:	Giichi Tanaka	Kazunari Ugaki	Kazunari Ugaki	Kazunari Ugaki
Navy:	Takeshi Takarabe	Kakuichi Murakami	Takeshi Takarabe	Takeshi Takarabe
Justice:	{ Kenjiro Den Kiichiro Hiranuma	Kisaburo Suzuki	{ Sennosuke Yokota Korekiyo Takahashi Heikichi Ogawa	Yoku Egi
Education:	{ *Tsuyoshi Inukai Keijiro Okano	Chiyuki Egi	Ryohei Okada	Ryohei Okada
Agriculture & Commerce:	{ Kenjiro Den *Keijiro Okano	Toshisada Maeda	Korekiyo Takahashi	—
Agriculture & Forestry:	—	—	Kunisuke Okazaki	Seiji Hayami
Commerce & Industry:	—	—	Utaro Noda	Naoharu Kataoka
Communications:	Tsuyoshi Inukai	Yoshiro Fujimura	{ Tsuyoshi Inukai Kenzo Adachi	Kenzo Adachi
Railways:	Kazutsugu Yamanouchi	Kenjiro Komatsu	Mitsugu Sengoku	Mitsugu Sengoku
Date Established:	Jan. 30, 1926	Apr. 20, 1927	July 2, 1929	Apr. 14, 1931
Premier:	Reijiro Wakatsuki	Giichi Tanaka	{ Yuko Hamaguchi Kijuro Shidehara	Reijiro Wakatsuki
Foreign:	{ Kijuro Shidehara Reijiro Wakatsuki	*Giichi Tanaka	Yuko Hamaguchi Kijuro Shidehara	Kijuro Shidehara
Home:	{ Yuko Hamaguchi Kenzo Adachi	{ Kisaburo Suzuki *Giichi Tanaka	Kenzo Adachi	Kenzo Adachi
Finance:	{ Yuko Hamaguchi Seiji Hayami Naoharu Kataoka	{ *Korekiyo Takahashi Chuzo Mitsuchi	Jun-nosuke Inoue	Jun-nosuke Inoue
Army:	Kazunari Ugaki	Yoshinori Shirakawa	{ Kazunari Ugaki Nobuyuki Abe Kazunari Ugaki	Jiro Minami

(Continued)

Navy:	Takeshi Takarabe	Keisuke Okada	{ Takeshi Takarabe Kiyotane Abo Chifuyu Watarabe	Kiyotane Abo Chifuyu Watanabe
Justice:	Yoku Egi	Yoshimichi Hara	{ Chuzo Mitsuchi Rentaro Mizuno Kazue Katsuda	Itta Obashi Ryuzo Tanaka
Education:	Ryohei Okada	Teijiro Yamamoto	Chuji Machida	Ryuzo Tanaka Chuji Machida
Agriculture & Forestry:	{ Seiji Hayami Chuji Machida	Tokugoro Nakahashi	Magoichi Tawara	Yukio Sakurachi
Commerce & Industry:	{ Naoharu Kataoka Ikunosuke Fujisawa	Keisuke Mochizuki	Matajiro Koizumi	Matajiro Koizumi
Communications:	Kenzo Adachi	Fusanosuke Kuhara	Yoku Egi	{ Yoku Egi Shujiro Hara Shujiro Hara *Reijiro Wakatsuki
Railways:	{ Mitsugu Sengoku Kyoshiro Inoue	Heikichi Ogawa	Genji Matsuda	—
Overseas:	—	*Giichi Tanaka	—	—
Date Established:	Dec. 13, 1931	May 26, 1932	July 8, 1936	May 9, 1936
Premier:	{ Tsuyoshi Inukai *Korekiyo Takahashi	Makoto Saito	{ Keisuke Okada Fumio Goto Keisuke Okada	Koki Hirota
Foreign:	{ *Tsuyoshi Inukai Kenkichi Yoshizawa	{ *Makoto Saito Yasuya Uchida Koki Hirota	Koki Hirota	{ *Koki Hirota Hachiro Arita
Home:	{ Tokugoro Nakahashi *Tsuyoshi Inukai Kisaburo Suzuki	Tatsuo Yamamoto	Fumio Goto	Keinosuke Ushio
Finance:	Korekiyo Takahashi	Korekiyo Takahashi	{ Masanobu Fujii Korekiyo Takahashi Chuji Machida	Eiichi Baba
Army:	Sadao Araki	{ Sadao Araki Senjuro Hayashi	{ Senjuro Hayashi Yoshiyuki Kawashima	Juichi Terauchi
Navy:	Mineo Osumi	{ Keisuke Okada Mineo Osumi	Mineo Osumi	Osami Nagano
Justice:	{ Kisaburo Suzuki Takeji Kawamura	Matsukichi Koyama	Naoshi Obara	Raisaburo Hayashi
Education:	Ichiro Hatoyama	{ Ichiro Hatoyama Makoto Saito	{ Genji Matsuda Takuji Kawasaki Tatsunosuke Yamazaki	{ *Keinosuke Ushio Hachisaburo Hirao Toshio Shimada
Agriculture & Forestry:	Teijiro Yamamoto	Fumio Goto	Chuji Machida	{ Takakichi Kawasaki Gotaro Ogawa
Commerce & Industry:	Yonezo Maeda	{ Kumakichi Nakajima Yoji Matsumoto	Chuji Machida	Keikichi Tanemogi
Communications:	Chuzo Mitsuchi	Hiroshi Minami	Takejiro Tokonami	Yonezo Maeda
Railways:	Takejiro Tokonami	Chuzo Mitsuchi	Shinya Uchida	Hidejiro Nagata
Overseas:	Toyosuke Hata	Ryutaro Nagai	{ *Keisuke Okada Hideo Kodama	—
Date Established:	Feb. 2, 1937	June 4, 1937	Jan. 5, 1939	Aug. 30, 1939
Premier:	Seijuro Hayashi	Fumimaro Konoe	Kiichiro Hiranuma	Nobuyuki Abe
Foreign:	{ *Senjuro Hayashi Naotake Sato	{ Koki Hirota Kazunari Ugaki *Fumimaro Konoe Hachiro Arita	Hachiro Arita	{ *Nobuyuki Abe Kichisaburo N-mura
Home:	Kakichi Kawarada	{ E-ichi Baba Nobumasa Suetsugu	Koichi Kido	Naoshi Obara
Finance:	Toyotaro Yuki	{ Okinori Kaya Nariaki Ikeda	Sotaro Ishiwata	Kazuo Aoki
Army:	{ Kotaro Nakamura Hajime Sugiyama	{ Hajime Sugiyama Se shiro Itagaki	Seishiro Itagaki	Shunroku Hata
Navy:	Mitsumasa Yonai	Mitsumasa Yonai	Mitsumasa Yonai	Zengo Yoshida
Justice:	Suehiko Shiono	Suehiko Shiono	Suehiko Shiono	Chogoro Miyagi
Education:	*Senjuro Hayashi	{ Elji Yasui Koichi Kido Sadao Araki	Sadao Araki	Kakichi Kawarada
Agriculture & Forestry:	Tatsunosuke Yamazaki	Yoriyasu Arima	Yukio Sakurachi	Takuo Godo
Commerce & Industry:	Takuo Godo	{ Shinji Yoshino Nariaki Ikeda	Yoshiaki Hatta	*Takuo Godo

(Continued)

Communications:	*Tatsunosuke Yamazaki	Ryutaro Nagai	*Suehiko Shiono Harumichi Tanabe	Ryutaro Nagai
Railways:	Hideo Kodama	Chikubei Nakajima	Yonezo Maeda	*Ryutaro Nagai
	*Takuo Gcdo	Sonyu Ohtani		
Overseas:	*Toyotaro Yuki	*Kazunari Ugaki	*Yoshiaki Hatta Kuniaki Koiso	Tsuneo Kanemitsu
		*Fumimaro Konoe		
		Yoshiaki Hatta		
Welfare:	---	*Koichi Kido	Hisatada Hirose	*Naoshi Obara
		Koichi Kido		

Date Established:	Jan. 16, 1940	July 22, 1940
Premier:	Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai	Prince Fumimaro Konoe
Foreign:	Hachiro Arito	Yosuke Matsuoka
Home:	Count Hideo Kodama	Eiji Yasui
Finance:	Yukio Sakurazuchi	Iszo Kawata
Army:	General Shunroku Hata	Leut. General Eiki Tojyo
Navy:	Vice-Admiral Zengo Yoshida	Vice-Admiral Zengo Yoshida
Justice:	Naotatsu Kimura	Vice-Admiral Koshiro Oikawa
Education:	Chinjiro Matsuura	Akira Kazama
Agriculture & Forestry:	Toshio Shimada	Kunihiko Hashida
Commerce & Industry:	Ginjiro Fujiwara	Viscount Tada-atsu Ishiguro
Communications:	Masanori Katsu	Ichizo Kobayashi
Railways:	Tsuruhei Matsumoto	Shozo Murata
Overseas:	General Kuniaki Koiso	*Shozo Murata
Welfare:	Shigeru Yoshida	Gotaro Ogawa
		*Yosuke Matsuoka
		Kiyoshi Akita
		*Eiji Yasui
		Tsuneo Kanemitsu

Formation of Konoye Cabinet

Following the resignation of the Yonai cabinet on July 16, 1940, Prince Fumimaro Konoye formed on the 22nd of the same month, a new cabinet. (See Table 10 for list of cabinet members). The new cabinet on August 1st published the basic national policies to be carried out. Accordingly, the national policy

aims at the establishment of world peace, and, as a first step toward this, a new order in East Asia will be established. The total strength of the nation shall be devoted to achieve this end. Defence will be strengthened and an elastic diplomatic policy will be adopted. The internal structure will be reorganized to fit the national policy.

ECONOMIC LEGISLATION PASSED BY THE 75TH SESSION OF THE DIET

The 75th Session of the Imperial Diet, which assembled on December 23, 1939, and prorogued on March 26, 1940, passed 16 budgetary bills and 108 ordinary bills. The budgetary bills passed include the national budget for the fiscal year 1940-41 and supplementary estimates, the estimates for the Temporary War Expenditure Special Account and other special accounts, and supplementary estimates for the fiscal year 1939-40. Other bills include 45 bills relating to the complete reform of the taxation system. The remaining 63 bills were mostly of an economic nature, aiming at the strengthening of Government control in various spheres of the national economy.

The important bills related to economic activities, which may be divided into three groups are the following: those relating to (1) agricul-

ture, (2) mining and manufacturing, and (3) trade.

Agriculture

Emergency Measures for Rice Control.—The bill is an amendment to the Rice Control Law of 1937 for the more effective control of rice distribution. Important points amended are as follows: (1) Whenever it is deemed necessary, the Government may purchase or sell rice at market prices. (Formerly, the Government could purchase rice only when prices declined more than 10% from the maximum price computed from the cost of production and the general price level.) (2) When necessary for the smooth distribution of rice, the Government may purchase or sell grains or flour other than rice. (Formerly, the Law only referred to

rice.) (3) All monetary transactions in regard to (2) will be operated by the Rice Control Special Account and prices will be paid by notes. (4) This amendment will be repealed within one year after the end of the China Incident.

Agricultural Product Inspection Law.—This Law aimed at the unification under the Government of inspection and grading of important agricultural products, which had been carried out by each prefecture separately. It provides that unless passed by a Government inspection organ, rice, wheat, barley, rye, and rape seed cannot be transferred or shipped to areas designated by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Other agricultural products than those mentioned above may be inspected by the Government inspection organ.

Japan Fertilizer Company Law.—Although an adequate supply of fertilizer is indispensable for the maintenance of production in agriculture, the supply of fertilizers has largely been hampered by various factors, such as a decrease in imports and a shift of production of chemical fertilizer to other products. In order to secure an adequate supply and smooth distribution, the Government have enforced various measures for the production and distribution of fertilizer. The Japan Ammonia Sulphate Company and the Japan Phosphorous Fertilizer Distribution Company have been established as distribution control organs for ammonia sulphate and superphosphate of lime.

The new Law provides that a Japan Fertilizer Company will be established, absorbing the above two companies. The new company will engage in the purchase, sale, import, export, investment, and other activities necessary for the maintenance of adequate supplies of ammonium sulphate, calcium cyanamide, superphosphate of lime, potassium compounds, and other fertilizers designated by order. The new company will be capitalized at 50 million yen, of which 25 million yen will be subscribed by the Government. It may issue bonds to an amount up to five times the paid-up capital. No dividend will be paid on the shares held by the Government unless dividends of more than 4% p.a. are distributed to ordinary shareholders.

Charcoal Special Account Law.—This Law provides for the establishment of a special account for all monetary translations relating to purchase, sale, and storage of charcoal with a working capital of one million yen and authority to contract loans up to 7 million yen.

This Law was passed in view of the increased demand for charcoal for automobiles as a sub-

stitute for gasoline. To secure an adequate supply of charcoal for both automobiles and households in large cities, the Government will buy 192 million kwan (720,000 tons) by the coming winter through this special account.

Mining and Industry

Coal Distribution Control Law.—The scarcity of coal has been one of the most serious problems in the expansion of industrial production. The coal Distribution Control Ordinance has already put the sale of coal under Government control. However, the distribution control has no effect in increasing the output of coal. The Central Price Committee recommended in August, 1939, a plan for the complete control of the coal industry in order to increase production. The bill presented to the Diet was based on that recommendation but somewhat moderated. The new law provides for the establishment of a Japan Coal Company with an authorized capital of 50 million yen, of which 25 million yen will be subscribed by the Government, and authority to issue bonds up to 150 million yen. Coal producers, importers, and designated dealers must sell to the Company all coal produced, imported, or purchased except that for their own use. The company will engage in (1) purchase and sale of coal, (2) import and export of coal, (3) loans and investment in coal mining, (4) any business supplementary to the above, and (5) any business necessary for smooth distribution and maintenance of a fair price of coal. The company will sell to consumers through existing distribution organs, but delivery will be made by designation of the company. Only the Government, public bodies, Japanese citizens, and Japanese legal persons more than half of whose capital or voting right do not belong to foreigners or foreign legal persons may be the shareholders of the company. President, vice-president, and directors of the company will be elected by shareholders with the approval of the Government.

In actual operation, the company will pay to producers according to cost of production and sell at an average price in order to stimulate production without an undue advance in prices. Together with this Law, budgetary estimates for subsidies for coal production were presented and passed. They include: (Bonus payments of 4 yen per ton in 1940 for producers for that part of production exceeding the output of 1928 or 1939 whichever the higher. (Estimated cost 22 million yen). (2) Subsidy of 35 yen per meter for new tunnel-

ing. (Estimated cost 16.8 million yen for three years 1940-42, 3,733,000 yen for 1940). (3) Subsidy for the purchase of coal by the Japan Coal Company. (Estimated cost 22.4 million yen for 1940).

Revision of Mining Law.—Under the present mining law, prospecting licenses are given for a period of two years which may be extended unlimited times every two years. In order to prevent the extension of licenses indefinitely without actual mining operations, the new Law lengthens the period of license to four years, but an extension of this period is prohibited, except in unpreventable cases when licenses may be extended for four additional years in the case of petroleum and for two years for other minerals.

Organic Compounds Synthesis Law.—In order to promote the growth of the synthetic chemical industry by restricting undue competition, establishment of enterprises for the synthesis of the following articles is placed under license: rubber, toluol, benzol, metanol, butanol, acetic acid, rosin, and fibre.

Trade

Law concerning the Indemnification of Losses on Advances by Exporters and Producers of Export Good.—This Law is a legalization of the

loss-indemnification system which has been effective for exporters since August, 1938, and for producers of export goods since May, 1939. When advances made by bankers to exporters and producers of goods to be exported to designated destinations cannot be collected at maturity, they will be compensated by the Government to the extent of 80% of the loss. Bankers should pay to the Government a fee of 0.13 sen per 100 yen per day for funds thus advanced.

Woollen Textiles Export Control Law.—This Law provides for the maintenance of fair quality of woollen textiles exported. Textiles containing more than 30% of wool shall not be exported unless passed by the national inspection organ, except in cases permitted by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry.

Japan Agricultural Products Exports Company Law.—Under this Law, a new company will be established for the export of pyrethrum, mint, green peas, potato starch, rape seeds, and rape seed oil. All products transferred across prefectural borders must be sold to the above company. The company will divide stocks between domestic and foreign demands and will sell to appropriate dealers. No export of the above products will be permitted unless purchased from the Company.

ENUNCIATION OF JAPAN'S NATIONAL POLICY BY PREMIER KONOYE

The European war and the China Incident have been factors which have quickened the tempo in Japan towards the need of closer national unity in all spheres of endeavour. In this connection Premier Prince Fumimaro KonoYE issued a statement on August 28, 1940, clarifying Japan's aims. The text of the statement is as follows:

"In the midst of a world-wide disturbance, Japan is now going forward with an unparalleled task, the creation of a new order in East Asia. If Japan is to bring the China Affair to a successful conclusion, while adjusting herself to the international situation, and to take an active part in the establishment of a new world order, she must concentrate on this task the total power of the nation to the utmost degree so as to be in a position to take in an independent manner, swiftly and resolutely, appropriate measures for meeting whatever situation may arise.

"To this end Japan must perfect a national defense structure of the highest degree. The basis of such a structure is a powerful internal

structure. Consequently there has arisen the pressing demand for the establishment of a new structure in politics, economy, education, culture and all the domains of the life of the State and of the people.

"This indeed is a national demand, transcending a Cabinet a faction or an individual. It is not a demand of a temporary character for carrying out any specific policy, but of a permanent one, for rendering possible the powerful pursuance of any policy, when the necessity arises. Whether or not Japan can establish such a strong national structure will decide the very rise or fall of the nation.

"Among the items to be considered in this new organization of the nation must be mentioned the harmonious cooperation between the High Command and the administrative branch of the Government, the consolidation of State mechanisms and the heightening of efficiency, and the establishment of a new parliamentary structure as an organ for assisting the Throne. The Government, on their part, are exerting utmost efforts in order to achieve these ends.

But of far greater importance is the firm establishment of that "national structure" which is to serve as the very foundation of all and under which the people are to fulfil effectively their duty of assisting the Throne. It is with this end in view that the present Preparatory Committee has been convened and that I request your deliberations and collaboration.

"The aim of the new national structure is to unite the total energies of the State and of the people, to make one living whole of our hundred million fellow countrymen and enable them all to fulfil perfectly their duty as subjects of the Throne. To attain this goal, each one of us must be enabled to fulfil that duty in the performance of his daily task. It is but natural that when the majority of the people, as it has been the case in the past, have no opportunity to take part in government other than when they are called to cast a vote once every three or four years, they would not as a whole take to heart the destiny of the country.

To See Phases

"The organization of the nation is that which enables the people to serve the nation in their economic and cultural spheres. There must be everyday life: it must therefore extend to the solid nationwide structure in which all component parts are organized vertically, and they are also bound together horizontally. It is because there does not exist such a structure allowing the people to assist effectively the Throne that we see today a tendency toward a conflict between those who govern and those who are governed, a lack of true understanding on the part of the authorities who formulate the policies of the people's real activities and an indifference on the part of the people toward the formulation of State policies.

"When we look at things in this manner, the fundamental points of the national structure appear clearly: the people should be enabled to take part, from the inside, in the establishing of the country's economic and cultural policies and at the same time these policies should reach all the peripheries of national life. It is only under these conditions that the will and ideas of both those who govern and those who are governed can be fully appreciated by each other and that the total power of the nation can be concentrated on carrying out the policies of the nation.

"A definite national movement is necessary for the successful realization of this national structure. Such a movement should spontaneously spring from the people themselves. If

it is planned or guided by the Government, or if it is given an administrative structure, it may hinder the spontaneous manifestation of the people's energies. The present circumstances, however, do not allow us to rely only on the spontaneous development of such a movement. Moreover, agitations from below, are liable to degenerate into factional strifes and fail to expand into a really national movement. The Government have thus found it necessary to take positive steps for fostering and directing this movement.

By People, Government

"Viewed in this light, this movement is a common undertaking of both the Government and the people: it is a nation-wide movement to assist the Throne. It is not merely a spiritual movement in the narrow sense but aims at enhancing the political ideals and the political consciousness of the nation. And the choosing of men of talent, known or unknown, from all strata of society to form the nucleus of the movement and thus to obtain a strong political power and driving force is the first and indispensable step that should be taken.

"The movement is highly political in nature, but it is by no means a movement for a political party. Individual and sectional interests and attitudes are necessarily in the very nature of a political party. It is true that there can be no whole without parts; and to condemn parties only because they comprise separate elements is not necessarily fair. It may be said that in those times when liberalism was the basis of economic activities, the existence of political parties was justified. It must be acknowledged that in Japan herself the parties stood up against the influences to make heard the voice of the people. But nevertheless it cannot be denied that the past activities of the parties often were not in keeping with the essential mission of the Diet which is to assist the Throne.

Supersedes Old System

"The new national structure movement aims at superseding the old party politics postulated upon liberalism. It is essentially national, all embracing and public-spirited in character.

"It aims at the concentration and unification of the nation's entire powers. Its activities extend to the whole life of the nation. Even were his movement to rise as a popular movement, its character would not be that of a political party in the old sense. It would on the contrary be a national movement standing above any political party, embracing all parties

and factions, economic and cultural bodies, and uniting all in the spirit of public service.

"When such a movement is led by the Government itself, it cannot, in any sense be a party movement. Those who hold the reins of Government and are entrusted with the task of assisting the Throne, are always placed in a position, where they must seek the welfare of the whole but never be permitted to indulge in party politics which, in their very nature, contain elements of sectional antagonism and conflict.

"As I have just stated, the national structure cannot take the form of a political party, especially when it is led by the Government. Neither can it be allowed to take the form of a single party system. This political system takes a 'part' and makes of it a 'whole;' consider the State and the Party as one and the same thing, it views any opposition to the Party as a revolt against the State; it renders permanent the ruling position of one Party with the head of that Party as a permanent wielder of the power to govern. No matter what brilliant results such a system may have reaped in other lands, it is not acceptable in Japan because it is contrary to the basic principle of our national polity of 'One Sovereign over all.' In Japan, it is the privilege of all His Imperial Majesty's subjects to assist the Throne and that privilege cannot be monopolized by the power of either a single individual or a single party.

"If there should arise a difference of opinion concerning the assistance to be offered, the final decision would rest with the Throne. And once

an Imperial decision has been given, all the subjects of the Throne should unite in obeying His Majesty's Word. That is the true essence of Japanese polity.

"In short, the new national structure means a nation-wide and permanent organization in which the Japanese people in all walks of life are to fulfil their duty of assisting the Throne.

"Although the perfection of this structure is by no means an easy task, the Government are convinced that it provided the best means for surmounting the difficulties of these times.

"His Imperial Majesty the Emperor was pleased to grant a message on February 11 of this year, showing to His subjects the way in which we should face the present situation. The Government, in obedience to the Imperial Word, are taking the lead on this national movement to assist the Throne. They are resolved to overcome the great obstacles that confront our country, and to fulfil the heavy responsibilities which are theirs to 'guard and maintain the prosperity of the Imperial Throne.'

"I have invited eminent authorities from Government, Army and Navy circles and also from outside the Government to join this Preparatory Committee for the National Structure, and I ask that you will study, and collaborate in solving, the questions relative to the general lines of the organization of a central organ for the national movement, and the adjustment of its relations with existing organizations as well as its co-ordination with the structure of the State."

DISSOLUTION OF POLITICAL PARTIES

Prince Konoye on June 24, 1940 resigned from the presidency of the privy Council to make clear his determination to launch the movement for a single political structure. Early in July the Japan Reformist Party, one of the minority organizations, oiled the path for party dissolution with the avowed purpose of participating in the movement to be started by Prince Konoye. With the same object in view, the following dissolutions have taken place since one by one: the Social Mass Party, July 6; the Kuhara and unionist factions of the Seiyukai Party, July 16; the Kokumin Domei, July 26; and the Nakashima faction of the Seiyukai, July 30. Thirty-seven Minseito Diet members headed by Mr. Ryutaro Nagai seceded from their party on the ground that it was unduly slow in so doing and on August 15 this party also disbanded, the last of the Japanese political

parties to do so. Japan now has no political party in existence with seats in the House of Representatives. Parties organized by members of the House of Peers, which are not generally considered as such, are unaffected.

Brought into being in 1881 and led by Taishu Itagaki who played an important role in the Meiji Restoration, the Jiyuto (Liberal Party), forerunner of the Minseito, was set up by Shigenobu Okuma, another statesman of great renown for his part in the Restoration. For almost six decades since then these two had been outstanding leaders of Japanese political parties. With these two major political parties dissolving themselves of their own accord Japan has just entered a party-less period. It is an extraordinary situation. But the Japanese people at large have not attached any great importance to this development, probably for two

principal reasons. Since the downfall in 1932 of the last Seiyukai Cabinet headed by Tsuyoshi Inukai, political parties had been gradually losing their once dominant force.

As the outbreak of the China Incident placed the country on a war footing, the waning power of the parties became more pronounced so that quite recently they ceased to be any factor as far as the real interests of the nation were concerned. This is one reason for the popular aloofness to the fate of the political parties here. Another reason, of a more positive character, is the fact that the people have been in quest of a strong unified government much in the line of the "accord of political and national defense policies" as outlined by Premier Konoye. The disbandment in succession of the parties is nothing but the preliminaries to their ultimate joining in the movement for the new political structure launched by Prince Konoye in response to the keen popular demand. So announcing the parties have dissolved themselves, not to cease their existence, but so that a new structure satisfying national require-

ments may be evolved. These are the reasons why the people have refused to attach any gloomy view to the dissolution of the parties.

With all political parties disappearing in this manner, Premier Konoye's plan for the new political structure is yet to be announced and the public as yet has no inkling even of its outline. It appears that the Premier is going to organize a preparatory commission by summoning leaders in all fields of activity. Whether or not a system can be evolved which will sufficiently meet the requirements of the people future developments alone will show. However, the fact that all the political parties have been broken up may signify that all the members of the extinct parties en masse will be taking part in the new political structure—which tends to give some idea of the character of the incoming organization. It cannot be anything based on radical ideas or backed by the sponsors of extreme action. This assumption also is just another reason why the Japanese people are disposed to entertain a relatively optimistic view with regard to the recent political developments.

References:

- Table Nos.: 1 a, 2 b, 3 c, 4 d, 5 c, 6-8 b, 9 d, 10 b.
Key: a—Investigation of the Department of Imperial Household.
b— " " " Cabinet Statistics Bureau.
c— " " " Diet authority.
d— " " " Department of Home Affairs.

CHAPTER VIII

DIPLOMACY

Historical

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 Tenchi 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 Yuan 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 military leader of this country, despatched a punitive expedition to Korea for a diplomatic assertion of Japan's national independence which was sometimes disregarded by the Korean kings. It ended in a 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 Manchous 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.

Recent Situation

The Manchurian Incident of September, 1931 and the establishment of Manchoukuo must be noted in Japan's recent history as marking the beginnings of a new phase in the course of our country's diplomatic policy. The significance of Japan's subsequent withdrawal of her membership from the League of Nations lies in the determination of our country to make a clear-cut distinction between cooperating as hitherto for world amity and in adjusting her diplomacy towards such realities, the recognition of which she believes to confer most to international peace and security.

The rapidly changing conditions in the structure of world economy have been the main factor leading to the misrepresentation of our country's motives. Japan was faced from about 1930 with a situation wherein her best trade customers caused barriers to be raised towards the restriction of trade, such as in the imposition of higher tariffs, the establishment of quota system, and creation of bloc economy. Under such a condition the difficulties of importing the dire necessities of our country steadily increased. The outcome was the decision of Japan to bend her effort to the development of the natural resources of East Asia and in so doing not only to assist in the solution of her economic difficulties but also in creating a state of order and better livelihood for the inhabitants of this region.

Japan believes, however, that economic blocs as such with accompanying high tariff walls are not conducive to a healthy state of international trade, and she awaits the day when through mutual understanding the tariffs of the world can be lowered paving the way again for a smoother and greater flow of trade among all nations.

Apart from the matter of international economic relations, Japanese diplomacy has been concerned in good measure with China and Soviet Russia.

Relations with China.—In view of the fact that China has never been unified under a single rule, the diplomatic intercourse between Japan and China has been unfortunately, a chronicle of difficulties and complications. However, the relations between the two countries were never very tense, excepting for brief periods, for over twenty years until the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese hostilities of July, 1937.

It is safe to say that had certain elements in China adopted a saner method than the propagation of anti-Japonism in their attempt to unify the administration of the entire country, there would have been no cause for the dispute that broke out in 1937, and which has since grown into a major war.

China Policy.—The Japanese Government's fundamental policy for adjusting Sino-Japanese relations prior to the establishment of a new order in East Asia was revealed in a statement issued by Premier Fumimaro Konoe on December 22, 1938. The statement declares that the Japanese Government are resolved to carry on military operations until the complete extermination of the anti-Japanese Kuomintang Government and proposes the following five demands as the minimum guarantee needed for the execution by China of her function as a participant in the establishment of a new order.

The five terms are: (1) Establishment of diplomatic relations between China and Manchoukuo, (2) Conclusion of an anti-Comintern agreement between China and Japan, (3) The stationing of Japanese troops, as an anti-Communist measure, at specified points and the designation of Inner Mongolia as a special anti-Communist area, (4) Recognition of the freedom of residence and trade for Japanese in the interior of China, (5) Extension to Japan of facilities for the development of China's natural resources, especially in North China and Inner Mongolia.

In return for the fulfilment of the above terms, "Japan not only respects the sovereignty of China, but also is prepared to give positive consideration to the questions of the abolition of extra-territoriality and the rendition of concessions and settlements, matters which are necessary for the full independence of China." The statement also declares that Japan seeks neither territory nor indemnity for the costs of military operations, nor the limitation of the interests of those third Powers who grasp the meaning of the New East Asia and are willing to act accordingly.

Relations with Germany and Italy.—Germany

and Italy were among the first countries to extend diplomatic recognition to Manchoukuo, and in appreciating Japan's position in the Far East. Such kindly attitude by these two European powers has established among Japanese a strong bond of friendship for Germany and Italy. These existing ties of amity were further strengthened in September, 1940 by the signing of the Tripartite Pact.

In the field of cultural relations our intercourse with Germany and Italy date from the middle of the last century, and it is through these two countries that the best in western music was introduced into this country. Germany also has contributed greatly to the medical and scientific advancement of Japan.

Relations with Soviet Russia.—Diplomatic intercourse was assumed between the Soviet Union and Japan in December, 1924 following the Yoshizawa-Karakhan negotiations at Peking. Due to geographical proximity Soviet Russia and Japan have been closely connected in commercial relations, and of late the two nations have felt the increasing necessity of strengthening further their mutual relationship. A step in this direction was reached with the settlement of the Nomonhan Incident in 1939, while early in 1940 the Soviet Foreign Commissar, M. Molotov, reiterated his hope for settling all outstanding issues with Japan.

None of the problems confronting the two countries is of an insoluble nature, and progress is being made in their settlement. The outstanding issues consist of rights with regard to fishery in Soviet waters, oil and coal concessions in Soviet Saghalien, and definitions of Soviet-Manchoukuo and Manchoukuo-Mongol border demarcations.

From a trade point of view, the two countries are complimentary rather than competitive in their items of exports and imports, Soviet Russia being favorably placed in the export to Japan of raw materials and Japan of finished goods.

American-Japanese Relations.—The intercourse between Japan and the United States is founded from the visit of Commodore Perry to these shores more than eight decades ago. In this intervening period the trade between these Pacific powers has increased in a remarkable manner, and in recent times they have come to represent each other's third largest export outlets. Aside from such important commercial intercourse, the Japanese people have felt a warm sympathy towards America, fostered by the latter's kindly attitude in the Russo-Japanese War and in various other expressions of

contentment; there should be amity and harmony among neighbors, and there should be mutual respect for one another's natural endowments, and common prosperity and progress for all.

"In the performance of the sacred task of reconstructing East Asia, the first step to be taken is to create and insure a new international relationship between Japan, Manchoukuo and China. Needless to say, this new relationship should of necessity conform to the ideal underlying the construction of the new order in East Asia. That is why neighborly amity and good will, common defense against the Comintern, and economic cooperation were advocated in the statement of Premier Prince Fumimaro Konoye.

"Our goal is plain as day. The concrete program for the construction of the new order which the Japanese Government proposes to accomplish in concert with the new Central Government of China is formulated on that very statement. It is devoted to no other purpose than that the nations concerned shall respect one another's racial and national endowment, and shall cultivate friendly relations of mutual aid and good fellowship, stand guard against the menace of Communism so as to insure the peace of East Asia, and practise the principle of ministering to one another's need by setting up a reciprocal economic system. That Japan will respect China's independence and freedom has been made clear in the successive statements issued by our Government, and it will be proved in fact as the present disturbances subside.

"Although Japan and China are now engaged in hostilities, the two peoples retain in their hearts the spirit of mutual sympathy and tolerance. The longer the hostilities last, the greater will be the sacrifice imposed upon East Asia. But certainly the great timeless mission of our Empire cannot be abandoned simply because of the sacrifices of this conflict. The determination of our Government and people is firm as ever, and the strength of our nation has been replenished according to plan, so that we are ready to carry on our campaign, no matter how long, until the eyes of China's anti-Japanese and pro-Communist regime are finally opened.

"Far-sighted men are not lacking among the four hundred million people of China. Some enlightened leaders have long advocated peace and national salvation. In order to rescue their nation from suffering and distress, they are fearlessly standing for right and dedicating their lives to their cause. These men who share

in the same solicitudes toward the general welfare of East Asia are our comrades. We cannot but admire them for their high purpose and their unselfish enterprise.

"Mr. Wang Ching-wei is an outstanding figure of this group. He could not endure to see the actual state of affairs by which his people were needlessly plunged into the depth of misery owing to the mistaken policy of the Chungking regime, which in the last analysis only hastened the sovietization of his country. He came out for national salvation through opposition to Communism and conclusion of peace with Japan. In the face of all manners of pressure and persecution by Chungking, he pursued the path of his conviction, bringing light to his people lost in darkness.

"Thus has he won the confidence and the following of his nation. His peace and national salvation movement as well as the preparation for a new Central Government have made rapid headway since the Sixth Kuomintang National Congress which was held in Shanghai in August last year (1939).

"For the sake of the peace of East Asia we are truly gratified to know that the Central Political Council is to meet soon, and a new Central Government will be brought into being with the united support and cooperation of both regimes at Peking and Nanking and also of many leaders representing the various political groups and the various sections of society. Japan will, of course, render whole-hearted assistance toward the formation of the new Government and is prepared speedily to extend recognition following its establishment.

"In this connection I should like to add that I am deeply impressed by the fact that in full accord with Mr. Wang, those leading statesmen in the Peking and Nanking Governments, who have for the past two and a half years devoted every ounce of their energy to the reconstruction and rehabilitation of their respective areas, are now going forward with the work of restoring peace and building up a new China.

"On the eve of the establishment of a new central Government of China I express my ardent hope that Mr. Wang and all those other men of vision and leadership, united in purpose and resolute in action, will proceed with the great task for the regeneration of Asia. I am convinced that their earnest endeavors will meet with popular approval and support, both in and out of China, and that the misfortune brought on by the present Sino-Japanese conflict will be turned into an eternal blessing."

graciousness, including assistance rendered this country immediately after the disastrous seismic catastrophe of 1923. That there have been misunderstandings between the United States and Japan at times cannot be contradicted, but none have been so weighty as to be beyond the reach of diplomatic solution.

At the time of this writing a cause for misunderstanding of several years' standing between the two countries still remained to be settled. The cause for this misunderstanding centers about the East Asia policy of Japan. The essence of this policy lies in creating a fraternal union among the various races living in this sector of the world and to elevate the livelihood of these peoples by developing the natural resources of each and every country to their mutual welfare, and, in a larger sense, in contributing ultimately to world amity and prosperity on a basis of equality. Further, the principle of mutual protection, similar to that sponsored for the Americas by President Mon-

roe, in the doctrine that bears his name, is also believed by Japan to be most conducive to the healthy development of the Far East, and to achieve this end Japan is striving untiringly for its realization.

This policy is viewed upon with sympathy by one group of opinion in the United States which sees the foregoing principle to be but a natural aspiration, opposition to which would only retard seriously and cause unnecessary impediments in the resumption of cordial relations between America and Japan. Another group, however, seems bent upon disregarding the changing currents of Far Eastern affairs, and would oppose any movement that would recognize the new situations that have arisen in this sector in the span of some two decades since the Washington Conference. The settlement of this issue would at once dispel the most ominous obstacle from the path of American-Japanese friendship.

ESTABLISHMENT OF CHINA'S NEW CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

The National Government of new China issued on March 30, 1940 a proclamation formally announcing its establishment. This does by no means signify that a national government has come into being in parallel with the regime at Chungking. Its formation was based on the principle that the old National Government, having been reorganized to succeed to the guiding principles of China by making its Fundamental Policy the reconstruction of the state through peace, returned to Nanking in control of China's sovereign rights and that, therefore, the Chungking regime lost its status as a central government of China simultaneously with the issuance of that proclamation.

Regarding its relations with Japan, the new government manifested with considerable emphasis both directly and indirectly its attitude of co-operation in its platform as well as the proclamation of the return to Nanking. It declared in the first plank of the platform that

JAPANESE STATEMENT WITH REGARD TO ESTABLISHMENT OF THE NEW CENTRAL GOVERNMENT OF CHINA

Ex-premier Mitsumasa Yonai's statement on the establishment of the new central government of China under the leadership of Wang Chin-wei was delivered on March 13, 1940 and is as follows:

"To free the world from contentions and con-

it will "share the responsibility for the establishment of an everlasting peace and the construction of a new order in East Asia." In the proclamation of its return to Nanking it said: "By the policy for realization of peace is meant that amity and friendship, joint defence against the Comintern and economic co-operation, relations between China and Japan will be readjusted so as to ensure their cordial intercourse, by eliminating all their disputes arising hitherto. If there are policies and regulations adopted in the past which run counter to the spirit of the new policy, they shall be either abolished or revised. Efforts will be made for the security of independence and freedom as well as the dignity of Chinese sovereignty and assurance of perfect administration in China. Economic co-operation will be made on a reciprocal and equal stand so as to set up a firm foundation for common existence and prosperity of China and Japan."

flicts and to make peace and goodwill prevail among mankind is an aim consonant with the great idea upon which our Empire was founded. It is to that end that a new order in East Asia is contemplated. Every country should be enabled to find its proper place of peace and

Japanese Statement Re Netherlands East Indies

The Japanese Government's earnest hope that the Dutch Government will firmly uphold its determination of maintaining the status quo of the Netherlands East Indies was conveyed in a statement issued by the Japanese Foreign Office, on April 15, 1940, which reads as follows:

"Considering the possibility of the war in Europe spreading to the Netherlands, the Japanese Government made public on April 15 its attitude of deep concern over any development that may affect the status quo of the Netherlands East Indies, and subsequently it notified the Netherlands Government to that effect. In connection with this, the Netherlands Government expressed its determination not to alter its policy of maintaining the status quo of the said Netherlands colony under any circumstances.

"As the European war has now spread to the Netherlands, the Foreign Minister, Hachiro Arita, invited the Netherlands Minister at Tokyo, General J. C. Pabst, to the Foreign Office this afternoon, and informed the latter that the Japanese Government earnestly hopes that the Netherlands Government will firmly maintain its said determination regarding the question of the Netherlands East Indies. The Foreign Minister has also called attention of the representatives in Tokyo of belligerent countries, namely, Great Britain, Germany and France, to Japan's concern over the said question. The Foreign Minister has informed the representatives of two neutral countries, the United States and Italy, for their reference, the fact that the Japanese Government made the above notification to the Governments of belligerent countries concerned."

Settlement of Tientsin Issue

The question of the Tientsin Concessions was virtually settled through the exchange of memoranda between Japan and Great Britain and France on the 19th and 20th of June, 1940. This question arose in March, 1940 when a dispute occurred concerning the delivery of Chinese culprits in connection with the assassination of a Tientsin Customs commissioner in the British Concession. There were further reasons for this dispute, and they had connections with the circumstances prevailing in other concessions, such as those in Shanghai and Amoy. The causes of its occurrence were, first, that the British and French Concessions in various places afforded bases for anti-Japanese activities of

groups and agents of the Chiang Kai-shek regime, second, that they supplied arms and munitions to anti-Japanese bandit groups outside of the concessions, or encouraged terrorism against those Chinese who were friendly to Japan, third, that they interfered with Japan's policy of circulating the notes issued by the Federal Reserve Bank of North China.

The essential points of the agreements are as follows: (1) With regard to the maintenance of peace and order in the British Concession, a closer contact is to be kept between the concession authorities and the Japanese military authorities for the purpose of suppressing terroristic activities; (2) as for the silver question, the silver coins and bullion stored in the building of the Communications Bank are to be sealed in the presence of Japanese and British authorities and kept there. However, silver amounting to £100,000 is to be taken out of this stock and spent for the purpose of affording relief to sufferers from flood and drought damages in North China; (3) as regards the question of currency, the Japanese demand made in 1939 was a complete suppression of the fapi currency. But as the situation changed since then it was finally agreed on the basis of non-interference with the circulation of the Federal Reserve Bank notes in the British Concession.

A similar agreement was reached with France with reference to the French Concession, the only point of difference being the fact that £200,000 is to be expended for relief purposes. This is due to the proportionately larger amount of silver stored in the French Concession. Upon the settlement of the concession question, the headquarters of the Japanese Garrison in Tientsin lifted on June 20, 1940 the restrictions which they had enforced against the British and French Concessions.

Following the solution of the Tientsin Concession question, the French authorities transferred to the Japanese army on June 23, 1940 their police jurisdiction over the district of Cicawel adjoining the French Concession on the west. The Municipal Council of the International Settlement, also returned land registers of Shanghai to the Special Municipal Office of Shanghai under the new National Government at Nanking on July 5.

Closure of Indo-China Route

Since the Japanese army cut off the Canton-Hankow Railway in the autumn of 1938, the so-called French Indo-Chinese routes for supplying munitions of war to the Chiang Kai-shek

regime in its resistance against Japan—the routes being the railway connecting Haiphong, Hanoi, Laokai, Kunming and Chungking; the new motor-car roads, one connecting Chen-an, Kaoping and Chungking, the other Kweilin and Chungking, and the line connecting Hanoi, Nanning and Liuchow—have been far more valuable supply routes for the Chiang regime compared to the route running through Sinkiang and Lanchow and Outer Mongolia and Lanchow, the Burma route or the route through Hongkong district. In comparison with only 500 to 600 metric tons of supplies carried on the Sinkiang-Lanchow and Outer Mongolia-Lanchow routes and about 9,000 metric tons on the Burmese route, the traffic on the French Indo-Chinese route has amounted to more or less than 17,000 metric tons a month. In other words, this route carried approximately 70% of all the military supplies to the Chungking regime.

The French Government accepted on June 20, 1940 the demands of the Japanese Government made on the previous day for the stoppage of transit of goods and materials through Indo-China in aid of the Chiang Kai-shek regime.

The Soviet Border Issue

It was officially announced on August 27,

1940 that as the result of Soviet-Japanese conferences conducted at Chita since August 3, Tokyo and Moscow have agreed on the fundamental principle of border demarcation. On the basis of this agreement, it is also understood, a joint committee left Chita on August 25 on a trip to Nomonhan and other border areas with the purpose of demarcation of the borderline between the Soviet and Manchoukuo.

The first attempt at border demarcation, following the large scale armed contest at Nomonhan in the summer of 1939, was contemplated in the truce agreement formed there last September. The Soviet-Japanese delegates consequently met in conference in early December but their parley broke up early in 1940 for reasons that have never been made clear.

However, negotiations with Moscow were continued by our Ambassador there. The Molotoff-Togo-meeting on June 9 and the Rozovsky-Togo meeting on July 18 resulted in the formation of a Soviet-Japanese "joint committee for Manchoukuo and Mongolia border demarcation on the spot." This committee met for the first time at Chita on August 3 and on 6 subsequent occasions. These conferences paved the way for the dispatch of a committee to carry through demarcation on the disputed ground.

CONCLUSION OF MUTUAL ASSISTANCE PACT AMONG JAPAN, GERMANY AND ITALY

A mutual assistance pact among Japan, Italy and Germany was signed on September 27, 1940 at Berlin. A summary of the Pact reads as follows:

The Governments of Japan, Germany and Italy, considering it as the condition precedent of any lasting peace that all nations of the world be given each its own proper place, have decided to stand by and cooperate with one another in regard to their efforts in Greater East Asia and the regions of Europe respectively wherein it is their prime purpose to establish and maintain a new order of things calculated to promote mutual prosperity and welfare of the peoples concerned.

Furthermore, it is the desire of the three Governments to extend cooperation to such nations in order spheres of the world as may be inclined to put forth endeavors along lines similar to their own, in order that their ultimate aspirations for world peace may thus be realiz-

ed. Accordingly the Governments of Japan, Germany and Italy have agreed as follows:

Article 1

Japan recognizes and respects the leadership of Germany and Italy in the establishment of a new order in Europe.

Article 2

Germany and Italy recognize and respect the leadership of Japan in the establishment of a new order in Greater East Asia.

Article 3

Japan, Germany and Italy agree to cooperate in their efforts on the aforesaid lines. They further undertake to assist one another with all political, economic and military means when one of the three Contracting Parties is attacked by a power at present not involved in the European War or in the Sino-Japanese Conflict.

Article 4

With a view to implementing the present Pact, joint Technical Commissions the members of which are to be appointed by the respective Governments of Japan, Germany and Italy will meet without delay.

Article 5

Japan, Germany and Italy affirm that the aforesaid terms do not in any way affect the political status which exists at present as between each of the three Contracting Parties and Soviet Russia.

Article 6

The present Pact shall come into effect immediately upon signature and shall remain in force for ten years from the date of its coming into force.

At proper time before the expiration of the said term the High Contracting Parties shall, at the request of any one of them, enter into negotiations for its renewal.

**Text of the Japanese Imperial Rescript
on the Signing of the Japan-Germany-
Italy Mutual Assistance Pact**

To enhance justice on earth and make of the world one household is the great injunction, be-

queathed by Our Imperial Ancestors and which We lay to heart day and night. In the stupendous crisis now confronting the world, it appears that endless will be the aggravation of war and confusion, and incalculable the disasters to be inflicted upon mankind. We fervently hope that the cessation of the disturbances and the restoration of peace will be realized as swiftly as possible. Accordingly, We commanded Our Government to deliberate on the matter of mutual assistance and cooperation with the Governments of Germany and Italy which share in the views and aspirations of Our Empire. We are deeply gratified that a pact has been concluded between these three Powers.

The task of enabling each nation to find its proper place and all individuals to live in peace and security is indeed one of great magnitude, unparalleled in history. The goal lies still far distant. Ye, Our Subjects, clarify evermore the concept of national polity; think deeply and look far; unite in heart and strength, and surmount the present emergency, to assist thereby in the promotion of the Imperial fortune coeval with heaven and earth.

September 27th, the fifteenth year of Showa (1940).

**TEXT OF ADDRESS BY FOREIGN MINISTER MATSUOKA ON THE SIGNING OF
THE JAPAN-GERMANY-ITALY MUTUAL ASSISTANCE PACT**

(September 27, 1940)

Today on the occasion of the conclusion of the Three Power Pact between Japan, Germany and Italy, an Imperial Rescript—I am profoundly moved to say—has been issued to the nation. What we, His Majesty's subjects, should do has been plainly indicated by the Prime Minister in his message. I sincerely believe that it is incumbent upon all of us to lay to heart the august will of our Sovereign and put forth our best efforts in order to surmount the current emergency.

Our country is now faced with a most difficult situation, unparalleled in its history. What step we should take at this moment is a grave problem upon which hangs the fate of our nation. The Government, keenly conscious of the gravity of its responsibilities, is seeing to it that nothing shall come amiss.

The objective of Japan's foreign policy is no other than to dispose of the China Affair, to construct a sphere of common prosperity in Greater East Asia and to contribute thereby to the establishment of true peace for the entire world. But when we look at the actual international situation, we find that this intention of

Japan is not yet fully understood. There are countries which have the mistaken idea that peace means the mere maintenance of the old order, or those which, while realizing the inevitability of change, are reluctant to part with the old order. Moreover, there are countries which attempt to obstruct, directly or indirectly, our construction of a new order in Greater East Asia, and even those who resort to all sorts of stratagem in order to block the path of Japan's advance toward the fulfillment of her great historic mission—that of establishing world peace. The Japanese Government has assiduously striven to remedy this regrettable state of affairs. Nevertheless, I regret to say that the situation has not only failed to improve, but it has even shown signs of aggravation in certain quarters.

Circumstances have now brought Japan to the point where she can no longer permit the international situation to drift as it will. At this juncture, there is only one course for Japan to take. That is to say, internally we should stand resolutely together—one hundred million people as one—by establishing speedily the new state structure for national defense; and ex-

ternally, we should first unite with Germany and Italy which have the same aspirations and policy as ours and later with those Powers who can cooperate with us. We should thus go fearlessly forward to carry out our conviction, calling at the same time upon those Powers that obstruct us to reconsider their attitude. In such manner, the Government expects to achieve the ultimate aim of our Yamato race—namely, the establishment of a new order in East Asia.

Accordingly, we have conducted negotiations with the representatives of Germany and Italy, which have resulted in the conclusion of the Three Power Pact, made public just a short while ago.

The establishment of this historic relationship of alliance between the three countries is, of course, due to the wisdom of our gracious Sovereign. At the same time it owes much to the judgment and decision of the eminent leaders of Germany and Italy—Chancellor Hitler and Premier Mussolini. Again, the German Foreign Minister, Mr. von Ribbentrop, has earnestly made efforts for German-Japanese cooperation from the very day he assumed his present post, while the Italian Foreign Minister, Count Ciano, having been once stationed in East Asia, and understanding fully Japan's position in East Asia, has ceaselessly labored for the promotion of Italo-Japanese friendship. Needless to say, these two foreign ministers have played important roles in the conclusion of the present pact.

The pact provides that Japan, Germany and Italy shall cooperate freely with one another toward the construction of a new order, respectively in Greater East Asia and in the regions of Europe, in which these Powers are at present engaged. It also provides that if any one of the Contracting Parties should be at-

tacked by an outside Power, at present not involved in the European War or in the China Affairs, the three Contracting Powers shall render mutual assistance with all possible means, political, economic and military. Accordingly, it does not mean that because of this pact Japan is to enter the European War at present, nor that she intends to challenge any Power without provocation. It may be added also that the present treaty will not affect in any way the existing political status between Japan, Germany and Italy on the one hand and Soviet Russia on the other.

The treaty also provides that Germany and Italy recognize Japan's position of leadership in regard to the construction of a new order in Greater East Asia. We in turn recognize the leadership of Germany and Italy in the European regions where they are now engaged in the establishment of a new order, staking even their national existence in the undertaking. And thus the Three Powers are to join forces and help one another to the utmost.

With the conclusion of this treaty Japan's responsibilities as leader of the new order in Greater East Asia becomes even greater than before. Although it is the intention of the Japanese Government to fulfil these responsibilities always by peaceful means, there is no telling whether there might not arise occasions and circumstances calling for a momentous decision on the part of our nation. Our future is beset with countless obstacles and difficulties, which, it must be fully realized, no ordinary effort will be sufficient to surmount. Our Government and people, united as one and grasping fully the situation both at home and abroad, should be prepared to endure all hardships and all sacrifices, and redouble their efforts so as to conform to the august will of our Sovereign.

List of Treaties Between Japan and Foreign Countries

Contracting States	Name of Treaty	Date of Signature	Ratification exchanged
Afghanistan	Treaty of Amity	Apr. 2, 1928	July 17, 1931
Albania	Treaty of Amity, Commerce	June 30, 1934	July 11, 1931
Argentina	†Treaty of Amity, Commerce and Navigation	Feb. 3, 1898	Sept. 8, 1901
Austria	Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	Aug. 16, 1930	Dec. 2, 1931
Belgium	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	June 27, 1924	May 3, 1925
Bolivia	*Treaty of Commerce	Apr. 13, 1914	Mar. 15, 1916
Brazil	Treaty of Amity, and Commerce	Nov. 5, 1895	Feb. 12, 1897
Chile	†Treaty of Amity, Commerce and Navigation, Additional Articles to the Aforementioned Treaty	Sept. 15, 1897	Sept. 24, 1906
	Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	Oct. 16, 1899	Sept. 24, 1906
China	Supplementary Convention to the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	July 21, 1896	Oct. 20, 1896
	Customs Tariff Convention	Oct. 8, 1903	Jan. 11, 1904 (Promulgated)
	Agreement concerning the Exchange of Postal Matters	May 6, 1930	May 7, 1930 (Promulgated)
		Dec. 8, 1922	Jan. 1, 1923

Contracting States	Name of Treaty	Date of Signature	Ratification exchanged
Colombia	†Treaty of Amity, Commerce and Navigation	May 25, 1908	Dec. 10, 1908
Czecho-Slovakia	†Treaty of Commerce	Oct. 35, 1925	Oct. 20, 1926
Denmark	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	Feb. 12, 1912	May 6, 1912
	†Special Reciprocal Customs Convention	Feb. 12, 1912	May 6, 1912
Finland	†Treaty of Amity, Commerce and Navigation	Aug. 26, 1918	Mar. 31, 1919
	†Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	June 7, 1924	Oct. 22, 1925
France	Convention between Japan and France	June 10, 1907	June 10, 1907
	Agreement concerning Commercial Relations between Japan and French Indo-China	May 13, 1932	Aug. 17, 1932
Free City of Danzig	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	Aug. 19, 1911	Apr. 22, 1912
	Declaration concerning French Indo-China Note relating to the Application to Free City of Danzig of the Treaty of Commerce & Navigation between Japan and Poland	Aug. 19, 1911	Aug. 26, 1911
Germany	*Treaty of Commerce	Apr. 11, 1927	(Promulgated) Apr. 16, 1927
	The Agreement against the Communist International, and the Supplementary Protocol	July 2, 1927	Apr. 2, 1928
Great Britain	The Agreement on Cultural Co-operation	Nov. 25, 1936	—
	The Tripartite Treaty with Italy & Germany	Nov. 25, 1938	—
Greece	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	Sept. 28, 1940	—
	Supplementary Convention to the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	Apr. 3, 1911	May 5, 1911
Italy	Treaty of Commerce between Japan and India	July 30, 1925	July 29, 1927
	Agreement Concerning the Exchange of the Postal Money Order	July 12, 1934	—
Netherlands	†Treaty of Amity, Commerce and Navigation	Aug. 14, 1936	Dec. 20, 1936
	Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	June 1, 1899	Sept. 21, 1899
Japan	Treaty of Judicial Settlement, Arbitration and Conciliation	July 6, 1912	Oct. 8, 1913
	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	Apr. 19, 1933	Aug. 18, 1935
Latvia	Treaty of Commerce & Navigation	Nov. 25, 1912	June 17, 1918
	The Agreement Against Communist International	Dec. 30, 1937	—
Lithuania	The Agreement on Cultural Co-operation	Nov. 6, 1937	—
	The Tripartite Treaty with Germany & Italy	Mar. 23, 1939	—
Manchoukuo	†Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	Sept. 28, 1940	—
	†Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	Nov. 16, 1923	Jan. 13, 1925
Mexico	Exchange of Notes Constitution of Commercial Agreement	July 4, 1925	Aug. 25, 1928
	Treaty concerning Manchuria	May 2, 1930	Nov. 30, 1931
Poland	Treaty concerning Hainmintun-Mukden and Kirin-Changchun Railways	Mar. 9, 1936	—
	Ditto (Supplementary Articles)	Dec. 22, 1895	Jan. 28, 1906
Soviet Russia	Convention concerning the Exchange of Notes	Apr. 15, 1907	(Promulgated) May 4, 1907
	Sino-Japanese Convention	Nov. 12, 1908	(Promulgated) Nov. 27, 1908
Spain	Treaty concerning South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia	Sept. 4, 1908	(Promulgated) Sept. 8, 1909
	Protocol between Japan and Manchoukuo	May 25, 1915	June 7, 1915
Sweden	Convention Concerning Establishment of Commission	Sept. 15, 1932	Sept. 15, 1932
	Treaty for Partial Abolition of Extraterritoriality	Sept. 10, 1935	Sept. 15, 1935
Switzerland	Treaty Concerning the Residence of Japanese Subjects, Taxation, etc. in Manchoukuo	June 10, 1936	June 10, 1936
	Treaty Concerning Reciprocal Protection of the Right in Industrial Property	June 10, 1935	—
Turkey	The Agreement against Communist International	June 29, 1936	—
	Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	Feb. 21, 1911	Apr. 4, 1911
U. S. A.	Exchange of Notes relating to the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	Oct. 8, 1924	May 5, 1925
		Mar. 9, 1934	(Promulgated) Mar. 16, 1934

Contracting States	Name of Treaty	Date of Signature	Ratification exchanged
Norway	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	June 16, 1911	July 15, 1911
	†Special Reciprocal Customs Convention	June 16, 1911	July 15, 1911
Paraguay	†Treaty of Commerce	Nov. 17, 1919	Aug. 25, 1921
Peru	Treaty of Amity, Commerce and Navigation	Sept. 30, 1924	Feb. 19, 1930
Poland	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	Nov. 7, 1922	Jan. 8, 1925
	†Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	Mar. 10, 1924	Dec. 22, 1924
Thailand	Treaty of Friendship, Commerce & Navigation	Dec. 8, 1937	—
	Convention embodying Basic Rules of Relations between Japan and Russia	Jan. 20, 1925	(Promulgated) Feb. 27, 1925
Soviet Russia	Fishery Convention	Jan. 23, 1928	May 25, 1928
	Agreement Concerning the Exchange of Postal Parcels	Nov. 23, 1931	July 23, 1932
Spain	Protocol Concerning the Prolongation of the Duration of the Fishery Convention	May 25, 1936	—
	Protocol Concerning the Second Prolongation of the Duration of the Fishery Convention	Dec. 25, 1936	—
Sweden	*Treaty of Amity and General Relations	May 15, 1911	July 10, 1915
	*Special Commercial Convention	Mar. 28, 1900	Mar. 30, 1901
Switzerland	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	May 19, 1911	July 12, 1911
	†Special Reciprocal Customs Convention	May 19, 1911	July 12, 1911
Turkey	*Treaty of Residence and Commerce	June 21, 1911	Dec. 20, 1911
	*Treaty of Judicial Settlement	Dec. 26, 1924	Dec. 20, 1925
U. S. A.	Treaty of Commerce and Navigation	Oct. 11, 1930	Mar. 20, 1934
	†Convention regarding the Protection of Copyright	Feb. 21, 1911	Apr. 4, 1911
Manchoukuo	Treaty concerning the Island of Yap and other mandated Islands situated in the Pacific Ocean and lying north of the Equator	Nov. 10, 1905	May 10, 1906
		Feb. 11, 1922	July 13, 1922

Note: In the above list are given only principal bilateral treaties between Japan and Foreign countries. Those marked with asterisks are treaties whose terms has already expired and those marked with daggers have had no fixed term from the beginning but can be abrogated by notification by one of the contracting parties.

CHAPTER IX

NATIONAL DEFENCE

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

The fighting Services of Japan are under the direct command of the Emperor and all weighty matters concerning the Army and Navy obtain their final sanction from the reigning sovereign. The Services are represented in the Cabinet by the Ministers of the Army and Navy who are chosen from among active military and naval officers of and above the rank of lieutenant-general and vice-admiral, respectively. The Emperor calls for consultation the chiefs of the General Staffs of the Army and Navy in making any decision with regard to the respective Services. The plans submitted by the General Staff to the Emperor on military and naval matters are then, with the exception of strategic matters, transferred to the Prime Minister who brings them up before the Diet for its deliberation and approval.

In emergency cases the Diet when not in session may be left from consultation by virtue of Article VIII of the Constitution which reads: "The Emperor, in consequence of an urgent necessity to maintain public safety or to avert public calamities, issues, when the Imperial Diet is not sitting, Imperial Ordinances in the place of law." The appropriations for the Services are decided upon at the Diet. Should the appropriations be reduced to below the minimum requirements of the Services, it is considered to be a contravention of the Imperial Prerogative under Article XII of the Constitution, viz.: "The Emperor determines the organization and peace standing of the Army and Navy."

The Imperial Precept to the Soldiers and Sailors promulgated in 1882 gives a general outline of the code of the fighting services. The five principal points read as follows:—

- (1) The soldier and sailor should consider loyalty their essential duty,
- (2) The soldier and the sailor should be strict in observing propriety,
- (3) The soldier and the sailor should esteem valor,

- (4) The soldier and the sailor should highly value faithfulness and righteousness,
- (5) The soldier and the sailor should make simplicity their aim.

Board of Marshals and Fleet Admirals

The Board of Marshals and Fleet Admirals was created in 1898 as the highest advisory body on military and naval matters to the Emperor. The present members are:—

H.I.H. Marshal Prince Kan-in; H.I.H. Fleet Admiral Prince Fushimi; H.I.H. Marshal Prince Nashimoto.

The Supreme War Council

This is a special war office created in 1887 and may be regarded as the Emperor's advisers and staff officers on all important matters pertaining to war. The members consist of Marshals, Fleet Admirals, Ministers of the Army and Navy, Chiefs of the General Staff Office and the Naval Staff Board, all as ex-officio members, and also those specially nominated by the Emperor.

The Court-Martial Law

The Court-Martial Law revised in 1921 and in force since April, 1922, provides that (1) all offences committed by officers and men to be tried in public, (2) and the accused allowed benefit of counsel in their defence. A way is open for appeal.

There are in the Army eight court-martials, i.e. the High, the Divisional and six other temporary ones, while the Navy has the High, the Tokyo, the Admiralty and four other temporary ones. In both services the court-martial is composed of judges (military or naval officers), law officers (civil) and clerks, the number of these varying according to the nature of the court.

Table 1. The Army Expenditure

Year Ending March 31:	General Account				Special Account (¥1,000)
	Ordinary (¥1,000)	Extraordinary (¥1,000)	Total (¥1,000)	% to Total State Expenditure	
1894 (Before Sino-Japanese War)	12,420	2,301	14,721	17.40	—
1897 (After Sino-Japanese War)	32,614	30,629	53,243	32.02	—
1904 (Before Russo-Japanese War) ...	29,855	7,529	46,544	18.78	—
1913	80,175	23,950	104,125	17.52	—
1918	88,344	35,093	123,437	16.78	—
1926	170,761	44,044	214,805	14.09	31,964
1930	178,899	48,856	227,255	13.09	27,712
1931	174,546	26,278	200,824	12.89	25,606
1932	163,680	63,808	227,488	15.40	23,776
1933	148,266	225,309	373,575	19.16	39,180
1934	166,471	296,173	462,645	20.52	63,214
1935	168,790	289,739	458,529	20.41	76,067
1936	179,905	316,654	496,559	21.91	74,991
1937	191,433	319,286	510,719	22.40	72,649
1938	160,567	430,908	591,475	21.83	201,777
1939	180,702	356,798	487,500	14.82	646,430
1940 (Estimate)	215,838	785,065	1,000,403	20.82	1,642,561
1941 (")	182,020	1,092,761	1,274,781	21.89	1,347,515

Table 2. The Navy Expenditure

Year Ending March 31:	General Account				Special Account (¥1,000)
	Ordinary (¥1,000)	Extraordinary (¥1,000)	Total (¥1,000)	% To total State Expenditure	
1894 (Before Sino-Japanese War)	5,141	2,960	8,101	9.58	—
1897 (After Sino-Japanese War).....	7,351	12,655	20,006	10.73	—
1904 (Before Russo-Japanese War) ...	21,991	14,588	36,118	14.47	—
1913	41,534	53,952	95,486	10.68	—
1918	48,528	118,905	162,434	22.10	—
1926	122,242	106,761	229,003	15.02	51,152
1930	147,649	120,017	267,665	15.41	55,511
1931	136,888	95,147	242,035	15.54	43,215
1932	138,914	88,215	227,129	15.38	35,311
1933	140,740	172,069	312,809	16.04	57,013
1934	179,027	230,948	409,975	18.18	97,967
1935	199,430	283,923	483,353	21.51	51,693
1936	216,447	319,981	536,378	23.74	85,916
1937	236,408	331,042	567,450	24.85	84,341
1938	278,088	372,377	645,365	23.82	150,244
1939	286,838	392,408	679,246	20.65	227,414
1940 (Estimate)	292,727	534,006	826,753	17.20	302,857
1941 (")	351,298	677,647	1,028,945	17.67	406,734

Note: Other tables on the financial aspects of national defence will be found in the chapter on Public Finance, including the Special Account for Temporary National Defence.

SECTION I. THE ARMY

Prefatory Remarks

For about seven centuries till the abolition of feudalism in 1868, military service was an exclusive privilege of the samurai class, but with the advent of the resuscitated Imperial regime (1868) it was converted into a system of conscription service to which sons and brothers of all classes of people are liable on reaching majority. Japan thus adopted the Western system, namely that of a nation in arms. Of the generals who rendered distinguished service in the task of thus organizing the military system of Japan, the names of the late Marshals Yamagata and Oyama and the late General Prince Katsura stand out prominent. Marshal Yamagata carried out in 1884 minute investigations into the military systems of the leading Powers of Europe.

As a result of his memorable tour of inspection of Europe, the military organization of the country was remodelled on the Prussian system. The Marshal's suite contained the best talents of the time so far as military affairs were concerned and included the late General Kawakami, Chief of the General Staff, and the late Prince Katsura. It was by General Kawakami, who by the way died soon after the close of the Japan-China war in which he played the most distinguished part, that the staff service of the country was laid on the present basis of perfection and efficiency. On the other hand General Katsura did much to improve the administrative side of the service. In adopting the German method Japan owed much to the late General Meckel of the Prussian Army who came to this country in

1885 as adviser to the Japanese Army and took under his tutelage most of our distinguished Generals.

I. CONSCRIPTION

(The newly promulgated revision of the Military Service Law is appended at the end of this chapter).

The conscription system, first elaborated in 1873 and lastly revised in 1939, requires all able-bodied Japanese males of from full 17 to 40 years old to respond to the nation's call. In practice, the 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.

Examination for Conscription.—Lads of conscript age are classified into six grades as regards their physical examination, as A, B1, B2, C, D and E.

The ratio of illiteracy, which stood at 4.28 per cent in 1910, fell to 2.17 in 1915, to 0.88 in 1926, to 0.48 in 1930, further dropping to 0.38 in 1934.

II. PERSONNEL OF ACTIVE SERVICE

Officers.—Infantry, cavalry, artillery, engineer, commissariat and aviation officers are appointed from among cadets trained at the Military Cadets' Schools, or non-commissioned officers. Technical officers, surgeons and veterinary surgeons are promoted from among probational officers who must be graduates of universities and technical or medical schools, while

paymasters are trained at the Paymasters' School. Officers can also volunteer for the gendarmerie when they are put to training at the Gendarmerie Training Institute.

Warrant Officers.—These are special 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 (*jotohei*), 1st (*ittohei*) and 2nd (*mitohei*) 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.

Opens the Door of the Service

To induce non-commissioned officers to remain in the service, the military authorities devised in 1920 a special system by which the warrant officer of capability may be promoted to a special lieutenant after a short education, to be elevated according to merit to a higher post, even to the supreme Marshalship. On the other hand, to reinforce the Army with erudite officers, the graduates of universities in science or engineering can now be appointed by the Appointment Regulations of Technical Officers gazetted in August 1919, to Engineer or Artillery Lieutenants after 6 months' cadetship, while those graduated from the medical and agricultural colleges are likewise qualified to become Surgeon and Veterinary Lieutenant respectively.

Table 3. No. of Officers on Active List

Year	Gen. to Maj.-Gen. & ranking officers	Col. to Maj. & ranking officers	Cap. to Sub. Lieut. & ranking officers	Total
1930.....	220	3,747	9,823	12,790
1931.....	221	3,747	9,797	13,765
1932.....	233	3,939	9,720	13,901
1933.....	233	4,260	10,374	14,867
1934.....	231	4,661	10,063	14,955

III. ARMY EDUCATION

Military education is under the control of the Military Training Department. The princi-

pal institutions for military education are:—(1) The Military Preparatory School located at Tokyo educates candidates aspiring to become officers; (2) The Military Cadets' School (Military Academy) situated at Tokyo receives the graduates of the Preparatory School and other candidates; (3) The Military Staff College gives the finishing polish to lieutenants and captains of promising ability and gives necessary training so as to qualify them to become staff officers. The third is under direct control of the General Staff Office. For benefit of those aspiring to become non-commissioned officers, Military Training Schools were established at Sendai, Toyohashi and Kumamoto in 1927.

Besides the above there are various schools to give special education connected with Army. These are:—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 to train the Military Band; (4) the Cavalry School to give eleven months' training to officers and non-commissioned officers of cavalry; (5) the Heavy Artillery School; (6) the Field Artillery School; (7) the Gunnery Mechanic School; (8) the Paymasters School; (9) the Surgery School; (10) the Veterinary Surgery School; (11) the Engineering School for training officers and non-commissioned officers in military engineering; (12) the Military Communications School; (13) the Military Motor Car School; (14) the Military Aviation School; (15) Gendarmerie Training Institute.

Table 4. List of Military Educational Institutions

Name	Location	Established	Name	Location	Established
Military Staff College	Tokyo	1882	Aviation School	Tokyo	1937
Gunnery Mechanical School	Tokyo	1890	Aerial Engineering School	Saitama	1937
Infantry School	Chiba	1912	Mito Aviation School	Chiba	1937
Tank School	Chiba	1936	Aerial Technical School	Saitama	1925
Toyama School	Tokyo	1873	Aerial Defence School	Chiba	1937
Cavalry School	Chiba	1888	Engineering School	Tokyo	1872
Field Artillery School	Chiba	1886	Surgeon School	Tokyo	1886
Heavy Artillery School	Kanagawa	1889	Veterinary School	Tokyo	1893
Engineering Corp School	Chiba	1919	Paymaster School	Tokyo	1890
Military Academy	Kanagawa	1874	Gendarmery School	Tokyo	1923
Military Preparatory School	Tokyo	1937	Sub-officer Training School	Sendai	1927
Military Preparatory School	Sendai	1925	"	Toyohashi	1927
Motor Car School	Tokyo	1925	"	Kumamoto	1927
Communication School	Tokyo	1925	Primary School	Tokyo	1897
Shimoshizu Aviation School	Chiba	1919	"	Hiroshima	1923
Akeno Aviation School	Miye	1920	"	Sendai	1923
Hamamatsu Aviation School	Hamamatsu	1933	"	Kumamoto	
Kumagai Aviation School	Saitama	1936	Narashino School	Chiba	1919

IV. ARMY ON PEACE STANDING

A Division is generally composed of 2 brigades of infantry, 1 regiment each of cavalry and artillery, 1 battalion each of engineers and army service corps. A regiment of infantry consists of 3 battalions, each of 600 men, while a regi-

ment of cavalry is composed of 3 or 4 squadrons, each of 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.

Table 5. Distribution of Army Districts (As to be enforced from April 1, 1941) (A) Tôbu District

Divisional Headquarters	Regimental Office	Area Under Jurisdiction
Tokyo	Azabu	A part of Tokyo Pref. including Hachijo and Ogasawara islands.
	Kofu	Yamanashi Pref.
	Yokohama	Kanagawa Pref.
	Hongo	A part of Tokyo and Saitama Prefs.
	Chiba	Chiba Pref.

SECTION II. THE NAVY

Because of the isolation policy pursued by the Tokugawa Shogunate, Japan possessed not a single warship fit for service when European and American ships visited her shores in the middle of the 19th century to persuade her to open the country to foreign trade. The sight of these huge foreign men-of-war strongly impressed the whole nation with the necessity of sea armament. The Shogunate and some of the more powerful feudal lords, such as the Lords of Satsuma and Tosa, purchased or ordered war vessels. At the time of the Restoration (1868) Japan possessed not more than 10 such warships, of which eight that belonged to the Shogunate were sunk or destroyed in the battle off the port of Hakodate. When in 1870 a War Department was created by the new Government, the puny "fleet" in existence was made subordinate to it, though two years later the two services were divided into the Army and Navy Departments, the latter having acquired in that short period 17 warships with an aggregate tonnage of 14,000 tons. This formed the nucleus of the Japanese Navy.

Gradually expanded in tonnage it had grown to 59,000 by the time of the Sino-Japanese War (1894-95) and to 260,000 on the occasion of the more formidable Russo-Japanese War (1904-05). The expansion subsequently made was so rapid that when the Washington Conference was held in 1921 the Imperial fleet comprised 15 battleships, 7 battlecruisers, about 50 cruisers, coast-defence ships, and gun-boats, including other auxiliary ships, 130 torpedo-boat destroyers and torpedo-boats, and about 30 submarines, representing an aggregate tonnage of approximately 770,000 tons. The total tonnage as of Sept. 1937 was 1,137,557 tons.

NAVAL DISTRICTS AND BASES

The coast of Japan is divided into three naval districts, each having its base or naval stations, i.e. Yokosuka, Sasebo, and Kure. At each of these stations there is an Admiralty, with an arsenal, a marine corps, air force, and other provisions necessary for a naval base. Besides there are Strategic Ports or secondary naval stations at Maizuru, Ominato, Ryojun (Port Arthur), Mako (Taiwan) and Chinkai (Chosen). The coast and adjacent seas of Kwantung province are termed the Kwantung naval district, and those of the South Sea mandatory islands the South Sea naval district, and are respectively under control of the Sasebo and Yokosuka Admiralties.

Naval Arsenal and Shipbuilding

Each Admiralty has an arsenal with a ship-building yard and possesses a dry dock for accommodating large warships. The Yokosuka and Kure Arsenals have each two cradles, capable of taking in superdreadnoughts of over 40,000 tons, but the Sasebo and Maizuru Arsenals have each only one cradle for building cruisers and lesser ships. Besides the above there are private establishments approved by the Navy. They are the Mitsubishi Shipyard at Nagasaki, Kawasaki Shipyard at Kobe, Fujinagata Shipyard at Kobe, Ishikawajima Shipyard at Tokyo and others. The first two have capacity of building superdreadnoughts.

Supply of Building Materials at Home

Japan is almost self-dependent as regards materials for war implements. Armour plates, rails, etc., are now turned out at the Iron Works at Yawata (Kyushu), the plates being also produced at the Naval Yard belonging to the Kure Admiralty. A steel works established in 1908 at Muroran (Hokkaido), as a joint undertaking of the Hokkaido Colliery and Steamship Co. and Armstrong and Vickers (of England), with the countenance of the Navy, is devoted to casting guns and some commercial products.

In wood, Siamese teak and Oregon pine are used for deck, while foreign oaks, maples, etc., are used for decorative parts. "Keyaki" (*Obeleca serrata*), a species of "Zelkova" oaks also serves the latter purpose.

PERSONNEL OF THE SERVICE

Officers.—Besides the executive officers there are in the civil branch engineers, surgeons, pharmacists, hydrographers and construction, mechanical and ordnance officers. The executive officers, engineers, surgeons and paymasters are trained respectively at the Naval College, Engineering College, Surgery School and Intendants School. The other non-combatant officers are appointed from among the candidates who should be graduates of universities or other schools of similar grade.

Petty and Warrant Officers.—Petty officers are appointed by selection from among the 1st-class seamen, and are of 1st to 3rd classes, while for warrant officers the last class petty officers are eligible. Warrant officers of meritorious active service of not less than 5 years may be commissioned and gradually promoted as special service officers to the rank of Lieut.-Commander or even higher.

Officers and Sub-officers of the Service

The personnel of the Active service for the last few years is as follows:—

Table 6. No. of Officers and Sub-officers on Active Service

	1932	1933	1934	1935
Adm. to Rear-Adm. and ranking officers	118	126	148	153
Captain to Lieut.-comdr. and ranking officers	2,146	2,272	2,395	2,560
Lieutenants to 2nd class sub-lieut., special service and ranking officers	3,385	3,952	3,958	3,991
Midshipman	349	348	348	184
Warrant officers	1,686	1,806	1,953	2,144

Table 7. Elimination of Officers in Connexion With Armament Limitation

Full Admirals	8
Vice-Admirals	52
Rear-Admirals	99
Captains	290
Commanders	262
Lieut.-Commanders	171
Lieutenants	115
Sub-Lieutenants	43
Total	1,043

Volunteers and Conscripts

In the Navy the volunteers service is supplemented by conscription. The age-limit for volunteers is fixed at over 15 and below 21 years, that for air service being 15 to 17. The annual enlistment of men makes the following record for the last few years:—

Table 8. Annual Enlistment of Men

Year	Conscripts	Volunteers
1930	7,525	4,937
1931	9,780	4,676
1932	—	4,668
1933	—	7,526
1934	—	7,042
1935	—	7,014

Naval Officers' Promotion

Promotion by selection is the rule in the Japanese Navy. Candidates for special promotion are selected at the conference of the Admirals' Council. The time-limit for promotion is reduced to one half in time of war. The regular course of promotion for junior officers is as follows:—Midshipmen, over one year's service in a training ship; 2nd Sub-Lts. over one year's service; 1st Sub-Lts. over 18 months of which six months in Torpedo or Gunnery School; Lt. of over 4 years in the service are promoted to Lieut.-Commanders.

Special service 1st Sub-Lts. over two years' service; Special service 2nd Sub-Lts. over three years' service; (combatants, engineers and Intendants may be promoted to Lieut.-Commander by special appointment.

Commanders.—Lieut.-Commanders of over

two years' service are promoted to Commander.

Captains.—Commanders of over two years' service are promoted to Captain.

Rear Admirals.—Captains of over two years' service are promoted to Rear-Admiral.

Vice-Admirals.—Rear-Admirals of over three years' service are promoted to Vice-Admiral.

Admirals.—Vice-Admirals, who have seen much actual service or are of special merits are promoted by Imperial order.

N.B.—1st-class warrant or ranking officer of over 4 years in the service may be promoted to 1st Lieutenant or ranking officer.

Table 9. Age-Limit of Officers in Active Service

	No limit
Fleet Admiral	No limit
Admiral	65
Vice-Admiral	62
Rear-Admiral & Non-Combatant Rear-Admiral	60
Admiral	60
Rear-Admiral	58
Non-Combatant Captain	56
Captain & Engineer Captain	54
Non-Combatant Commander	52
Commander & Engineer Commander	50
Non-Combatant Lieut.-Commander	49
Lieut.-Comdr. & Engineer Lieut.-Comdr.	47
Non-Combatant Lieutenant	47
Lieutenant and Engineer Lieutenant	45
Sub-Lieut. (Non-Combatant, 1st & 2nd)	42
Sub-Lieut. & Eng. Sub-Lieut. (1st & 2nd) ..	40

NAVAL EDUCATION

Table 10. List of Naval Educational Institutions

Name:	Location:	Established:
Naval Staff College	Tokyo	1888
Naval Academy	Hiroshima	1869
Engineering School	Maizuru	1893
Surgeon School	Tokyo	1886
Paymasters School	Tokyo	1874
Engineering & Mechanical School	Yokosuka	1884
Gunnery School	Yokosuka	1907
Torpedo School	Yokosuka	1907
Communications School ..	Yokosuka	1930
Submarine School	Kure	1920
Navigation School	Yokosuka	1934

Naval Replenishment Program

Japan's naval replenishment programs date back to 1930 when the first naval replenishment program was drawn up following the ratification of the London Naval Treaty. That program called for an expenditure of 372 million yen over three years, but was not actually completed until 1936. It called for: 4 cruisers of 8,500 tons each, 1 aircraft carrier of 7,100 tons, 12 destroyers, 9 submarines, 1 submarine tender, 13 small vessels such as gunboats etc., 14 aircraft squadrons.

In January 1933, former Navy Minister Osumi brought a second naval replenishment program before the Diet which was to be completed by the end of 1936. As originally outlined this program made provision for: 1 aircraft carrier of 8,000 tons, 1 cruiser of 8,500 tons, 7 destroyers, 6

submarines, 1 minelayer, 8 torpedo boats and submarine chasers, 5 aircraft squadrons.

Competition on the part of other naval Powers compelled Japan to further expand the second program and in July, 1933 an addition to the program was announced as follows: 1 aircraft carrier of 10,000 tons, 1 cruiser of 8,500 tons, 7 destroyers, 3 aircraft squadrons. The total cost of the second program came close to 600 million yen.

In 1937, a third replenishment program was initiated and a new five year building program was incorporated in the budget figure presented to the Diet. This last program called for an expenditure of close to 1,200 million yen, including over 800 million yen for new naval construction.

Table 11. Japan's Position in Naval Power (Sept. 30, 1937)

	Battle Ships		Cruisers				Destroyers		Submarines		Aircraft Carriers		Total Outstanding	
	No.	(1,000 ton)	A Class No.	A Class (1,000 ton)	B Class No.	B Class (1,000 ton)	No.	(1,000 ton)	No.	(1,000 ton)	No.	(1,000 ton)	No.	(1,000 ton)
Japan ...	9	272	12	108	21	107	105	131	59	76	6	99	212	793
U.S.A. ...	15	464	17	162	10	71	206	249	85	76	5	104	338	1,125
England ...	15	475	15	144	40	233	155	192	54	56	8	127	287	1,227
France ..	6	137	7	70	8	54	66	114	77	73	2	32	166	481
Italy	4	90	9	88	17	81	96	97	67	50	1	5	194	412
Germany .	5	56	6	35	22	20	36	12	69	124
U.S.S.R. .	3	70	3	24	6	31	33	30	130	90	1	8	196	353

Percentages														
Japan ...	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
U.S.A. ...	167	170	150	150	48	66	196	190	144	100	83	105	155	142
England .	167	171	125	133	194	218	147	146	91	74	126	128	135	155
France ..	67	50	58	65	38	50	62	87	130	96	33	32	78	61
Italy	45	33	75	81	81	75	91	74	113	66	16	5	91	52
Germany .	56	21	29	33	21	15	61	16	33	16
U.S.S.R. .	33	26	25	22	29	29	31	23	220	118	16	8	92	45

Table 12. War Vessels Recently Launched

Name	When launched	Built at	Name	When launched	Built at
Shokaku	June, 1939	Yokosuka	Hashidate	Dec., 1939	Osaka
Sumida	Oct., 1939	Fujinagata	Hachijo	Apr., 1940	Sasebo
Zuikaku	Nov., 1939	Kobe Kawasaki	Arashi	Apr., 1940	Maizuru
Nisshin	Nov., 1939	Kure	Tsugaru	June, 1940	Yokosuka
Shimushiro ...	Dec., 1939	Tama	Ishigaki	Sept., 1940	Tama

Classification of the Ships

Under the new classification the ships are subdivided into:—(1) battleships; (2) 1st-class cruisers (displacement over 7,000 tons); (3) 2nd-class cruisers (displacement under 7,000 tons); (4) aircraft carriers; (5) submarine tender ships; (6) mine-layers; (7) coast defence ships; (8) gunboats; (9) 1st-class destroyers

(displacement over 1,000 tons); (10) 2nd-class destroyers (displacement 600-1,000 tons); (11) 1st-class submarines (displacement over 1,000 tons); (12) 2nd-class submarines (displacement 600-1,000 tons); (13) Torpedo boats; (14) Mine sweepers; (15) Special service ships, etc.

The number and total tonnage of war vessels of the Imperial Navy in recent years are tabulated below:—

Table 13. List of Warships (Aug., 1938)

	Displacement (tons)	Length (meter)	When launched	Nominal speed (knots)	Torpedo tubes	Main armaments (centimeter)	High angle guns
Nagato	32,720	201.35	1919	23.0	6	40 (8); 14 (20)	12.7 cm. (8)
Mutsu	32,720	201.35	1920	23.0	6	40 (8); 14 (20)	12.7 cm. (8)
Fuso	29,330	192.02	1914	22.5	2	36 (12); 15 (16)	12.7 cm. (8)
Yamashiro ...	29,330	192.02	1915	22.5	2	36 (12); 15 (16)	12.7 cm. (8)
Ise	29,990	195.07	1910	23.0	4	36 (12); 14 (18)	12.7 cm. (8)
Hyuga	29,990	195.07	1917	23.0	4	36 (12); 14 (18)	12.7 cm. (8)
Kongo	29,330	199.21	1912	26.0	4	36 (8); 15 (16)	12.7 cm. (8)
*Hiyei	19,500	199.19	1912	18.0	—	36 (6); 15 (16)	12.7 cm. (4)
Haruna	29,330	193.21	1913	26.0	4	36 (8); 15 (16)	12.7 cm. (8)
Kirishima ...	29,330	199.21	1913	26.0	4	36 (8); 15 (16)	8.0 cm. (4)

N.B.—* Training battleship.

1st-Class Cruisers

	Displacement (tons)	Length (meter)	Year completed	Nominal speed (knots)	Torpedo tubes	Main armaments (centimeter)	High angle guns
Myoko	10,000	192.07	1929	33.0	12	20 (10)	12 cm. (6)
Nochi	10,000	192.07	1928	33.0	12	20 (10)	12 cm. (6)
Ashigara	10,000	192.07	1929	33.0	12	20 (10)	12 cm. (6)
Haguro	10,000	192.07	1929	33.0	12	20 (10)	12 cm. (6)
Takao	9,850	198.00	1932	33.0	8	20 (10)	12 cm. (4)
Atago	9,850	198.00	1932	33.0	8	20 (10)	12 cm. (4)
Chokai	9,850	198.00	1932	33.0	8	20 (10)	12 cm. (4)
Maya	9,850	198.00	1932	33.0	8	20 (10)	12 cm. (4)
Kako	7,100	176.78	1926	33.0	12	20 (6)	12 cm. (4)
Furutaka	7,000	176.78	1926	33.0	12	20 (6)	12 cm. (4)
Kinukasa	7,100	176.78	1927	33.0	12	20 (6)	12 cm. (4)
Aoba	7,100	176.78	1927	33.0	12	20 (6)	12 cm. (4)

2nd-Class Cruisers

Hirado	4,400	134.11	1912	26.0	3	15 (8); 8 (2)	8 cm. (2)
Yahagi	4,400	134.11	1912	26.0	3	15 (8); 8 (2)	8 cm. (2)
Tatsuta	3,230	134.11	1919	31.0	6	14 (4)	8 cm. (1)
Tenryu	3,230	134.11	1919	31.0	6	14 (4)	8 cm. (1)
Kuma	5,100	152.40	1920	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm. (2)
Tama	5,100	152.40	1921	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm. (2)
Kitakami	5,100	152.40	1921	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm. (2)
O-i	5,100	152.40	1921	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm. (2)
Kiao	5,100	152.40	1921	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm. (2)
Nagara	5,170	152.40	1922	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm. (2)
Izuru	5,170	152.40	1923	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm. (2)
Natori	5,170	152.40	1922	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm. (2)
Yura	5,170	152.40	1923	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm. (2)
Kinu	5,170	152.40	1922	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm. (2)
Abukuma	5,170	152.40	1925	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm. (2)
Sendai	5,195	152.40	1924	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm. (2)
Jintsu	5,195	152.40	1925	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm. (2)
Naka	5,195	152.40	1925	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm. (2)
Yubari	2,890	132.59	1923	33.0	4	14 (6)	8 cm. (1)
Mogami	8,500	190.50	1935	33.0	12	15½ (6)	12.7 cm. (8)
Mikuma	8,500	190.50	1935	33.0	12	15½ (15)	12.7 cm. (8)
Suzuya	8,500	190.50	1934	33.0	12	15½ (15)	12.7 cm. (8)
Kumano	8,500	190.50	1936	33.0	12	15½ (15)	12.7 cm. (8)
Tone	8,500	(under construction)		33.0	12	15½ (15)	12.7 cm. (8)
Tsukuma	8,500	(")		33.0	12	15½ (15)	12.7 cm. (8)

Coast Defence Ships

	Displacement (tons)	Length (meter)	Year completed	Nominal speed (knots)	Torpedo tubes	Main armaments (centimeter)	High angle guns
Asama	9,240	124.36	1899	21.25	4	20 (4); 15 (12); 8 (4); *8 (1)	
Yakumo	9,010	124.66	1900	16.00	2	20 (4); 15 (12); 8 (4); *8 (1)	
Azuma	8,640	135.89	1900	16.00	4	20 (4); 15 (12); 8 (4); *8 (1)	
Iwate	9,180	121.92	1901	16.00	4	20 (4); 15 (14); 8 (4); *8 (1)	
Irumo	9,180	121.92	1900	20.75	2	20 (4); 15 (14); 8 (4); *9 (1)	
Kasuga	7,080	104.88	1904	20.00	—	25 (1); 15 (14); 20 (2); *8 (4)	
Tsushima	3,120	...	1904	20.00	...	15 (6); 8 (8)	* (1)

Note: * High angle guns.

Aircraft Carriers

Name	Displacement (tons)	Year completed	Nominal Speed (knots)	Armaments (cm.)	High angle guns (cm.)
Akagi	26,930	1927	28.5	20 (10)	12 (12)
Kaga	26,900	1928	23.5	20 (10)	12 (12)
Hosho	7,470	1922	25.0	14 (4)	8 (2)
Ruujō	7,100	1933	25.0	14 (4)	12.7 (12)
Soryū	10,050	1937	30.0	—	12.7 (12)
Hiryū	10,050	1939	30.0	—	12.7 (12)

Note: † Year launched.

Submarine Tender Ships

Name	Displacement (tons)	When launched	Nominal Speed (knots)	Armaments (centimeter)	High angle (cm.)
Jingei	5,160	1923	16.0	14 (4)	8 (2)
Chogei	5,160	1924	16.0	14 (4)	8 (2)
Kanzaki	9,570	—	16.6	8 (1)	8 (1)
Komahashi	1,125	1914	13.9	8 (2)	8 (1)
Taigei	10,000	1934	20.0	—	12.7 (4)

Sea Plane Tender Ships

Name	Displacement (tons)	Year completed	Nominal Speed (knots)	Armaments (cm.)	High angle (cm.)
Notoro	14,050	1920	12.0	12 (2)	8 (2)
Kamoi	17,000	1922	15.0	14 (2)	8 (2)
Chitose	9,000	1935	20.0	—	12.7 (4)
Chiyoda	9,000	1937	20.0	—	12.7 (4)
Mizuho	9,000	1938	17.0	—	12.7 (6)

Gunboats

Name	Displacement (tons)	Year completed	Nominal Speed (knots)	Armaments (cm.)	High angle (cm.)
Yodo	1,320	1908	22.0	8 (2)	—
Futami	170	1930	16.0	—	8 (1)
Atami	170	1929	16.0	—	8 (1)
Ataka	725	1922	16.0	12 (2)	8 (2)
Toba	215	1911	16.0	—	8 (2)
Saga	685	1912	15.0	12 (1)	8 (3)
Hira	305	1923	16.0	—	8 (2)
Hozu	305	1923	16.0	—	8 (2)
Seta	305	1923	16.0	—	8 (2)
Katada	305	1923	16.0	—	8 (2)

1st-Class Destroyers

Name	Armaments (cm.)	Displacement (tons)	Torpedo tubes	Year completed	Name	Armaments (cm.)	Displacement (tons)	Torpedo tubes	Year completed
Minekaze	12 (4)	1,215	6	1927	Kisaragi	12 (4)	1,215	6	1925
Sawakaze	"	"	"	"	Yayoi	"	"	"	1926
Okikaze	"	"	"	"	Uzuki	"	"	"	"
Shimakaze	"	"	"	"	Satsuki	"	"	"	1925
Nadakaze	"	"	"	1921	Minazuki	"	"	"	1927
Yakaze	"	"	"	1920	Fumizuki	"	"	"	1926
Hakaze	"	"	"	"	Nagatsuki	"	"	"	1927
Shiohaze	"	"	"	1921	Kikuzuki	"	"	"	1926
Akikaze	"	"	"	"	Mikazuki	"	"	"	1927
Yukaze	"	"	"	"	Mochizuki	"	"	"	"
Tachikaze	"	"	"	"	Yuzuki	"	"	"	"
Hokaze	"	"	"	"	Fubuki	12.7 (6)	1,700	9	1928
Nokaze	"	"	"	1922	Shirayuki	"	"	"	1928
Namikaze	"	"	"	"	Hatsuyuki	"	"	"	1929
Numakaze	"	"	"	"	Murakumo	"	"	"	"
Kamikaze	"	1,270	"	"	Shinonome	"	"	"	1928
Asakaze	"	"	"	1923	Usugumo	"	"	"	"
Harukaze	"	"	"	"	Shirakumo	"	"	"	"
Matsukaze	"	"	"	1924	Isonami	"	"	"	"
Hatsukaze	"	"	"	"	Uranami	"	"	"	1929
Oikaze	"	"	"	1925	Ayanami	"	"	"	1930
Hayate	"	"	"	"	Shikinami	"	"	"	1929
Asanagi	"	"	"	1924	Amagiri	"	"	"	1930
Yunagi	"	"	"	1925	Asagiri	"	"	"	"
Mutsuki	"	1,315	"	1926	Sagiri	"	"	"	1931

Name	Armaments (cm.)	Displacement (tons)	Torpedo tubes	Year completed	Name	Armaments (cm.)	Displacement (tons)	Torpedo tubes	Year completed
Yugiri	12.7 (6)	1,700	9	1930	Natsushio	"	"	—	†1939
Oboro	"	"	"	1931	Yukikaze	"	"	—	†
Akebono	"	"	"	"	Hayashio	"	"	—	†
Sazanami	"	"	"	1932	Isoka	"	"	—	†
Ushio	"	"	"	1931	Amatsukaze	"	"	—	†
Akatsuki	"	"	"	1932	Tokitsukaze	"	"	—	†
Hibiki	"	"	"	1933	Urakaze	"	"	—	†1910
Ikasuchi	"	"	"	1932					
Inazuma	"	"	"	"	2nd-Class Destroyers				
Nenohi	12.7 (5)	1,368	6	1933	Momo	12 (8)	755	6	1916
Hatsuharu	"	"	"	"	Hinoki	"	"	"	1917
Ariake	"	"	"	1935	Yanagi	"	"	"	"
Yugure	"	"	"	"	Kaya	"	770	4	1920
Hatsushimo	"	"	"	1934	Nire	"	"	"	"
Wakaba	"	"	"	"	Kuri	"	"	"	"
Shiratsuyu	"	"	"	1936	Nashi	"	"	"	1919
Shigure	"	"	"	"	Take	"	"	"	"
Murasame	"	"	"	1937	Kaki	"	"	"	1920
Yudachi	"	"	"	1936	Tsuga	"	"	"	"
Samidare	"	"	"	1937	Kiku	"	"	"	"
Yamakaze	"	"	"	"	Aoi	"	"	"	"
Harusame	"	"	"	"	Hagi	"	"	"	1921
Umikaze	"	"	"	"	Suzuki	"	"	"	"
Kawakaze	"	"	"	1936	Fuji	"	"	"	"
Surukaze	"	"	"	1937	Tsuta	"	"	"	1921
Asakaze	12.7 (6)	1,500	8	1936	Ashi	"	"	"	"
Arashio	"	"	"	1937	Hishi	"	"	"	1922
Michishio	"	"	"	"	Hachisu	"	"	"	"
Natsugumo	"	"	"	1938	Sumire	"	"	"	1923
Oshio	"	"	"	1937	Yomogi	"	"	"	1922
Yamagumo	"	"	"	1938	Tade	"	"	"	"
Minegumo	"	"	"	"	Wakatake	"	820	"	"
Kasumi	"	"	"	1939	Kuretake	"	"	"	"
Arare	"	"	"	"	Sanaye	"	"	"	1923
Shiranuhi	"	"	"	†1938	Asagao	"	"	"	"
Kagero	"	"	"	†	Yugao	"	"	"	1924
Kuroshio	"	"	"	†	Fuyo	"	"	"	1923
Oyashio	"	"	"	†	Karukaya	"	"	"	"
Hatsukaze	"	"	"	†1939					

Mine Layers

Name	Displacement (tons)	Length (meter)	Year completed	Nominal Speed (knots)	Main armaments
Tokiwa	9,240	124.86	1899	21.25	{ 20 cm. (2); 15 cm. (8) 8 cm. (2); *8 cm. (1)
Katsuriki	1,540	73.15	1917	13.00	8 cm. (3)
Shirataka	1,845	79.20	1929	16.00	*12 cm. (3)
Itsukushima	1,970	100.00	1929	16.00	14 cm. (3); *8 cm. (2)
Yaeyama	1,135	85.50	1932	20.00	*12 cm. (3)
Okinoshima	4,440	—	1936	20.00	14 cm. (4)

Note: * High angle guns.

Special Service Ships

Name	Displacement (tons)	Length (meter)	Year completed	Nominal Speed (knots)	Main armaments
Shiretoko (Transport)	14,050	138.68	1920	12.00	12 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Erimo	"	138.68	1920	12.00	12 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Sata	"	138.68	1921	12.00	14 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Tsurumi	"	138.68	1922	12.00	14 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Shiriya	"	138.68	"	12.00	14 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Iro	"	138.68	"	12.00	14 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Ondo	"	138.68	1923	12.00	14 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Hayatomo	"	138.68	1922	12.00	14 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Naruto	"	138.68	"	12.00	14 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Muroto	"	105.16	1918	12½	12 cm. (2)
Nojima	"	105.16	1919	12½	12 cm. (2)
Tsurugiraki	12,000	—	1935(L)	19.00	12.7 cm. (4)
Takasaki	"	—	1936(L)	19.00	12.7 cm. (4)

Name	Displacement (tons)	Length (meter)	Year completed	Nominal Speed (knots)	Main armaments
Akashi (Repair)	12,000	—	(Under const.)	19.00	12.7 cm. (4)
Mamiya (Supply)	15,820	144.78	1924	14.00	14 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Sunosaki (Transport ship)	8,800	121.92	1918	14.00	12 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Otomari (Ice breaker)	2,300	60.96	1921	13.00	8 cm. (1)
Koshu (Surveying ship)	2,080	76.96	1904	10.30	8 cm. (2)
Fuji (Training ship)	9,179	114.00	1897	18.25	—
Asahi (Training ship)	11,441	122.10	1900	18.20	—
Shikishima (Training ship)	11,275	121.92	1898	18.60	—
Settsu (Target ship)	16,130	152.40	1912	21.00	—
Kashino	—	—	1940(L)	—	—

Note:—* High angle guns.

"I" Class Submarines

No.	Tons	Completed	Speed (knots)	Armament (cm.)	Torpedo tubes	No.	Tons	Completed	Speed (knots)	Armament (cm.)	Torpedo tubes
1	1,955	1926	17.0	14 (2)	6	71	"	"	"	12 (1)	"
2	"	"	"	"	"	72	"	1937	"	"	"
3	"	"	"	"	"	73	"	"	"	"	"
4	"	1929	"	"	"	74	"	1938	"	"	"
5	"	1932	"	12.7 (1)	"	75	"	"	"	"	"
6	1,900	1935	"	"	"						
7	1,950	1936	"	14 (2)	"						
8	"	1936(L)	"	"	"						
18	"	1938(L)	"	"	"						
21	1,142	1927	14.0	14 (1)	4	26	764	1940	16.0	*8 (1) short	4
22	"	"	"	"	"	27	"	1924	"	"	"
23	"	1928	"	"	"	28	"	1923	"	"	"
24	"	"	"	"	"	30	655	1924	13.0	12 (1)	"
29	"	1940	"	"	"	31	"	1927	"	"	"
51	1,390	1924	17.0	12 (1)	8	32	"	1924	"	"	"
52	"	1925	19.0	"	"	33	700	1935	16.0	*8 (1)	"
53	1,635	1927	"	"	"	34	"	1937	"	"	"
54	"	"	"	"	"	51	893	1920	17.0	*8 (1) short	6
55	"	"	"	"	"	53	"	1921	"	"	4
56	"	1929	"	"	"	54	"	"	"	"	6
57	"	"	"	"	"	55	"	"	"	"	"
58	"	1928	"	"	"	56	"	1922	"	"	"
59	"	1930	"	"	"	57	889	"	"	"	4
60	"	1929	"	"	"	58	"	"	"	"	"
61	"	"	"	"	"	59	"	1923	"	"	"
62	"	1930	"	"	6	60	988	"	16.0	8 (1)	6
63	"	1928	"	"	"	61	"	1924	"	"	"
64	"	1930	"	"	8	62	"	"	"	"	"
65	1,638	1932	"	10 (1)	"	63	"	"	"	"	"
66	"	"	"	"	"	64	"	1925	"	"	"
67	"	"	"	"	"	65	"	1926	"	"	"
68	1,400	1934	20.0	"	"	66	"	1927	"	"	"
69	"	1935	"	"	"	67	"	1926	"	"	"
70	"	"	"	"	"	68	"	1925	"	"	"

Note:—* High angle guns.

"I" and "Ro" represent first and second letters of the Japanese Alphabet. (L) When launched.

Torpedo Boats

Name	Displacement (tons)	When completed	Speed (knots)	Armament (cm.)	Torpedo tubes
Chidori	527	1933	25.0	12 (3)	2
Manasuru	"	1934	"	"	"
Tomosuru	"	"	"	"	"
Hatsukari	"	"	"	"	"
Odori	595	1936	28.0	"	3
Hiyodori	"	"	"	"	"
Hayabusa	"	"	"	"	"
Kasasagi	"	1937	"	"	"
Kiji	"	"	"	"	"
Kari	"	"	"	"	"
Sagi	"	"	"	"	"
Hato	"	"	"	"	"

Mine Sweepers

No.	Displacement (tons)	When completed	Speed (knots)	Armament (cm.)
No. 1	615	1923	20.0	12 (2); *8 (1)
No. 2	"	"	"	"
No. 3	"	"	"	"
No. 4	"	1925	"	"
No. 5	"	1929	"	"
No. 6	"	"	"	"
No. 7	"	1938	"	"
No. 9	"	"	"	"
No. 10	"	"	"	"
No. 11	"	"	"	"
No. 12	"	1939	"	"
No. 13	492	1933	"	12 (2)
No. 14	"	"	"	"
No. 15	"	1934	"	"
No. 16	"	"	"	"
No. 17	"	1936	19.0	"
No. 18	"	1936	"	"

Note:—* High angle guns. (L) When launched.

I. MILITARY AVIATION

Two Army officers who were trained in France and returned home in 1911 were the first airmen in Japan, followed by two others in 1912 and three in 1913. In 1919, an aviation section was created in the Army Department and the first army aviation school was opened at Tokorozawa (near Tokyo) in 1920 to give training to about 100 students including both commissioned and non-commissioned officers, besides admitting a few civilians. In 1922, two military aviation schools were newly established, one at Shimoshizu (Chiba prefecture) and

the other at Akeno (Miye prefecture). Since 1917 the Army has yearly bought powerful machines from Europe, at the same time making best efforts to produce them at home, at State and private factories.

Japan sent an aviation mission to the Italian front during the World War in August, 1918, it consisted of 22 officers (1 died there) and over 70 artisans. They returned home in Aug. 1919. Equally noteworthy was the arrival in February, 1919, of some 60 French army aviators headed by Col. Faure, for giving training to Japanese army aviators, and also the participation with marked success of the army and navy aviators in the Tsingtao campaign of 1914.

In June 1925, the Army aviation corps were made independent and on equal footing with infantry, cavalry, field artillery, etc., and at the same time each air battalion was reorganized into an air regiment. Simultaneously with the independence of the air force two bombing regiments were newly added to the force.

In 1927 a section of Army flight officers received special training in bombing practice at the Akenogahara Aerodrome under a French expert.

Organization of Air Regiments.—The Army air force consists at present of ten air regiments or 26 companies, i.e. 11 reconnoitering, 11 fighting and 4 bombing companies and 2 balloon corps, organized with 6,900 officers and men. The headquarters of these air regiments are located as follows:

Table 14. Headquarters of Naval Air Regiments

1st Regiment (4 air companies)	Kagamigahara, Gifu Prefecture
2nd Regiment (2 air companies)	Kagamigahara, Gifu Prefecture
3rd Regiment (3 air companies)	Yokaichi, Shiga Prefecture
4th Regiment (4 air companies)	Tachiarai, Fukuoka Prefecture
5th Regiment (4 air companies)	Tachikawa, Tokyo
6th Regiment (3 air companies)	Heijo Pingyang, Chosen
7th Regiment (3 air companies)	Hamamatsu, Shizuoka Prefecture
9th Regiment	Kainei, Chosen
Balloon Corps (2 companies)	Tsuganuma, Chiba Prefecture

II. NAVAL AVIATION

Naval aviation in Japan dates from 1912 when our officers training in France and America returned home. It was not long before a training ground was established at Oppama near Yokosuka and an experimental course was started. From 1912 till 1917, the sum yearly disbursed on this account amounted to ¥3,400,000, to increase in 1918 to ¥1 million and to ¥2

millions in 1919, the total aggregating ¥5,800,000 in ten years. From 1921 to 1922 the British air experts headed by Captain Senville gave thorough training at Kasumigaura to our flight officers. In April 1927, an aviation department was created in the Navy following the example set by the Army and in April 1928 a tender

squadron was organized as a unit of the standing fleet, it consisting of the Akagi (flagship), Hosho, and two destroyers.

Tender Ships.—Prior to the Washington Conference the Japanese navy had only one tender ship, namely, the Hosho (7,470 tons; 25 knots). Following the example of the U.S. Navy Japan has converted the battle-cruiser Akagi (26,900 tons) and the battleship Kaga (also 26,900 tons) into tender ships. The former was completed in 1927 and commissioned in 1928, and the latter completed in 1928 and put to commission the same year. They are the pride of the Japanese navy. The Ryujo (7,600 tons) was built at the Yokosuka navy yard and completed and commissioned in May 1933.

The Navy aviation department adopted in 1930 the system of youthful aviation, candidates to be selected from among lads of 15 to 17 years old and after going through necessary training to be appointed navy aviators ranking as petty officers. The training institute was opened at Yokosuka in May, 1930.

Revision of the Military Service Law

Certain important revisions in the old provisions pertaining to the military service system became necessary as a result of the Sino-Japanese Hostilities which commenced in July 1937. The items of revision include: amendments to the regulations on the term of military service; conscription of ex-service men; postponement of conscription for students and the manner of this conscription; abrogation of the short-term service system, and recognition of the privilege of postponement of conscription for Japanese students in Manchoukuo Government schools.

Under the new Law the term of the supplementary reserve service for the Army has been lengthened from 12 years and four months to 17 years and four months, while that of the first reserve service for the Navy has been prolonged from four years to five years and that of the second reserve service from five years to seven years.

The following revisions have been made in the method of calling out ex-service men for periodical training:

1. According to old provisions, the duration of training for ex-service men was fixed at less than 35 days for the Army and less than 70 days for the Navy, while the latter could be increased by 50 days when deemed necessary. The new regulations extends this lengthening privilege to the Army also in view of the neces-

sity of drilling army ex-service men in the advanced and more complex technique of present day military science.

2. Formerly, first supplementary untrained reservists only were called out for actual training. Now, second supplementary untrained reservists may also be called out for this purpose.

3. Formerly, when there was a shortage in forces even with the recalling of all those under leave of absence at the time of special need, only those ex-soldiers who were in the first year of their first-reserve service were summoned to cover the shortage. But the new provisions empower the Army to call out when necessary all men in the first reserve list, regardless of the year of service they are in.

4. According to the old provisions, conscripts found non-effective at the time of medical examination on their entrance to the barracks as a result of suffering from disease or accident in the interval between enrolment and the actual service were exempted from service altogether. The revised provisions prescribe that "they shall be called to active service at a later date or year, or may be exempted from it."

The short-term service system of five months for teachers in elementary schools is abolished under the new provisions. Hitherto, those entitled to the short-term service entered the service without drawing lots or passing the conscription medical examination. Now, they are handled in the same manner as all other young men as regards physical standards and methods of selection.

The medical examination and enrolment of students who reach the age of twenty was postponable for as many years as they pursue their studies in schools, but under the revised system a certain limit to the term of postponement has been instituted. According to the new system the maximum age up to which conscription can be postponed varies according to courses. The maximum postponement of 26 years of age is permitted only to medical students of universities. Furthermore a new provision is added to the new system according to which all students of and above 21 years may be conscripted in time of emergency even before the expiration of the term of postponement so that they may take part in the defense of their country.

These new rules came into force from December 1, 1939. Those who are in schools on that day shall remain under the old rules so as not to interfere with their course of study.

Divisional Headquarters	Regimental Office	Area Under Jurisdiction
Utsunomiya	Mito	Ebaragi Pref.
	Utsunomiya	Tochigi Pref.
	Maebashi	Gunma Pref.
Sendai	Sendai	Miyagi Pref.
	Fukushima	Fukushima Pref.
	Niigata	Niigata Pref.
Kanazawa	Kanazawa	Ishikawa Pref.
	Toyama	Toyama Pref.
	Nagano	Nagano Pref.

(B) Chu-bu District

Nagoya	Nagoya	A part of Aichi Pref.
	Gifu	Gifu Pref.
	Toyohashi	A part of Aichi Pref.
	Shizuoka	Shizuoka Pref.
Kyoto	Kyoto	A part of Kyoto Pref.
	Fukuchiyama	A part of Kyoto Pref.
	Tsu	Miye Pref.
	Otsu	A part of Shiga Pref.
Osaka	Tsuruga	A part of Shiga and Fukui Pref.
	Fukui	A part of Fukui Pref.
	Osaka	A part of Osaka Pref.
	Sakai	A part of Osaka Pref.
Himeji	Wakayama	Wakayama Pref.
	Kobe	A part of Hyogo Pref.
	Himeji	A part of Hyogo Pref.
	Tottori	Tottori Pref.
	Okayama	Okayama Pref.

(C) Sei-bu District

Hiroshima	Hiroshima	A part of Hiroshima Pref.
	Fukuyama	A part of Hiroshima Pref.
	Matsue	A part of Shimane Pref.
	Hamada	A part of Shimane Pref.
	Yamaguchi	Yamaguchi Pref.
Zentsuji	Takamatsu	Kagawa Pref.
	Matsuyama	Ehime Pref.
	Tokushima	Tokushima Pref.
	Kochi	Kochi Pref.
Kumamoto	Kumamoto	Kumamoto Pref.
	Oita	Oita Pref.
	Miyazaki	Miyazaki Pref.
	Kagoshima	Kagoshima Pref.
Kurume	Okinawa	Okinawa Pref.
	Kokura	A part of Fukuoka Pref.
	Fukuoka	A part of Fukuoka Pref.
	Saga	A part of Fukuoka and Saga Pref.
	Nagasaki	Nagasaki Pref.

(D) Hoku-bu District

Asahikawa	Sapporo	A part of Hokkaido
	Hakodate	A part of Hokkaido
	Kushiro	A part of Hokkaido
	Asahikawa	A part of Hokkaido
Hirosaki	Toyohara	Karafuto
	Aomori	Aomori Pref.
	Morioka	Iwate Pref.
	Akita	Akita Pref.
	Yamagata	Yamagata Pref.

Table 15. Date of Occupation of Important Points in China by the Japanese Forces in the Sino-Japanese Hostilities

Amoy	May 10, 1938	Nan-nin	Nov. 24, 1939
Anking	June 12, 1938	Ningtsin	Nov. 27, 1938
Bias Bay	Oct. 12, 1938	Pao-an	June 22, 1940
Canton	Oct. 21, 1938	Paoting	Sept. 24, 1937
Changteh	Nov. 4, 1937	Paotou	Oct. 17, 1937
Chao-shih	June 8, 1940	Paoying	Mar. 2, 1939
Chaochow	June 24, 1939	Pehai-cheng	Nov. 16, 1939
Chechow	July 19, 1939	Peking	Aug. 4, 1937
Che-chou-cheng	Apr. 25, 1940	Pengpuo	Feb. 2, 1938
Cheefoo	Feb. 3, 1938	Pin-yang-cheng	Feb. 2, 1940
Chengting	Oct. 8, 1937	Ping-erh-kuan	July 10, 1940
Chen-hai	July 18, 1940	Pingyao	Feb. 13, 1938
Chen-nan-kuan	June 29, 1940	Pingyang	Feb. 27, 1938
Chiahsing	Nov. 18, 1937	Poshan	Dec. 30, 1937
Chiayu	Nov. 3, 1938	Puchow	Mar. 6, 1938
Chin-chou Bay	Nov. 15, 1939	San-tu-ngao	July 21, 1940
Chin-yang	Apr. 28, 1940	San-wei-me-kung	July 27, 1940
Fang-cheng	Nov. 16, 1939	Shanghai	Nov. 12, 1937
Fenghsin	Mar. 22, 1939	Shaoyuan	Mar. 7, 1939
Fenglintu	Mar. 7, 1938	Shichiachang	Oct. 10, 1937
Fengyang	Dec. 17, 1937	Shin-yang	May 5, 1940
Foochow	June 27, 1939	Shui-kou-kuan	July 25, 1940
Foshan	Oct. 26, 1938	Siang-yang	June 6, 1940
Funing	May 6, 1938	Silien Island	Sept. 15, 1937
Haichow	Mar. 4, 1939	Suancheng	Dec. 6, 1937
Haikow	Feb. 10, 1939	Suchow	Nov. 19, 1937
Hangchow	Dec. 24, 1937	Swatow	June 21, 1939
Hankow	July 16, 1940	Taierschwang	Apr. 3, 1938
Hang-chow-wan	Oct. 25, 1938	Taiyuan	Nov. 8, 1937
Hanyang	Oct. 25, 1938	Tanchow	Apr. 14, 1939
Hochu	Mar. 6, 1938	Taning	Dec. 29, 1938
Houhua	Oct. 14, 1937	Tatung	Sept. 13, 1937
Hsing-chow	June 8, 1940	Tientsin	Aug. 2, 1937
Hsintienchen	Nov. 5, 1938	Tochow	Apr. 9, 1938
Hsuehchow	May 10, 1938	Ts'angchow	Sept. 24, 1937
Huaiyin	Mar. 2, 1939	Tsien-tang-kiang	Jan. 22, 1940
Huanchu	June 20, 1939	Tsinan	Dec. 26, 1937
Huiyang	Oct. 15, 1938	Tsingtao	Jan. 10, 1938
Humentsai	Oct. 23, 1938	Tsining	Jan. 11, 1938
Ishui	June 8, 1939	Tungchow	July 30, 1937
I-tsing-cheng	June 11, 1940	Tungkwan	Nov. 20, 1938
Kaifeng	June 6, 1938	Weihaiwei	Mar. 7, 1938
Kaoan	Apr. 2, 1939	Weihui	Feb. 17, 1938
Kih sien	Dec. 31, 1938	Wenchang	Feb. 22, 1939
Kingshan	Jan. 2, 1939	Wenchow	June 2, 1939
Kiukiang	July 26, 1938	Wenteng	Mar. 10, 1939
Lienyuan Port	May 20, 1938	Woosung	Aug. 23, 1937
Lotien	Nov. 17, 1938	Wuchang	Oct. 25, 1938
Lu-chuen	Mar. 24, 1940	Wuhu	Dec. 10, 1937
Lukouchiao	Sept. 7, 1937	Wuning	Mar. 27, 1939
Lung-chow	Dec. 21, 1939	Wu-yang	Feb. 3, 1940
Nanchang	Mar. 27, 1939	Yengcheng	Apr. 27, 1938
Nangtung	May 17, 1938	Yingshan	Nov. 19, 1938
Nanking	Dec. 13, 1937	Yochow	Apr. 14, 1939

References:

- 1-2 a, 3 b, 4-5-6 c, 7-9 b, 10-14 d, 15 c.
 Key: a—Dept. of Finance.
 b—Statistics Bureau of Cabinet.
 c—Dept. of Army.
 d—Dept. of Navy.

CHAPTER X RELIGION

Introductory Remarks

There are in Japan three principal religions, Shintoism, Buddhism, and Christianity, of which the latter two are of alien origin while the first named is a native religion. The State treats these three religions with equal tolerance and perfect fairness, strictly in conformity with the Constitution which guarantees absolute freedom of faith. The State therefore pursues the policy of secular education, though this seems to be less rigid lately, for the authorities, it seems, are now inclined to allow the teaching of religious doctrines in the classroom for the proper guidance of young peoples' thought. At any rate, in administrative control the same principle of indiscriminate fairness is acted upon and no difference is observed in the treatment of the three religions.

Shintoism.—Shinto (Way of Gods), the indigenous cult of Japan that has existed from time immemorial, is essentially a system of nature-worship and ancestor-worship, with especial application to the rites and ceremonies performed to do homage to the Imperial ancestors among whom stands foremost the Sun-Goddess, the Great Ancestress of the Imperial House, and also to the spirits of warriors of worthy deeds and loyal subjects of renowned service.

Buddhism.—The first image of Buddha and the sacred texts were presented to the Imperial Japanese Court by a Korean King in 552 A.D. in the reign of Kimmei Tennu, and in the reign of the Empress Suiko (593—628 A.D.) Buddhism was elevated to the status of the state religion through the zealous efforts of the Prince Imperial Shotoku who was a devout convert. What contributed far more to the spread of the Buddhist doctrines was the ingenious adaptation by the great Buddhist reformers Saicho and Kukai of the transmigration theory of Hinduism to the Shinto tradition. The Shintoist prejudice overcome by this clever conception, the two rival faiths were brought into a state of alliance, and for more than one thousand years till soon after restoration of the Imperial regime, a hybrid form of religion, partaking of both Shintoism and Buddhism, known as Ryobu-Shinto, was much in evidence throughout the land.

Christianity.—This dates with the landing of St. Francis Xavier in 1549 at Kagoshima, and till 1637 when the Shimabara rebellion was sup-

pressed, Christianity had gained a great influence among military commanders in Kyushu. For more than two centuries thenceforward Christianity was forbidden under penalty of severe punishment till the country was thrown open to foreign intercourse about the middle of the 19th century.

As regards the part which the three religions played in the history of civilization and intellectual development of Japan, Buddhism stands foremost. The rise of Buddhism in Japan is so closely interwoven with the history of her civilization that it is almost impossible to treat the two separately.

The number of the followers of the three religions in Japan Proper for the last few years is as follows:—

Table 1. Number of Followers of the Three Religions

	Shintoism	Buddhism	Christianity
1928	17,253,000	41,176,000	248,000
1929	17,485,000	41,334,000	254,000
1930	16,526,000	41,082,000	253,000
1931	16,772,000	41,803,000	279,000
1932	16,960,000	41,374,000	287,229
1933	17,193,194	41,393,135	304,602
1934	17,485,622	41,334,305	274,311
1935	17,376,519	51,243,344	310,687
1936	17,670,606	52,249,229	325,307
1937	17,317,276	52,268,830	334,898

SHINTOISM

The ancestor-worship as practised by Shintoist devotees is confined to praying for the welfare of the Emperor, as they implicitly believe that the welfare of the Emperor is entirely identical with theirs. The idea comes from the orthodox tradition that as the Japanese nation is one huge family of homogeneous origin, the praying for its patriarchal chief the Emperor covers the whole people. Hence Shintoism is also called by some Mikadoism.

Cleanliness and Purity.—Purity and purification underlie all Shinto services, and hence with true Shinto believers cleanliness in body and heart is a cardinal article of faith. The "Harai" or wind-purification and the other "Misogi" or water purification are the principal forms of purification ceremonies. Washing of the hands and, if possible, rinsing of the mouth, is thought necessary when one approaches a Shinto shrine for worship. Some zealots even carry this washing practice to the extent of bodily ablution. Death and blood are considered especially contaminating, hence Shinto priests formerly kept

aloof from burial services. In the town of Yamada, the seat of the Grand Shrine of Ise, dead bodies had to be carried stealthily under the cover of darkness.

The same idea of cleanliness also symbolises "Shimenawa," a straw festoon hung in front of Shinto edifices and similar places of worship for averting, according to popular superstition, pestilence. Another common symbol is "Gohei," a rod supporting a tuft of cut paper or other things. The Shinto emblems jealously preserved in the sanctum are a mirror, a sword and curved jewels, after the Sacred Treasures of the Imperial Court. The Shinto votives consist of the soil and the sea, an evergreen, saké and sometimes woven cloth.

Shintoism is treated by religious writers as a cult distinct from Buddhism or Christianity, for the only thing worth mentioning in Shinto theology is that it believes in immortality of soul. However, during the period of its subordination to Buddhism for about one thousand years, Shintoism acquired religious guise, the existence of a number of sects, for instance, being traceable to this fact.

Two Forms of Shintoism.—The are two forms of Shintoism, i.e. Shintoism standing aloof from all sects, and next, sectarian Shintoism organized for the convenience of propagation.

The non-sectarian Shinto now forms an essential part of the general system of statecraft, and on all important occasions calling for august rites and ceremonies the service of Shinto priests is requisitioned. Of late Shintoism has grown quite liberal in its practices and it has become customary of late for Shinto priests to officiate in funeral services and also at marriage ceremonies.

SHINTO SHRINES AND THEIR "KEEPERS"

Classification of Shrines.—Shinto shrines are classified into seven grades, viz., the Jingu or the Great Shrine of Ise, "Kampei" or State shrines, "Kokuhei" or National shrines, and "Fu" (prefectural), "Ken" (prefectural), "Go" (communal), "Son" (village) and "Mukaku" (nonrecognized) shrines. The "Kampei" and "Kokuhei" shrines form part of the regular mechanism of State, being maintained at the expense of the Treasury, but shrines of other ranks are under the care of local communities and

parishioners. The offerings made on the occasion of regular festivals come from the Imperial Court in regard to the "Kampei", and from the Treasury for the "Kokuhei." The "Kampei" shrines are subdivided into four classes, and the "Kokuhei" three classes. Of the 54 first class "Kampei" shrines the greater number are dedicated to the major deities of the age of gods and the rest to Emperors who generally figure on the pages of authentic history, while all the special "Kampei" shrines are dedicated to loyal subjects. There is no particular distinction between the Kampei and the other grade shrines as to the deities selected for worship.

Keepers and Priests.—The Government use the term "Shinkan" or Shinto officers for those who minister at the Great Shrine and "Shinshoku" or Shinto functionaries for others attending the "Kokuhei" and the lesser shrines. The "Shinkan" are under the Civil Service Regulations, and they and the "Shinshoku" of the "Kokuhei" shrines are appointed by the Government, but for shrines of lower rank the parishioners mark the choice, subject to the approval of the supervising authorities.

It will be seen that those on service at non-sectarian Shinto shrines are quite different in their function from those at sectarian shrines and are more properly ritualists whose business is to see to all matters relative to rites and festivals as the upkeep of their shrines. They keep proudly aloof from preaching and the work of propagation which demand no small attention from the sectarian Shinto priests.

Shinto Sects

There are thirteen officially recognized sects. They all profess as a cardinal article of faith reverence to deities and observe precepts handed down by the "divine ancestors." The established Shinto sects are: Taisha (revived by Sompuku Senge, 1845—1918); Taisei (founded by Shosai Hiroyama, 1815—90); Jikko (by Hanamori Shibata) 1809—90; Kurozumi (by Munetada Kurozumi 1780—1850); Shinseiha (by Kunimatsu Nitta, 1829—1920); Mitake Misogi (by Masakane Inoue, 1790—1849); Konko (by Daijin Konko, 1814—1883); Tenri (by Mrs. Miki Nakayama, 1798—1887).

Table 2. No. of Shinto Shrines and Priests
(a) . . Shrines

End of Year	*Great Shrine	*State Shrine	*National Shrine	Prefectural Shrine	Communal Shrine	Village Shrines	Ungraded Shrines	Total
1931.....	1	113	85	977	3,580	44,875	51,712	111,343
1934.....	1	115	85	1,031	3,610	44,864	61,261	110,967
1935.....	1	115	85	1,069	3,607	44,884	61,095	110,856
1936.....	1	116	87	1,092	3,613	44,837	60,836	110,633
1937.....	1	112	85	1,079	3,613	44,838	60,703	110,431

RELIGION

(b) Priests

End of Dec.	Great Shrine	State Shrines	National Shrines	Prefectural Shrines	Communal Shrines	Village Shrines	Ungraded Shrines	Total
1931.....	68	514	301	1,337	3,391	8,680	908	15,199
1934.....	68	543	317	1,495	3,494	8,811	968	15,696
1935.....	68	541	325	1,512	3,521	8,803	979	15,749
1936.....	74	584	321	1,539	3,500	8,852	1,034	15,955
1937.....	69	576	337	1,526	3,506	8,859	1,000	15,873

BUDDHISM

Buddhism and Civilization.—The debt Japan owes to Buddhism, especially in early days, in the development of her civilization must be said to be incalculable. The study of the masterly specimens of sculpture, painting and architecture, as preserved in Nara and Kyoto, the treasures kept in the Horyu-ji Temple, itself a splendid Buddhist structure, classical works of ancient writers, and so forth make one doubt whether without the help of Buddhism, accompanied as it was by the introduction of the material civilization prevailing in India, China and Korea, which were more advanced than Japan in those days, it would have been possible for Japan to attain such a high stage of refinement as she presented when she opened her doors to foreign intercourse. Further, Buddhism which was a foster mother and guardian of learning when the country was torn by civil strife in the Kamakura and Ashikaga periods, supplied an inspiring factor in moulding the samurais' code of honour universally known as Bushido and has also deeply tinged our art and literature. The high priests of ancient days guided the people and furnished them with models in matters of social welfare, taught them how to build roads and bridges, and introduced useful plants from China and Korea. Driven by their fervent desire to study the doctrine they dared even to face the perils of the sea by going over to China in frail craft.

Buddhism and the Imperial Court.—During the period of its ascendancy Buddhism stood in high favour with the Court, reducing Shintoism and Confucianism to comparatively insignificant positions. Such close relations bound it with the Court prior to the Meiji Restoration (1868), that the Princes of the Blood were customarily installed as head priests of noted monasteries. At the Restoration, the Prince-abbot (afterward Prince Komatsu) of the Ninna-ji Temple, Kyoto, was ordered to return to secular life, and as Prince Komatsu, led an Imperial army sent to subjugate the rebellious followers of the fallen Shogunate. The late Prince Kita-Shirakawa (d. 1895) was also a Prince-abbot of the Kan-eiji Temple, Tokyo. It was in consideration of the past relation that the Court conferred titles of nobility on the chief abbots of the three head-

quarters of the Shinshu sect, when the peerage was instituted in 1884.

Buddhist Sects

The earliest Buddhist sects in Japan were all introduced from China during the Nara period, and these are Sanron, Hosso, Jojitsu, Kusha, Ritsu and Kegon. Of these, only Hosso, Kegon and Ritsu have survived, though more as a relic of historical interest than religious sects of living force. As classical models of our ancient Buddhist architecture introduced from China and Korea, existing temples of these time-honoured sects possess inestimable value, these being, as head-temples of the Hosso sect, the celebrated Horyu-ji near Nara, the Kofuku-ji and Yakushi-ji near Nara, the Todai-ji in Nara for Kegon, and the Toshodai-ji in Nara for Ritsu. The rise of Tendai and Shingon which tried to reconcile the Buddhist doctrine with the Shintoist prejudice marks the development of Buddhism as a popular religion.

For about four hundred years till the rise of military regency in Kamakura, the two sects awayed not only matters of religious belief but even secular affairs. Their headquarters, one on Mt. Hiei near Kyoto and the other on Mt. Koya in Kii, grew so powerful that they even defied the command of the central Government. Corruption and degeneration soon followed and the two sects were reduced to a state of impotence and ineptitude. It was not long before the need for new faith was supplied by the rise of the Zen sect as introduced from China by Yei-sai (1140—1215) and Dogen (1199—1253), and especially by the establishment of the Yuzu-Nenbutsu sect by Ryonin in 1117, the Jodo by Honen in 1174, the Shin by Shinran (1173—1262), the Nichiren or Hokke by Nichiren (1222—1281), and the Ji by Ippen (1239—1289). Of the above, the Zen sect stands apart as a doctrine that originated in China. It demands of its followers a certain form of bodily and mental discipline as a means of attaining enlightenment and found many zealous believers in those troubled days among warriors who were weary of a life of bloodshed and worldliness, and hence incidentally contributed to the development of Japanese knighthood commonly called "Bushido." The Zen has three sub-sects, viz., Rinzaï, Sodo

and Obaku, the last of which was introduced by a naturalized Chinese priest Yingen in 1653. The popularizing movement of the abstruse Buddhist tenets started by Saicho and Kukai was carried still further by Honen and his more famous disciple Shinran and by the fiery Nichiren. The latter two so modified the teaching of Sakyamuni to adapt it to Japanese needs that there is hardly any similarity between them and Continental Buddhism. Shinran was really a radical reformer and an arch iconoclast. He discarded all ascetic practices such as celibacy and meat-eating, and also the worship of the Buddhist images, with the exception of his own as an interpreter of Buddhist truths for all his faithful followers, and finally he denounced the current superstitions about days, directions, and so forth. The four sects, Zen, Jodo, Shin, and Nichiren, practically divided the Buddhist world of Japan for about four centuries till about the time of the downfall of the Tokugawa shogunate regime and the restoration of the Imperial Government in 1868, the two other sects being of local importance. The long period of undisputed supremacy which Buddhism exercised over the spiritual and intellectual world sapped its sound growth, while the policy which

the Tokugawa shogunate adopted of encouraging the Confucian cult as a moral guide for the samurai class robbed it of healthy stimulus. Degeneration and decay followed, and when, with the advent of the Imperial restoration, Japan began to introduce with feverish hurry the civilization of the West, Buddhist priests found themselves left behind in the forced march of the times. They lost touch with the general tendency of the new era with its novel requirements and strange culture. It was only when Japan, after some decades of this hurried transformation, called a halt at the bidding of nationalistic reaction, that Buddhism, already roused from its long torpor and now busy to regain self-consciousness, could recover its lost position to some extent. The Zen, Nichiren and Shin sects are most notable in this respect, and they can count among their followers both clergymen and laymen, some of the ablest thinkers of the day.

Buddhist Temples and Priests

The number of Buddhist temples and priests, classified by sects, throughout the country in recent years, based on the report of the Religion Bureau, is as follows:—

Table 3. No. of Temples and Priests

	(a) Temples						(b) Priests					
	Tendai	Shingon	Jodo	Rinzai	Sodo	Obaku	Tendai	Shingon	Jodo	Rinzai	Sodo	Obaku
1931	4,508	12,089	8,316	5,976	14,225	523	2,900	7,875	6,472	4,578	12,249	361
1932	4,504	12,095	8,314	5,977	14,229	523	2,854	7,915	6,534	4,617	12,208	370
1933	4,425	11,922	8,254	5,979	14,208	500	2,892	7,933	6,588	4,518	12,235	365
1934	4,438	11,975	8,288	5,984	14,241	500	2,888	7,909	6,580	4,497	12,193	368
1935	4,438	11,970	8,280	5,984	14,244	500	2,877	7,987	6,653	4,579	11,969	376
1936	4,438	12,000	8,284	5,978	14,351	501	2,935	8,149	6,738	4,550	12,210	384
1937	4,437	11,990	8,245	5,979	14,257	587	2,935	8,200	6,734	4,614	12,472	388
	Ke-Total						Ke-Total					
	Shin	Nichiren	Ji	Yuzo	Hosso	gon	Shin	Nichiren	Ji	Yuzo	Hosso	gon
1931	19,715	5,026	491	357	41	27	71,343	15,932	4,119	342	236	13
1932	19,716	5,028	491	357	41	27	73,571	15,609	4,344	344	236	13
1933	19,809	4,970	494	357	41	27	71,032	15,980	4,382	356	236	14
1934	19,815	4,989	494	357	41	27	71,190	15,891	4,443	356	258	14
1935	19,815	4,998	494	357	41	27	71,194	16,008	4,348	359	244	20
1936	19,823	5,038	494	354	42	33	71,326	15,969	4,358	354	244	20
1937	19,742	5,031	493	354	42	35	71,241	16,043	4,497	358	232	20

CHRISTIANITY

Early Christianity.—As previously indicated, Christianity, having been introduced into Japan by Francis Xavier in 1549, had made rapid progress, and in less than a century, by 1637, when it was suppressed, it had spread with very great rapidity, first throughout Kyushu, among the feudal barons and their retainers, and then in many parts of the main island, especially among the higher circles. It is thought that there were then as many as 300,000 Christian converts, with perhaps 250 organized Churches, all of them, of course, Roman Catholic. This work was led by the Jesuits, many of them Portuguese, and it was perhaps owing to their excess of zeal, as

well as the jealousy of the Dutch traders in Nagasaki, and the widely spread reports that these fathers were too much meddling with political affairs that invited the suppression. At any rate the foreign padres were expelled, and in 1618 an edict was issued, prohibiting any form of Christian worship on pain of death. There are many tales of the heroic martyrs of those days, and the blood of these martyrs proved again to be the seed of the Church, blossoming again after a repression of two and more centuries. The open rebellion at Shimabara in 1637 which was partly religious in nature was the final act leading to the absolute prohibition of the foreign religion. And for long years thereafter the cross-roads of the Empire were marked with the

edict boards which threatened with death any who should introduce the Christian religion again.

New Beginnings.—It was inevitable that, when Japan was forced to emerge from her long isolation and enter the fellowship of nations, the Christian gospel should again be introduced. The year after the first treaty between Japan and America was ratified the first missionaries came. This was in 1859, and seven representatives of both Protestant and Catholic Societies reached Japan before the end of that year. Some came from China where they had already served as missionaries, and some directly from America. The first Protestant missionaries were from the American Episcopal and Dutch Reformed Boards. Centers of work were opened in Yokohama and Nagasaki. At first any Japanese who associated with these foreigners was under suspicion. The missionaries engaged in teaching English or in studying the Japanese language; some were physicians and introduced Western science of medicine. Williams in Nagasaki, Verbeck in Nagasaki and Tokyo, Brown and Hepburn in Yokohama were some of the pioneers who helped to reintroduce the forbidden faith into the newly opened Empire.

Protestant Work.—The edict boards against Christianity were not taken down until 1872. Previous to that year Christian activities were necessarily restricted and quiet. The two main forms of missionary work were the so-called evangelistic and educational. Schools were early established, at first on a very small scale, but gradually, these have developed into large and influential institutions. Among these may be mentioned the Doshisha in Kyoto, an institution of university grade, co-educational, established by Jo Neoshima and J.D. Davis of the American Board (Congregational), in 1875, and now taking a leading part in educational work in Central Japan. The Aoyama Gakuin (Tokyo), Rikkyo Dai Gaku (Tokyo), Meiji Gakuin (Tokyo), Tohoku Gakuin (Sendai), Kwansai Gakuin (Kobe), Kwanto Gakuin (Yokohama), all having College or University departments, and a considerable number of other schools of Higher Grade, are part of the large Christian educational system that has grown up through these years. The Christian schools for girls, including the Women's Christian College (Tokyo Joshi Daigaku) in Tokyo, and the Kobe Girls College (Kobe Jogaku-in) in Kobe, and excellent schools in all the larger cities of the Empire, early took a lead in the education of women, and are steadily growing in number and strength. Christian kindergartens also have multiplied very largely.

In the establishing of Christian Churches throughout the Empire, in the earlier days, when all foreigners had to live in certain concessions, there was wide travelling, but not much living in the interior for direct evangelistic work. However, it was during this period that Christianity gave promise of great triumphs, and many people were optimistic as to the early sweep of the country. Soon afterwards there came a reaction. This was partly due to the general change of attitude toward foreign influence after Japan's victorious wars in the Orient and partly to the anti-foreign sentiment caused by the unfair treaties, a suspicion of the cosmopolitan Christianity, a fear in many circles that Christianity was not as intensely loyal to all Japan's national fundamentals as the other faiths. Several of these causes combined to effect a setback in the progress of Christianity about the beginning of the present century. Since that time, however, there has been a slow and steady growth. It is probably true, as has often been stated, that the real Christian population far exceeds the number that the statistics would indicate, and the practical influence of Christianity runs far wider still.

One of the outstanding features of Protestantism to-day is the development of self-government Churches. In the larger bodies the control is in the hands of Japanese leaders, or in the hands of those most capable of leadership, irrespective of nationality. In the Japan Methodist Church there have been Japanese bishops, with exclusive episcopal powers since 1907. In the Episcopal Churches two of the bishops are Japanese, the first having been consecrated eight years ago. Several of the smaller churches are still largely controlled from abroad as Mission Churches, but this is becoming the exception, and the great mass of the Christian bodies of Japan may now be called autonomous, and many of them are in every way self-supporting. There is a body known as The Japan Christian Council, with representatives from most of the Churches and Missions, and this body furnishes the basis upon which many of the Churches and Missions co-operate in various ways. A delegation from this body, comprising four Japanese and three missionary leaders, represented Japanese Christianity at the World Conference in Jerusalem in 1928. Dr. John R. Mott's visit to Japan in 1929 was chiefly in connection with the activities of this Council. The president is Dr. Chiba and the headquarters are at 13, Nishiki-cho 1-chome, Kanda-ku, Tokyo. The Federation of Mission and Christian Council co-operate in conducting the Christian Literature Society (Kyo Bun Kwan) which was reorganized in March

1933 as kabushiki kaisha (joint-stock company) with Hampei Nagao (d. 1936) as Chairman of Board and Dr. S. H. Wainright as Manager. There is a hearty spirit of co-operation among the various churches. Rural evangelism is attracting the attention of many of the leaders at this time. Social evangelism under such leaders as Toyohiko Kagawa has also had marked success in many places.

Medical Missions have never had a very prominent place in Japan, but the St. Luke's Hospital in Tokyo, international in name, but owned and controlled by the American Episcopal Mission, completed a few years ago a successful campaign in America and Japan for raising funds for the reconstruction of its buildings on a large scale, and an exceedingly fine plant was completed in 1933 on the premises of the former structure. There are other hospitals and crèches under special Christian direction in other parts of the Empire.

Roman Catholic Work.—After a lapse of two hundred years a Roman Catholic priest again entered the borders of Japan in the person of Fr. Forcade, of the Society of the Foreign Missions of Paris, who was permitted to enter Naha, the Capital of the Luchu Islands, in 1844. Two years later he was appointed Vicar Apostolic of Japan, but no Catholic priest was permitted to enter Japan Proper until 1859, in which year, shortly after the arrival of several Protestant missionaries, several Roman Catholic priests arrived in Nagasaki, Yokohama and Hakodate. The first Church was opened at Yokohama in 1862, and three years later another was opened at Nagasaki. It was on this occasion that a remarkable event in Christian history occurred. About a month after the opening of this Church, some 3,700 villagers living near Nagasaki, who had been secretly professing the Roman Catholic faith as handed down in their families during the past generations, came to the Church and openly declared themselves Christians, much to the surprise of the local officials. For this had been the center of the former persecutions, and the edict boards against Christianity were yet standing, and were not to be taken down yet for some years. This group of zealous Christians really formed the nucleus of the future Roman Catholic Church in Japan.

The work has extended to many parts of the Empire. Most of the missionaries who have come are from France, though there are some also from Germany and other European countries and from America. There is an arch-bishop in Tokyo and there are bishops in Fukuoka and Nagasaki. In 1927, the first Japanese bishop was

consecrated in the person of the Rev. Januarius Hayasaka, Bishop of Nagasaki. Bishop Hayasaka journeyed to Rome on the invitation of Pope Pius XI, and was personally consecrated to the episcopacy by Pope Pius in the Basilica of St. Peter's, Rome. The Apostolic Delegate resides in Tokyo. Although the priesthood is preponderatingly foreign in its personnel, the number of Japanese priests is growing. There are about 250 foreign missionaries, and 300 religious men and 700 religious women from abroad, or from Europe and America. Seven different orders of religious men and eleven orders of Sisters are represented in Japan, and are carrying on work of spiritual service, education and benevolence. There are also three distinctly Japanese sisterhoods, Bernadotte Kai in Hakodate, Seishin Aishi Kai in Akita, and Homon Aiku Kai in Omori, Tokyo. There are Leper Asylums, Day Nurseries and Dispensaries of much the same order as those conducted under Protestant Churches. Hospitals and orphanages too are part of the work of the Roman Catholic Missions.

In educational work the Sisters of St. Maur have taken the lead in schools for girls, the first having been opened in Tokyo in 1873, but other organizations, the Sisters of the Infant Jesus, Sisters of St. Paul of Chartres, the Sisters of the Sacred Heart, and other similar Sisterhoods have opened schools for girls in many parts of the Empire. The education of boys was begun at a later date than that for girls, the first Middle School having been opened by the Marianists in 1888 in Tokyo. There are also schools for boys in Yokohama, Osaka and Nagasaki. The Jesuits returned to Japan in 1908, and at the instance of Pope Pius X, opened a University in Tokyo. This university follows largely the curriculum endorsed by the Government Department of Education, and concludes with the course in Scholastic Philosophy, characteristic of Jesuit universities in Europe and America.

The monastic life is represented by Trappist monasteries in Hakodate and in Kyushu, and that of the Trappistines near Hakodate.

The Catholic population of Japan is estimated at about 90,000, but there are no exact statistics to depend upon. The above is the figure reached by the Roman Catholic authorities themselves.

Roman Catholic work in the Pacific Island subject to the Japanese mandate has in recent years been in the hands of the Spanish Jesuits. These missions have an agent resident at the Roman Catholic University (Jochi Daigaku) in Tokyo, who gives consideration to their temporal affairs and their relation to the Imperial

Government. There are about fifteen thousand members. The work in Taiwan is under the direction of the Spanish Dominicans, where the Roman Catholic population is about five thousand. Chosen has bishops stationed at Keijo, Taiku and Gensan, who oversee a Roman Catholic population of about 87,000.

Russian Orthodox Church.—Early in the Meiji period, Nikolai, a Russian priest, came to Hakodate as a missionary of the Russian Orthodox Church. He later came to Tokyo, and built the imposing Russian Cathedral in Tokyo. He sent priests to many centres of Japan, and there were

also many lay workers. Since the World War, this work has considerably waned. Bishop Serge, in Tokyo, has undertaken to reconstruct the cathedral, but religious and political condition in Russia has made the work in Japan very largely self-supporting, and the old system had not prepared the Japan Church for such an emergency, so that the present work of that Church in the Empire is largely quiescent.

Statistics.—The number of churches, etc. for the latest year available is tabulated as follows:—

Table 4. Statistics of Christianity
(October 1, 1939)

Name of Churches	Representatives	Headquarters	No. of Churches	Missionaries		Followers
				Japanese	Foreigners	
Roman Catholic	T. Doi	19 Sekiguchi-Dai-machi, Koishikawa-ku, Tokyo	263	95	205	103,229
Japan Christian Church	M. Tomita	Fujimi-cho 1-chome, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	334	369	37	43,226
Japan Congregational	M. Ozaki	14 Reinanzaka-cho, Akasaka-ku, Tokyo	169	199	24	28,122
Japan Episcopal (Seiko-kai)	Y. Naide	8 Sakae-machi, Shiba-ku, Tokyo	256	295	92	30,682
Japan Methodist	T. Kugimiya	23 Midorigaoka-machi, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo	242	297	113	32,898
Greek Church of Japan	Sergius	Surugadai 4-chome, Kanda-ku, Tokyo	84	111	2	10,820
Japan Baptist	Y. Chiba	Misaki-cho 1-chome, Kanda-ku, Tokyo	71	82	12	5,623
Christian Church	Y. Hirai	354 Nakazato-cho, Takinogawa-ku, Tokyo	31	31	11	4,042
Salvation Army	M. Uemura	Jinbo-cho 2-chome, Kanda-ku, Tokyo	131	180	4	15,178
Kiyome Church	G. Mori	391 Kashiwagi 3-chome, Yodobashi-ku, Tokyo	66	74	—	5,164
Seikyokai (Holly Church)	S. Kurumada	944 Kashiwagi 4-chome, Yodobashi-ku, Tokyo	63	72	—	8,798
Evangelical Assn. of Japan	Meyer	500 Shimo-Ochiai 1-chome, Yodobashi-ku, Tokyo	33	39	13	2,531
Evangelical Lutheran Church	T. Miura	921 Saginomiya 2-chome, Nakano-ku, Tokyo	33	32	3	4,987
Total incl. others			2,156	2,351	614	334,898

Y.M.C.A.

The Young Men's Christian Association of Japan was established in 1880 in Tokyo. It has since steadily grown until now there are eleven City Associations (inclusive of Korea, Formosa and Manchoukuo) (at the end of October, 1940) with a total membership of 13,600 and two hundred and nine Student Associations. All these Associations formed themselves into a union styled "The National Committee of the Young Men's Christian Associations of Japan," which celebrated the thirtieth anniversary of its foundation in 1933.

The Associations are organized on lines similar

to those in the United States, Canada and other countries. The work is divided into Religion, Education and Employment Departments. The influence of the Associations is well recognized as shown by the support given it by public spirited citizens and by several imperial gifts.

The General Secretary of the National Committee is Mr. Tadaoki Yamamoto.

Y.W.C.A.

The Young Women's Christian Association of Japan was first organized in 1905. In 1925 the National Committee was organized with five City Associations of Tokyo, Yokohama, Kyoto, Osaka

and Kobe and Student Associations representing 38 schools. At present the National Committee is composed of six City Associations of Tokyo, Yokohama, Nagoya, Kyoto, Osaka and Kobe and Student Associations representing 12 schools. Its total membership is 10,000 approximately. The National Committee owns and maintains a hall at the foot of Mt. Fuji, Gotemba, where summer conferences are held in July and August with an approximate registration of 400 (1935) for the conferences and camp. The official organ of the National Committee is a monthly publication called the "Young Women of Japan" (Joshi Seinen Kai). The activities of the City Associations are, in general, educational classes in English, home economics, commercial subjects and Japanese etiquette, Bible classes and religious work, self-governing clubs among students, and factory shop and office girls, girls of leisure any young married women, physical education, etc. Tokyo, Yokohama, Nagoya, Osaka and Kyoto have boarding houses for Japanese girls. Kyoto and Tokyo have also rooms for transients—Japanese and foreign women. The Chairman of the National Committee is Mrs. Tamaki Uemura. The Headquarters are situated at 10, Higashi Hinano-machi, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

The Salvation Army

For some years after the Salvation Army's extending of activities to Japan its progress was somewhat slow. Since it did distinguished services in stirring up public opinion in the interests of the women in the licensed quarters of Tokyo and in opening the way for these slave girls to liberate themselves, the Salvation Army has steadily risen in public regard and done inestimable services in the cause of religion and humanity in general. It may be mentioned that the visit to Japan of Gen. William Booth, the founder of this great organization, who was graciously received in audience by the late Emperor Meiji has added considerably to the honour and prestige of the Japanese Salvation Army. Mention must not also be omitted of the fact that Commissioner Yamamuro, who is a man of extraordinary calibre and noble character, has been no small factor in the great development of the Japanese Salvation Army. The Army is now carrying on its work in more than 300 centres of the country.

Commissioner Yamamuro, who resigned as Commander due to ill health in February, 1935, was reappointed to the post on April 9, 1936. Simultaneously with this, Lieutenant-Colonels V. Rolfe and Y. Segawa were relieved of the

post of Joint Commander. He is the author of numerous books and pamphlets, the most popular one being the "Common People's Gospel," which has now reached 350 editions. Besides attending to his duties in the Army, Commissioner Yamamuro is devoting himself to his life work of writing "The Bible for the Masses."

1. National Temperance Union of Japan (Nihon Kinshu Domei)

The temperance movement in Japan was first started in 1886 by S. Hayashi in Yokohama and by K. Ito in Sapporo, the latter under the inspiration of Dr. Clark of the Sapporo Agricultural College. For many years Taro Ando (d. 1925) and Shō Nemoto (d. 1932) were leaders in the local and national movement.

The Minor's Prohibition Bill was annually introduced into the Imperial Diet for twenty years, finally becoming a law in 1922.

The present National Temperance Union was formed in 1920 by a federation of existing societies. The Union now has 1,200 local societies, with a total membership of about 300,000. The league publishes two periodicals, the "Kinshu no Nippon" with a circulation of 25,000 and the "Kinshu Shimbu" with a circulation of about 50,000. The Student Temperance Federation, affiliated with the Union has 56 branches with a membership of 3,000 in colleges and universities.

The headquarters of the National Temperance Union is at Kanda, Tokyo, and Hampei Nagano is its representative.

2. Aoki Foundation

The Aoki Foundation was established in Feb., 1923 with a fund given by Shozo Aoki. It carries on special research work on various phases of the alcohol problem, publishing the results in special bulletins, available on request. (Address—Aoki Foundation (Aoki Kyosaidan), 777 Shinden Nishi-Sugamo, Tokyo).

3. Women's Christian Temperance Union of Japan

(Kirisutokyo Fujin Kyofukai)

The W.C.T.U. of Japan was formed in 1896. The president and recognized leader for many years was the late Mrs. Kaji Yajima, a well-known educator. In 1940 there were 253 branches in the whole country with a total membership of over 12,000. Believing that Licensed Prostitution and the Geisha (Dancing

Girls) are the greatest foes of the home life of Japan, the leaders of the W.C.T.U. movement have from the beginning taken an active part in the Purity Movement and in general movements for the education and social uplift of women. The W.C.T.U. maintains a Women's Home at Hyakunin-machi, Yodobashi-ku, Tokyo, for the rescue and reformation of women and girls. Affiliated with the W.C.T.U. are 11 branches of the Young Women's Auxiliary with 500 members, and 147 branches of the Children's Loyal Temperance Legion, with 70,000 members. There is a Foreign Auxiliary (composed of resident American and European women) which cooperates with the National Union. The President of the National W.C.T.U. is Madam Utako Hayashi. The Headquarters are at 360, Hyakunin-machi 3-chome, Yodobashi-ku, Tokyo.

Social Purity Federation (Kakusei Kai)

The Social Purity Federation, founded in 1910 with (lat.) Saburo Shimada, M.P. as President, has since taken the lead, with the active cooperation of the Women's Christian Temperance Union in the campaign for the abolition of licensed prostitution in Japan. The strategy of the movement has been to seize special occasion for wide spread and intensive educational campaigns. Influenced by the press and the circulation of petitions, five prefectures soon decided against licenced houses. The Purity Federation publishes a monthly periodical, "Kakusei" (Purification). The Headquarters of the Federation are at 41, Otsuka-nakamachi, Koishikawa-ku, Tokyo.

TENRIKYO

Tenrikyo, a sect of Shintoism founded by Mrs. Miki Nakayama (1798—1887), is based

upon Divine Revelation. Its fundamental principle is the salvation of mankind. Its followers believe that God the Parent descended from universe into the person of the foundress, Miki Nakayama, who called Him by the name:—"Tenriō-no-Mikoto," or "God the Parent."

Through its staunch unshaken faith, Tenrikyo has been developed by divine revelation to lead mankind from darkness into light, to realize a world of supreme bliss without any evil and through these efforts to attain the highest good for the world. The divine revelation was conveyed directly to the foundress, who acted as mediator between God the Parent and mankind.

Believers in Tenrikyo declare that Miki Nakayama was born in this world destined by God the Parent to become the Foundress of this new religion, and that is what constitutes belief in "the Soul of the Foundress."

They believe that Tenriō-no-Mikoto is "God the Parent" who created man and all else on the earth. He is the "Real God" who protects and helps all human beings to procreate and progress daily without a moment's pause, now and for all time. This would explain their seeking after God the Parent and daily offering Him their gratitude for His benefits. He has declared "God is the parent of man and man is the child of God."

Tenrikyo, though of comparatively late origin, is the most popular of all sects of Shintoism, having a large number of believers and votaries among peoples of almost all classes. Its religious activities and propaganda now embrace nearly all quarters of the world. The foreign mission work was first started in 1904 at Fusan (in Chosen), and since the Russo-Japanese War (1904-05) through which Japan gained prestige among the Powers of the world, the foreign mission work has gradually and steadily expanded.

References:

Table Nos.: 1 a, 2 c, 3 b, 4a;

Key: a—Researches of Religion Bureau, Department of Education.

b—Statistic Annual, Department of Education.

c—Annual of Cabinet Statistic Bureau.

CHAPTER XI

EDUCATION

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Primary education of six years is a compulsory governmental decree. It is surmised that at present the illiterates occupy only about 5.6% of males of above 10 years of age and 11% of females of and above the same age.

The nucleus of the present educational system dates only from the Meiji Restoration or, strictly speaking, from 1872 when the modern public school system was adopted in accordance with the Imperial Rescript promulgated in the same year. Prior to the Restoration education was the select privilege of the higher strata of society. The role played by Buddhist/priest in

introducing the culture of China into Japan, in preserving intact such culture during the periods of internal turbulence and in developing Japan's own civilization can hardly be over-estimated.

With the Restoration a spirit of democracy swept the nation and class distinction was abolished. Thanks to this movement the educational institutions of Japan, both private and public, are to this date within access to the rank and file of the populace, entrance to them being governed solely by scholastic merit and physical fitness.

Table 1. Japan's Position in Elementary Schools

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Pupils per 1,000 population
Japan Proper (1938).....	43,234	344,433	13,834,059	191.5
Germany (1937).....	51,739	181,750	7,758,307	115.2
England (1937).....	26,279	192,993	5,949,016	126.3
France (1936).....	81,213	147,066	5,332,123	127.2
Italy (1936).....	104,869	124,868	5,240,798	121.5
†U. S. A. (1936).....	257,826	870,963	26,367,098	205.3
Manchoukuo (1939).....	19,348	41,175	1,682,427	45.6
Thailand (1938).....	8,937	24,526	1,124,680	76.8
British India (1936).....	197,231	10,541,886	26.2

Note: † Public Schools only.

Entrance Examination.—Entrance examination to certain of the more prominent institutions of higher learning is fraught with great difficulties owing to the number of applicants. In certain cases the ratio of those enrolled to applicants runs to as high as 10 to 1 and in extreme cases to 20 to 1. This entrance difficulty arises from the favoritism extended particularly by government departments to graduates of certain institutions. As a result the better talent tends to concentrate on a select number of higher schools and universities, thus further developing this incongruity. The lack of special schools has also been a cause for such difficulties. Appreciating this impediment the Department of Education in 1919 increased the

number of Government High and Higher Industrial Schools two to three times in number and has been making additions to other schools in the intervening years. Moreover, by cooperating with the private institutions the Department of Education has succeeded in mowing down this wedge somewhat.

Co-education.—Co-education is universal in the primary schools, but ceases in schools of higher learning. Exceptions to this rule are Imperial Universities, the Tokyo Academy of Music, and the Toyo University (private). Because of traditional social customs, which accord the male a status higher than that of the female, co-education has so far not taken the fancy of the people.

Table 2. General Statistics of Educational Institutions in Japan Proper

Year Ending Mar. 31:	(A) Number of Schools									
	Primary Schools	Middle Schools	Girls' High Schools	Normal Schools	Technical Schools*	Higher Technical Schools	Higher Special Schools	Universities	Youths' Schools	
1931.....	25,673	557	975	105	16,274	51	111	46	15,248	
1932.....	25,665	558	980	105	16,138	52	111	46	15,083	
1933.....	25,697	558	963	103	16,169	54	116	47	15,091	
1934.....	25,702	554	975	103	16,235	54	117	45	15,140	
1935.....	25,771	555	970	102	16,431	56	117	45	15,306	
1936.....	25,799	557	974	102	1,310	60	117	45	16,708	
1937.....	25,840	559	985	101	1,935	60	118	45	17,043	
1938.....	25,906	563	996	101	1,355	61	118	45	17,337	

Year Ending Mar. 31:	(B) Number of Students (1,000)									
	Primary	Middle	Girls' High	Normal	Technical	Higher Technical	Higher Special	Universities	Youths'	
1931.....	10,112	346	369	44	1,586	20	70	70	1,277	
1932.....	10,381	336	363	39	1,586	22	68	70	1,272	
1933.....	10,714	329	362	37	1,594	23	67	70	1,271	
1934.....	11,035	327	372	33	1,611	23	67	71	1,272	
1935.....	11,232	331	389	30	1,649	24	70	71	1,282	
1936.....	11,426	341	412	30	423	26	71	72	1,903	
1937.....	11,567	352	433	30	260	27	72	72	1,965	
1938.....	11,793	364	454	31	478	28	72	73	2,041	

Year Ending Mar. 31:	(C) Number of Teachers (1,000)									
	Primary	Middle	Girls' High	Normal	Technical	Higher Technical	Higher Special	Universities	Youths'	
1931.....	234.8	13.8	15.2	2.7	35.6	2.0	5.1	5.9	19.1	
1932.....	233.7	13.8	15.3	2.5	37.6	2.0	5.1	6.0	20.2	
1933.....	238.5	13.5	15.1	2.4	38.7	2.1	5.3	6.2	20.9	
1934.....	245.7	13.4	15.3	2.3	40.3	2.1	5.3	6.3	22.0	
1935.....	252.6	13.6	15.6	2.3	42.6	2.2	5.6	6.5	23.4	
1936.....	257.7	13.9	15.9	2.3	20.2	2.2	5.6	6.5	68.2	
1937.....	261.5	14.2	16.5	2.2	19.6	2.4	5.8	6.6	74.0	
1938.....	268.7	14.8	16.9	2.2	20.8	2.5	5.9	6.4	75.7	

Year Ending Mar. 31:	(D) Admission Ratio Against Applicants									
	Primary	Middle	Girls' High	Normal	Technical	Higher Technical	Higher Special	Universities	Youths'	
1931.....	100%	69%	68%	23%	—	18%	40%	42%	100%	
1932.....	100%	69%	69%	23%	—	20%	41%	46%	100%	
1933.....	100%	66%	66%	24%	—	20%	43%	49%	100%	
1934.....	100%	63%	63%	22%	—	19%	47%	48%	100%	
1935.....	100%	60%	62%	22%	—	16%	48%	46%	100%	
1936.....	100%	58%	61%	28%	—	16%	51%	47%	100%	
1937.....	100%	60%	60%	32%	—	16%	50%	45%	100%	
1938.....	100%	56%	62%	32%	—	16%	48%	43%	100%	

Note: * Inclusive of supplementary schools until 1935.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

THE "SHO-GAKKO" (ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS)

The Ordinary Elementary & Higher Elementary Grade and School-Years.—Both are generally combined. The Ordinary course which is compulsory receives children of 6 to 14 and extends six years and the Higher course two or three years.

Tuition.—Though in principle elementary edu-

cation is free, a small amount of tuition may be charged under special permission, in a case where English may be included in the curriculum for schools in the urban districts.

Text-books.—These are compiled by the Education Department, to be published and sold by the special publishers.

Table 3. Number of Children of School Age Under Obligation to Attend Schools

(Unit: 1,000)

Year Ending March 31:	Total no. of children under obligation			Receiving the prescribed course of instruction			Percentage attending schools		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1932.....	5,269	5,124	10,393	5,245	5,099	10,345	99.55	99.53	99.54
1933.....	5,453	5,302	10,755	5,430	5,279	10,709	99.58	99.56	99.57
1934.....	5,589	5,435	11,025	5,566	5,412	10,977	99.59	99.58	99.58
1935.....	5,654	5,497	11,151	5,630	5,474	11,104	99.58	99.58	99.58
1936.....	5,758	5,560	11,358	5,735	5,577	11,311	99.59	99.59	99.59
1937.....	6,723	6,540	13,262	6,708	6,537	13,245	99.59	99.59	99.59
1938.....	5,919	5,753	11,672	5,895	5,730	11,625	99.59	99.59	99.59

THE "YOCHI-EN" (KINDERGARTENS) one kindergarten, and to 200 in special cases. Kindergartens that admit children of 3 to 7 and children under charge of one conductor years limit the number of enrolment to 120 at should not exceed 40.

Table 4. Statistics of Kindergartens

Year Ending March 31:	No. of institutions	No. of caretakers	No. of pupils	Average no. of pupils per institution	Average no. of pupils per caretaker
1932	1,622	5,012	126,564	78.0	25.3
1933	1,708	5,333	129,001	75.5	24.2
1934	1,786	5,527	133,735	74.9	24.2
1935	1,862	5,872	143,469	77.1	24.4
1936	1,892	5,861	143,676	75.9	24.5
1937	1,946	6,037	152,627	78.4	25.3
1938	2,001	6,231	162,027	81.0	26.2

BLIND, DEAF AND DUMB SCHOOLS

Number of Schools.—There are two Government institutions and 138 public and private schools, and the two Government schools (The Tokyo Blind School and the Tokyo Deaf and

Dumb School) are provided with ordinary, professional and normal courses. A kindergarten was established in 1928 to receive deaf and dumb children under school age, it being attached to the Tokyo Deaf and Dumb School. The latest available data are as follows:—

Table 5. Schools for Blind, Deaf and Dumb

Year Ending March 31:	Blind				Deaf and Dumb			
	No. of schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	No. of Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates
1932	77	625	4,550	1,029	59	500	4,144	583
1933	78	625	4,613	1,037	59	526	4,376	720
1934	78	638	4,709	1,105	60	578	4,791	639
1935	78	646	4,830	1,088	62	618	5,077	512
1936	78	650	4,950	1,176	62	639	5,334	858
1937	78	625	5,040	1,194	62	667	5,526	911
1938	78	677	5,160	1,264	62	710	5,870	979

Table 6. Blind and Mute of School Age

Year Ending March 31:	Blind and mute of school age			Receiving instruction at schools			Defectives per 10,000 children of school age	
	Blind	Mute	Total	Blind	Mute	Total	Blind	Mute
1932	2,356	6,611	8,967	646	2,075	2,721	1.94	5.47
1933	2,310	6,619	8,929	789	2,397	3,186	1.85	5.31
1934	2,250	6,137	8,387	814	2,617	3,431	1.77	4.82
1935	2,425	6,303	8,728	1,033	2,918	3,951	1.88	4.88
1936	2,373	6,519	8,892	1,000	3,072	4,072	1.81	4.99
1937	2,249	6,097	8,408	972	2,943	3,915	1.70	4.60
1938	2,253	6,231	8,520	1,011	3,111	4,122	1.67	4.63

SECONDARY EDUCATION

THE "CHU-GAKKO" (MIDDLE SCHOOLS)

Number of School-Years.—5 years, but those who have finished the 4th year course are allowed to enter a Higher School on examination.

Qualification and Selective Examination.—In principle, graduates of ordinary elementary school course are qualified, but in practice, owing to the excessive number of applicants, the boys are obliged to undergo selective examinations at most schools of first standing.

THE "KOTO JO-GAKKO" (GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOLS)

Kinds of Schools.—There are Girls' High Schools, giving ordinary liberal education, and Girls' Domestic High Schools for those desirous of studying such arts as are necessary for females. A higher course of three years may also be provided for the benefit of those who desire to pursue further study after finishing Girls' High Schools.

THE "KOTO GAKKO" (HIGHER SCHOOLS)

School-Year and Purposes.—There are two classes of Koto Gakko, namely 7-year Schools and 3-year Schools. All the Government Higher Schools (25 in number, except one at Tokyo) belong to the latter, and only three public and

four private schools are of seven-year course, the first four years' course corresponding to the same stage as the Middle School. All private universities have their own 3-year preparatory course. The Koto-Gakko proper is divided into two parts, Literary and Scientific. One foreign language (English, German or French) is compulsory and another, also English, German or French optional.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

As stated before "Private" universities, thanks to the new graduates enacted in 1919, now enjoy the same status as that of the Government Universities. The recognition of a single faculty university, and of establishment of universities by prefectures and cities is another point of the new Regulations.

Academic Titles.—The degree of "Gakushi," corresponding to M.A., is conferred by all uni-

versities on their graduates. The Presidents of all the Government, public and private universities are equally privileged, subject to the approval of the Minister of Education, to confer the highest academic title "Hakushi" or "Hakase," corresponding to Doctor of Science, Civil Law, etc., as the case may be. The title of "Hakushi" is of twelve kinds.

Table 7. Number of Doctors' Degree Issued

Year Ending March 31:	Law	Medicine	Pharmacy	Engineering	Literature	Science	Agriculture	Forestry	Veterinary	Economics	Commerce	Political Science	Total
1931	4	705	3	37	13	42	16	1	1	4	—	—	826
1932	5	705	3	40	15	41	20	2	—	5	2	—	845
1933	5	780	5	30	9	39	22	1	1	5	2	—	899
1934	6	778	3	28	13	29	25	3	—	6	3	—	894
1935	11	804	3	35	10	33	18	1	—	6	2	—	923
1936	3	874	4	36	16	32	22	—	—	3	4	—	994
1937	4	978	7	47	11	49	23	—	—	2	3	—	1,124
1938	9	1,045	11	85	8	57	29	—	—	6	—	—	1,200

GOVERNMENT UNIVERSITIES

The Teikoku Daigaku (Imperial Universities)

There are eight Imperial Universities, each consisting of several departments of colleges, and University Halls. Graduates of Higher Schools are admitted, in principle, on diploma, but owing to the excessive number of Higher School graduates, selective examination is held.

There are also Government universities of later creation which formerly existed as colleges

or as special schools. They have all been elevated to the status of university with the coming in operation of the new regulations.

PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES

At present there are only two public universities, the one being prefectural, and the other municipal. They are all of single faculty system and have each a preparatory department of its own.

Table 8. List of Universities

Government University:	Year of Elevation or Establishment	Public University:	Year of Elevation or Establishment
Tokyo Imperial University	1886	Kobe Univ. of Commerce	1929
Kyoto "	1897	Tokyo Univ. of Literature & Science	1929
Tohoku "	1910	Hiroshima "	1929
Kyushu "	1910	Tokyo Technical Univ.	1929
Hokkaido "	1918		
Osaka "	1931		
Tokyo Univ. of Commerce	1920		
Niigata Univ. of Medicine	1922	Kyoto Pref. Univ. of Medicine	1921
Okayama "	1922	Osaka Univ. of Commerce	1928
Kanazawa "	1923		
Nagasaki "	1932		
Chiba "	1923		
Kumamoto "	1929		
Nagoya "	1931		
		Private University:	
		Keio University (Tokyo)	1858
		Waseda " (")	1882
		Meiji " (")	1881
		Chuo " (")	1885

(Continued)

	Year of Elevation or Establishment		Year of Elevation or Establishment
Nihon " (")	1920	Takushoku " (Tokyo)	1920
Hosei " (")	1879	Ritsumeikan " (Kyoto)	1900
Doshisha " (Kyoto)	1920	Rissho " (Tokyo)	1904
Kokugakuin " (Tokyo)	1893	Komazawa " (")	1883
Jikei Univ. of Medicine (Tokyo)	1881	Tokyo Agr. Univ. (")	1891
Ryukoku Univ. (Kyoto)	1922	Nihon Univ. of Medicine (Tokyo)	1926
Otani " (")	1922	Koyasan " (Wakayama)	1886
Senshu " (Tokyo)	1880	Taisho " (Tokyo)	1887
Rikkyo " (")	1874	Jochi " (")	1913
Kwansai " (Osaka)	1886	Kwansei Gakuin Univ. (Hyogo)	1932

Table 9. Statistics of Universities

(May, 1939)

	Government Univ. (18 Univ.)			Public Univ. (2 Univ.)			Private Univ. (25 Univ.)		
	Colleges	No. of Teaching Staff	No. of Students	No. of Dept.	No. of Teaching Staff	No. of Students	No. of Dept.	No. of Teaching Staff	No. of Students
Law	2	66	4,104	—	—	—	6	273	4,693
Medical	13	165	5,040	1	47	310	3	195	1,738
Engineering	7	331	3,610	—	—	—	2	85	898
Literature	2	76	1,395	—	—	—	13	750	2,763
Science	6	140	1,190	—	—	—	—	—	—
Agriculture	4	185	1,585	—	—	—	1	52	385
Economics	2	29	2,050	—	—	—	5	260	4,106
Commerce	2	91	1,597	1	57	429	5	177	3,178
Law & Litt.	2	88	1,192	—	—	—	4	376	2,486
Political	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Economics	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	75	1,486
Science & Engineering	1	—	—	—	—	—	1	110	796
Law & Economics	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	44	798
Literature & Science	2	273	773	—	—	—	—	—	—
Commerce & Economics	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	39	1,148
Total	43	1,394	22,536	2	104	739	46	2,436	24,475
Of which:									
Foreigners	—	—	231	—	—	1	—	46	599
Females	—	—	37	—	—	—	—	—	48
Total No. of Graduates	—	—	6,438	—	—	209	—	—	6,775
Of which:									
Foreigners	—	—	28	—	—	—	—	—	51
Females	—	—	9	—	—	—	—	—	11
Total No. of Preparatory Course Students	—	—	1,686	—	—	597	—	—	20,011
Of which:									
Foreigners	—	—	12	—	—	—	—	—	52

TECHNICAL PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

(PROFESSIONAL) SCHOOLS OF HIGHER GRADE

Qualification.—Admits graduates of Middle Schools and Technical Schools of Secondary grade on diploma, though owing to the number of applicants most of them hold selective examination. They are of 3 to 4 school-years.

Table 10. Statistics of Government Technical and Special Schools

(May, 1939)

	No. of Schools	Location	No. of Professors	No. of Students
Higher Agr. & Forestry Schools	7	Morioka, Kagoshima, Utsunomiya, Gifu, Miyazaki, Tokyo, Tsu	298	2,280
Higher Agr. Schools	2	Tottori, Tokyo	57	390
Higher Sericultural Schools	3	Ueda, Tokyo, Kyoto	125	825
Higher Horticultural School	1	Chiba	19	150
Higher Commercial Schools	11	Nagasaki, Yamaguchi, Ota-ru, Nagoya, Fukushima, Oita, Hikone, Wakayama, Yokohama, Takamatsu, Takaoka	378	6,225
Higher Technical Schools	17	Kyoto, Nagoya, Kumamoto, Yonezawa, Kiryu, Yokohama, Hiroshima, Kanazawa, Sendai, Tobata, Tokyo, Kobe, Hamamatsu, Tokushima, Nagaoka, Fukui, Yamanashi	331	7,518
Higher Mining School	1	Akita	47	360
Higher Nautical Schools	2	Tokyo, Kobe	113	1,760
Pharmaceutical Schools	2	Toyama, Kumamoto	38	533
Higher Dental School	1	Tokyo	45	491
Foreign Language Schools	2	Tokyo, Osaka	143	2,743
Fine Arts Academy	1	Tokyo	72	712
Academy of Music	1	Tokyo	69	1,663
Hakodate Higher Fishery School	1	Hakodate	39	360

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS OF HIGHER GRADE

giving higher liberal education.

There are mostly of collegiate standing, and are divided into two groups, (A) those giving technical or professional education, (B) those

School-years.—The course sometimes extends for five or six years.

Statistics of public and private collegiate institutions are as follows:—

Table 11. Statistics of Higher Schools (Koto Gakko)

(September 1939)

	Location	Established	Teaching Staff	Students	Admission rate Against Applicants (%)
Government:					
The First Higher School	Tokyo	1886	90	1,003	14.8
" Second "	Sendai	1886	55	701	18.0
" Third "	Kyoto	1886	70	812	17.8
" Fourth "	Kanazawa	1886	52	709	14.0
" Fifth "	Kumamoto	1886	*50	693	14.0
" Sixth "	Okayama	1900	46	708	20.1
" Seventh "	Kagoshima	1901	*43	523	15.0
" Eighth "	Nagoya	1908	47	698	18.1
Tokyo Higher School	Tokyo	1921	70	713	23.1
Osaka "	Osaka	1921	45	500	16.0
Yamagata "	Yamagata	1920	40	479	13.0
Mito "	Mito	1920	39	505	11.3
Hirosaki "	Hiroshima	1920	37	471	12.2
Urawa "	Urawa	1921	*45	447	12.0
Niigata "	Niigata	1919	33	411	15.9
Shizuoka "	Shizuoka	1922	41	502	13.7
Himeji "	Himeji	1923	*39	441	12.0
Matsue "	Matsue	1920	34	498	14.0
Hiroshima "	Hiroshima	1923	38	499	18.0
Yamaguchi "	Yamaguchi	1919	33	382	13.3

Note: * 1938.

(Continued)

	Location	Estab-lished	Teaching Staff	Students	Admission rate Against Applicants (%)
Kochi " "	Kochi	1922	40	498	13.3
Fukuoka " "	Fukuoka	1921	46	492	18.4
Saga " "	Saga	1920	38	499	15.5
Matsumoto " "	Matsumoto	1919	31	343	10.0
Matsuyama " "	Matsuyama	1919	35	409	16.8
Public:					
Prefectural Higher School	Tokyo	1920	58	715	5.3
Naniwa " "	Osaka	1926	83	734	8.0
Toyama " "	Toyama	1923	55	694	36.2
Private:					
Seikei Higher School	Tokyo	1925	67	446	9.5
Musashi " "	Tokyo	1921	53	638	13.4
Seijo " "	Tokyo	1926	52	382	9.0
Konan " "	Hyogo	1923	44	496	23.0

Table 12. Kinds of Public Special Schools

(May, 1938)

	Faculty	Enrolment Capacity		Faculty	Enrolment Capacity
Kyoto Municipal Painting	22	150	Osaka Pref. Women's	43	360
Higher Commercial Course, Osaka Com. University	78	300	Miyagi Pref. Women's	33	320
Gifu Pharmaceutical	27	390	Kyoto Pref. Women's	28	360
Fukuoka Pref. Women's	29	320	Hiroshima Pref. Women's	29	320
			Nagano Pref. Women's	12	160

Table 13. Statistics of Higher Special Schools

(A) Schools, Staff, Students

Year Ending Mar. 31:	No. of Schools	Teaching Staff	No. of Students	Male	Female
1933	116	5,309	67,341	388	37
1934	117	5,322	67,180	77	233
1935	117	5,553	70,083	3,809	651
1936	117	5,605	70,894	4,048	1,924
1937	118	5,794	71,779	3,621	2,977
1938	118	5,946	72,088	3,129	2,977

	Male	Female
Fine Art	388	37
Music	77	233
Normal	3,809	651
Medical	4,048	1,924
Dental	3,621	2,977
Pharmaceutical	3,129	2,977
Agriculture	691	—
Engineering	954	—
Commerce	11,781	6
Household	—	4,641
Sewing	—	1,416
Total incl. Preparatory course	54,538	17,550

	Male	Female
Law	12,532	46
Economics	1,801	..
Literature	3,473	2,189
Religion	2,221	29

Table 14. Statistics of Higher Technical Schools

Year Ending March 31:	No. of Schools	Faculty	Students	Graduates		No. of Schools	Faculty	Students	Graduates
1932	52	2,048	21,952	6,669	Of which				
1933	54	2,123	22,546	6,732	Technical	19	938	8,275	2,715
1934	54	2,146	23,082	7,024	Agricultural	15	609	4,851	1,581
1935	56	2,179	24,111	7,338	Commercial	24	791	12,063	4,219
1936	60	2,243	26,035	7,945	Nautical	2	150	1,189	276
1937	60	2,403	26,591	8,395	Fishery	1	37	235	76
1938	61	2,525	27,613	8,867					

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE TECHNICAL & COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS OF SECONDARY GRADE

These schools are divided into 3 grades, (A) 12-15 year boys, (B) the Middle School grade for 14-17 year boys, (C) the continuation (or supplementary) grade for 12-13 year boys and girls.

Table 15. Technical Schools of Secondary Grade

Year Ending Mar. 31:	Schools		Teachers		Students		Graduates	
	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B
1932	807	196	13,421	1,792	256,128	35,887	60,035	12,607
1933	822	202	13,849	1,798	262,214	37,905	62,127	13,623
1934	839	202	14,323	1,834	276,982	39,864	63,841	13,521
1935	861	208	14,901	2,041	298,961	43,953	66,354	14,927
1936	961	289	15,876	2,637	333,939	63,029	72,066	22,073
1937	994	307	16,800	2,832	361,963	71,474	81,953	29,231
1938	1,040	315	17,923	2,954	400,565	77,031	91,674	31,673

Of which:	Schools	Teachers	Students	Graduates
Technical	121	43	2,774	487
Agricultural	264	107	3,121	919
Commercial	341	90	7,972	940
Nautical	8	1	126	12
Fishery	15	5	161	18
Vocational	291	69	3,769	578

Note: A—Represents "Ko-shu" with terms of course of 4 and 5 years or more for boys and girls. B—Represents "Otsu-shu" with terms of course shorter than those of "Ko-shu."

TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR TEACHERS

Training schools for teachers are divided into two grades:—

(A) Normal Schools, maintained by prefectures, for preparing teachers of elementary schools.

(B) Higher Normal Schools for training teachers of Middle, Normal, and Girls' High Schools.

Table 16. Statistics of Normal Schools

Year Ending Mar. 31:	No. of schools	Instructors	Students		Graduates
			Male	Female	
1932	104	2,525	26,334	12,534	11,033
1933	103	2,429	24,935	11,932	12,611
1934	103	2,334	21,898	10,919	11,669
1935	102	2,287	20,046	10,374	10,735
1936	102	2,283	19,396	10,429	10,431
1937	101	2,232	19,744	10,512	10,340
1938	101	2,224	30,783		10,499

HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR TEACHERS

Number of Schools.—There are two State institutions for boys (the Tokyo and the Hiroshima Higher Normal Schools), and two State Schools for girls (the Tokyo and Nara Higher Girls' Normal Schools).

Table 17. Statistics of Higher Normal Schools

	Faculty	Students	Entrance Rate (%)
Tokyo	187	1,163	13.0
Hiroshima	76	692	10.0
Tokyo (Women's)	140	1,916	21.0
Nara (Women's)	53	407	20.4

PREFECTURAL NORMAL SCHOOLS

Each prefecture is under obligation to maintain at least one normal school, with two courses, one extending over 4 or 5 years and receiving boys and girls from elementary schools, and the other training middle school graduates for one year.

SCHOOLS NOT UNDER CONTROL OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

There are several schools outside the control of the Education Department, but under that of the Army, Navy, Railways, or Communications Departments, etc.

The Peers' School ("Gakushu-In")

Founded in 1877, this is an institution maintained by the Imperial Household Department as a special educational organ for the children of the titled class. The course is divided into three grades, viz. elementary school, middle school and higher courses. The children of the Imperial House and those of the Imperial Princes are all educated at this institution. Location: Mejiro, Tokyo. The enrollment in 1937 was 942 students.

The Peeresses, School ("Joshi Gakushu-In")

This is also an educational organ for the daughters of the titled class and was founded in 1885. It was originally known as the Kwazoku Jogakko. The course is divided into three, the same as the Peers' School. Location: Aoyama, Tokyo. The enrollment in 1937 was 708.

The Fishery Institute (Suisan Koshusho)

Founded in 1890 by the Department of Agriculture and Commerce (now extinct), it is divided into Regular Course (catching, manufacture & rearing), Pelagic Fishery, Post-graduate and Special courses, the first extending over three years. Location: Etchujima, Tokyo.

SOCIETIES AND COUNCILS

The Imperial Academy of Japan

This institution corresponding to the Royal Society of Great Britain or the Academie Française was established in 1897 for the promotion of science and art, with a view to exercising a beneficial influence on culture in general, and is placed under the control of the Education Minister. Its members are selected from amongst seniors of learning and appointed by the Emperor, being accorded the treatment of "Chokunin" rank. In 1906 it joined the International Academic Union. The Academy consists of two sections, viz. (1st Section) Lite-

rature and Social Science and (2nd Section) Science, pure and applied, the members belonging either to the 1st or 2nd section, according to their speciality.

The officials consist of the President, one Manager, and two sectional chiefs. The number of members is fixed at 100, and annuities are granted to members above 60 years old. Since 1910 the Academy has received from the Imperial Household an annual grant of money and Barons Mitsui, Iwasaki and Sumitomo have also offered donations. Proceedings are occasionally published in Japanese and also in German, English and French. Location: Ueno Park.

Table 18. Organization of Imperial Academy (August, 1939)

	Membership	
	Regular	Actual
President: Dr. Hantaro Nagaoka. Chief Secretary: Dr. Masaji Kato		
1st Department (Director: Dr. Kiheiji Onozuka)	50	50
1st Section (Law, Politics and Economy)	25	25
2nd Section (Philosophy, History and Literature)	25	25
2nd Department (Director: Dr. Akitsu Tanakadate)	50	47
1st Section (Mathematics and Astronomy)	7	7
2nd Section (Physics and Chemistry)	11	10
3rd Section (Geography and Geology)	8	8
4th Section (Biology and Medicine)	16	16
5th Section (Engineering and Agriculture)	8	7

Chemical & Physical Research Institute
Rikagaku Kenkyusho)

This is a laboratory founded in 1917 at the instance of the late Dr. Jokichi Takamine to promote the fundamental development of industries through scientific researches. Its fund amounting to ¥6,300,000 consists of Imperial donations, State grants and contributions by leading businessmen.

The chief officials are:—Pres., H.I.H. Prince Fushimi; Superintendent, Vis. Dr. M. Okochi; 13 directors, and a number of research staff.

The subjects of researches undertaken in 1938 numbered over 380. Patents acquired from foreign and home governments from its founding up to the end of June 1938 numbered 693.

Table 19. Organization of National Research Council (October 1940)
(Gakujutsu Kenkyu Kaigi)

Departments	Membership	Vice-President: Takematsu Okada, Dr. Sc.
Astronomy	9	Dept. Chief
Geophysics	19	Mazaya, Hashimoto, Dr. Sc.
Chemistry	27	Takematsu Okada, Dr. Sc.
Physics	20	Masao Katayama, Dr. Sc.
Geology and Geography	14	Masaharu Ishikawa, Dr. Sc.
Biology and Agriculture	20	Takuji Ogawa, Dr. Sc.
Medicine	34	Kan Koriba, Dr. Agr.
Engineering	41	Kurata Morishima, Dr. Med.
Mathematics	11	Ken Nishi, Dr. Engrg.
		Takuji Yoshie, Dr. Sc.

National Research Council
(Nihon Gakujutsu Shinkokai)

The Council, which is under the superintendence of the Education Minister, was created in June 1919 for the purpose of regulating international relations with regard to scientific researches and application of their results, as a member of the International Scientific Research Council. It despatches representatives to the conferences of the International Research Council, answers inquiries and consultations of the State Ministers concerned, and makes suggestions about matters relating to science and its practical application. The number of members is fixed at 100, these being appointed by the Government at the Council's recommendation.

The chief officials and the scientific departments are as follows:—

FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF EDUCATION

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

In recent years the educational undertakings have been greatly extended and the treatment of teachers considerably improved in accordance with the post-war programme of the country, and this has caused the educational expenditure to swell in a remarkable degree. The following

table shows the total educational expenditure during the past few fiscal years:—

Table 20. Educational Expenditure Borne By Public Bodies

Year Ending March 31:	(Unit: ¥1,000)			Total incl. others
	Prefec- tures	Cities	Towns and Villages	
1929....	113,295	101,833	256,132	471,322
1930....	114,503	96,687	235,899	447,168
1931....	111,299	81,642	213,334	406,349
1932....	106,856	77,766	197,724	382,345
1933....	97,886	87,580	199,346	384,901
1934....	100,103	102,319	202,816	405,326
1935....	104,618	103,435	224,909	453,277
1936....	109,120	119,145	224,909	453,277
1937....	111,718	137,251	230,811	479,780

Grants to Cities, Towns and Villages for Compulsory Education

Cities and towns and villages are responsible for the establishment and maintenance of ordinary elementary schools. Part of the expense, however, is met by the State Treasury, in order that the teachers may be well paid and the burdens on the rate-payer may not be too heavy.

For the six financial years ending March 1937, the sum of ¥85,000,000 was yearly defrayed for this purpose. Destitute cities, towns and villages receive special consideration in the appointment of the grant.

Table 21. Public Relief for Elementary School Children
(Unit: Recipients in 1,000; Amount in ¥1,000)

Year Ending Mar. 31:	Text Books		Stationery		Clothing		Foods		Living Expenses		Total incl. Others	
	Recipi- ents	Amount	Recipi- ents	Amount	Recipi- ents	Amount	Recipi- ents	Amount	Recipi- ents	Amount	Recipi- ents	Amount
1933...	178	157	392	420	114	261	365	812	21	114	1,154	1,881
1934...	167	154	370	422	112	275	513	1,349	14	119	1,258	2,443
1935...	197	190	424	490	140	361	499	1,453	14	103	1,375	2,791
1936...	183	157	415	430	145	338	519	1,455	14	82	1,370	2,614
1937...	169	154	392	412	132	330	479	1,184	13	66	1,281	2,287
1938...	190	177	432	493	151	385	423	1,046	14	68	1,311	2,316

Special Educational Fund

An educational endowment fund of ¥10,000,000 was set aside in 1889 for various educational purpose. Part of the interest accruing from them is distributed among Hokkaido and prefectures in proportion to the number of school age children, and the rest is expended on items which

are considered necessary for the spread and improvement of elementary education. Hokkaido and prefectures come, on receipt of the aforesaid allotments, under obligation to add further equipment of elementary schools or meet the medical expenses of elementary school teachers, and expenses necessary for promoting and developing social as well as elementary education.

SCHOOL HYGIENE

Health of Students in Government Schools

Table 22. Health of Students

April	(A) Stature (in centimeter)						(B) Weight (in kilogram)					
	Boys			Girls			Ave.		1900-05.		1937....	
Ave.	Age 7	Age 12	Age 18	Age 7	Age 12	Age 18	17.4	27.1	50.1	16.9	27.0	44.8
1900-05.	106.9	128.5	158.4	105.5	128.4	146.6	18.0	28.6	53.2	17.4	28.8	46.6
1932....	108.5	131.8	161.8	106.4	131.9	151.2	18.1	28.7	53.3	17.4	28.9	48.4
1933....	108.7	131.6	161.7	107.6	132.0	150.8	18.1	28.8	53.9	17.5	29.2	48.5
1935....	108.9	132.3	161.8	108.0	132.7	151.2	18.1	28.9	53.7	17.6	29.2	48.9
1936....	109.0	132.5	162.0	108.0	132.8	151.8	18.2	29.0	53.1	17.6	29.4	48.5
1937....	108.0	132.8	161.0	107.9	132.8	150.9	(C) Girth of Chest (in centimeter)					
Ave.							54.0		63.3		78.9	
1900-05.							54.5		64.1		81.6	
1932....							54.5		64.2		81.8	
1933....							54.7		64.5		82.3	
1935....							54.8		64.5		82.2	
1936....							54.8		64.5		82.4	
1937....							54.8		64.5		82.4	

Table 23. Rate of Near-sighted Students Classified by Schools (%)

	Primary School		Middle School	Girls' High School	Normal School		Vocational School	Technical Sch.		University
	Boy	Girl			Boy	Girl		Boy	Girl	
1929.....	18.08	19.49	35.24	32.39	44.07	40.54	34.34	45.30	49.67	47.88
1933.....	16.71	20.23	36.35	34.56	42.20	40.03	34.20	45.30	49.67	47.88
1934.....	14.22	21.00	36.24	34.96	43.71	39.54	34.07	41.06	50.76	36.38
1935.....	18.24	21.73	36.62	35.39	43.45	39.26	34.57	42.23	47.38	50.56
1936.....	19.02	21.93	36.38	36.44	42.45	40.20	34.17	40.90	48.97	46.07
1937.....	11.84	19.65	30.86	30.23	35.87	35.01

Table 24. Geographical Influence on Physical Condition of Japanese Children

(Average Age of 15)

	Boy		Girl	
	Stature (Shaku)	Weight (Kwan)	Stature (Shaku)	Weight (Kwan)
Japan Proper.....	4.85	10.40	4.77	10.48
Japanese in Hawaii.	5.22	13.17	4.99	11.83
Japanese in U.S.A...	5.05	11.66	5.28	13.06

Note: 1 "Shaku"=11.93 inches.
1 "Kwan"=8.27 pounds.

Table 25. Statistics of Libraries

Year Ending March 31:	State & Public			Private			Total		
	Lib.	Books (1,000)	Visitors (1,000)	Lib.	Books (1,000)	Visitors (1,000)	Lib.	Books (1,000)	Visitors (1,000)
1932.....	3,266	7,009	19,276	1,343	3,129	5,703	4,609	10,138	24,979
1933.....	3,297	7,289	20,033	1,389	3,274	4,773	4,686	10,563	24,766
1934.....	3,298	7,508	20,153	1,356	3,254	4,796	4,634	10,762	24,949
1935.....	3,348	8,029	19,906	1,446	3,347	4,760	4,794	11,376	24,666
1936.....	3,351	8,320	19,511	1,408	3,999	4,689	4,759	12,319	24,200
1937.....	3,345	8,788	19,622	1,385	3,870	4,502	4,730	12,648	24,124
1938.....	3,379	9,049	20,171	1,371	3,936	4,380	4,752	12,985	24,551

MUSEUMS

The museums that exist in most important cities are generally of limited scope and of commercial interest. The three museums belonging to the Imperial Household Department, in Tokyo, Kyoto and Nara, are more general in nature, things on display therein being principally historical relics, rare and valuable specimens of art and industry, etc. Of these three, the Tokyo Imperial Museum located at Ueno Park is the largest and pioneer establishment of the kind in this country, its foundation dating back

to 1872. Among the articles on show there are also various ancient costumes, utensils, etc., showing the customs and habits at different times and places, and specimens of various natural products. The Hyokei Kwan, erected in 1910 in commemoration of the wedding of the late Emperor Taisho and the Empress (the present Empress Dowager), forms a part of the Imperial Museum, and is devoted to the display of objects of fine arts and art industry.

MORAL EDUCATION AND PHYSICAL CULTURE

MORAL EDUCATION

The Imperial Research on Education issued in 1890 is regarded as the cornerstone of moral

education in Japan. Even little children under ten is expected to have the text of the rescript by heart, even though the meaning is deep for

their heads. At the same time, it is supplemented with text-books on ethics in which stories of famous men and women are predominating features.

Secondary Schools.—The Department of Education enforced the following general directions on the subject.

"The teaching of morals must be based upon the precepts of the Imperial Rescript on Education; its object is to foster the growth of moral ideas and sentiments, and to give the culture and character necessary for men and women of middle and higher grade, and to encourage and promote the practice of virtues. Besides explaining essential points of morals in connection with the daily life of pupils, by means of good works of maxims, a little more systematic exposition of the duties to self, to society and to the State, together with elements of ethics, may be given."

Higher Institutions.—The Minister of Education issued in 1909 an Instruction, emphasizing the importance of moral culture in higher institutions, especially exhorting the faculties of the schools, to the end that the Emperor's wishes contained in the Rescript on Education and also the Imperial Message to the people (about thrift) may be carried out.

Military Training in Schools.—Military training has been introduced into schools, with the special object of cultivating wholesome moral education among school boys by way of physical training. The measure is included in the regular curriculum of the secondary grade and high schools, but optional for universities and others of higher grade, the training being given by the army officers specially detailed for the purpose. In November 1929, the Otani Girls' High School (a private institution in Hakodate, Hokkaido) introduced in its curriculum military training which is imposed on the students of higher classes. This is the first departure made by girls' schools and its result is being watched with keen interest in educational circles.

PHYSICAL CULTURE

"Judo" or "Jujitsu"

This manly art of self-defence owes its present day popularity to the reform effected by the late Dr. J. Kano who established for this purpose in 1886 a special training hall styled "Kodokwan," now in Koishikawa, Tokyo. The fame of the new style, studied both for purposes of mental disci-

pline and physical culture, eliminating dangerous features from the various styles formerly in vogue, began to spread not only in Japan, but even to foreign countries, especially after the Russo-Japanese War. At present in almost every school of secondary grade and higher, the exercise is practised as a method of physical culture. Private clubs and schools for the practices of "Jujitsu" are to be found in all cities and towns.

Fencing

As practised to-day at schools, the art is merely a faint memory of past grandeur and importance. The practice sword is made of split bamboo, about four feet in length, with a hilt twelve inches in length for the double grasp. The points counted as effective hits are the head, -both sides, the right hand and throat. The traditional method of the two-handed use of the sword is still preferred by the Japanese to the single grasp popular in Western countries. The practice of the exercise is still popular, especially among policemen and school boys.

Physical Culture for Girls

With the introduction of the Occidental system of exercise and the present unprecedented vogue of sports, physical culture for girls, hitherto baffled by many obstacles, such as disfavour expressed by some conservative mothers, Japanese female garments, etc., are now gradually gaining ground. In the Girls' High Schools, the subject of gymnastics, 3 hours a week, is included in the curriculum, and the girls go through various methods of training.

Physical Education Research Institute

With the object of conducting scientific research into physical training at schools and training instructors in physical education, the Physical Education Research Institute was founded in December, 1924. It has eight departments, each with a suitable force of staff, i.e., the Anatomical, the Physiological, the Chemical, the Hygienic, the Pedagogic and Philosophical, the Drill and Gymnastics and the Athletic and Budo ("Jujitsu," and fencing) Departments.

Association for Physical Culture

The Martial Art Association.—Organized in 1908 in Kyoto for the purpose of promoting martial arts, it now enrolls, 2,520,000 members

with Gen. Soroku Suzuki (ret.) as president. The gymnastics practised in the association are "jujitsu," fencing, archery and boating. Every year in May and August a tournament is held.

YOUTHS' SCHOOLS

With a view to training young men in general both physically and mentally to develop their citizenship, Regulations for the Young Men's Training Institute were issued in April 1926 and the work started in July. Though not stated in the Regulations practically every autonomic corporation is obliged to maintain its own institute. The maintenance cost ¥5,240,000 in 1926, ¥6,060,000 in 1927 and ¥7,680,000 in 1928, but the Government subsidy to the fund is only 1 million yen a year, so that the bulk is to be borne by the corporations. They train boys from 16 to 20 years of age, free of charge, in the course of morals, civics, military drill

and ordinary and technical subjects for the period of four years. The minimum number of hours of training is 800 for the whole course, 400 for military training and 200 each for vocational and general education. For those who complete the course with good records, the regular conscription term may be shortened. The Young Men's Training Institutes are now known as Seinen Gakko (Youths' schools). At the end of March 1937 17,043 institutes existed throughout the country including 645 private establishments. The roll of attendants and number of institutes for the last few years are tabulated as follows:—

Table 26. Statistics of Youths' Schools
(Seinen Gakko)

Year Ending March 31:	No. of Institutes	No. of Instructors	No. of Students			Graduates (1,000)
			Male (1,000)	Female (1,000)	Total (1,000)	
1935	16,679	164,062	1,445	597	2,042
1936	16,810	176,673	1,488	647	2,135	501
1937	17,226	183,318	1,513	715	2,228	507
1938	17,578	191,380	1,625	774	2,399	511
1939	18,234	199,577	1,971	816	2,786	544

FOREIGN STUDENTS STUDYING IN JAPAN AND JAPANESE ABROAD

The number of foreign students enrolled in Japanese schools, at the end of March, 1937 totalled 8,026 consisting of 6,244 males and 1,782 females. Of these the Chinese and Manchoukuans are the most important both in number and other respects. It was some years after the close of the Japan-China War that they began to arrive in Japan to acquire modern learning.

Japanese Students Studying Abroad

The number of students of both sexes which Japan has sent to Europe, America and other foreign countries since the beginning of the Meiji era (1868-1912) must reach enormous figures, especially when students who have gone abroad at their own expenses are included. Up to March, 1937 the number of those sent by the Education Department alone reached about 2,700. These are mostly selected from among

those who have undertaken teaching at Government institutions. In general the annual allowance made is ¥4,320 for one in Europe or U.S.A., besides about ¥300 for the "Outfit Allowance." Students also receive about ¥1,400 as single travelling expenses to Great Britain, or ¥1,100 to the United States.

Those sent abroad by the Dept. of Education are as follows:—

Table 27. Number of Students Despatched
Abroad by the Dept. of Education

Year Ending March 31:	Newly despatched		Total Abroad	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
1931	25	3	216	3
1932	108	2	187	4
1933	88	1	181	3
1934	43	1	133	3
1935	40	1	101	3
1936	79	—	125	1
1937	82	1	166	2
1938	20	2	109	3
1939	16	—	50	3
1940	24	1	46	1

TEACHERS' LICENSE EXAMINATION

Teachers' license examination is annually held. The total number of the licenses for elementary schools, kindergartens, middle and higher schools is tabulated as follows:—

Table 28. No. of Licenses Issued for Elementary School Teachers and
Kindergarten Nurses Classified

Year Ending March 31:	Elementary School			Kindergarten				
	Without exami- nation	On exami- nation	Graduates of normal schools	Grand total	Without exami- nation	On exami- nation	Total	
1932	12,400	5,028	17,428	7,854	25,282	893	24	917
1933	10,793	4,543	15,336	10,433	25,769	943	42	985
1934	12,320	4,623	16,943	9,440	26,383	952	57	1,009
1935	14,021	4,809	18,830	8,424	27,254	1,049	57	1,106
1936	13,089	5,833	18,922	7,996	26,918	1,085	75	1,160
1937	16,260	6,554	22,814	8,028	30,842	1,105	59	1,164
1938	15,500	6,891	22,391	8,145	30,536	1,008	75	1,083

Table 29. Licenses Issued for School Teachers

Year Ending March 31:	Normal, Middle & Girls, High School			Technical School			Higher School		
	A.	B.	Total	A.	B.	Total	A.	B.	Total
1932	10,532	607	11,139	473	113	586	571	41	612
1933	11,476	574	12,050	392	116	508	1,111	13	1,124
1934	14,187	592	14,779	487	110	597	1,141	44	1,185
1935	11,214	553	11,767	467	126	593	1,185	13	1,198
1936	11,018	624	11,642	499	128	627	1,209	41	1,250
1937	12,621	577	13,198	481	113	594	1,211	10	1,221
1938	9,786	592	10,378	369	117	486	827	24	851

Note: A—Those who received licenses without examination.
B—Those who received licenses after examination.

BOY SCOUTS ORGANIZATION

This movement is still primitive in Japan, as it practically dates from the visit of the Crown Prince (the present Emperor) to Europe in 1921, when he saw Gen. Baden-Powell. The formation of the Association of Boy Scouts of Japan in 1921 at a grand meeting held in Shizuoka led to the general activity of this movement, and to-day upwards of 8,000 bodies exist throughout the country. On the occasion of the Prince of Wales visit to Japan in 1922 all the different associations sent their representatives to Tokyo and for three days they conducted a Jamboree. Though the boy's organization in the modern sense is comparatively new, the spirit was pretty well represented by the "Ken-Ji-no-sha" (Association of Robust Boys) that formerly existed among samurai's boys, especially of the clan of the Lord of Satsuma

(Princely House of Shimazu) to inculcate in the minds of samurai's boys, seven to twenty-five years in age, the spirit of Bushido or Japanese chivalry.

The Badge of the Boy Scouts is designed upon the three ancient sacred treasures of the Imperial House, i.e. Mirror, Sword, and Jewels. The Association is presided over by the Mayor of Tokyo, and its Board of Directors consists of Count Y. Futara, Visc. T. Mishima, Messrs. M. Ozaki, M. Oseko, etc. It sent its representatives to the World's Jamboree held at Copenhagen in the summer of 1924, and it was also represented in a similar event held at Birkenhead, England, in the summer of 1929, the delegation sent in 1929 being headed by Viscount T. Sano.

References:

Table Nos. 1 a, 2-17 b, 18-19 c, 20-21 b, 22-23 a, 24 d, 25-29 b.

Key: a—Cabinet Statistics Bureau.
b—Department of Education.
c—Imperial Academy.
d—Domei News Agency.

CHAPTER XII

JUDICATURE

JUSTICE

The Judicial System

The Japanese Courts of Justice consist of Local Courts (Ku-Saibansho), District Courts (Chiho-Saibansho), Court of Appeal (Koso-in), and the Supreme Court (Daishin-in). The Local Courts are held by single judges; District Courts and Courts of Appeal are collegiate courts, divided into several divisions, each consisting of three judges; the Supreme Court is also a collegiate court, divided into divisions, in each of which five judges sit. Besides these ordinary courts, there is the Court of Administrative Litigation (Gyosei-Saibansho) to deal with actions regarding individual rights encroached upon by an illegal administrative disposition.

Actions.—(1) Procedure in Court.—All proceedings are oral unless it is otherwise provided by law. For persons unacquainted with the Japanese language an interpreter is to be provided. In an action to which a foreigner is a party, the oral proceedings may be in foreign language, if the officials and all other persons concerned are acquainted with such language, but no instance of an actual application of this provision of the law has ever been known.

(2) Appeal, Revision and Complaint.—An appeal lies against a judgment rendered in the 1st Instance by a District Court to a Local Court. It must be lodged within one month from the service of the judgment. Proceedings before the Court of Appeal are oral, and new allegations of facts and new evidences may be introduced. Revision applies to judgment rendered in the 2nd Instance by a District Court or a Court of Appeal. It is only for errors in law. The time for claiming revision is the same as for appeal. Complaint can be made against any ruling or order of the court other than a judgment, by which an application relating to the proceedings is refused, and in such other cases as are prescribed by law. A decision on a complaint is generally made without oral proceedings. No period is fixed for a complaint, except that in certain cases an immediate complaint is provided for, which must be made within one week from the service of the order or ruling.

(3) Summary Proceedings.—When a claim is for a fixed sum of money, or for the pre-

sentation of a fixed quantity of other tangible things, or of securities, the creditor, instead of bringing an action, may apply to the Local Court of the general forum of the debtor, or if the claim is secured by a lien on an immovable of the real forum, to make an "order of payment" against the debtor. The latter may object to this order within two weeks after it is served upon him, or any time before an order of execution is made. If he fails to do so, an order will be made for the execution of the order of payment.

Acknowledgments.—These can be made in the presence of a Notary Public, but the drawback to employing a notary is that the proceeding must be conducted in the Japanese language, and that the notary's act must be recorded in Japanese script, this entailing much troublesome work. Among foreigners residing in Japan, the custom is to make acknowledgment before their respective Consuls, but the documents so acknowledged are neither deemed to be "Notarial Deeds" by the courts, nor to possess evidential value in judicial sense.

Costs in Civil Procedure.—These are paid by means of adhesive stamps affixed to the original written petitions. Costs of 1st Instance are as follows:—

Value of Subject-matter	Stamp Duty
Not exceeding ¥500.....	¥12.00
" " 750.....	15.00
" " 1,000.....	18.00
" " 2,500.....	25.00
" " 5,000.....	30.00

For amounts exceeding ¥5,000, three yen is to be added for each ¥1,000. If the value of a suit is ¥50,000 the costs will be ¥30 for the first ¥5,000 and ¥3 per each subsequent ¥1,000, i.e. ¥30 plus 45×3=¥135 (=¥165).

Costs of Appeal Instance are the same as stated above, but with a surcharge of 50 per cent added thereto. Costs in the Supreme Court are double those of 1st Instance.

Sundry Fees.—The law provides for certain small fees to be paid in respect to incidental petitions and statements, varying from 20 sen to ¥1 each. Process-Servers' Fees depend upon the work entailed, as provided for in the

law. All papers must be served by an official Process Server.

Lawyers' Fees.—There is no official scale, and the question of fees is one of custom and arrangement. As a rule, the Japanese lawyers charge on "percentage" basis which varies with the difficulty and importance of the case, value of the subject-matter of the suit, time taken up, etc. The professional standing of the practitioner has also to be taken into consideration. It must be borne in mind that the party defeated is only bound to pay the "judicial costs" occasioned by the suit, and that these do not include the lawyers' fees, as between solicitor and client, incurred by the successful party.

The Age-limit for Judicial Officials

The President of the Supreme Court, formerly allowed to remain in office indefinitely, must now retire when he attains 65 years of age while judges and procurators are to resign at 63 years. They may be allowed to retain their office 5 years longer with the approval of a general meeting of the members of the Supreme Court or the Courts of Appeal.

The Jury System

The Jury System Law, enacted in 1923, was enforced on Oct. 1, 1928. The special feature of the Japanese system is that it does not authorise the jury to inquire into the crimes, its function being only to decide whether the ac-

cused is guilty or not, so that its decision has no binding power on the opinions of the judges as is the case with the Occidental system.

The cases to be submitted for trial by jury are limited to crimes punishable with death penalty, life servitude or imprisonment, or servitude or imprisonment for a period exceeding 3 years, all of which come under the jurisdiction of District Courts (Chiho-Saibansho).

The jury for each case is made up of 12 members, selected from among Japanese male subjects of over 30 years, who have had their domiciles in the same city or town or village for over two years and are payers of direct tax of over ¥3 and who can read and write. The judgment of the jury does not affect the judges who reserve the right to dismiss a jury and empanel another as often as they please if they are not satisfied with the verdict.

The jury system enforced since October 1, 1928, is claimed to be working satisfactorily. Of eighty-one cases tried by the jury during the first 7 months only four cases were submitted for retrial owing to the variance of opinions between the jury and the presiding judges. Other prominent features that mark the working of the new system are:

(1) The accused's request for retrial was very few from consideration of costs involved; (2) the juries' verdict was generally of lighter penalty than the ruling of procurators; (3) the period required in the jury trial was very short, the average time spent being 1 1/6 day per case, etc.

Table 1. Statistics of Judicial Institutions, etc.

Oct. 1:	Courts	Judges	Procurators	Probationers	Secretaries	Bailiffs	Lawyers	Notaries
1934	341	1,370	648	215	5,594	666	7,082	288
1935	342	1,391	648	215	5,614	666	7,082	285
1936	342	1,391	648	215	5,614	658	5,976	286
1937	342	1,427	669	223	5,745	647	5,811	285
1938	342	1,470	686	229	5,843	633	4,866	285

The New Civil Procedure Law

The revised civil procedure law, enacted in April 1926, was put into force on October 1, 1929. The new measure principally aims at simplifying the process and shortening the time

of legal proceedings, and its principal features are (1) to be more circumspect in preparatory procedure; (2) to abolish judgment by default; (3) to prohibit postponement of trial by mutual agreement of parties concerned; (4) to take preventive steps against perjury, etc.

Table 2. No. of Civil Cases Handled

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Local Courts	1,393,020	1,344,273	1,243,248	1,084,455	931,590
District Courts	107,848	107,438	103,817	99,606	93,668
Appeal Courts	11,624	10,857	10,094	9,219	9,215
Supreme Court	6,443	5,885	5,184	4,706	4,532
Total	1,520,927	1,467,284	1,362,186	1,198,485	1,039,005
Of which:					
Appeal to Supreme Court	4,612	4,069	3,836	3,545	3,292
Appeal to Higher Courts	31,439	28,972	26,834	24,078	174,446

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Complaint	6,389	5,982	4,658	4,031	3,292
1st Instance	270,653	257,498	239,005	214,883	174,446
Pressing	302,954	280,366	253,361	201,478	154,775
Reconciliation	31,263	31,511	25,017	17,683	13,727
Compulsory	31,523	29,739	29,967	27,133	23,662
Arbitration of Tenancy	20,611	21,470	19,796	16,560	13,601
Arbitration of Farming Tenant	5,634	7,569	8,266	6,441	5,965
Commercial Arbitration	2,434	1,909	1,734	1,651	1,490
Bankruptcy	4,914	4,587	4,494	4,138	3,871
Auction	71,846	62,749	52,144	39,981	30,097
Provisional Attachment	58,838	57,181	51,729	44,833	36,112
Total Incl. Others	1,523,935	1,468,423	1,364,842	1,198,485	1,039,005

Criminal Cases in Recent Years

Latest available data on the condition of criminal cases is tabulated in the following comparative table:—

Table 3. No. of Criminal Cases Handled

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
District Courts	122,711	122,780	127,264	120,597	105,838
Local Court	25,590	25,628	27,796	22,930	19,006
Appeal Courts	2,948	2,944	3,128	2,920	2,327
Supreme Court	2,336	2,449	4,201	3,753	2,354
Total	153,585	154,001	162,389	150,200	129,525
Of which:					
Appeal to Supreme Court ...	2,272	2,366	4,123	3,665	2,260
Appeal to Higher Courts ...	7,301	8,278	9,497	8,772	6,245
Complaints	70	90	75	60	85
1st Instance	45,805	46,767	49,119	45,374	40,515
Summary Trial	78,412	75,748	77,499	74,223	65,644
Jury Trial	2,275	2,086	2,048	1,920	1,734
Preliminary Trial	7,660	6,919	7,100	5,841	4,617
Retrial	36	36	41	49	46
Civil Suit	343	333	248	260	287
Total Incl. Others	153,585	154,001	162,389	150,200	129,525

Table 4. Legal Sanctions Classified
(Year Ending March 1938)

	Capital Punishment	Penal Servitude	Confinement	Fine	Petty Fine or Detention	Total
Lese-majests	—	5	—	—	—	5
Interference of Public Duty ..	—	79	1	5	—	85
Escape	—	15	—	—	—	15
Destruction of Evidence	—	6	—	6	—	12
Inciting Public Disturbance ..	—	—	—	—	—	—
Incendiarism	2	604	—	34	—	640
Trespass	—	302	—	84	—	386
Forgery of Coins	—	27	—	—	—	27
Forgery of Documents	—	332	—	18	—	350
Forgery of Bonds	—	201	—	—	—	201
Adultery & Bigamy	—	366	—	42	3	411
Gambling	—	1,941	—	2,031	341	4,313
Bribery	—	449	4	280	—	733
Murder	10	871	—	—	—	881
Injury	—	1,469	—	612	133	2,214
Chance Medley	—	—	112	425	1	538
Abortion	—	127	—	—	—	127
Burglary	19	20,343	1	—	—	20,362
Fraud, Blackmail	—	7,255	—	5	—	7,260
Embezzlement	—	2,478	—	9	4	2,491
Total incl. others	31	38,554	117	3,634	487	42,823

Foreigners' Criminal Cases

Foreigners' criminal cases handled classified by sanctions in recent years are as follows:—

Table 5. Foreigners' Criminal Cases By Cause & Nationality

	Sanctions				Nationality					
	Imprisonment	Fine	Petty Fine	Total	Chinese	Russians	German	Americans	British	Others
1931	109	61	3	173	161	4	2	1	4	1
1932	87	49	2	133	115	4	2	2	12	3
1933	65	99	5	169	140	14	—	5	6	4
1934	56	50	2	108	88	2	2	3	1	14
1935	45	35	6	86	69	4	1	4	2	6
1936	36	59	3	98	86	—	3	2	2	5
1937	22	29	11	69	52	—	2	2	6	7
1938	38	54	1	104	82	—	—	2	7	15
Criminal Law Of which for:										
Opium Smoking ...	7	—	—	7	7	—	—	—	—	—
Gambling	2	30	—	32	32	—	—	—	—	—
Injury	—	1	—	1	—	—	—	1	—	—
Burglary	9	—	—	9	9	—	—	—	—	—
Usurpation	2	—	—	2	2	—	—	—	—	—
Special Law of which infringement of:										
Foreign Exchange Law	—	5	—	5	—	—	—	—	—	5
Automobile Law ...	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	1	1	—
Drug Law	—	1	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	—
Morphine Law	—	1	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	—
Military Law	1	9	—	10	1	—	—	—	3	6
Fortification Law ...	—	2	—	2	—	—	—	—	2	—
Wireless Teleg. Law	—	1	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	1
Total incl. others ...	38	54	1	104	82	—	—	2	7	15

Juvenile Courts

Two juvenile courts, one in Tokyo and the other in Osaka, were established in 1923, another court being created in Hiroshima in 1930. The cases handled at the three courts during the past few years are tabulated below:—

Table 6. Cases at Juvenile Courts

	No. of cases			Cases disposed of			
	Males	Females	Total	Without trial	Placed under protection	Transferred to procurators	Cases in hand
1928	12,493	1,005	13,498	8,450	4,605	9	459
1929	12,346	1,019	13,365	8,325	4,636	2	376
1930	12,835	998	13,833	8,893	4,528	3	392
1931	13,141	1,015	14,156	9,127	4,982	7	352
1932	13,402	1,154	14,556	9,148	4,984	1	405
1933	15,808	1,159	16,967	11,967	5,306	—	489
1934	23,178	1,537	24,715	16,900	7,326	2	888
1935	20,995	1,594	22,589	15,264	7,158	1	956
1936	20,849	1,367	22,216	14,344	7,682	3	1,054
1937	19,963	1,453	21,416	12,178	8,626	2	537
1938	24,690	1,668	26,358	16,648	9,064	1	555

POLICE

The Japanese policeman has generally earned a well deserved praise for integrity and clean-handedness. Exceptions may occur now and then, but the most important point is that, whereas in some other countries, police constables are generally known to wink at peccadillos for a consideration, the rules and tradition in Japan bid these petty guardians of public peace sternly to uphold the honour of the ser-

vice. Whenever a distinguished foreign visitor wishes to reward a policeman for a signal service rendered him the latter feels annoyed, and when the reward is received, with the cognition of his chief, owing to the insistent offer of the visitor, it is generally used for purposes of common benefits. With a pittance of a salary, ¥40-70 in the service of the Metropolitan Police Board, besides a petty allowance below ¥7, the

lot of policemen is anything but enviable, and they certainly deserve better treatment from the central and local treasuries. As a consolation, a policeman of diligent and meritorious service may rise to the post of a chief police commissioner drawing ¥900-2,400 a year. New policemen are admitted on examination, and they are then made to go through six months' training at regular headquarters. A Police Friendly Society is in operation for the purpose of mutual aid and protection.

Police Offences

Police offences are liable to detention not exceeding 20 days or a fine under ¥20. Offences liable to detention are four. They are hiding in others' buildings or ships, prostitution, vagrancy and intimidation. Offences liable to either detention or fines number 37, some of them being beggary and forced selling of anything, exaggerated or false advertisements, practical joke or obstruction to others' business or other ceremonial procession, or obstructing traffic or disorderly act on the road, fortune-telling, etc., practising hypnotism, tattooing one's own or others' body, intruding on scenes of fire, flood or other calamities, shadowing others without justification, mixing foreign ingredients in articles of food or drink, selling unripe fruits or rotten meat. Offences liable to fine number 17, some of which are: wanton discharge of fire-arms, refusing summons of competent officers, doctors and midwives refusing summons of clients, exposing shoulders bare, presenting any other indecent appearance, or committing a nuisance on the road, maltreating animals, etc. Police offences are summarily judged at police offices concerned, and this system dates from 1885. By the revised criminal code enforced in 1909 cases liable to this judgment are limited to detention for a period not exceeding 20 days or to fines not exceeding ¥20. An attempt was made in the 1909-10 session of the Diet to abolish this police court judgment system and to transfer it to the jurisdiction of Local Courts, but the measure was not adopted.

Peace Police Regulations

The formation of societies or fraternities and public meetings of a political character are un-

Table 7. No. of Police Stations and Officers

	No. of Offices			No. of Officers				Population per officer	
	Stations	Police Box	Sub-Stations	Super-Intendants	Inspectors	Assistants Inspectors	Police-men	Rural	Suburbs
1933	1,199	4,932	14,126	339	1,544	3,545	56,898	555	1,567
1934	1,220	5,183	14,222	339	1,546	3,590	59,481	557	1,552
1935	1,201	4,672	14,240	346	1,548	3,620	59,425	638	1,602
1936	1,203	4,742	14,242	351	1,607	3,909	60,609	625	1,562
1937	1,205	4,704	14,111	412	1,675	4,021	63,892	598	1,500
1938	1,206	4,757	14,182	415	1,726	4,269	67,133	769	1,436

der the control of the Peace Police Regulations in force since 1900. Any political association or fraternity must, according to the regulations, be duly reported to the police authorities concerned, within 3 days after its organization, etc. When a public meeting or an open air meeting of a political character is to be held its promoter or promoters must apply in writing to the police authorities concerned and obtain their permit. The Regulations forbid men in active service of the Army and Navy, those in reserve service temporarily called out, police officers, Shinto and Buddhist priests, teachers and students of schools, and minors to join or promote such societies or meetings. Women were also included in the list, but were expunged from it in 1922, as a step towards their political emancipation. Article 17 of the Regulations provides for the control of various labour movements.

Peace Preservation Law

The Peace Preservation Law, enacted in 1925 with a view to providing against the spread and infusion of dangerous thought, was put into force on May 11 that year. The principal item of the Regulations, Article 1, provides that those who have organized an association or fraternity with the object of altering the national constitution or of repudiating the private property system, or those who have joined such an organization with full knowledge of its object are to be punished with penalty ranging from death to servitude of over 5 years. The Regulations also apply to foreign residents and visitors.

The Burglary Prevention Law

The Burglary Prevention Law, which justifies murder or infliction of injury on burglars provided there is imminent danger to life, person or chastity, was enacted in 1930 and approved in the 58th session of the Imperial Diet. The new measure became operative on June 11 the same year.

Police Offences and Police Force

Police stations in Japan proper are subordinate to the Police Bureaus attached to the Prefectural Governments except in Tokyo where the Metropolitan Police is placed under control of the Home Office.

The recent condition is as follows:

Table 8. No. of Arrests By Police Classified

	1938						No. of Cases	Arrested
	1933 Arrested	1934 Arrested	1935 Arrested	1936 Arrested	1937 Arrested	Arrested		
Riot	5	3	15	2	3	1,491	1,300	
Incendiarism	2,129	2,097	1,985	1,688	1,419	406	179	
Forgery of coins	501	358	3,172	1,005	946	13,162	14,090	
Forgery of documents	17,496	18,800	17,682	18,646	13,418	1,176	1,567	
Forgery of securities	2,419	2,063	1,837	3,706	1,194	3,376	3,443	
Obscenity & Adultery, etc.	5,124	6,233	4,402	4,350	3,562	44,029	44,292	
Gambling & lottery	35,881	53,927	47,602	44,787	40,042	1,017	1,011	
Disgrace of honour	1,766	1,626	1,760	1,364	1,176	970	932	
Murder	1,254	1,190	1,090	1,172	1,012	23,115	23,098	
Battery & assaults	26,219	28,893	29,374	27,676	25,185	18,170	18,111	
Accidental battery & assaults	17,952	20,608	21,737	20,963	21,581	531	546	
Abortion	1,027	1,213	1,076	987	472	330	276	
Desertion	344	354	371	344	305	806	932	
Abduction	1,455	1,583	1,450	1,230	1,040	634,341	455,187	
Larceny	546,472	571,295	498,465	469,388	436,409	252,769	289,870	
Fraud & black-mailing	473,810	442,358	470,113	312,552	273,115			

Table 9. Number of Suicides

Year	Sex	By					Run over by trains	Run over by cars	Total incl. others
		Hanging	Drowning	Edged tools	Fire-arms	Poison			
1927	Male	4,458	1,539	369	96	1,397	1,289	190	9,686
	Female	1,985	2,020	140	14	1,045	586	75	5,953
1929	Male	4,397	1,584	358	104	1,317	1,225	176	9,313
	Female	1,824	1,918	126	10	971	520	92	5,517
1930	Male	5,022	1,728	354	140	1,365	1,373	267	10,439
	Female	2,052	2,027	135	13	998	531	99	5,920
1931	Male	5,224	1,856	346	132	1,363	1,407	275	10,934
	Female	2,058	2,102	135	14	971	564	114	6,081
1932	Male	5,004	1,911	387	123	1,571	1,571	339	11,250
	Female	2,093	2,197	149	10	1,143	584	160	6,499
1933	Male	4,488	1,804	329	100	1,916	1,347	347	10,945
	Female	1,978	2,205	107	10	1,350	569	127	6,582
1934	Male	4,446	1,644	361	102	1,918	1,331	296	10,860
	Female	1,964	2,014	148	12	1,271	533	129	6,379
1935	Male	4,368	1,625	335	92	1,927	1,131	219	10,400
	Female	1,952	2,013	125	9	1,348	476	99	6,270
1936	Male	4,572	1,671	357	102	2,635	1,126	294	11,490
	Female	1,882	1,952	116	9	1,505	451	88	6,262

Table 10. Suicides Classified By Cause and Age

Year	Sex	By Cause					Over 50	Un-known	Total
		Under 16 years	16-20	21-30	31-40	41-50			
1932	Male	157	751	3,264	1,498	1,297	3,813	470	11,250
	Female	132	721	1,985	873	664	2,029	95	6,499
1933	Male	192	721	3,293	1,456	1,211	3,535	537	10,945
	Female	150	661	2,069	849	681	2,028	144	6,582
1934	Male	179	693	3,270	1,477	1,173	3,497	571	10,860
	Female	137	619	1,850	885	667	2,059	162	6,379
1935	Male	199	590	2,980	1,403	1,143	3,532	554	10,401
	Female	128	545	1,939	846	630	2,050	132	6,270
1936	Male	188	716	3,567	1,579	1,206	3,617	546	11,419
	Female	136	557	1,864	890	604	2,072	130	6,253
Mental derangement	Male	14	74	323	285	303	597	6	1,602
	Female	7	31	200	212	162	398	6	1,016