

per koku and brings in an annual revenue to the Government of ¥200,000,000.

No study of brewing saké on a scientific basis was started until as late as 1895. In 1904, a Brewery Experimental Station was established by the Government, at Oji, Tokyo, various experiments were made, and many good experts trained. The art of brewing has now

advanced a great deal and the quality of saké brewed has become practically uniform. The quantity now brewed annually is about 5,000,000 koku nearly all of which is consumed at home, only 90,000 koku being exported to China and several other countries.

Present Condition Production of various kinds of saké in recent years is as follows:

PRODUCTION ON SAKE BY KINDS

(In 1,000 koku)

Year (Oct.-Sept.)	No. of Brew- eries(Sept.)	Refined Saké	Unrefined Saké	White Saké	Sweet Saké	Distilled Saké	Total
1930-31	9,905	3,851	6	6	70	455	4,121
1931-32	9,570	3,284	5	6	87	445	3,829
1932-33	9,236	3,807	5	6	100	509	4,429
1933-34	8,971	4,012	6	6	92	528	4,646
1934-35	8,745	3,772	5	6	87	499	4,371
1935-36	8,580	3,784	5	6	97	534	4,426
1936-37	8,428	3,983	5	5	105	542	4,641
1937-38	8,260	4,069	5	5	92	556	4,729

Supply and Demand According to the report of the Japan Saké Brewers' Association the shipment of refined saké in recent years were as follows:

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF SAKE (Saké Brewers' Association figures)

(In koku)

Saké Year (October-September)	Production	Shipped	Stock
1932-33	4,094,399	3,685,328	2,300,333
1933-34	4,314,096	3,857,112	2,526,894
1934-35	4,068,794	3,852,846	2,407,572
1935-36	4,282,610	4,098,128	2,366,661
1936-37	4,378,687	3,998,369	2,314,734
1937-38	3,966,915	4,274,244	1,803,502

Wine The following are the annual figures for the production of wine in recent years:

PRODUCTION OF WINE

Year (March-Feb.)	No. of Wineries	Production in koku
1933-34	10,124	13,613
1934-35	11,710	18,424
1935-36	12,190	19,066
1936-37	12,408	19,276
1937-38	12,316	31,449

PRODUCTION ON SAKE BY KINDS

(In 1,000 koku)

Year (Oct.-Sept.)	No. of Brew- eries(Sept.)	Refined Saké	Unrefined Saké	White Saké	Sweet Saké	Distilled Saké	Total
1930-31	9,905	3,851	6	6	70	455	4,121
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1936-37	8,428	3,983	5	5	105	542	4,641
1937-38	8,260	4,069	5	5	92	556	4,729

According to the "Factory Statistics" published by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry the value of all kinds of spirits produced in recent years was as follows, refined saké comprising over 62 per cent of the total.

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF ALL KINDS OF SPIRITS

Year	Value in yen
1934	384,199,683
1935	404,133,245
1936	435,661,300
1937	492,830,805
1938	568,385,820

Flavours

Oriental flavours are produced in considerable quantities as indispensable for Japanese cooking. The production of soy, or Japanese sauce made of wheat, in factories amounted to 5,566,815 hectoliters valued at ¥94,097,842 in 1938, that of miso, or bean-mash, 243,145 metric tons valued at ¥35,278,295. Saké-les is used as soup or a soft drink, the production in the same year amounting to ¥9,522,194. The production of vinegar amounted to 661,758 hectoliters valued at ¥2,274,350.

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF SOY, MISO, ETC.

(Unit: ¥1,000)

Year	Soy	Miso	Vinegar	Saké- lees	Sauce and Ketchup
1933	61,257	16,535	1,953	6,558	3,165
1934	65,477	18,201	2,026	6,114	3,548
1935	65,767	20,124	2,214	6,748	4,163
1936	71,025	22,582	2,051	6,706	4,801
1937	82,118	26,619	2,403	8,371	5,756
1938	94,097	35,278	2,274	9,522	5,123

Soft Drinks

As Japan is geologically blessed with mineral springs, the people were not slow to study their medicinal effects, and hot springs were used as baths from the olden times. As to the utilization of mineral spring water for drinking purposes, mineral water from Rokko Mountain in Hyogo prefecture was the first of its kind that was put on the market.

This was as late as 1833, and the drink was named "Mitsuya Hiranosu." Three years later, some Englishmen taught the making of artificially aerated water and with the importation of Cood's bottles and syphon-bottles the manufacture of sweetened aerated water originated. These drinks soon became very popular and the industry made rapid development. After the Russo-Japanese War, "Champion" cider was put on the market to be soon followed by lemonade, citron, and different kinds of syrup, etc.

At present the total production of soft drinks amounts to 710,000 koku a year, of which sweetened drinks account for 93%, the rest being ordinary unflavoured aerated water or soda-water. Producers of soft drinks may be roughly divided into two classes. The first of these is composed of those who manufacture the drinks along with beer. These have good equipment and produce on a large scale. The second class is made up of those many who produce on a small scale and sell their products locally.

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF SOFT DRINKS

(In yen)

Year	Cider	Ramune	Syrup	Others	Total
1931	8,509,936	1,803,975	970,528	2,668,045	13,953,384
1932	6,976,626	1,676,215	1,073,595	3,721,403	13,447,839
1933	14,132,015	1,424,789	1,182,207	2,950,569	19,689,580
1934	7,801,890	1,600,975	1,848,819	5,495,852	16,747,536
1935	10,365,531	1,611,915	1,615,720	4,023,263	17,616,429
1936	8,741,824	1,724,488	2,118,519	6,394,987	18,979,818
1937	10,703,174	2,108,597	2,625,136	6,867,072	21,803,979
1938	22,776,769	3,330,277	3,447,235	8,290,442	37,844,723

Canning

The canning industry in Japan was started as early as 1870, but the real impetus to its development was given by the Sino-Japanese and the Russo-Japanese Wars as they created a great demand for canned provisions for the Army and Navy. The Treaty of Portsmouth also served to further encourage this industry by giving Japan fishing rights in Kamchatka and the Maritime Province of Siberia, and together with the development of can manufacturing and floating canneries, the above have been the cause of the great progress in the canning industry as a whole.

Present Conditions At present, the packing industry in Japan is in a fairly developed state in all of its branches.

Canned meats have reached a stage where the quantity of production cannot be increased. The demand for meat in Japan has expanded so far that supply cannot keep pace with demand, a shortage of cattle is being felt and a plentiful supply for canning is not forthcoming. On the other hand, canned vegetables, such as canned bamboo shoots, are finding good markets in the U.S.A. and China. Of all the fruits procurable in cans pineapples are the most popular with the Japanese. They are produced in Taiwan, and of the 450,000 cases or more that are packed in that island about 400,000 cases are consumed in Japan proper while a greater part of the balance is sold in Taiwan, and only

a few thousand cases are exported to foreign countries. As to canned fish and shellfish, the production of canned crab and salmon dominates all others. In no other places are canned crabs produced in such large quantities as in Japan, and most of this production is exported to the U.S.A., annual exports being valued at about ¥10,000,000. Red

and silver salmon are finding a good market in Great Britain. The variety of canned provisions has greatly increased in recent few years, mainly for exports, the value of which reached 132 million yen in 1939, placing canned provisions among the major articles of Japan's foreign trade.

PRODUCTION OF CANNED PROVISIONS

(Compiled by The Canned Foods Association of Japan)

	Quantity (In 1,000 Cases)			Value (In ¥1,000)		
	1936	1937	1938	1936	1937	1938
Live-stock products:						
Meat	85	120	225	1,513	2,148	4,950
Meat-vegetable	30	75	175	345	870	2,275
Pork	65	70	75	875	966	1,238
Condensed milk	853	946	1,230	12,828	14,414	22,146
Total including others	1,065	1,246	1,770	14,076	18,905	31,778
Fishery products:						
Salmon and trout	2,400	2,524	2,438	47,293	50,953	58,663
Crab ("Taraba")	341	438	524	16,476	21,976	27,485
Other crabs	37	70	75	1,040	2,448	2,656
Tunny	560	682	392	5,174	8,019	5,510
Mackerel	270	527	181	110	3,825	1,577
Bonito	90	285	225	630	2,280	2,250
Sardine	—	2,067	1,550	—	13,463	10,357
Clam and "Asari"	44	49	229	360	322	1,944
Total including others	5,485	7,735	6,681	85,835	118,034	125,192
Fruit:						
Pineapple	1,181	1,100	1,631	8,622	7,650	12,721
Peach	95	85	155	758	808	1,628
Pear	15	35	165	138	333	1,568
Mandarin orange	920	1,224	1,941	4,876	7,346	11,644
Fruits-salad	17	25	70	255	400	1,120
"Mitsu-mame"	25	105	165	263	1,155	1,865
Jam	92	105	115	1,270	1,523	1,783
Total including others	2,512	2,879	4,586	17,689	20,620	35,917
Vegetable:						
"Fukushin zuki"	90	120	150	873	1,260	1,575
Asparagus	27	42	69	500	798	1,318
Peas	100	116	128	750	881	1,048
Red-peas	45	135	380	518	1,553	4,484
Bamboo-shoots	698	532	757	5,581	4,310	6,131
Total including others	1,130	1,298	2,154	10,000	12,400	21,492
Grand total	10,192	13,159	15,191	127,600	170,019	214,379

Note: In regard to canned fish and shell-fish, see Chapter XV, Fisheries.

EXPORTS OF CANNED PROVISIONS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Finance)

(In ¥1,000)

Kind	1936	1937	1938	1939
Meats	260	563	2,029	1,462
Crabs	17,200	19,874	15,244	30,323
Salmon and trout	26,939	27,492	38,463	35,999

Kind	1936	1937	1938	1939
Other fish and shell-fish	15,272	24,149	17,045	22,964
Vegetable	1,517	1,995	3,298	7,248
Fruit	6,219	8,130	9,880	22,193
Total value including others in ¥1,000	71,077	86,905	92,819	132,009
Total quantity in picul	1,914,622	2,446,910	2,526,234	3,035,679

Note: In regard to the exports by destination, see Chapter XI, Foreign Trade. Imports of canned foods were 35,933 piculs valued ¥1,341,000 in 1937, 9,073 piculs valued at ¥372,000 in 1938 and 2,550 piculs valued at ¥122,000 in 1939.

Other Important Foodstuffs Manufactured in Factories

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF BREAD AND SWEETMEAT

(In yen)

Year	Confec- tionaries	Bread (including sweet bread)	Mizu-amé (wheat- gluten)				
				Year	Condensed milk	Butter	Total including Others
1934	95,088,745	5,870,740	14,020,795	1934	9,393,650	2,827,081	21,210,448
1935	113,597,091	7,845,029	16,453,729	1935	10,981,471	3,353,572	22,277,166
1936	119,285,645	10,261,173	20,173,231	1936	10,662,310	3,054,820	24,036,598
1937	147,992,513	13,227,103	21,115,889	1937	14,273,479	4,376,013	32,604,489
1938	178,775,867	13,799,966	24,881,545	1938	13,609,870	6,702,072	38,406,972

VALUE OF MILK PRODUCTS

(In yen)

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF ARTIFICIAL BUTTER, ETC.

(In yen)

Year	Ham and Bacon	Artificial Butter	Salt	Vermicelli, Buckwheat- vermicell, etc.	Starch
1934	1,185,868	575,965	4,121,651	5,492,733	9,683,397
1935	1,288,078	619,655	4,268,815	6,545,790	12,624,831
1936	1,781,196	928,591	4,168,491	7,716,469	17,018,911
1937	2,570,197	1,403,233	4,720,265	9,256,749	28,298,060
1938	2,678,296	1,136,134	7,410,145	9,448,266	40,769,900

PRODUCTION OF TEA

(Quantity in metric ton, Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Green Tea (Superior)		Green Tea (Common)		Japanese Black Tea		Black Tea		Total including Others Value
	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	
1934	115	419	22,741	11,891	1,998	756	1,414	842	15,122
1935	194	567	24,788	13,035	2,451	793	1,324	706	16,576
1936	220	555	26,845	15,697	4,641	1,535	552	1,190	19,990
1937	218	459	29,332	20,998	3,258	1,419	4,099	3,741	29,217
1938	433	391	24,996	14,372	10,635	5,015	3,887	2,743	24,467

The above table is made from the "Factory Statistics" figures, and include only production by the tea makers who employ more than 5 operatives. Figures of the production by all tea makers are given in Chapter XIII, Agriculture, Tea.

VALUE OF TOTAL OUTPUT OF THE FOODSTUFFS
MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY

Year	Value in yen	Year	Value in yen
1929	1,124,226,990	1934	1,040,681,846
1930	949,929,039	1935	1,159,491,963
1931	834,687,469	1936	1,245,961,247
1932	886,272,905	1937	1,467,587,385
1933	1,017,580,798	1938	1,752,659,634

Note: Figures are from the "Factory Statistics" which is compiled on the basis of reports of private factories in Japan proper under the Factory Law, and gives ¥102,362,910 as the amount of production of canned foods in 1938 instead of ¥214,379,000 mentioned above.

Cement

History In 1871, cement works were established by the Government in Fukagawa, Tokyo. This was the origin of the cement industry in Japan. For ten years the works gradually expanded so that by 1891, the total capital invested in the industry was ¥1,000,000, the works numbered ten and the capacity was about 300,000 barrels a year.

In 1898, there were sixteen works with an aggregate capacity of 1,000,000 bbls, and imports were entirely excluded. In 1912, there were nineteen companies and twenty three mills. The total capital invested amounted to ¥18,000,000 while the capacity increased to 4,000,000 bbls.

During the World War, the industry enjoyed unprecedented prosperity and expanded rapidly. New companies were formed and new mills added. At the end of 1926, companies numbered twenty-one with thirty-four mills, the total authorized capital was ¥118,000,000 of which ¥85,000,000 was paid up, and the total production capacity increased to 17,500,000 bbls.

During the last twenty years, demand for cement increased every year with five exceptions, there was a 2% decrease in 1912 and a 10% in 1915 and 1919. The average rate of increase was about 11%. But in 1930, domestic consumption suddenly decreased by 12%, the first time that any such sharp decrease had ever been experienced. The decrease was due to the general depression and the economic retrenchment policy of the Govern-

ment following the removal of the gold embargo in January 1930. In 1931, there was a further decrease, but in 1932, with general activity in industry being felt, there was some recovery over the previous two years.

The Industry in Recent Years For some years in the past, the interest of cement industry in Japan centered on the question of the adjustment of over-extended capacity of production. The result is a large curtailment of production.

In 1925 capacity was about 50 per cent larger than the output, which became almost 100 per cent in 1934. In recent years the greatest consumption of cement, including domestic consumption and export, was 480,000 tons in May 1934, while the production capacity at the end of November of the same year was 1,020,000 tons a month. For almost a year 57 per cent of the Cement Association (Cement Rengokai) capacity has been curtailed.

The cause of this abnormal condition of the industry is found in the fact that in fixing production curtailment ratio of the member companies of the Rengokai, it has been based on the capacities of production of the members. This led the member companies to expand capacities to get larger shares of business. The situation culminated in the latter part of 1934 in forcing the Ministry of Commerce and Industry to apply the Major Industries Control Law to the cement industry.

PRODUCTION OF CEMENT

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Portland Cement		Others		Total value in yen
	Barrels	Value in yen	Barrels	Value in yen	
1931	15,885,395	51,779,580	3,052,071	9,837,362	61,616,942
1932	17,215,073	67,782,953	142,599	450,254	68,233,207

Year	Portland Cement		Others		Total value in yen
	Barrels	Value in yen	Barrels	Value in yen	
1933	21,789,392	84,566,744	153,926	515,065	85,081,809
1934	26,689,637	90,814,136	39,002	1,389,466	92,203,602
1935	30,854,313	99,146,671	706,233	1,693,554	100,840,225
1936	32,375,874	95,591,214	2,085,229	5,706,847	101,298,061
1937	33,215,239	102,552,588	2,879,613	7,546,948	101,099,536
1938	30,492,078	104,243,268	2,497,217	6,717,419	110,950,687

CONSUMPTION OF CEMENT CLASSIFIED BY USES

(In 1,000 metric tons)

Uses	1937			1938			1939		
	Qty	Value	Value	Qty	Value	Value	Qty	Value	Value
Railways	284.7	241.5	182.7	Mining	101.5	124.1	124.7		
Electric works	421.4	510.6	387.3	Retails	1,300.7	1,151.0	1,082.6		
Harbors	109.0	97.0	81.3	Cement products	162.1	152.9	211.2		
Roads and bridges	239.8	187.4	158.4	Miscellaneous	20.3	27.5	45.4		
Other public works	374.6	345.7	392.8	Total	4,163.4	3,884.0	3,684.9		
Buildings	1,148.9	1,045.8	1,017.5						

EXPORTS OF CEMENT

(Quantity in metric tons and value in ¥1,000)

Descriptions	1936		1937		1938		1939	
	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value
Manchoukuo	3,971	58	222	13	34,354	625	134,829	2,757
Kwantung L. T.	107,198	1,874	13,227	286	45,791	904	188,593	3,341
China	22,550	250	13,249	138	75,659	911	125,275	1,923
Hongkong	54,910	581	15,887	151	9	1	1,239	22
British India	13,497	170	15,558	184	5,380	65	2,686	54
Straits Settlements	90,299	994	81,830	877	34,150	352	34,829	528
Dutch East Indies	48,978	606	84,480	1,044	88,817	1,150	78,044	1,044
Philippines	2,534	35	8,000	102	60,864	658	11,550	146
Others	298,224	3,429	353,795	4,039	146,408	1,749	121,522	1,745
Total	702,164	8,001	586,312	6,836	491,432	6,411	698,565	11,549

1939 Cement Industry The total production of cement in 1939 reached 5,074,454 metric tons decreasing 445,000 metric tons from the previous year, owing mainly to the halt in construction activities due to the State economic control, and the decrease of demand for Japanese cement in foreign markets.

The restoration of peace and order in Chinese areas occupied by the Japa-

nese forces recovered the exports to China amounting to 125,274 metric tons, an increase of 65 per cent as compared with the previous year.

According to the report of the Warehouse Association the amount of stocks of cement which was 216,099 metric tons in December 1938 increased to 248,749 metric tons in January 1939, and decreased to 109,513 at the end of the year.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF CEMENT

(Compiled by the Cement Manufacturers' Association)

(In metric tons)

Year	Production			Shipments to Japan Proper			
	Capacity	Clinker	Cement	Capacity	Clinker	Cement	
1934	4,729,994	4,803,113	3,886,870	1937	4,650,393	4,666,478	4,163,462
1935	4,500,362	4,490,648	3,515,224	1938	4,288,564	4,384,022	4,884,000
1936	4,264,475	4,359,188	3,730,192	1939	4,162,600	4,001,300	3,685,900

	Exports to Foreign Countries	New Contracts	Outstanding Contracts	Stocks
1934	319,954	4,558,200	479,800	241,500
1935	432,599	4,488,300	675,700	296,000
1936	503,900	4,488,300	797,300	382,400
1937	446,800	4,943,600	1,015,700	316,400
1938	278,400	4,309,600	12,083,209	525,300
1939	237,000	4,751,000	15,284,000	242,800

Note: Figures are confined to the member companies of the Association only.

Ceramics

Pottery making has an old history in Japan. As far back as can be traced in history some potters appear to have had their secret proprietary methods of production. In the Meiji Era, especially after the Russo-Japanese War, along with the advance in industry in general, pottery making was industrialized, a procedure which was thought difficult of accomplishment, and today annual production amounts to from ¥60,000,000 to ¥100,000,000 in value, while exports amount to ¥50,000,000.

The chief places of production are Nagoya and Seto, both in Aichi prefecture, and the eastern part of Gifu prefecture. The quantity produced in these places amounts to about 70% of the country's total production. Seto is so famous for pottery that the Japanese commonly call chinaware "Seto-mono." Besides the products named above "Kutani" ware of Ishikawa prefecture, "Shimizu" ware of Kyoto prefecture, and "Arita" ware of Saga prefecture, are all famous though produced in small quantities only. Nagoya district is one of the largest pottery producing centers in the world.

Pottery was being made, in a crude

form admittedly, at the time of the Emperor Jimmu, the first Emperor of Japan, who lived about 650 B.C. At the time of the Emperor Suinin, that is, 66 A.D., a Korean prince was nationalized, and one of his retainers, who knew the potter's art, was able to give instruction on foreign manufacturing methods. Later, at the time of the Emperor Kammu, i.e., 781 A.D., pottery was imported from China, and the art made further progress.

In 1221 A.D., a man named Kagemasa Kato studied the art of pottery making in China. When he returned, he settled in Seto village, Aichi prefecture, and made chinaware of superior quality, the origin of the present "Seto" ware.

After that, many master artisans arose and tea-things, rice bowls, pitchers, incense burners, etc., now of great rarity and value were produced.

In 1938 total production of chinaware amounted to ¥100,007,896, while there were as many as 6,674 factories and 58,116 employees. The value of total production including tiles and drainage pipes reached ¥131,683,095.

The following table shows how this industry has developed recently.

FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION OF CERAMICS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Factories	Operatives	Table-ware	Furnitures	Building Materials	Insulators	Toys	Total including Others
(Value in yen)								
1931	6,353	40,320	51,926,067	9,388,264	2,304,914	4,154,698	1,103,012	54,197,884
1932	6,474	43,948	35,733,104	11,593,447	2,934,639	4,742,886	2,505,435	65,262,852
1933	6,586	53,292	45,204,776	14,910,054	6,131,345	5,886,047	2,003,566	85,246,500
1934	6,473	57,172	54,001,916	15,573,166	5,876,879	6,166,129	2,981,099	92,363,691
1935	6,624	61,135	54,616,818	15,504,495	6,754,686	9,245,261	3,471,091	99,368,010
1936	6,686	63,955	58,801,046	16,845,708	7,357,239	10,865,483	3,878,602	108,171,711
1937	6,566	62,231	58,791,085	16,161,223	8,859,706	15,155,087	4,015,185	115,191,370
1938	6,674	58,116	42,252,623	12,070,909	11,937,755	16,609,151	2,763,810	100,007,896

Factories and Production of Tiles and Drainage Pipes

(Value in yen)

Year	Tiles				Total Value	Drainage Pipes		
	Factories	Operatives	Roof Tiles Value	Others Value		Factories	Operatives	Value
1931	11,725	38,072	18,345,402	2,654,000	20,999,402	784	2,865	3,814,048
1932	11,445	38,268	18,070,815	2,784,285	20,855,100	827	2,966	3,092,524
1933	11,213	37,628	18,125,574	3,111,841	22,237,415	918	3,310	3,760,772
1934	11,021	38,680	20,740,445	3,192,184	23,932,629	937	3,453	4,228,313
1935	10,809	39,398	21,277,505	3,374,301	24,651,866	944	3,913	4,431,993
1936	10,688	39,576	23,076,803	3,535,245	26,612,048	891	3,593	4,964,409
1937	10,211	35,795	21,571,140	3,339,705	24,910,845	921	4,324	5,510,655
1938	9,407	31,704	22,151,432	3,199,487	25,350,919	838	3,846	6,324,280

Exports of Chinaware Though exports of chinaware amounting to ¥1,300,000 were made as early as 1886, the exports business did not develop to any great extent until the Russo-Japanese War. In 1904, the Nippon Toki Kaisha, Ltd., was organized, to be quickly followed by the Toyo Toki Kaisha, Ltd., and the Nagoya Seitoshu. Each of these companies established large mills with up-to-date equipment and began to produce chinaware on a big scale. Painstaking studies were made to improve the products and build up an export business, and these, together with other special factors, account for the remarkably large increase in exports. The special factors are:

(1) Japan is able to produce specially thin chinaware that other countries

cannot.

(2) Japanese artisans are especially clever at their work.

(3) The cost of production is reasonable.

Just at the time when the industry was organized on a modern basis, the World War broke out. Pottery works in belligerent countries in Europe were closed down and exports from Japan increased by leaps and bounds. A temporary set-back was experienced when the War ceased, but a recovery was soon made and there was a steady growth until 1929 after which there was a falling off until 1932, when some slight gain was made over the previous year. Exports in 1938 declined on account of the State control of trade.

EXPORTS OF CHINWARE TO DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

Countries	(In ¥1,000)						
	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Manchoukuo	531,128	1,238	1,222	1,391	2,222	3,821	6,516
China	991	1,387	1,339	1,127	1,145	2,453	5,574
Kwantung L. T.	1,193	2,084	2,162	1,859	2,353	4,643	5,597
British India	3,965	3,204	3,529	3,696	4,240	2,580	2,553
Straits Settlements	900	1,290	763	514	1,174	307	516
Dutch East Indies	3,728	3,269	2,133	2,388	3,109	2,714	2,992
Philippines	959	580	945	1,148	1,431	628	620
Great Britain	1,296	1,161	1,186	1,275	1,171	888	613
Holland	981	761	498	607	542	607	514
U. S. A.	10,180	14,310	15,776	15,530	19,460	8,696	11,115
Canada	1,399	1,508	1,458	2,025	1,038	1,235	1,230
Brazil	370	554	672	461	1,036	576	916
Union of S. Africa	—	—	—	—	1,259	1,009	1,318
Australia	2,707	2,331	2,804	2,291	2,598	2,915	2,264
Others and total	35,634	41,879	43,318	43,548	53,971	40,477	48,624

Domestic Consumption There are no definite figures for the exact amount of domestic consumption, but if we subtract exports from the total production we have an approximate value. Figures shown in the second column of the first table "Factories and Production of Ceramics" give some idea of the amount. Though tile making is growing fast on account of the increase in building of Western style houses, the market had been depressed because of lack of control over production and sales

until 1934 when it began to regain prosperity.

The peculiarity about chinaware intended for domestic use is that it must be made by small factories run on family basis. The reason is that the taste of the Japanese for chinaware is very varied, differing according to each individual as to the form, color, design, etc., thus making it impossible to produce on large scale mass production principles.

Glass and Glass Manufactures

Origin and Development As far as historical record shows, the art of glass manufacturing was developed in the Nara period, that is about 700 A.D. Later, techniques of manufacturing were imported both from the South Sea Islands and China, and put into practice in Osaka, Kyoto and Tokyo, where the industry developed. After the Meiji Restoration, the Government established a model factory to encourage the development of the industry and various attempts were afterwards made to make glass and glassware both by the Government and by individual concerns, but it was not until after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905, that the industry made any great progress.

Glass Tableware Glass tableware was early manufactured in Kagoshima and the old province of Satsuma in Kyushu Island. After the Meiji Restoration it was manufactured by the Shinagawa Shoshi Seizosho (Shinagawa Glass Co.) which was under Government control. At present it is manufactured by the Fukushima Glass Co. organized in 1896, Koldé Shoshi Seizosho (Koldé Glass Co.) established in 1898, Marasa Glass Co., organized in 1918, and the Kawai Shoshi Shokki Seizosho (Kawai Table Glassware Co.) organized in 1920, etc. Production by these and other manufacturers is given below.

Other Glass Articles Glass articles for scientific and medical purposes were manufactured as early as 1850. There are many manufacturers of these articles in Tokyo district.

The manufacturing of eye-glasses was first practised as early as 1600. In 1873, a certain Matsugoro Asakura from Tokyo, went to Austria and learned the art of manufacturing eye-glasses on modern principles. His son and several

others are now manufacturing them.

Red glass was manufactured by the Kagoshima clan prior to the Meiji Restoration, and later by the Shinagawa Shoshi Seizosho, which was under Government control. Also a certain Tokijiro Iwashiro succeeded in manufacturing lenses for the use of searchlights, and light-houses. The right of manufacturing these lenses was later transferred to the Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd. (The Nippon Optical Science Industrial Co., Ltd.). Iwashiro's son later succeeded in manufacturing cut glass.

Glasses for optical work were mostly imported from Germany before the World War, but when the supply was cut off by the war, it was determined that "lenses for optical science must be produced at home at any cost." The Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., to which all the results of studies made by the naval arsenal were transferred in 1914, and the Osaka Industrial Research Institute, which started research work in 1921, continued investigations. The Osaka Institute succeeded in 1925 in discovering a formula for manufacturing lenses, superior to German makes at reasonable cost. The Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., also succeeded in finding a way to make these lenses.

Glasses for the chemical industry, that is, hard glasses, are manufactured in several mills in Japan. High grade hard glass which is not in any degree inferior to the best imported is now manufactured by several firms for thermometers, gauges and the chemical industry.

Sheet Glass Though many efforts were previously made to manufacture sheet glass, it was not until 1904 that a Magoichi Shimoda, after two years of experimental manufacture, was successful

in producing a product that could be put on the market.

In 1907, the Asahi Glass Co., Ltd., was organized in Amagasaki, Hyogo prefecture, by the family of the late Baron Yanosuke Iwasaki. An expert and five skilled workmen were brought over from Belgium and commenced to manufacture sheet glass from 1909. The company struggled for 7 years against difficulties in technique and pressure of foreign competition, and in the end succeeded in producing about 120,000 cases a year. In 1914, a patent, which enabled the company to produce sheet glass by a mechanical process was bought from the American Window Glass Co., Ltd., and a factory was established at Makiyama in Tobata, Fukuoka prefecture. On account of the cutting off of imports from

Europe during the World War, the company not only increased production, but exported their products to places far afield as South Africa and London. In 1916, the company established a factory in Tsurumi, Yokohama, and in 1917 another in Yawata, Fukuoka prefecture. In 1923 and 1924, the factories in Makiyama and Tsurumi were extended, and at present the company is capitalized at ¥41,250,000 and has a productive capacity of 846,000,000 sq. feet, besides soda products, calcium chloride, fire brick and Corhart electrocast-brick. Its head office is now at Marunouchi, Tokyo.

At present the Asahi Glass Co., Ltd., the Nippon Sheet Glass Co., Ltd., the Nippon Thick Glass Co., Ltd., and the Tokunaga Sheet Glass Co., Ltd. are manufacturing sheet glasses.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF SHEET GLASS

(Unit: Case which contains 100 sq. feet of sheet glass)

	Production	Imports	Exports	Domestic Consumption
1930	2,045,611	356,752	57,897	2,344,466
1931	2,220,206	300,023	28,080	2,522,149
1932	2,305,626	247,144	51,204	2,501,566
1933	2,802,555	222,896	137,096	2,888,355
1934	2,897,747	179,476	282,183	2,794,040
1935	3,131,212	94,445	253,727	2,971,930
1936	3,487,096	137,740	251,207	3,373,629
1937	4,192,617	78,417	306,121	3,964,913
1938	2,552,129	10,076	262,217	2,299,988
1939 (estimate)	2,514,228	153	432,262	2,082,119

PRODUCTION OF GLASS AND GLASSWARE

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(Value in ¥1,000)

Year	For Decorative Purposes			For Illuminating Purposes			
	Table Ware	Beads & Balls	Arm Rings Others	Shades & Globes	Others	Bottles	
1930	2,870	893	859	79	838	244	14,765
1931	2,455	71	570	68	388	944	10,927
1932	4,193	373	683	357	391	733	11,193
1933	4,143	302	696	159	499	1,280	16,845
1934	5,454	469	853	246	471	1,414	20,349
1935	6,631	239	1,030	291	569	1,119	23,716
1936	6,472	423	1,972	227	1,928	754	25,319
1937	7,023	962	1,161	260	1,014	1,089	31,325
1938	6,531	604	1,163	217	798	1,505	42,895

(Quantity in 1,000; Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Sheet Glass Thickness under 2.2 mm.		Sheet Glass Thickness under 4 mm.		Others		Looking Glasses		Others and Total Value
	Quantity Cases	Value	Quantity Cases	Value	Quantity Cases	Value	Quantity Cases	Value	
1930	1,863	12,915	169	2,291	12	220	44	25	40,583
1931	2,104	13,690	99	1,010	16	332	53	128	34,338
1932	1,757	9,908	337	2,137	210	2,124	80	235	37,233
1933	2,039	15,237	427	3,988	335	3,147	74	288	52,526
1934	2,124	15,335	513	4,449	259	3,641	0.450	433	58,857
1935	1,009	7,642	1,770	14,196	350	5,141	0.270	368	68,173
1936	956	6,699	2,161	17,146	369	8,107	76	497	78,360
1937	3,320	27,465	570	7,779	301	5,444	0.560	721	96,375
1938	1,735	22,908	380	7,222	436	6,960	0.107	421	104,970

EXPORTS OF GLASS AND GLASSWARE

(Value in ¥1,000)

Kinds	1937		1938		1939	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Window glass in 1,000 sq. ft.	27,866	1,560	23,068	1,364	40,396	2,403
Thermos in 1,000 doz.	410	3,131	262	2,138	241	2,607
Glass bottles in 1,000 doz.	36,225	8,030	29,485	7,001	16,555	4,818
Glass cups in 1,000 doz.	8,942	5,064	6,311	3,583	7,488	4,567
Glass tableware in 1,000 doz.	2,238	2,541	1,831	1,571	1,241	1,351
Watch glasses in gross	146	183	148	172	139	159
Glass beads and balls in 100 kin	26,640	1,432	2,130	1,223	1,619	1,305
Looking glasses in 1,000 pcs.	87,896	3,955	66	2,981	57	3,597
Spectacles in 1,000 pcs.	30,792	3,243	18,183	1,657	13,736	1,200
Other glasses and manufactures	—	6,296	—	4,195	—	4,088
Total	—	33,572	—	25,886	—	27,055

IMPORTS OF GLASS

(Value in ¥1,000)

Kinds	1937		1938		1939	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Uncolored plate glass under 2.2 mm. in 1,000 sq. m.	590	584	54.8	71	0.1	0
Uncolored plate glass under 4 mm. in 1,000 sq. m.	18	107	7.7	52	0.5	4
Other uncolored plate glass in 1,000 sq. m.	46	609	14.6	566	1.3	96
Other plate glass in 1,000 sq. m.	72	292	16.4	71	0.1	28
Plate glass having inlaid metal wire or net in 1,000 sq. m.	19	133	2.1	18	—	—
Dry plates for photography in 100 kin	4	491	2	—	—	—
Others	—	1,770	—	1,723	—	1,259
Total	—	3,989	—	2,501	—	1,387

Matches

The Industry in the Past A factory for making matches was first established in Japan, in Tokyo, in April 1875, by a certain Makoto Shimizu, who had just returned from studying the subject in a French technical school

and a match factory managed by the French Government. In the same year a factory was established in Osaka, and in 1877 another was established in Kobe. In 1878, three years after the first factory was established, matches to the

value of ¥24,000 were exported, and in succession factories were established in Shizuoka, Aichi, Osaka and Hyogo prefectures. By 1889, not only had the importation of matches ceased, but large quantities, in face of strong foreign competition, were being exported to China. In 1887, Hyogo-ken Match Seizogyo Kumiai (Association of Manufacturers of Matches in Hyogo prefecture) was formed and in 1900 the Dogyo Kumiai (Association of Traders in Matches) was organized. The industry experienced great prosperity during the Russo-Japanese War, exports being made not only to China but also to the South Sea Islands, Straits Settlements and India. But from about that time the match industry began to develop in China and by 1908 it had developed to the extent that the market in China was considerably curtailed for the Japanese product, then when India raised her tariff on matches, and the Dutch East Indies imposed a consumption tax on them, exports of matches to countries in the Orient were considerably reduced. Exports for some time became almost negligibly small but in 1933, they suddenly increased to ¥3,248,000 from about ¥938,000 in 1932.

The development of the match industry during the World War was such as to make the industry a menace to the International Match Company. This company, therefore, commenced negotiations with and was successful in amalgamating the Nippon Match Manufacturing Co., Ltd., which was one of the Mitsui interests, and the Nippon Match Co., came under foreign management for three years, that is, until 1927, when the largest match manufacturer in Japan, the Toyo Match Co., Ltd., seeing the advantages which would accrue from co-operation with the International Match Company agreed to amalgamation. The Daido Match Co., Ltd. was organized with a capital equally subscribed by

Japan and Sweden, and the management was placed in Japanese hands, avoiding in this way competition in foreign markets.

Exports increased along with the development of the industry and as far back as 1913 Japan's match exports totalled some ¥12,000,000 after meeting the domestic demand. During the World War annual exports were between ¥30,000,000 and ¥40,000,000, forming one of the big ten export items of Japan.

Due to the rising importance of Soviet matches in international trade, Japan's shipments to the United States have fallen almost to the vanishing point.

When the Japanese match industry was influenced by Swedish interests the export field was limited to China and part of the South Seas, America, Australia, the Near East, Africa and Europe was monopolized by Swedish interests. After Kreuger's downfall Japanese match exporters took back their old markets. In 1936, the Japan Match Manufacturing and Trading Company was established by the amalgamation of several companies, and the industry and trade in matches became unified.

EXPORTS OF MATCHES

(Value in yen)

	1938	1939
China	2,053,000	2,434,000
Kwantung L. T.	638,000	630,000
Other countries	613,000	1,551,000
Total value	3,304,000	4,616,000
Total quantity in gross	519,000	614,000

Number of Factories The number of match factories in Japan was 153 with 8,110 operatives at the end of 1938.

Production of matches and allied articles in recent years has been as follows:

PRODUCTION OF MATCHES, ETC.

Year	Quantity Produced		Value (In yen)	Match-boxes Matchwood (Value in yen)	
	Gross	Net		Match-boxes	Matchwood
1930	16,722,653	—	7,464,081	645,765	600,047
1931	13,535,353	—	6,686,245	457,067	701,334
1932	18,234,683	—	7,306,721	764,905	613,939
1933	20,711,239	—	9,202,221	1,169,029	710,525
1934	20,597,615	—	10,033,567	550,947	616,915
1935	27,369,618	—	12,659,929	607,979	742,767
1936	21,874,973	—	11,824,397	831,624	1,572,439
1937	23,969,588	—	12,544,564	807,520	1,576,001
1938	22,869,636	—	13,303,408	849,920	2,293,793

Lacquer-ware

Industry Inherent Japan is the only country in the world enjoying world-wide renown in the technical art of lacquer-ware manufacture. The various industrial arts of Japan such as the porcelainic and weaving owe their origin to China or Western countries, but as regards lacquer, Japan acknowledges no teacher. From remote antiquity, especially in the technique of relief lacquer, the art has developed without aid from any foreign methods of manufacture or materials. For more than two thousand years the craftsmen of Japan, having striven to improve, finally attained a degree of wonderful skill. The production of lacquer-ware is confined to Oriental countries only,—Japan, China, Korea and India,—where lacquer juice, known as urushi, is obtainable, although there is an evident tendency in Western countries in recent years to manufacture lacquer-ware of industrial art value. The application of mother of pearl, known as nacre work, became common during the Nara period. A large number of ancient examples of lacquer-ware that have served as models for succeeding generations are still kept in the Shosoin, the Imperial Treasure House in Nara. These represent products of the Tempyo era, when even large wooden buildings were lacquered. Among such buildings left standing are the Chuson Temple in Iwate prefecture and the Hyodoin Temple in Kyoto prefecture. Embossed lacquer-ware was invented during the Kamakura Age, when tasteful designs of chrysanthemums and other flowers were in vogue.

From Toyotomi Downward A golden mother of pearl inkstone case in embossed lacquer with a chrysanthemum design is now treasured in the Hachiman Shrine at Kamakura. The pomp and glory of the third Ashikaga Shogun stimulated the art and resulted in the perfecting of embossed lacquer work and the extension of its application to articles of daily necessity. Hideyoshi Toyotomi accomplished his gigantic task

of pacifying the country. Grandeur was a unique feature of his administrative policy and social and other life in those days. The grand Momoyama style, named after his palace, reflected on the industrial arts. Koetsu relief lacquer was supreme and Kodaiji relief lacquer was also produced, representative lacquer products of those days. When the third Tokugawa Shogun, Iyemitsu, came into power, he erected the great Nikko mausoleum and Zojoji Temple at Shiba, Tokyo for his grandfather and father respectively, and lacquer was amply applied to these buildings. During the reign of the fifth Shogun, Tsunayoshi, an exquisite technique attained its zenith, defying all the imitative powers of succeeding generations. It was applied to scabbards of swords, miniature medicine-cases (known as inro) and various articles used by the Daimyo. Notable lacquerers such as Koami Chofu, Koma Ikyu, Ogata Korin and others flourished during this period. Since that time the production of lacquer has spread to various localities throughout the country, and unique local color has been freely introduced into the design. Competition ensued as in all industrial articles, and some of the products of those days were exported abroad. Japanese industrial arts were almost wholly neglected during several years following the Meiji Restoration. Lacquered articles of artistic value were sold at ridiculously low prices and these were purchased by foreigners who had eyes for their value and who took them to their own countries. This provided an opportunity to introduce the Japanese lacquer art to foreign countries, but at the same time Japan lost many articles of both aesthetic and monetary value. (Information on the industrial art are given in the Japan Year Book, 1939-40, pp. 546, 547.)

Production

Production of lacquer-ware in recent years was as follows:

FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION OF LACQUER-WARE

Year	Factories Operatives		Tableware	Furniture	Others	Total
	(In yen)	(In yen)				
1932	10,267	28,794	10,851,938	6,918,301	8,802,670	26,632,909
1933	10,784	30,431	12,139,600	8,012,675	9,419,390	29,571,665
1934	12,223	37,641	13,366,815	9,437,231	13,507,713	36,311,759

LACQUER-WARE

Year	Factories Operatives		Tableware	Furniture	Others	Total
	(In yen)	(In yen)				
1935	11,170	36,217	14,189,283	9,983,004	14,227,619	38,399,906
1936	12,727	39,599	16,869,770	10,659,162	15,031,075	42,560,007
1937	11,874	35,093	18,106,008	12,106,268	13,801,216	44,013,492
1938	11,670	34,813	16,452,159	12,450,203	17,180,686	46,083,048

VALUE OF EXPORTS OF LACQUER-WARE

(In ¥1,000)			
Year	Value	Year	Value
1932	1,195	1936	2,098
1933	2,371	1937	2,395
1934	2,570	1938	1,444
1935	2,513	1939	1,562

Tobacco

The tobacco industry and wholesale business in Japan are monopolized by the Government by virtue of the Manufactured Tobacco Monopoly Law of 1904 and the regulations issued in 1931. The imports of manufactured tobacco gradually decreased in recent years to

be entirely stopped in 1939. The production of the Monopoly Bureau factories barely supplies the domestic demand. The trade and production of various kinds of tobacco in recent years was as follows:

PRODUCTION OF TOBACCO

(Monopoly Bureau, Finance Ministry)

(Unit: 1,000 pieces)

	1936	1937	1938
Cigarettes, mouthed	10,987,371	10,473,230	10,338,141
Cigarettes, without mouthpiece	28,806,713	30,107,355	31,599,960
Cigars	1,627	1,223	739,120
Cut tobacco in kilogram	21,198,772	21,601,591	20,178,924
Pipe tobacco in kilogram	9,485	6,565	3,635

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF TOBACCO

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Exports		Imports	
	1936	1937	1938	1939
1937	4,407	6,593	6,904	693
1938	5,974	3,359		

Production of Other Industries

There are innumerable industries figures for which it will not be possible to give in this volume. Only the important industries, together with total production figures are given below. Sources used are the "Factory Statistics" published by the Statistics Section, the Secretariat for the Minister of Commerce and Industry, and the "Statistics for Commerce and Industry" published by the same office.

PRODUCTION OF METALLIC INDUSTRY

Value in ¥1,000

	1936	1937	1938
Metal refining & material	1,488,916	2,416,700	3,171,407
Casting:			
Pig-iron	112,855	205,962	333,999
Cast steel	23,650	50,194	91,018

	1936	1937	1938
Other cast metals	20,814	36,471	69,216
Total	167,538	306,565	516,948
Bolt, nut, washer	21,095	39,123	57,314
Rivet	5,964	11,186	12,961
Nail	21,368	33,306	37,024
(Iron nail)	(15,522)	(25,977)	(25,104)
Needle	3,491	3,965	4,379
Chain	4,850	6,272	11,193
Rope	16,367	23,321	31,334
Wire	7,190	11,503	19,848
Wire-netting	5,771	7,938	9,930
Tin-plate manufactures (can)	90,667 (53,739)	134,313 (69,699)	180,065 (88,268)
Iron furniture	23,424	28,885	28,908
Building materials	63,725	82,541	80,906
Copper and bronze wares	710	1,103	284
Aluminum wares	15,030	15,625	22,701
Button	2,060	2,806	2,693
Pen nibs	3,482	4,102	4,019
(Fountain-pen nibs)	(2,641)	(2,929)	(2,228)
Razor	857	974	1,430
Table knife, fork, spoon	2,011	2,428	2,743
Toy	3,710	6,188	3,762
Total including others	353,079	491,794	615,728
Plated articles	121,187	163,546	159,284
Grand Total	2,130,719	3,376,275	4,463,368

PRODUCTION OF BRICKS AND OTHER FIRE-PROOF ARTICLES

Value in ¥1,000

	1936	1937	1938
Bricks	3,329	3,916	5,034
Bricks, fire-proof	19,327	26,278	49,549
Other fire-proof articles	4,889	6,989	9,634
Total	27,545	37,183	64,218

PRODUCTION OF THE KILN INDUSTRY

(Not mentioned elsewhere)

Value in ¥1,000

	1936	1937	1938
Cement manufactures			
Tiles	811	778	1,327
Pipes	4,000	5,617	8,823
Slates	6,671	12,067	10,951
Others	2,378	3,628	5,308
Total	13,861	22,091	26,409
Lime	8,498	13,672	14,842
Enamelled ironwares	17,970	21,841	21,719

PRODUCTION OF WOOD-WORKS

Value in ¥1,000

	1936	1937	1938
Clogs, etc.	21,158	23,974	29,662
Turnery	12,907	14,867	15,505
Chlp-work	4,515	6,525	6,562
Joinery	96,821	102,975	106,623
Boxes	49,803	60,930	72,263
Barrels and palls	21,869	23,487	26,329
Chopsticks	2,414	2,868	3,229
Total	209,484	235,628	260,176
Number of houses	109,471	105,968	101,008
Number of operations	229,625	227,840	217,355
Sawing	151,744	201,207	255,007

EARNINGS OF PRINTING HOUSES

Amount in ¥1,000

Year	Amount
1936	225,705
1937	258,519
1938	264,836

PRODUCTION OF MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES

(Not mentioned elsewhere)

Value in ¥1,000

	1936	1937	1938
Paper goods:			
Boxes	14,005	15,608	21,703
Tags	912	940	1,169
Toys	492	925	758
Fans (Sensu)	96	193	129
Fans (Uchiwa)	541	649	682
Lanterns	552	619	682
Note-books	5,415	4,492	7,799
Total including others	58,092	75,456	95,263
Bamboo goods:			
Baskets	9,574	9,935	10,280
Blinds (Sudaré)	1,327	1,247	1,311
Total including others	11,297	11,628	12,038
Wicker goods (Yanagi-gōri)	3,857 (2,680)	3,469 (2,574)	3,570 (2,474)
Cane-work (Cane table and chair)	2,439 (1,345)	2,427 (1,358)	2,124 (1,114)
Mat (Tatami omoté)	14,705	17,176	21,037
Mat (Goza and Hanamushiro)	9,223	11,524	18,427
Straw, chip and other braids	5,101	7,936	6,046
Leather	45,945	68,883	102,270

	1936	1937	1938		1936	1937	1938
Leather goods				Imitation panama	498	764	665
Shoes	27,474	29,742	25,215	Total including others	22,469	27,148	19,326
Bags	4,682	4,820	3,343	Waterproof cloth	3,622	11,229	20,360
Saddlery	1,863	2,935	6,216	Rubber cloth	4,030	3,703	14,175
Belt	5,233	5,097	6,362	Imitation leather cloth	6,526	7,678	10,690
Small bags	2,530	2,504	3,695	Fabric materials for medical treatment	8,908	13,654	23,492
Total	41,784	45,101	44,834	Asbestine articles	9,587	12,080	23,261
Button (shell, ivory, bone)	5,257	7,449	7,509	Metallic foil (Gold-foil)	9,159 (1,457)	9,213 (566)	6,462 (579)
Imitation pearl	1,343	807	688	Writing brush (Fudé)	164	237	603
Brushes (Tooth brush)	6,511 (3,245)	7,500 (4,297)	8,119 (4,946)	Fountainpen	3,081	2,926	4,190
Rope (fibrous)	35,122	48,514	50,759	Pencil	4,631	5,430	5,613
Foreign style clothes	29,501	33,994	41,303	Crayon	1,318	1,324	1,489
Underwears	11,552	19,596	20,269	Paper umbrella	240	1,504	844
Japanese socks	42,698	54,675	54,474	Umbrella	288	652	1,001
Handkerchief	508	1,247	924	Imitation flower	120	200	291
Hat:				Stone goods	5,214	5,819	3,399
Felt	16,853	19,862	13,040				
Straw	1,484	1,369	1,083				

EARNINGS BY WORKERS IN FINISHING, MENDING, ETC.

(Unit: ¥1,000)

For	1936	1937	1938
Spinning and weaving industry	279,789	321,399	338,466
Metallic industry	21,560	34,216	57,231
Machinery industry	95,245	123,257	222,854
Kiln industry	4,412	8,760	5,667
Chemical industry	5,651	9,218	12,392
Wood work	11,992	11,463	12,483
Printing and binding	6,236	7,341	10,684
Foodstuff industry	2,449	3,747	6,741
Miscellaneous industry	21,790	28,848	57,268
Total	449,128	548,254	723,790

CHAPTER XXIII COMMUNICATIONS

General

The communications of the country are supervised by the Minister of Communications and a special account is established for the management of this business, beginning with the fiscal year 1934-1935. General condition of the business in Japan proper in 1938-1939 may be obtained from the following:

Post, telegraph and telephone officials and operatives (Sept. 30, 1939)	183,804
Post, telegraph and telephone offices (Sept. 30, 1939)	15,707
Ordinary mail routes (Mar. 31, 1939) in km.	100,722
Ordinary mails accepted (1938-39)	4,844,384,134
Ordinary mails delivered (1938-39)	4,315,098,400
Parcel post routes (Mar. 31, 1935) in km.	85,385
Parcels accepted (1938-39)	77,848,661

Parcels delivered (1938-39)	90,459,389
Telegraph routes (Mar. 31, 1939) in km.	40,293
Telegraph lines (Mar. 31, 1939) in km.	374,452
Telegraphs dispatched (1938-39)	94,991,985
Telegraphs received (1938-39)	100,629,605
Telephone subscribers (Sept. 30, 1939)	1,006,498
Telephone routes (Mar. 31, 1939) in km.	87,175
Telephone lines (Mar. 31, 1939) in km.	7,843,658
Telephones (1937-38)	1,549,131
Telephone messages (1938-39)	4,976,321,936
Income from postage (1937-38)	92,261,160
(1938-39)	90,550,850
Business expenditure (1937-38)	322,951,846
(1938-39)	366,366,399

Postal Service

Historical Survey

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

Foreign Mail Opens In March 1872, a foreign mail service was opened at the same time as the establishment of official postal regulations. In those days, foreign mail matter in Japan was handled with the aid of the British, American and French post offices in Yokohama, Kobe and Nagasaki. Soon after

the conclusion of the America-Japan Mail Service Treaty in 1873, the American post offices were withdrawn from this country, and Japan was thus placed on an equal footing with the U.S.A. as regards the mail service between the two countries. In 1877, an arrangement was made with twenty-five countries participating in the International Mail Service Treaty. Thereupon, the British and the French post offices were also withdrawn from this country.

The post offices were at first classified into five grades, and in March 1886, they were classified into three as at present. In view of the development of telephone and telegraph business, the authorities introduced a revision in the system of the Communications Ministry in 1903, and divided post offices into post, telegraph, and telephone offices each of them being classified into 1st, 2nd and 3rd, or 1st and 2nd in the case of telephone offices. With the rapid increase in the amount of mail matter and

telephone and telegraphic messages, the regulations of the Communications Ministry as to the number and kind of offices, were extended from time to time, and at present there are offices in warships, steamers, trains, etc., in addition to the network throughout the country.

The air mail service was commenced in 1929 with the establishment of the Japan Air Transport Company in April of the same year.

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

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

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

On March 31 of	No. of P.O.
1930	9,690
1931	9,954
1932	10,203
1933	10,322
1934	10,611
1935	10,891
1936	11,258
1937	11,669
1938	12,138
1939 (Dec. 1)	12,803

Post offices are classified into three grades, namely 1st, 2nd and 3rd, the 1st being, side by side with 2nd and

3rd offices, in such important places as Tokyo, Osaka, and other leading cities. The 2nd and 3rd are in smaller cities, towns and villages throughout the country. Those of the 1st and 2nd grade are government offices under direct government management. In post offices of the 3rd class, business is conducted on the contract system.

Its Business

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

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

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

Statistical Tables The following tables indicate the volume of business, handled by the post offices, and the increase in the amount of their work:

NUMBER OF POST OFFICES (September 30, 1939)

	Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	Islands
1st Class	113	12	—	—	—	—
2nd Class	275	11	5	121	—	—
3rd Class	11,543	171	85	—	23	11
Minor offices	872	—	—	31	80	—
Total	12,803	194	90	152	103	11

COMMUNICATIONS

VOLUME OF MAIL MATTER HANDLED
IN JAPAN PROPER

	Ordinary Mail	Parcel Post	Total	Percentage of Increase
1930-1931:				
Despatched	4,409,551,651	60,067,753	4,469,619,404	(-)0.02
Received	4,437,939,812	57,724,887	4,495,664,699	0.18
1931-1932:				
Despatched	4,409,202,875	58,201,931	4,584,404,806	1.08
Received	4,532,477,443	55,654,599	4,588,132,042	(-)1.35
1932-1933:				
Despatched	4,253,259,031	58,472,313	4,312,231,344	(-)0.36
Received	4,294,100,596	54,849,774	4,348,950,370	0.34
1933-1934:				
Despatched	4,357,325,600	61,240,342	4,418,565,942	0.25
Received	4,402,200,835	57,762,972	4,459,963,807	0.26
1934-1935:				
Despatched	4,674,986,977	65,073,439	4,740,060,406	0.73
Received	4,772,868,449	61,847,673	4,834,716,122	0.84
1935-1936:				
Despatched	4,735,348,007	68,291,938	4,803,639,947	0.13
Received	4,901,685,581	64,854,932	4,966,540,513	0.27
1936-1937:				
Despatched	4,842,938,022	72,593,332	4,915,531,354	2.32
Received	4,934,414,563	68,185,892	5,002,600,455	0.72
1937-1938:				
Despatched	4,763,778,174	80,529,155	4,844,307,329	(-)1.44
Received	5,032,459,307	72,614,786	5,105,274,093	2.05
1938-1939:				
Despatched	4,315,098,400	90,459,389	4,405,557,789	(-)0.91
Received	4,844,384,134	77,848,001	4,922,232,795	(-)0.36

VOLUME OF MAIL MATTER HANDLED DURING 1938-39
IN THE EMPIRE

	Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Mandated Islands
Ordinary mail						
Domestic mail						
Despatched	4,192,061,924	101,091,607	24,156,172	350,138,036	48,553,981	2,386,336
Collection post	6,461,435	463,570	10,702	504,277	16,111	2
Received	4,737,238,448	81,051,579	31,804,800	384,345,435	54,286,382	4,038,250
Collection post	—	321,967	58,385	734,652	41,024	1,001
Foreign mail						
Despatched	113,036,476	619,423	257,633	312,669	291,120	9,809
Received	107,145,686	784,131	267,410	990,528	421,920	12,611
Parcel post						
Domestic						
Despatched	87,548,897	1,368,906	307,624	3,251,131	517,704	27,247
Received	77,263,106	835,639	721,500	4,627,351	612,964	86,748
Foreign						
Despatched	2,910,492	4,881	6,789	7,595	790	44
Received	585,555	19,524	414	4,988	16,083	48
Total						
Despatched	4,405,557,789	103,084,817	24,728,218	353,709,431	49,363,595	2,423,436

MONEY ORDERS

	Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Mandated Islands
Collection post	6,461,435	463,570	10,702	504,277	16,111	2
Received	4,922,232,795	87,690,873	32,794,124	289,968,302	55,337,349	4,137,657
Collection post	—	321,967	58,385	734,652	41,024	1,001

Postal Money Order can hardly be included into the business of communications. It is, however, one of the important lines of business handled by the post office for the convenience of the large mass of people. The number and amount of postal money orders handled during 1938-39 are given below:

POSTAL MONEY ORDERS IN 1938-39
DOMESTIC

Territory	Issued		Paid	
	No.	Amount (In yen)	No.	Amount (In yen)
Japan Proper	45,379,728	1,023,237,511	47,259,892	1,079,573,474
Taiwan	1,362,037	42,545,027	796,453	27,061,209
Karafuto	653,637	24,366,044	318,604	13,652,238
Chosen	5,172,108	180,011,212	4,424,808	158,173,112
Kwantung Leased Territory	505,734	13,749,678	189,187	6,134,532
South Sea Mandated Islands	131,323	12,343,221	24,782	8,037,242

FOREIGN

Territory	No.	Amount (In yen)	No.	Amount (In yen)
Japan Proper	403,237	16,284,511	2,380,747	78,786,037
Taiwan	19,499	735,664	8,744	335,665
Karafuto	2,075	89,173	8,198	508,248
Chosen	128,570	6,366,407	395,751	15,831,261
Kwantung Leased Territory	57,528	2,014,656	233,122	7,540,149
South Sea Mandated Islands	136	9,112	183	11,960

The number of postal money orders issued in Japan proper has been constantly on the increase since 1875 when the business was first opened while the amount reached its highest mark in 1926 and continued to decrease for 5 years until it began to regain the upward tendency in 1933.

POSTAL MONEY ORDERS IN JAPAN PROPER

Fiscal year	Number	Increase (In percentage)	Amount (In yen)	Increase (In percentage)
1925-26:				
Issued	30,400,558	1.14	749,757,291	0.77
Paid	31,888,323	1.04	797,891,087	0.57
1929-30:				
Issued	31,233,521	0.27	673,278,926	-1.02
Paid	32,820,607	0.29	715,000,527	-1.40
1931-32:				
Issued	31,877,079	0.21	654,639,462	-0.28
Paid	33,674,636	0.26	700,624,150	-0.20
1932-33:				
Issued	33,360,209	0.47	683,634,657	0.44
Paid	35,345,114	0.50	735,961,393	0.50

COMMUNICATIONS

Fiscal year	Number	Increase (In percentage)	Amount (In yen)	Increase (In percentage)
1934-35:				
Issued	35,371,007	0.60	723,592,083	0.58
Paid	37,539,575	0.62	784,338,121	0.66
1935-36:				
Issued	36,926,278	0.44	751,734,983	0.39
Paid	39,348,351	0.48	817,399,466	0.42
1936-37:				
Issued	38,146,546	0.33	786,476,088	0.46
Paid	40,591,334	0.29	850,615,079	0.53
1937-38:				
Issued	40,496,288	0.61	863,746,668	0.98
Paid	42,718,148	0.52	926,219,020	0.88
1938-39:				
Issued	45,379,728	1.21	1,023,237,511	1.85
Paid	47,259,892	1.06	1,079,573,474	1.66

Telegraph Service

Telegraph service in Japan was started in August, 1869, but this was for Governmental messages exclusively. Public telegraph service was started in September of the same year between Tokyo and Yokohama. Telegrams in European languages were despatched for the first time in April, 1870. In August of the same year Osaka and Kobe began to exchange telegraph messages. In June, 1871 the laying of the submarine cable between Nagasaki and Shanghai was completed. In February, 1873,

aerial lines connected Tokyo and Nagasaki and telegraph service for districts along the lines was opened. In January, 1879, Japan entered the international telegraph association. With revisions of rules and laws in subsequent years the business was started on a fair and steady road of progress. Wireless telegraph service was installed in 1908, and telegraphic picture transmission was undertaken from August 1930. Statistics on the telegraph services follow:

TELEGRAPH STATIONS IN JAPAN PROPER

Year	Number	Increase in the Year	Year	Number	Increase in the Year
1930-1931	7,631	620	1935-1936	8,951	756
1931-1932	7,813	78	1936-1937	9,678	727
1932-1933	7,813	104	1937-1938	11,469	1,791
1933-1934	7,942	129	1938-1939	12,735	1,266
1934-1935	8,215	273	1939-1940	13,648	914

NUMBER OF TELEGRAPH OFFICES, SEPTEMBER 30, 1939

	Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	China	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
1st class	8				3	15	—
Wireless	—				—	1	—
2nd class	47	4	2	11	—	—	—
Wireless	22	w.3	w.2	w.11	—	—	—
Land	22				—	—	—
S.S.	21				—	—	—
Post & telegraph offices	10,745	185	89	837	—	21	11
Minor offices	2,425	38	32	162	—	90	1
Wireless	16	3	—	21	—	66	1
Land	16				—	—	—
S.S.	1,080	8	—	—	—	—	—
Air	3	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	13,648	227	123	1,010	3	126	12

TELEGRAPH

TELEGRAMS HANDLED IN 1938-1939

	Domestic Messages	Foreign Messages
Japan Proper (Japan—Manchuria included)	Despatched 75,838,875 Delivered 81,758,927	1,261,295 1,264,133
Taiwan	Despatched 2,076,497 Delivered 2,159,409	25,756 38,016
Karafuto	Despatched 1,264,498 Delivered 1,214,208	496 670
Chosen	Despatched 11,698,936 Delivered 11,473,128	11,639 14,204
P. O. in China	Despatched 95,996 Delivered 107,056	234,394 218,990
Kwantung Leased Territory	Despatched 1,813,222 Delivered 1,793,760	238,037 240,692
South Sea Islands	Despatched 429,952 Delivered 345,146	2,392 1,266

YEARLY COMPARISON OF NUMBERS OF TELEGRAMS HANDLED

((1932-1938))

	Domestic	Foreign	Total	Increase or Decrease in %
1932-33:				
Despatch	54,065,046	1,254,430	55,319,476	de 0.24
Arrival	56,281,163	1,243,925	57,525,088	de 0.25
1933-34:				
Despatch	56,529,921	1,237,193	57,767,114	in 0.44
Arrival	58,843,016	1,242,847	60,085,863	in 0.45
1934-35:				
Despatch	59,173,906	1,262,539	60,436,445	in 0.46
Arrival	61,591,759	1,272,011	62,863,770	in 0.46
1935-36:				
Despatch	62,433,347	1,321,910	63,755,257	in 0.55
Arrival	65,544,777	1,329,789	66,874,566	in 0.64
1936-37:				
Despatch	64,842,865	1,475,353	66,318,218	in 0.40
Arrival	68,521,989	1,448,560	69,970,549	in 0.46
1937-38:				
Despatch	72,629,960	1,434,325	74,064,285	in 1.18
Arrival	77,583,878	1,407,762	78,991,640	in 1.28
1938-39:				
Despatch	93,217,976	1,774,009	94,991,985	in 2.83
Arrival	98,851,634	1,777,971	100,629,605	in 2.74

LENGTH OF INLAND TELEGRAPH LINES

	Km.	As compared with the previous year	Km.	As compared with the previous year
March 31, 1939				
Land lines				
Cores	28,450	— 267		
Underground lines				
Routes	789	— 2		
Cores	99,720	+ 325		
Submarine cables				
Lines	15,449	+ 14		
Cores	19,882	+ 13		
Aerial lines, routes	32,913	— 446		
" " lines	226,400	— 1,662		
Overhead cables				
Routes	142	+ 18		

PNEUMATIC TUBES

March 31, 1938

	Metre	As compared with the previous year
Length of routes	78,657	+ 9,067
Length of tubes	159,568	+18,359

FREQUENCIES AND HOURS OF FAULTS OF INLAND TELEGRAPH

1937-1938

Land and underground lines:		
Contacts:		
Frequency		3,990
Hour		18,392
Earth:		
Frequency		3,859
Hour		20,184
Disconnection:		
Frequency		3,273
Hour		11,385
Leakage:		
Frequency		382
Hour		4,040
Others:		
Frequency		1,480
Hour		2,191
Total:		
Frequency		12,984
Hour		58,192
As compared with the previous year:		
Frequency		+ 188
Hour		+ 627
Submarine cables:		
Frequency		72
Hour		124,772
As compared with the previous year:		
Frequency		- 29
Hour		+ 47,743

TELEGRAPHIC APPARATUSES

1937-38

Telephones for telegraph service	8,622
Ink writers	2
Sounders	5,918
Automatic telegraphs, duplex	178
Undulator and alphon recorders	17
Printing duplex telegraphs	84
Phototelegraphs	5
Telegraph repeaters	183
Portable telegraphs	24
Automatic telegraph repeaters	2
Simple exchange machines	2
Total	15,037

Wireless Telegraph Service

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

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

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

International Communication The extension of wireless communication with other countries started in Japan in 1915, when messages were exchanged between Otchishi station and Petropavlosk in Kamchatka. In 1916, the Funabashi station succeeded in exchanging messages with Hawaii. In 1920, the Iwaki station was established for handling messages between Japan and America. In 1925, the Government issued a law establishing the Japan Wireless Telegraph Company with a capital of ¥20,000,000, with a view to becoming absolutely independent of foreign telegraph companies, with whose co-operation Japan had been exchanging wireless messages with all other countries, except America, Russia, and China.

The Government transferred to the Company its Iwaki radio plant and the ground at Yosami and Yokkaichi which it was holding with the intention of erecting radio stations for the services with countries in Europe.

The Company was reorganized in March 1938 and assumed the name of the International Tele-Communications Company, increasing its capital to ¥25,000,000 and absorbing the International Telephone Company.

The Company has, according to the Law, to equip and manage the facilities and then rent them to the Ministry of Communications in consideration of a subsidy. Although many improvements were introduced at considerable outlay over all former installations of Iwaki radio plant by the Company, the advent of short-wave methods compelled it to close the stations upon the completion of its new stations at Oyama and Fukuoka.

The Company's circuits now offer from Nagoya direct communication service with England, France, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, Poland, Holland, Mexico and Brazil; and from Tokyo the circuits reach out to North and South America, Hawaii, the Philippines, French Indo-China, Thai, Dutch Indies, British India, and Syria. The Company has an extensive plan of development which will in future place Japan in direct touch with all the important countries of the world.

The Company now places the following stations in daily twenty-four hour service:

(a) Transmitting station at Oyama, near Tokyo.

Receiving station at Fukuoka, near Tokyo.

(b) Transmitting station at Yosami, near Nagoya.

Receiving station at Yokkaichi, near Nagoya.

Stations (a) are used for direct communication with San Francisco, Buenos Aires, Honolulu, Manila, Saigon, Bangkok, Bandoeng (Java), Bombay and Beirut (Syria); and, stations (b) for direct communication with London, Paris, Berlin, Rome, Geneva and Warsaw.

Number of telegrams dealt with at wireless telegraph offices in the past five years was as follows:

	Domestic	Foreign
1933-34:		
Despatched	426,705	53,999
Received	283,616	26,110
1934-35:		
Despatched	537,373	63,856
Received	327,041	30,647
1935-36:		
Despatched	552,718	41,112
Received	314,338	25,418
1936-37:		
Despatched	581,691	49,404
Received	336,186	31,648
1937-38:		
Despatched	655,006	43,050
Received	362,759	24,076

Telephone Service

According to the latest statistics, the number of telephone exchange offices in Japan proper was 5,804 in September and that of subscribers 981,920 in March 1937.

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

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE EXCHANGE AND MESSAGE OFFICES

Sept. 30, 1939

	Exchange Offices	Other Offices
Japan proper	6,197	11,217
Taiwan	122	62
Karafuto	46	109
Chosen	274	863
Kwantung Leased Territory	4	126
South Sea Islands	5	3

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS IN JAPAN PROPER

Total Applicants for Subscribers Subscription

1930-31	715,020	176,900
1931-32	729,914	172,150
1932-33	761,136	167,276
1933-34	796,538	161,857
1934-35	830,041	154,345
1935-36	870,476	145,049
1936-37	914,320	134,819
1937-38	914,930	124,806
1938-39	1,006,498	—

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS IN THE TERRITORIES

Sept. 30, 1939

Territories	Subscribers
Taiwan	21,003
Karafuto	6,534
Chosen	53,993
Kwantung Leased Territory	16,889
South Sea Islands	990

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE MESSAGES IN JAPAN PROPER

Year	In the Same Subscription Districts		With Other Districts	
	Messages between Subscribers	Hours of Conversations at Offices and Public Telephones	Requests for Calling out	Hours of Conversation
1933-34	3,564,536,772	36,949,570	43,165	211,604,540
1934-35	3,783,991,018	40,202,841	42,124	236,789,514
1935-36	3,984,266,968	44,791,390	44,494	273,789,863
1936-37	4,412,775,259	51,439,100	61,496	307,733,439
1937-38	4,976,321,936	59,852,742	70,164	342,590,232

FREQUENCIES OF FAULTS WITH URBAN TELEPHONES IN JAPAN PROPER, 1937-1938

Faults in exchange offices	724,350	As Compared with the Previous Year
		+206,135
" subscribers	636,964	- 17,360
" on routes	363,884	- 5,053
Total	1,725,198	+183,722

LENGTH OF TELEPHONE LINES IN JAPAN PROPER 1937-1938

Land lines	Km.	As Compared with the Previous Year
		+ 6,239
Aerial lines, routes	65,921	+ 28,986
" lines	625,633	+ 4,097
Overhead cables, routes	11,629	+315,459
" cores	2,268,169	
Underground lines		+ 741
Routes	4,680	+532,429
Cores	4,711,541	
Submarine cables		+ 324
Lines	1,411	+ 58,203
Cores	67,061	

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE APPARATUSES (Japan Proper in 1937-38)

Magnetic and electric telephone exchanges	12,459	Line finders	5,930
Automatic telephone exchanges	576	Connecters	49,180
Line switches	329,461	Selectors	132,206
		Telephones	1,014,336
		Public telephones	4,983

Wireless Telephone Service

The first experiment with wireless telephony in Japan was made in 1911 by the Communications Ministry with very satisfactory results. It was in 1923, however, that the service was opened for public use between Kobe city and steamers in the harbor. In 1926, this service was extended to Moji. The result being satisfactory, the Government decided further to extend the service and in December 1932, the In-

ternational Telephone Company, with a capital of ¥10,000,000, was established through the solicitation of the Communications Ministry to build up stations for the use of the Government and private bodies. This was done to facilitate wireless telephone service between Japan and the world, Japan's colonies and ships at sea. The transmitting station of the company is established at Nazaki, Ibaraki prefecture, and the receiving station at Komuro, Saitama prefecture, and these stations are connected with

each other and with the Tokyo Central Telephone Office by cables. Wireless telephones are now available between Tokyo, Nagoya, Kanazawa, Kobe, Osaka, Kyoto, Yokohama, Toyohashi, Nara, Himéji, Shimonoséki, Fuku, Fukuoka, Yawata, Wakamatsu, Nishinomiya, Amagasaki and Suna. The service has been opened between Formosa and Tokyo, on June 20, 1934.

In 1934-35 international wireless telephone service was successively opened between Japan and Manchoukuo, U. S. A., Canada, Mexico, Cuba, Philippines, Dutch East Indies, Sumatra, England, and Germany. The service with other

28 European countries was opened in July 1935, with China in February 1936, with Cape Town and Brazil in April 1936, with Saigon in May 1936, and with Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, French-Indo-China, Thai, and Union of South Africa in 1937.

Rates for the first 3 minutes range from ¥80 to ¥92 for European countries and from ¥72 to ¥95 for the U.S.A., the highest being ¥164 for Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. (See the Appendix)

Telephotograph Service This service is available between Tokyo, Osaka, Taiwan and Mukden, and between Tokyo and London.

Radio

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

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

Shortly afterwards, small stations were established in Osaka and Nagoya, which form with Tokyo the three largest population centres. The engineers in charge of these stations were sceptical about their success. There was no assurance that the Japanese public would respond by buying radio sets and listening in, or would like the programs once

they were heard. These fears, however, were groundless. For a time there were not enough receiving sets in the stores to meet the demand. Instead of a novelty, the radio became a daily necessity. Elated at their success, the promoters worked out a plan to centralize all the broadcasting in the country, which was heartily approved by the Ministry of Communications. Before the end of a year, the stations in Tokyo, Osaka and Nagoya were merged, and the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan was formed to assure nationwide cooperation in meeting the demand for more efficient stations and better programs. The present number of broadcasting stations is 7 with 28 sub-stations.

Program Hours The working hours of each broadcasting station in Japan differ a little according to their local conditions as well as the seasons of the year. According to the report of the JOAK, the average broadcasting hours per day in 1938 were 11 hours and 26 minutes in the general broadcasting and 4 hours and 36 minutes in the broadcasting for cities.

The first program of the day is sent out at 6.00 a.m. (from April to October) and at 6.30 a.m. (from November to March), and the closing announcements of the day's program go on the air at 10.30 p.m.

Overseas Broadcast

The Broadcasting Corporation of Japan inaugurated daily short wave broadcast, under the name of "Overseas Broadcast" on June 1, 1935 with the object of furnishing the residents in foreign countries with accurate informa-

tion about Japan and of introducing the culture of Japan.

The programs of this broadcast consist of news in Japanese and English, music, entertainment, talk and eyewitness accounts of various sport events and other subjects, specially selected to present a true and interesting glimpse of the real Japan to listeners abroad.

At present, five separate programs are being sent out on five transmissions: namely, (1) Europe, (2) South America, (3) the Eastern Part of North America,

(4) the Pacific Coast of North America and Hawaii, and (5) China and the South Seas, Indo-China, Malay Peninsula, India and the East Indies. Furthermore, preparations have now virtually been completed for another extension, that is the setting up of two more transmissions so that two new, separate programs may be sent out,—one directed to Hawaii, the other to the Near East. In the near future, these two new transmissions will be formally opened for overseas broadcasting service.

Short-wave transmissions to the above-mentioned directions are as follows:

For EUROPE

Call Sign: JZK 15,160 kc/s (19.79 m.) JZJ 11,800 kc/s (25.42 m.)
Time: 4:00—6:00 a.m., Tokyo Time (19:00—21:00 GMT)

For SOUTH AMERICAN COUNTRIES

Call Sign: JZK 15,160 kc/s (19.79 m.) JZJ 11,800 kc/s (25.42 m.)
Time: 6:30—7:30 a.m., Tokyo Time (21:30—22:30 GMT)

For the EASTERN DISTRICTS of NORTH AMERICA

Call Sign: JLS 2 17,845 kc/s (16.81 m.)
Time: 8:00—9:00 p.m., Previous day (EST) 10:00—11:00 a.m., Tokyo Time (1:00—2:00 GMT)

For the PACIFIC COAST of NORTH AMERICA and HAWAII

Call Sign: JZK 15,160 kc/s (19.79 m.)
Time: 9:00—10:30 p.m., Previous day (PST) 2:00—3:30 p.m., Tokyo Time (5:00—6:30 GMT)

For CHINA and the SOUTH SEAS

Call Sign: JZK 15,160 kc/s (19.79 m.) JZJ 11,800 kc/s (25.42 m.)
Time: 9:00—11:30 p.m., Tokyo Time (12:00—14:30 GMT)

Listeners

When the Tokyo broadcasting station was opened on March 22, 1925, the total number of listeners for the whole country stood around 5,400. On August 29, 1926, when the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan was inaugurated, the number of listeners had reached a figure of over 338,200.

The listening fee of two yen a month which had been calculated to be charged at the time when the broadcasting service was started, was reduced to one yen due to the unexpected increase in the number of listeners. This rate was uniform all over the country.

In September 1928, the number of listeners reached the 500,000 mark. In February 1932, three years and four months later, the number ran into 1,000,000, and in April of the same year, the subscription fee was reduced to seventy-five sen. The so-called "Golden

Age" in our broadcasting begins at this period and in June 1933, the number passed the 1,500,000 mark, and keeping up the momentum, it leapt into 2,000,000 in April 1935. In commemoration of this growth, the subscription fee was reduced to the modest sum of 50 sen a month, which is being kept up to this day.

To sum up, it took about seven years for the number of registrations to reach the first 1,000,000; the next 1,000,000 was reached in three years only; while the subscription fee has been reduced to half the original sum during these 10 years,—a rate without parallel elsewhere in the world.

Thereafter, there was a tendency for the number of registrations to go on rapidly increasing, and on December 28, 1939, the number reached 4,666,058, the rate of distribution representing 33.0 per 100 families, and on May 29, 1940 it passed the 5 million mark.

YEARLY INCREASE OF LISTENERS

Year	Number of new registrations	Number of discontinuances	Number of Net increases	Total number of listeners at the end of year	Per 100 Families
1935	659,174	216,072	443,102	2,422,111	17.9
1936	728,777	246,128	482,649	2,904,823	21.4
1937	942,550	262,818	679,732	3,584,462	26.4
1938	878,089	296,900	581,189	4,165,729	29.4
1939	716,628	216,299	500,329	4,666,058	33.0
1940 (May 29)	—	—	—	5,001,050	37.7

PERCENTAGES OF THE NUMBER OF LICENCES TO 100 FAMILIES AT THE END OF 1939

Localities	No. of Licences	Per 100 Families	Localities	No. of Licences	Per 100 Families
1. Tokyo	1,025,313	73.0	26. Wakayama	42,631	22.5
2. Osaka	524,902	52.6	27. Nara	42,386	33.5
3. Hyogo	265,211	41.0	28. Toyama	42,313	26.9
4. Aichi	256,944	42.4	29. Ehime	41,604	16.9
5. Kanagawa	211,571	54.6	30. Fukushima	40,357	14.4
6. Fukuoka	194,422	34.6	31. Yamanashi	36,584	28.8
7. Kyoto	166,216	44.6	32. Ishikawa	35,660	22.3
8. Hokkaido	134,131	23.4	33. Oita	35,333	17.7
9. Shizuoka	129,390	35.5	34. Kagawa	34,984	22.7
10. Hiroshima	103,497	26.1	35. Shiga	32,915	21.4
11. Niigata	91,022	25.1	36. Yamagata	30,177	16.0
12. Chiba	84,539	27.9	37. Fukuji	29,001	21.1
13. Saltama	81,532	28.6	38. Shimane	27,944	17.6
14. Nagano	81,383	24.4	39. Kochi	27,697	17.8
15. Kumamoto	72,359	27.3	40. Saga	27,580	21.7
16. Yamaguchi	70,693	26.5	41. Tokushima	26,981	18.2
17. Okayama	63,388	23.6	42. Miyazaki	26,031	15.7
18. Gumma	61,117	26.5	43. Akita	24,699	13.7
19. Gifu	59,482	23.8	44. Aomori	24,191	14.1
20. Miyagi	53,785	25.7	45. Iwate	23,210	13.1
21. Tochigi	52,559	23.9	46. Tottori	19,059	20.0
22. Ibaraki	51,606	17.5	47. Karafuto	10,900	16.7
23. Miye	49,361	20.4	48. Okinawa	1,092	0.9
24. Nagasaki	49,006	18.8	49. South Seas	194	—
25. Kagoshima	44,196	13.1	50. Total	4,666,058	33.0

REGISTRATIONS BY CITIES AND RURAL COMMUNITIES

Year	Total		Cities		Town & Villages	
	Number of licence holders	%	Number of licence holders	%	Number of licence holders	%
1935	2,304,479	100	1,628,059	70.6	676,420	29.4
1936	2,776,189	100	1,915,857	69.0	860,332	31.0
1937	3,402,489	100	2,259,513	66.4	1,142,976	33.5
1938	4,165,729	100	2,632,629	63.1	1,533,100	36.8
1939	4,666,058	100	2,897,837	62.1	1,768,221	37.9

(Postage and fees for different services of communications are tabulated in the Appendix.)

CHAPTER XXIV

LAND AND AIR TRANSPORTATION

State Railways

Historical Background

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

Tokyo-Yokohama and Other Lines
The work between Shimbashi and Yokohama was completed in September 1872, while the Kobe-Osaka line was opened to traffic in 1874 and it was further extended to Kyoto in 1877. These sections have practically formed the nucleus of what now constitutes the Tokaido Line, one of the main arteries of railway traffic in Japan. In 1880, the Kyoto-Otsu section was completed and in 1884 a further extension with a length of 41.834 kilometers between Tsu-ruga and Nagahama, a town along Lake Biwa, was completed and opened to traffic in pursuance of the railway idea of linking up the Pacific and the Japan Sea. Meanwhile, a survey was made on the Otaru-Horonai section in Hokkaido, where colonization work was be-

ing strenuously encouraged. Construction of this section was soon undertaken and the 88.495 kilometer length was opened to business in 1882, thus bringing the total length of railway under Government ownership toward the close of 1884 to 185.035 kilometers.

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

The Trunk Line Prior to this, the Government decided to lay a trunk line through the Nakasendo, the old mountainous highway of Central Japan, but in view of engineering difficulties along this line it was subsequently abandoned in favor of the level region of the Tokaido. Work on the new route was finished in July 1889, whereby a through service was opened for a distance of 611.42 kilometers between Tokyo and Kobe. Then a branch to Yokosuka was opened and a 160.9 kilometers section between Takasaki and Naoetsu was completed with the exception of 9.054 kilometers over the Usui Pass. This difficult section, for which the Abt rack rail system was adopted, was not opened for service until 1893.

The Railway Construction Law In view of the industrial progress being

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

Railway Network

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

either already projected or considered necessary for completing a unified national railway system be purchased.

Organization and Staff

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

see her incomparable scenic beauty, natural charm and national manners and customs, and to encourage Japanese living at home to take trips to different parts of the Empire.

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

In the State Railways of Japan the members of the staff are either Government officials or employees.

On March 31, 1937 there were altogether 227,689 (8,118 females) servants in the employment of the State Railways as against 218,352 in the preceding year. The total salary for the year 1936-37 was ¥153,812,691 as against ¥147,990,026 in 1935-36. The average annual salary per person in employment was ¥676. As compared with the preceding year, the staff shows an increase of 9,337 during the year, and the annual payment of salaries increased by ¥5,822,665.

Traffic

Earnings of the State Railways from traffic in Japan proper in the past 10 years follow:

Fiscal Years	Working Revenue			Total
	Goods Traffic	Passenger Traffic	Miscellaneous	
	(Unit ¥1,000)			
1930-31	189,161	261,131	7,848	458,140
1931-32	180,365	245,359	7,824	433,540
1932-33	178,717	239,017	8,210	425,954
1933-34	203,189	261,159	9,905	474,254
1934-35	225,246	282,857	10,564	518,668
1935-36	233,307	300,422	10,714	544,534
1936-37	259,773	326,610	11,786	598,171
1937-38	294,133	359,573	16,458	670,164
1938-39	338,963	412,462	17,522	768,947
1939-40	366,037	524,383	—	890,420

Accident and Casualty Returns The number of accidents reported during the year 1937 totalled 6,885, or 19.7 per 1,000,000 train kilometers, showing an increase of 1,360 in number and of 6 per 1,000,000 train kilometers as compared with the preceding year. The number of casualties, including those caused by accidents, errors or unknown causes, numbered 3,990, during the year, or 14.2 casualties per 1,000,000 train kilometers. As compared with the preceding year this is an increase of 570 in the total number, and a decrease of 1.5 per 1,000,000 train kilometers. The number of casualties caused by suicide was 1,567, or a decrease of 269 as against the preceding year.

Length of Open Lines

The total length of State lines open for traffic on March 31, 1938, the end of the fiscal year to 1937, reached 20,501 kilometers as against 17,422 kilometers in 1936-37, showing an increase of 3,079 kilometers. The total length of tracks

in 1936-37 reached 27,801,925 kilometers as against 27,299,552 kilometers in 1935-36, indicating an increase of 502,373 kilometers. Of the total length of lines open for traffic 15,253,323 kilometers are covered by single tracks, 1,945,749 by double tracks, 18,800 by triple tracks, 204,332 by quadruple and the rest by multiple tracks.

Finance

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

The Capital Revenue settled for the

fiscal year 1938 was ¥239,926,000 as against ¥248,030,000 of the expenditure settled, being an increase of ¥42,763,000 for the former and of ¥35,244,000 for the latter as compared with the preceding year. The increase in the revenue settled was attributable chiefly to the increase in amount transferred from the railway profit, as well as proceeds

of sundry receipts, while the gain in the expenditure settled was due to the increase in the expenditure on the railway construction, and the improvement and the motor routes, as well as the sum appropriated to the redemption of liabilities. Below are given returns on this account settled for the past three years:

Item	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39
	(In yen)		
Capital revenue	172,936,606	195,798,000	238,005,000
Surplus on stores account	425,838	1,376,000	1,321,000
Total revenue	173,352,444	197,173,000	239,926,000
Construction, improvement and motor-car routes	116,405,478	148,255,000	175,164,000
Redemption of debts	22,287,245	22,531,000	22,866,000
Temporary expenses	—	2,000	—
Transfer to general account	—	30,000	—
Transfer to special account of temporary military expenses	—	—	40,000
Supply for stores fund	—	10,000	10,000
Total expenditure	158,692,723	212,780,000	248,030,000

Stores Account The settled amount of Stores Account Revenue for the year 1938-39 was ¥305,543,000 and the expenditure on this item amounted to ¥321,493,000, or an increase of ¥75,211,000 for revenue and of ¥91,063,000 for expenditure as compared with the previous year. The increase in the revenue was accounted for partly by the larger pro-

ceeds of sales of railway stores, and partly by the increase in receipts accruing from repairs of railway stores and from the supply of electric current while the increase in the expenditure is accounted for by the rise in the stores and workshop expenses and the charge for electric current.

Items	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39
	(In yen)		
Railway stores and workshop receipts	190,814,739	230,332,000	305,543,000
Railway stores and workshop expenses	185,415,437	230,430,000	321,493,000

Revenue Account The total revenue settled during the year amounted to ¥1,096,486,000 and the total expenditure ¥896,043,000 which are respectively ¥198,273,000 and ¥163,979,000 more than in the previous year. The increase in the revenue was attributable to the increase of the traffic and the sundry receipts, as well as receipts on suspense

account and advances, while increase in the expenditure was accounted for by the growth in working expenses and subsidies to local railways, as well as the increase in refunds and advances appropriated for the C.O.D. payments.

The Revenue Account settled for the past three years is as follows:

Items	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39
	(In yen)		
Revenue:			
Traffic receipts	591,252,994	662,747,000	760,524,000
Sundry receipts	11,809,580	13,473,000	13,729,000
Receipts on suspense account and advance	193,035,911	221,993,000	322,233,000
Total	796,098,485	898,213,000	1,096,486,000

Items	1936-37	1937-38 (In yen)	1938-39
Expenditure:			
Working expenses	362,542,819	412,050,000	477,455,000
Interest charges	83,206,220	83,793,000	84,133,000
Refunds and advances	198,005,869	229,546,000	327,560,000
Secret service fund	27,440	27,000	25,000
Subsidies to local railway	6,854,027	6,647,000	6,870,000
Total	650,636,455	732,064,000	896,043,000

Fixed assets of the State Railways for the last 10 years follow:

(In ¥1,000)

End of March	End of March	End of March	
1930	3,246,724	1935	3,728,485
1931	3,374,392	1936	3,850,507
1932	3,413,786	1937	3,987,210
1933	3,503,893	1938	4,127,200
1934	3,613,169	1939	4,283,600

BUSINESS INCOME AND EXPENSES

(In ¥1,000)

Fiscal Years	Income	Expenses	Profit	Fiscal Years	Income	Expenses	Profit
1929-30	518,016	399,026	118,989	1934-35	518,668	314,126	204,541
1930-31	458,140	382,552	75,587	1935-36	544,534	329,537	215,997
1931-32	433,540	365,088	68,451	1936-37	598,171	354,420	243,751
1932-33	425,954	364,874	61,079	1937-38	670,164	406,692	263,472
1933-34	474,254	282,199	192,054	1938-39	768,947	470,007	298,940

Note: Figures include those for businesses other than railway traffic.

Private Railways

General At the end of 1938 the number of local railways in Japan proper was 297. The aggregate amount of capital reached ¥1,519,002,170, reserve funds ¥86,114,556, net profit ¥63,410,103 and dividend ¥50,291,647. The total open kilometerage in March 1938 was 6,793 km., a decrease of 2.25 km.

WORKING RESULTS OF LOCAL RAILWAYS IN JAPAN PROPER

(1933-34 to 1937-38)

Items	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38
Number of railways	266	260	257	250	246
Kilometerage opened	7,184.55	7,088.22	7,097.56	7,018.77	6,793.00
Earnings from passenger traffic (yen)	59,062,591	62,262,808	64,172,467	68,929,859	73,543,000
Earnings from goods traffic (yen)	19,307,870	26,303,665	21,420,598	22,308,862	23,630,000

N.B.—The above table does not include the lines belonging to private individuals for their exclusive use.

Tramcar Service The tramways in Japan date back from 1880, when an application was tendered for the construction of the Tokyo Horse Tram Co.'s line which was completed and opened to traffic in 1883. As provided by the

Tramway Law now in force, all the tramways in Japan are constructed as a rule on highways. The street railways, a certain number of suburban railways and others laid in provinces are placed under the control of the Law. Such public bodies as cities, towns and vil-

lages may take the management of tramways without restriction. Steam and electricity are mostly employed as motive power except a few local tramways where gasoline, horse or human power is used for the purpose.

WORKING RESULTS OF TRAMWAYS

	Number of Companies Open Kilometerages				Income from Traffic (In ¥1,000)		
	Electric	Steam	Electric	Steam	Passage	Freight	Total
1933-34	92	33	2,059	339	101,864	1,130	102,994
1934-35	89	32	2,062	337	104,744	1,268	106,012
1935-36	85	28	2,038	298	108,126	1,109	109,235
1936-37	86	26	2,055	272	113,794	1,108	114,902
1937-38	85	25	2,036	235	120,176	1,117	121,293

Land Transportation in 1939-40

Increase in Volume of Transportation by Government Railways The business conditions of the Government Railways during the 1939-40 fiscal year ending March 31, 1940, were the best during recent years due to the activities of general industrial and commercial circles, and the movement of passengers and goods in connection with the emergency. The total proceeds amounted to ¥890,420,000, even without including miscellaneous revenue which may have

reached over ¥20,000,000. The amount represents an increase of ¥121,473,000 or 16.1 per cent over the previous fiscal year. Both the number of passengers carried and the volume of goods hauled showed a record increase.

The business conditions of private railways in 1939 improved, as a whole, with the active traffic caused by the general business boom in the country, as it is shown in the following table:

BUSINESS RESULTS OF 27 PRIVATE RAILWAY COMPANIES IN 1939

(Unit: ¥1,000)

	Paid up Capital	Working Revenue		Net Profit		Rate of Dividend	
		1st Half	2nd Half	1st Half	2nd Half	1st Half	2nd Half
Tokyo-Yokohama district							
Tobu Railway	45,700	6,507	7,716	2,251	3,108	7.0	8.0
Keisei El. Railway (El. Power)	26,325	6,476	2,522	1,726	1,859	8.0	9.0
Oji El. Railway (El. Power)	17,000	725	724	1,502	1,363	10.0	10.0
Kelo El. Railway (El. Power)	14,513	1,446	1,617	1,080	1,285	8.0	9.0
Odawara Express R.	25,700	1,690	2,175	376	680	2.4	4.5
Keihin El. R.	15,000	2,419	2,556	1,254	1,522	8.0	9.0
Shonan El. R.	9,200	2,022	2,148	599	643	5.5	6.5
Tokyo-Yokohama							
El. R.	56,701	3,609	7,838	1,539	4,353	10.0	10.0
Tokyo Underground R.							
	40,105	4,680	4,461	1,759	1,575	6.0	6.0
Tokyo High Speed R.							
	85,000	190,820	434,201	—	204	5.0	5.0
Seibu Railway	4,860	827	895	157	175	—	3.0
Musashino Railway	2,600	1,027	1,147	241	349	6.0	6.0

	Paid up Capital	Working Revenue		Net Profit		Rate of Dividend	
		1st Half	2nd Half	1st Half	2nd Half	1st Half	2nd Half
Aomé E. R.	3,280	327	380	144	183	5.0	6.0
Chichibu Railway	4,295	699	733	304	313	6.0	7.0
Sagami Railway	3,240	—	—	246	259	5.0	5.0
Kansai district							
Hanshin E. R.	61,750	4,707	5,560	3,701	3,906	9.0	9.0
(El. Power)		4,132	4,159				
Hanshin Express E. Railway	55,000	5,196	6,042	3,735	3,744	10.0	10.0
(El. Power)		2,620	2,578				
(Department store)		3,489	3,298				
Keihan	64,576	5,475	6,213	2,056	2,729	4.0	5.0
(El. Power)		2,808	2,886				
Nankai Railway	52,400	6,286	6,582	2,913	3,013	10.0	10.0
(El. Power)		3,481	3,450				
Osaka E. Railway	49,290	4,863	5,858	2,401	3,131	8.0	8.0
(El. Power)		1,452	1,574				
Sangu Express E. Railway	37,220	2,756	3,111	706	898	No dividend	
Osaka Railway	16,010	1,216	1,496	423	602	No dividend	
Hanwa E. Railway	20,000	1,848	2,290	471	757	3.0	4.0
Central Japan							
Ina E. R.	13,151	778	847	670	710	6.0	6.0
(El. Power)		664	695				
Nagoya Railway	49,678	5,163	5,372	1,901	1,986	9.5	9.5
Mikawa Railway	4,688	614	723	156	276	3.0	4.0
Kyushu							
Kyushu E. R.	44,000	2,117	2,276	2,727	2,295	6.0	7.0
(El. Power)		6,544	6,530				

Railways in Chosen, Taiwan and Karafuto

Chosen

The first railway enterprise in Chosen dates back to 1890, when a railway linking Kéijo (Seoul) with Jinsen (Chemulpo), 29.485 kilometers in length, was laid and opened to traffic by the Kéi-Jin Railway Company. The outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War caused the military authorities of Japan to build the Kéijo-Fusan, Kéijo-Shingishu and Masan lines which were opened to traffic in 1905 and 1906 respectively. In 1906 the Imperial Government of Japan nationalized the Kéijo-Fusan Line and also took over the Kéijo-Shingishu and the Masan Lines from the War Office of Japan, placing all these lines under direct control of the Railway Bureau of the Korean Residency-General. Meanwhile the work of construction was steadily pushed on and in 1910 the Héijo-Chinnampo line was completed. On the spanning of the Yalu River with a swing bridge in 1911 the peninsular railway was brought into connection with the South Manchuria Railway. In 1914 the Talden-Mokpo and Kéijo-Gensan lines

were completed, while in 1915 part of the Gensan-Kalnél line was opened. In 1928 the Kankyô line which connects Kalnél to Gensan was completed, and in 1933 the Tomon line which connects Kalnél to Yuki was opened to traffic. The latter is connected with the Keito line of S.M.R.C. at Kalnél, thus preparing a new eastern transportation facility between Chosen and Manchoukuo. On March 31, 1939, the State Lines in Chosen open to business totalled 3,831.1 km. as against 3,741.6 km. in 1938 showing an increase of 89.5 km. At the end of March 1938, the number of passengers carried aggregated 35,906,000, while the weight of goods hauled was 11,369,000 metric tons. The coaching receipts amounted to ¥37,167,000 and goods receipts to ¥39,741,000. As compared with the preceding year the number of passengers shows an increase of 2,198,000, and the volume of goods hauled an increase of 1,389,000 metric tons, while the coaching receipts increased by ¥5,024,000 and goods receipts by ¥6,849,000.

The aggregate length of private railways open to traffic at the end of 1939 amounted to 1,375.7 kilometers, the length of lines under construction 647.7 kilometers, and lines contemplated but not yet granted charters 81.4 kilometers, the total length of all these lines amounting to 1,457.1 kilometers. The number of private companies which are already operating railways in Chosen numbered 12, viz., Chosen Railway Company, Chosen Kéinan Railway Company, Kongosan Electric Railway Company, Shinko Railway Company, South Chosen Union Electric Company, Keishun Railway Company, West Chosen Central Railway Company, Chosen Kéito Railway Company, Chosen Heian Railway Company, Chosen Coal Industry Company, South Manchurian Railway Company, East Manchurian Railway Company, and South Chosen Union Electric Company. Besides, there were two railway companies which were provided with a charter but had not begun work. The above mentioned companies, if their aims are general transportation, receive regular subsidies from the Government. The aggregate capital of the companies amounts to ¥121,000,000 of which ¥50,270,000 is paid up. The total length of tramways operated in Chosen came to 8.23 kilometers indicating a gain of 1.4 kilometers over the previous year. The power used is mostly electricity. (See Chapter XXXIX for fuller information.)

Taiwan

It was not until the cession of the Island of Taiwan (Formosa) by the Chinese Government to Japan that the island began to enjoy railway facilities, for, prior to that time, the only railroad existing was a small light railway between Keelung and Shinchiku built at the time of the Ching Dynasty. Soon after the cession, the Taiwan Government-General brought forward a plan, with the approval of the Diet, to build a railway connecting Takao with Keelung at the expense of ¥28,800,000. Work was started in 1889 from both termini and finished in April 1908. This line now forms the trunk line in the island's communication system. The construction of this pioneer line was followed by other lines, that is, the Kyukyodo-Hetto section completed in 1912, the Taito line in 1917 and the Giran line in 1924. The length of lines open to traffic on March 31, 1939, was 881.9 kilo-

meters, being the same as the preceding year. The working route kilometerage of the Government lines was, in 1938-39, 881.1 kilometers, the train kilometerage 10,520,443 kilometers, the vehicle kilometerage 162,728,802 kilometers, being an increase of 496,134 kilometers for the train kilometerage and of 12,465,653 kilometers for other vehicles. The number of passengers carried came to 23,098,052 in 1937-38 and 27,179,194 in 1938-39, the volume of goods hauled to 7,249,235 metric tons in 1937-38 and 8,301,323 in 1938-39, and the earnings accruing from these two sources to ¥27,019,079 in 1937-38 and ¥31,107,027 in 1938-39.

Most of the private railways existing in Taiwan were originally constructed by sugar refining companies for transporting sugar and other materials, transportation business being conducted only as a side work. At the end of 1938, there were the total working km. of 2,610.4 and the number of passengers during 1938 was 4,630,243, while goods carried amounted to 1,183,770 metric tons. The earnings of the companies through the railway business amounted to ¥3,010,471.

The tramways which form an important factor in the island communication system have made a marked development in recent years. The total length of lines in operation on March 31, 1939, was 806.2 km., the number of passengers carried aggregated 2,002,456, goods moved 502,260,592 m.t. and the total receipts ¥1,152,676.

Karafuto Railway

The first railway in Karafuto (Japanese Saghalien) was constructed by the Military Department in 1906 between Otomari, formerly known as Korsakovsa, and Toyohara, formerly Vladimolocka, 41.83 km. in length. It was a light railway with a gauge of 0.61 meter and exclusively used for military purposes. With the withdrawal of the military Government in April 1907, the railway was transferred to the control of the Karafuto Administration and opened to public traffic in August of the same year. As traffic went on increasing the gauge was widened to 1.07 meters, some time in 1910, while construction of sections further north of Toyohara was started. Late in 1911 the work on the Toyohara-Sakaehama section being completed, the Otomari-Sakaehama section, 94.13 km.

which now forms the trunk line in the island's communication, was opened to traffic. Construction work has been continued since and a branch line linking the Kawakami Mine with Konuma, and the Honto-Noda section on the west coast were completed and opened to business in 1914 and 1920 respectively. In addition, the construction of a branch line which connects Toyohara, the capital of the island, with Maoka on the west coast, was started in 1921 and opened to business in 1928.

The lines in operation at present totalled 342.9 kilometers, remaining the

same as the previous year. The total number of passengers who travelled by the railways during 1935 totalled 1,606,325 and showed an increase of 205,843 or 14.7 per cent as compared with the previous year, and the receipts showed a gain of ¥117,012, the total receipts being ¥947,651. The total of both passenger and goods receipts amounted to ¥2,459,977 showing an increase of ¥401,519 over the receipts for the preceding year.

There are altogether three local railway companies that have run railway business in Karafuto.

Motor Transport and Its Development

Behind Japan's motor transport system there is no such history of experimentation and endeavor as characterizes the arrival of the motor car in the West. The first car seen in Japan was one imported from America by a foreign resident of Yokohama in 1897, and then for the next ten years there was no great increase in the number. In 1907 there were only 10 cars in the whole country. Then came a change. In 1912 there were 320 vehicles and a year later 1,000. In 1921, passenger cars numbered 4,683 and business cars numbered 7,439. The great earthquake and fire which destroyed Tokyo and Yokohama in 1923 brought about a great demand for motor cars because rail traffic was interrupted at various places and the help of motor cars was badly needed. In 1924, the

number increased to 40,070, of which 27,959 were passenger cars and 12,097 were trucks. The rate of increase for the five years 1921-26 for passenger cars was 100.49 per cent and for trucks 1,200.6 per cent. This rapid development of motor car transport has driven rikishas, electric cars and provincial railways into the background. Motor-car passengers are increasing year after year, while passenger receipts on provincial railways are quickly decreasing. To the present, except in the vicinity of large cities, Japan has not been blessed with good roads, but the construction of first-class motor roads is being pushed ahead in all parts of the country and traffic is bound to make a phenomenal increase as the roads are completed.

NUMBER OF MOTOR CARS IN JAPAN PROPER

At the end of	Ordinary Cars		Trucks	Special Cars	Small Cars	Total	
	Private	Taxicabs					
1933	7,723	59,010	38,199	5,187	25,124	135,234	
1934	7,970	62,511	42,059	4,938	39,095	156,573	
1935	9,213	64,795	46,918	5,065	49,913	175,904	
1936	—	74,910	—	51,338	4,978	63,348	194,574

Number of Cars in Principal Prefectures in 1936

	Ordinary Cars	Trucks	Special Cars	Small Cars	Total
Tokyo	17,991	10,905	1,095	16,347	46,338
Osaka	6,019	4,039	477	11,517	22,052
Hyogo	2,620	3,405	226	3,761	10,012
Kanagawa	2,430	2,363	128	2,186	7,107
Aichi	3,008	2,704	416	4,587	10,715
Shizuoka	2,348	1,811	113	1,563	5,835
Fukuoka	3,353	1,047	217	1,807	6,424
Kyoto	2,540	1,419	180	2,125	6,264

Note: Conditions of motor transportation are not made public since 1937.

Aviation

History of Development

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

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

civilian flyer, started on a Naruo-Osaka-Kyoto flight, but, when landing in the Fukakusa parade-ground in Kyoto, he met with disaster and died as the first victim of civilian aviation in Japan.

Contest of Civilian Aviators In 1914, a contest by civilian aviators was held at Naruo, near Osaka, under the auspices of the Imperial Aeronautical Association, and, during the Tsingtao campaign Japanese military aeroplanes took part in actual fighting for the first time and displayed their ability in scouting, in bombing the enemy fortress and in an aerial combat with enemy planes. In 1915, a meet of civilian flyers was held in Osaka, and a military flying battalion was formed. Between January and April 1916, American aviators visited Japan and performed stunt flying at Naruo and other places; and, on April 27 that year, night flying was successfully carried out for the first time in this country. In 1917, the flying battalion was enlarged into the first and second battalions and a balloon corps. In April that year, Art Smith, an American flyer, again visited Japan and carried out a series of high-class exhibition flights in Osaka and Tokyo. In April 1918, Masao Goto, a private flyer, succeeded in making a non-stop flight between Tokorozawa and Osaka for the first time.

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

ship Astra was carried out.

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

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

In May, the Aeronautical Institute which ranks as the best research station in the world was completed six years after the starting of its construction. In the same month, the aeroplane "Young Japan" belonging to Hosé

University, a member of the Students' Aviation League, set off for Europe from the flying ground at Hanéda near Tokyo and, at the end of August, reached its destination, Rome. After the outbreak of the Manchurian trouble in September that year, our military planes participated in actual warfare for the first time since the Tsingtao campaign. In October of the same year, the aeroplane (Fokker No. 3-M) of the Japan Air Transport Company succeeded in flying between Taiwan and the mainland.

The Dai-Nippon Airways Company Under the auspices of the Ministry of Communications a new airway company was incorporated on December 1, 1933, through a merger between the Japan Air Transport Company and the International Air Transportation Company. It is called the Dai-Nippon Kōkū Kabushiki Kaisha or the Dai-Nippon Airways Company. The establishment of the company was contemplated by the Ministry of Communications for the development of civil aviation in 1933 and the merger of the two companies was the first step for the realization of a monopolistic half-governmental airway company. The Bill for the establishment of the Dai-Nippon Airways Company was prepared by the Ministry and submitted to the Imperial Diet. Through the adoption of the bill by the 74th session which met in the early months of 1939, the Dai-Nippon Airways Company's capitalization was fixed at ¥100,000,000. The company has the right of monopolizing the national and international civil airway transportation business of the country, receiving subsidies from the National Treasury and is authorized to issue debentures not exceeding twice the amount of paid-up capital.

Of the total amount of the capital, ¥37,250,000 shall be invested by the Government in cash and fixed assets; the number of shares shall be 510,000 (face value ¥50) representing ¥25,500,000, the amount to be paid-up being ¥17,625,000 according to the provisions of the law and the Imperial Ordinance for the establishment of the company.

The present major air routes in Japan are Tokyo—Dairen, Fukuoka—Taihoku, Tokyo—Sapporo, Tokyo—Hsinking, Tokyo—Peking, Fukuoka—Nanking, Taihoku—Canton, Tokyo—Bangkok and Tokyo—Palau, the last three being opened in 1938 and 1939. The aggre-

gate length of the routes extends as long as 30,000 kilometers in 1939.

Tokyo-Bangkok Regular Air Route Opens. Because of the successful results of three test flights made in the past, the Dai Nippon Airways Company decided to inaugurate the Tokyo-Bangkok regular air service. The Matsukae (Mitsubishi-Type I transport plane) hopped off from Tokyo for Bangkok on its maiden flight on June 10, 1940, and landed safely at Bangkok on June 22 by way of Canton and Indo-China, thus stabilizing a regular air service between Japan and Thailand. Later, as a result of the improvement of Franco-Japanese relations, the air-liner has come to take a direct route via Hanoi and across French Indo-China from July 15, 1940.

South-Sea Line Announced. A regular air service linking Yokohama, Saipan and Palau is being conducted as a fortnightly return trip. The distance between Yokohama and Palau is being covered by a Kawanishi four-engined flying boat in two days, which is uncomparably faster than the regular steamship service which takes two full weeks

or more to cover the distance.

Certainly, it is a matter of great joy for residents in the South Sea islands to be able to read Japanese papers from Tokyo on the same day of publication and to enjoy looking at Japanese native flowers fresh from the garden.

With the object of further promoting the Japan-South Sea service, the Dai Nippon Airways Company is projecting an inter-island air service for connecting Saipan, Palau, Truk, Ponape, and Jaluit. Test flights are now being made by the company for the purpose.

Principal Machines Being Used by Dai Nippon Airways Company

Douglas DC-3.
Douglas DC-2.
Lockheed 14 WG-3.
Mitsubishi Type I Transport.
Nakajima A T.
Mitsubishi Airspeed "Envoy."
Nakajima Fokker "Super."
"Universal."
Beechcraft C-17-E.
Heinkel HE-116.
Kawanishi Four-Engined Flying Boat.

Tourist Industry

Three organizations, viz., the Board of Tourist Industry, the Japan Tourist Bureau (founded in 1912), and the Kokusai Kanko Kyokai (founded in 1931), a foundation devoting itself solely to the carrying out of travel publicity abroad, and forming the hub from which radiate innumerable lines connecting it with other important organizations, such as the Society for International Cultural Relations and other cultural bodies, tourist associations in various districts, transportation concerns, hotels and all other organizations that have anything to do with the tourist industry of Japan.

The Board of Tourist Industry is divided into two departments, one for general affairs and the other for business promotion. In addition to these, it has three boards of investigation dealing with tourist resorts, hotel enterprises and treatment of tourists respectively. These boards comprise experts of the government and the public on the respective subjects. The Committee of Tourist Industry holds its general meeting at least once a year, when it decides what course to follow in carrying out any important undertaking.

The Kokusai Kanko Kyokai runs an office in New York and Los Angeles,

though the actual business is carried on there in the popular name of the Japan Tourist Bureau.

The branch offices of the Japan Tourist Bureau, both in Japan and abroad, number about 130 in all. Besides, it has agents in some important cities abroad in order to make the network of its service as extensive and satisfactory as possible.

Since the establishment of the Board of Tourist Industry, tourist organizations of a non-commercial nature have been successively founded in many parts of Japan, and at present the total number is in the proximity of 400.

33,000 Visitors in 1939 The number of foreigners visiting Japan decreased since 1936, but the comparison of 1938 and 1939 shows that it is regaining the former level, witnessing a 26 per cent increase in 1939. Details follow:

FOREIGNERS WHO VISITED JAPAN IN 1938 AND 1939

(The Custom House figures)

According to Different Nationalities

From	1938	1939
America	5,029	5,714

From	1938	1939	According to Months			
			1938	1939	Percentage of Increase	
Great Britain	3,364	3,815	January	1,217	1,902	57
Germany	1,741	2,447	February	1,254	1,332	6
France	513	545	March	2,144	2,882	34
The U.S.S.R.	1,490	1,749	April	3,037	4,116	36
China	3,254	6,639	May	2,064	3,693	79
Manchoukuo	7,002	7,873	June	1,688	2,113	25
Holland	249	356	July	2,532	2,766	9
India	418	681	August	2,520	2,694	7
Thailand	465	136	September	3,896	3,857	1
Philippine Is.	311	456	October	2,573	3,778	(-)-47
Australia	120	28	November	1,624	2,028	25
New Zealand	1	5	December	1,576	1,790	14
Canada	185	256	Total	26,125	32,951	26
Others	1,983	2,251				
Total	26,125	32,951				

CHAPTER XXV

SEA TRANSPORTATION

Historical Background

The dawn of Japan's history is associated with maritime activities. The national mythology is rich in stories of sea adventures. Later authentic records fully demonstrate the energy and spirit of the early Japanese, who had to fight their way through stormy seas in the primitive craft of those days. The period covered by the latter half of the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth century marks the golden age of marine activity in Old Japan. This was in a great measure due to the stimulus received by the natives through the appearance of Portuguese and other foreign ships in Japanese waters. Japanese vessels not only were in evidence in South China and the South Sea Islands, but cruised the Pacific as far as Mexico and fought their way through the Indian Ocean and round the Cape of Good Hope to Europe. Military rulers encouraged maritime enterprises and many large vessels were built. Thus the shipping trade between Japan and the South Seas and India, carried on under letters patent and numbering no less than 200 ships at one time, engaged in commerce with 20 different countries, which were eventually dotted with regular Japanese colonies.

Ban on Shipping Activities Unfortunately, while the maritime prosperity of Japan was thus making progress by leaps and bounds, the Tokugawa Shogunate took the drastic measure of secluding the country and forbidding all foreign intercourse. Its first act was to place a strict ban on the propagation of Christianity in 1613. Subsequently, in 1634, all commercial relations with foreign countries were stopped, and in 1636 the construction of large ocean-going vessels was forbidden. For a period of more than two centuries thereafter the ocean trade of Japan was forcibly suspended.

The Well-timed Visit Commodore Perry's visit in 1853 was opportune, inasmuch as by this time many Japanese

amongst the intelligent classes were dimly aware of conditions outside Japan, and the Shogun's Government, amid much confusion of opinion, took a firm step and signed the treaty. This event was followed in 1854 by the conclusion of similar treaties with the leading nations of Europe. Commercial intercourse with foreign countries was thus resumed, and the time-worn restrictions on navigation and ship-building were withdrawn. Then was formed the nucleus of the present mercantile marine of Japan. The Shogun's Government, finding the old Japanese methods of ship-building and navigation utterly out-of-date, promptly decided upon introducing the ideas of the outside world. For this purpose, students were sent abroad, while foreign experts were engaged to work in Japan. A shipbuilding yard was established in Yokosuka, and a naval school in Nagasaki.

After the Meiji Restoration

The First Steamship Co. In the third year of Meiji the Government promulgated the Mercantile Marine Regulations. In the same year, the pioneer steamship concern was inaugurated and a new leaf in the history of the Japanese mercantile marine was turned. The first company to be incorporated was the Kwaiso Kaisha, or Forwarding and Transport Company, which was later renamed the Teikoku Yusen Joki Kaisha (Imperial Mail Steamship Co.) Mampel Kimura was one of the chief promoters. A regular service was maintained between Tokyo and Yokohama and between Osaka and Kobe. Yataro Iwasaki, founder of the Mitsubishi interests, incorporated a shipping company called the Tsukumo Shokai, later renamed the Mitsubishi Shokai, in 1870 and inaugurated a regular passenger service between Tokyo and Kochi in Shikoku, from which place Iwasaki hailed. Three steamers formerly owned by Lord Yamanouchi, former feudal lord of Tosa, were employed in the service. When the Japanese Government sent a punitive force against

Formosa in 1874, all foreign steamship companies interested in the Far Eastern shipping trade declared neutrality and rejected the Government's offer to charter their ships. Perplexed at this, the Government ordered the Mitsubishi Shokai and Teikoku Joki to offer their ships, and thus the transportation of troops was smoothly effected.

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

The O. S. K. About this time the Osaka Shosen Kaisha was established in Osaka. It was then a small concern maintaining services in the Inland Sea of Japan, but later developed into a large company. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha, while maintaining the services originally inaugurated by its predeces-

sors, opened new lines to Korea and North China, and one between Shanghai and Vladivostok; and in 1891 it inaugurated the service between Kobe and Manila and commenced to despatch occasional ships to Australia. In 1892, the N. Y. K. Japan-Bombay service was opened, the first regular Japanese steamship connection with a far-away foreign country. The rapid progress of Japanese shipping is attested by the fact that in the beginning of 1891 the total tonnage owned in Japan was 100,000, and one year later this figure had increased by 10,000.

The Sino-Japanese War During the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5, when the greater part of Japanese shipping space was requisitioned for transport purposes, a large number of steamers were purchased or chartered by Japanese owners and Japan, having complete command of the sea, was able to maintain its established oversea services. At the close of the war Japan found that its merchant marine had grown by 100 per cent compared with the pre-war figures. Meanwhile the Nippon Yusen Kaisha lost no time in consolidating its established lines and in 1896 it inaugurated three trunk lines, viz., the Yokohama-London-Antwerp line, the Hongkong-Japan-Seattle line and the Yokohama-Manila-Australia line. In 1898 the Takyo Kisen Kaisha was established, and it maintained a regular fast service between Hongkong and San Francisco via Japanese ports with three fine new passenger ships. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha opened a new line on the Yangtzekiang in 1898. In the following year, this company opened a line from Taiwan to Hongkong, via Amoy and Swatow. The increase in Japanese tonnage at that time was remarkable. Whereas, at the end of 1897, it amounted to only 270,000 tons, it suddenly increased at the end of 1898 to 477,000 tons, the ratio of growth continuing, until the gross tonnage of steamers of 1,000 tons and over at the end of 1903 amounted to 521,000.

Foreigners' Services Mention must not be omitted of the valuable contribution made by foreign experts to the development of the Japanese mercantile marine. Through the remarkable foresight of Iwasaki, not only foreign captains, officers, engineers and pursers were freely engaged afloat, but numerous experts, business and technical, were employed on shore to conduct the

business of the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. A large number of these foreigners remained in the company's service for a considerable time after its formation. Foremost among them were A. R. Brown, Alexander Macmillan, T. H. James, J. W. Ekstrand, W. H. Hasewell and Hector Frazer, whose names are still familiar to old timers in the Far Eastern shipping trade.

One noteworthy fact in connection with the development of the shipping business is the advance made by Japanese mariners. Japan imported the science of navigation from the West and early in the Meiji Era the captains, chief engineers and mates were mostly foreigners. When the Nippon Yusen Kaisha was first organized in 1884 the company owned 57 steamers with a total tonnage of 60,000 and employed about 175 foreigners, the number being increased to 224 during the Sino-Japanese War. During the Russo-Japanese War Japanese mariners were the recipients of much praise, and their credit was greatly raised. After the war, in 1907, the number of foreigners was reduced to 87 and by 1920 there was not a single foreign officer in a Japanese ship.

The Russo-Japanese War The Russo-Japanese War broke out early in 1904, and Japan found herself compelled to undertake transport work of the biggest magnitude ever known in her history. This situation naturally created the necessity of purchasing additional tonnage, with the result that at the end of 1906 the total merchant marine reached a little more than one million gross tons, and Japan thus ranked sixth among the great maritime Powers of the world. Through the expansion of trade after the war, sufficient employment was found for these steamers. The Toyo Kisen Kaisha opened its South American service before the war terminated. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha started in 1909 its Far East-Puget Sound service. Elsewhere the expansion was also pronounced, for in 1907 four large Japanese companies trading on the Yangtze-kiang pooled their interests and formed the Nisshin Kisen Kaisha (Japan-China Steamship Company) and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha in the meantime inaugurated the Tsuruga-Vladivostok and the Osaka-Kobe-Moji-Dairen lines. The general slump in the shipping trade which prevailed all over the world dur-

ing this period was felt in Japan, but the country was not so badly hit as to prevent the further growth of its shipping. For, at the end of the year when the World War broke out, the total gross tonnage of ships flying the Japanese flag was 1,590,000, of which 1,310,000 tons represented ships of more than 1,000 gross tons each. Turning to the share which Japanese merchant shipping contributed to its foreign commerce, it was found that, whereas, prior to the Sino-Japanese war (1894-5), only 10 per cent of imports and exports were carried by Japanese ships, the proportion increased to 40 per cent after the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5), and just before the commencement of the World War, it had grown to 48 per cent.

The World War An extensive dearth of tonnage and the consequent pressing demand for space all over the world, caused by the World War, created a unique situation for Japanese merchant shipping, so much so that the total gross tonnage suddenly swelled by a million tons within a brief period and the yearly shipbuilding capacity increased from 50,000 tons to a half million gross tons. The share contributed by Japanese vessels to the transportation of imports and exports increased to nearly 80 per cent, the remaining 20 per cent being carried by foreign ships. Many new shipping services to all corners of the globe were opened one after another, and, besides rendering distinguished service to the cause of the Allies, the Japanese mercantile marine maintained a regular fortnightly Japan-England mail service, and despatched extra ships to European waters during the war. Furthermore, in response to the call of the United States after that country entered the War a group of Japanese shipowners delivered a number of steamers aggregating 150,000 tons to the United States Government on charter at rates considerably lower than those which shipowners at that time could have obtained in the open market.

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

Nippon Yusen Kaisha, by which the latter became one of the greatest shipping companies of the world.

Present Conditions

At the end of 1938 there were 328 companies engaged in sea transportation business, with an aggregate amount of

capital of 711 million yen and reserve funds 176 million yen, raising profits of 80 million yen in that year. The number of companies engaged in shipbuilding was 161 capitalized at 372 million yen, with reserve funds amounting to 78 million yen, and they raised annual profits of 42.5 million yen.

BUSINESS CONDITIONS OF PRINCIPAL SHIPOWNERS AND DOCKYARDS

IN 1938 AND 1939

(Unit: ¥1,000)

	Paid-up Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Rate of Profit	Rate of Dividend
Nippon Yusen Kaisha					
1938:					
A	92,250	75,622	5,312	24.3	6.0
B	92,250	78,837	5,590	21.6	6.0
1939:					
A	92,250	80,847	8,057	26.6	7.0
B	92,250	90,846	10,166	24.2	7.0
Osaka Shosen Kaisha					
1938:					
A	62,500	41,733	10,633	49.1	6.0
B	62,500	62,500	11,044	51.6	7.0
1939:					
A	62,500	51,633	13,526	62.6	7.0
B	62,923	57,079	13,589	61.5	8.0
Toyo Kisen Kaisha					
1938:					
A	11,000	192	788	51.0	10.0
B	11,000	442	994	45.3	10.0
1939:					
A	10,657	892	736	32.9	10.0
B	11,000	1,091	910	30.1	10.0
Nisshin Kisen Kaisha					
1938:					
A	10,125	—	(—)121	—	0
B	10,125	—	—	—	0
1939:					
A	10,125	—	—	20.5	0
Kokusai Kisen Kaisha					
1939:					
A	20,000	—	—	—	—
B	20,000	—	110	0.5	—
Mitsubishi Heavy Industry (Dockyard)					
1938:					
B	90,000	54,736	7,448	16.6	7.0
1939:					
A	99,781	60,483	9,409	18.9	7.0
B	110,384	68,127	9,902	17.9	7.0
Kawasaki Dockyard					
1938:					
A	80,000	839	4,545	14.4	2.0
B	80,000	1,067	4,470	14.2	2.0
1939:					
A	80,000	1,291	4,436	14.1	2.0
B	80,000	1,514	4,535	14.4	2.0
A	90,000	50,468	6,368	14.2	7.0

	Paid-up Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Rate of Profit	Rate of Dividend
Uraga Dockyard					
1938:					
A	11,000	4,413	1,320	31.3	8.0
B	11,000	5,029	1,381	32.4	10.0
1939:					
A	11,000	6,416	1,481	34.2	10.0
B	11,405	7,220	1,585	34.8	10.0
Ishikawajima Dockyard					
1938:					
A	14,000	1,315	899	22.7	8.0
B	20,000	1,654	1,013	22.5	8.0
1939:					
A	16,000	2,061	1,150	21.9	8.0
B	19,803	2,501	1,457	20.4	8.0

Note: A denotes the first half and B the second half of the year.

LIST OF LARGE N.Y.K. VESSELS

	Gross Tonnage	Passenger Accommodation			
		1st Class	Cabin Class	2nd Class	Tourist Cabin
M.S. Kamakura Maru	17,526	240	—	95	—
S.S. Nitta Maru	17,163	127	—	88	—
S.S. Yawata Maru	17,000*	127	—	88	—
M.S. Asama Maru	16,975	239	—	96	—
M.S. Tatuta Maru	16,975	239	—	96	—
S.S. Taiyo Maru	14,458	—	91	—	241
M.S. Terukuni Maru	11,931	121	—	68	—
M.S. Yasukuni Maru	11,933	116	—	68	—
M.S. Hikawa Maru	11,622	—	76	—	69
M.S. Hei Maru	11,621	—	76	—	69
M.S. Heian Maru	11,615	—	76	—	69
S.S. Husimi Maru	10,936	86	—	38	—
S.S. Suwa Maru	10,672	83	—	38	—
S.S. Haruna Maru	10,421	83	—	40	—
S.S. Hakone Maru	10,420	83	—	40	—
S.S. Hakozaki Maru	10,413	83	—	40	—
S.S. Hakusan Maru	10,380	85	—	40	—
S.S. Kasima Maru	9,908	74	—	34	—
S.S. Katori Maru	9,849	42	—	110	—
M.S. Heiyō Maru	9,816	42	—	—	80
S.S. Yamato Maru	9,656	61	—	217	—
S.S. Rakuyō Maru	9,419	42	—	—	51
S.S. Asahi Maru	9,327	63	—	220	—
S.S. Anyō Maru	9,257	—	24	—	47
S.S. Huzi Maru	9,130	38	—	165	—
S.S. Yosino Maru	8,990	18	—	177	—
S.S. Ginyō Maru	8,613	—	20	—	37
S.S. Atuta Maru	7,983	55	—	14	—
S.S. Kamo Maru	7,955	51	—	—	—
S.S. Kitano Maru	7,952	55	—	14	—
Ships under Construction					
S.S. Kasiwara Maru	28,000*	220	—	120	—
S.S. Izumo Maru	28,000*	220	—	120	—
S.S. Kasuga Maru	17,000*	127	—	88	—
M.S. Miike Maru	11,400*	60	—	—	—
M.S. Misima Maru	11,400*	60	—	—	—

Note: (*) indicates approximate tonnage.

LIST OF LARGE O.S.K. SHIPS

	Gross Tonnage	Nominal Horse Power	Year Constructed
S.S. Arizona Maru	9,684	5,500	1920
M.S. Rio de Janeiro Maru	9,627	5,000	1929
M.S. Buenos Aires Maru	9,626	5,000	"
M.S. La Plata Maru	7,267	3,800	1925
M.S. Santos Maru	7,267	3,800	1925
M.S. Montevideo Maru	7,267	3,800	1926
S.S. Arabla Maru	9,480	5,500	1918
S.S. Africa Maru	9,476	5,500	"
S.S. Manila Maru	9,486	5,600	1915
S.S. Hawaii Maru	9,467	4,800	1915
S.S. Horai Maru	9,192	7,400	1912
S.S. Mizuho Maru	8,506	6,400	"
S.S. Takachiho Maru	8,154	7,100	1933
M.S. Argentina Maru	13,000	10,500	1939
M.S. Brasil Maru	13,000	10,500	1939
M.S. Hokoku Maru	10,500	10,000	1940
S.S. Sela Maru	6,659	4,200	1939
M.S. Nana Maru	6,757	4,200	1940
M.S. Toa Maru	6,732	3,300	1939
M.S. Hokai Maru	8,416	5,700	1932
M.S. Nankai Maru	8,416	5,700	1932
M.S. Sanyo Maru	8,360	5,000	1930
M.S. Kinai Maru	8,360	5,000	1930
M.S. Hokuriku Maru	8,360	5,000	1930
M.S. Tokai Maru	8,360	5,000	1930
S.S. Takasago Maru	9,347	8,600	1936
M.S. Aikoku Maru	10,500	10,000	1940
M.S. Kokoku Maru	10,500	10,000	1940
S.S. Nekka Maru	6,785	6,400	1934
S.S. Ural Maru	6,374	5,000	1928
S.S. Kokuryu Maru	7,369	6,100	1937
S.S. Oryoku Maru	7,363	6,100	1937
S.S. Kiturin Maru	6,783	6,400	1934

LIST OF KOKUSAI LINERS

	Deadweight Capacity	Main Diesel Engine	Maximum Speed
	Tons	B.H.P.	Knots
M.V. Kagu Maru	9,206	7,000	19.504
M.V. Kano Maru	9,731	7,600	19.010
M.V. Kasli Maru	9,400	7,000	19.435
M.V. Katuragi Maru	9,581	6,000	17.082
M.V. Kinka Maru	10,096	9,200	21.554
M.V. Kinryu Maru	10,142	9,200	20.004
M.V. Kinugasa Maru	9,485	7,000	19.175
M.V. Kirisima Maru	9,781	6,000	18.020
M.V. Kiyosumi Maru	9,849	7,600	19.165
M.V. Komaki Maru	9,779	7,600	19.583
M.V. Kongo Maru	9,801	7,600	19.636
M.V. Kurama Maru	10,294	4,050	15.978

Sea Transportation in 1939 and 1940

In 1938 the shipping business was brisk in the coastal, but depressed in the ocean-going trade. The business depression in England and the United States, together with a decrease in the volume of grain transported to Europe and restrictions imposed by the Japanese Government on imports, was responsible for the depression in overseas shipping. Bottoms were released, therefore, from ocean services and placed on coastal runs where demand for space had been steadily increasing by virtue of the China Affair and prosperity of the munition industry. A shortage of bottoms was felt in coastal trade throughout 1938, accompanied by increases in freight and charter rates.

The Marine Transport Voluntary Autonomous Shipping Control Committee thrice carried out reductions in freight rates and charterage in its efforts to check the upward tendency, but the market generally quoted rates higher than the standards fixed by the committee. To meet the situation more effectively the committee expanded its organization and fixed detailed standards of freight rates and charterage. On the whole, this system of voluntary control of freight rates and charterage by the committee was satisfactory until April 1939 when a shortage of bottoms threatened to stimulate surreptitious transactions in chartering vessels and in securing space, thus compelling the committee to enforce stricter control on freight rates and charterage.

In 1938 the Government announced its plan to have the shipping companies build new vessels and to this end submitted to the 74th session of the Imperial Diet a bill granting advances for shipbuilding and compensation to cover losses incurred in shipbuilding; and a bill governing the organization of a marine transport association and shipbuilding law. These bills were approved by the Diet and put into effect from 1939. Together with the progress made in the establishment of the economic bloc among Japan, Manchoukuo and China, the necessity was keenly felt for securing to Japan the marine transport business among these countries. Preparations were pushed in 1938 and the ground was fully prepared in 1939 towards this aim. In short, voluntary control was developed to the fullest extent in the shipping industry from 1938 until

early 1939 in order to cooperate in the prosecution of military operations in China and to prepare for Japan's future supreme shipping position in the development of the economic bloc of Japan, Manchoukuo and China.

The National Policy in Marine Transport Augmented by the completion of large vessels, whose keels were laid during the previous prosperous couple of years of the shipping industry, Japan's mercantile fleet's aggregate tonnage increased phenomenally in 1938.

The Government had hitherto granted advances for shipbuilding through the Japan Industrial Bank to the amount of ¥150,000,000, including ¥70,000,000 in 1937 and ¥80,000,000 in 1938. The Government not only subsidized the bank in the form of interest on the advances, but also compensated it for any losses incurred, from extra-budget state disbursements. Enactment of the law governing advances for shipbuilding and compensation of losses incurred in shipbuilding has legalized the subsidy system, which will be enforced not only through the Japan Industrial Bank but also through other banks.

The law provides that the Government may subsidize those financial institutions which grant advances for shipbuilding, while the Government is authorized to compensate financial institutions for losses sustained by them in granting advances for shipbuilding. The subsidy granted by the Government, however, shall not exceed the amount approved by the Diet.

It is further stipulated by the law that (a) advances for shipbuilding may be repaid within fifteen years of which the initial two years may be designated as period in which redemption payments need not be made; (b) the ships constructed shall be held as first mortgages, other vessels or assets being held in place of the vessels during the course of their construction; (c) the mortgage value of any vessel shall be two-thirds the cost or four-fifths of its insured amount, whichever is the lower, in case of any difference between the two; (d) the advances shall not exceed the mortgage value, unless another vessel or assets be mortgaged to make up the deficit in mortgage value subject to permission of the competent Minister of State.

This law, which shall be in force for ten years, starting 1930, authorizes the Government to compensate banking institutions for the losses sustained by them in making advances for shipbuilding to the amount of 70 per cent of the actual losses.

The scope of advances, the extent of Government subsidies and the rate of interest are to be stipulated by Imperial ordinances. For 1939 it has been decided that (a) the amount of advances shall not exceed ¥90,000,000; (b) the Government subsidies shall be one per cent of the advances to be granted by banking institutions, with the provision that the margin shall be added to the government subsidies in case the original rate of interest on the advances exceeds 3.7 per annum; and (c) the rate of interest on the advances shall be 3.7 per cent. This rate is the same as that on advances hitherto granted for shipbuilding, but whereas the old advances were limited to the building of steel freighters of over 4,000 tons, the new advances are to be granted for the construction of medium and small vessels, namely those from 1,000 to 4,000 tons.

The Marine Transportation Association Law The law has been enacted on December 21 to ensure a healthy development of the marine transport business and to compel the shipping interests to organize an association for the furtherance of their common business, enforce voluntary control and mediate in the settlement of disputes. The law authorizes the Minister of Communications (a) to enjoin those engaged in the marine transport business to organize an association in case of necessity, (b) to enjoin non-members who are qualified for membership to adhere to the association's aims, (c) to approve the charter and by-laws of the association, (d) to instruct the association to install equipment necessary for its development and (e) to enjoin both the members and non-members to abide by the control to be enforced by the association. The Japan Shipowners' Association and the Marine Transport autonomous Federation hitherto had been exercising control over the marine transport business on a voluntary basis, but with no power to enforce their control over the non-members. The new legislation, however, authorizes the Minister of Communications to control both the members and non-mem-

bers through the Marine Transport Association.

The Shipbuilding Industry Law This law which was put into operation as from December 1, is aimed at placing the shipbuilding industry under government control in order to stabilize it by giving proper protection and encouragement and to lower shipbuilding costs, which are comparatively high in this country compared with the international level, and make it possible to build superior vessels at a low cost. Under the provisions of the new legislation, the shipbuilding industry is supervised and protected by the Government in the following way:

(a) Any one who desires to engage in shipbuilding must apply to the Government for permission.

(b) The Government is authorized to enjoin the shipbuilding companies to standardize parts of their enterprises, hulls and their parts and to prohibit the manufacture or the use of those parts that fall below the standards.

(c) The shipbuilding companies are permitted to issue debentures beyond the amount stipulated by commercial law.

(d) The shipbuilding companies may sell to the Government the ships, engines and their parts, which they have assembled; but they are required to obtain Government permission for dismantling or suspending operation of their technical apparatus and equipment.

(e) The Government is empowered to enjoin the shipbuilding companies to alter production costs, repair charges and selling prices or selling terms for ships, hulls, engines, fittings, their parts and accessories; and to enjoin them to install new technical equipment and to re-condition or improve the old.

(f) The Government is also authorized to grant subsidies for shipbuilding. In case of special necessity for the maintenance of the shipbuilding industry, the Government is empowered to subsidize shipbuilding companies or those who place orders with them for the construction of new vessels.

(g) The new legislation also stipulates for the organization of a shipbuilding association and a federation of shipbuilding associations.

The European War on Shipping Influenced by the inactive world market, the deep-sea market of Japanese shipping circles in 1939 set out to be dull,

with gradual decrease in the number of ships placed on routes and fluctuation of freight rates. In September, however, the shipping market began to assume a stronger tone owing to the outbreak of the European War. Thus, with the jump in freight and charter rates on the oversea services, all rates of charge of Japanese deep-sea services simultaneously recorded a sudden rise.

Since the beginning of the European War freight rates in all countries were raised by 30 to 250 per cent, and union freight rates on important routes became 20 to 60 per cent higher than the former rates. In the tramper market a temporary lull was followed by another jump in December. The pre-war freight rates to Europe which were as low as 20 to 30 shillings rose in three or four months to a high of about 100 shillings. Japanese pre-war transportation rate for soya beans from Dairen to Europe of approximately 25 shillings recorded a tremendous jump to 140 shillings or five to six times the former rate at the end of the year.

However, notwithstanding the high tone of the oversea market, since an enormous volume of shipping bottoms were required to consolidate and maintain the near-sea transport capacity, the Japanese shipping interests could not immediately adopt a positive policy in extending their power on the oversea shipping lanes nor in catching the golden opportunity for acquiring foreign currencies through services abroad. But later due to the control of ship-routing and the increase of shipping bottoms by the cooperation of the Government and shipping companies, there was a gradual increase in the number of ships for overseas services, and at the close of the year the tonnage of tramp steamers placed on deep-sea routes amounted to 1,240,000 tons, a tremendous increase of approximately 250,000 tons as compared with the tonnage in the early part of the year.

The Near-Sea Shipping On the other

hand, the near-sea market enjoyed an exceedingly busy year. In order to perfect the transportation of military supplies to the Continent and for the consolidation and maintenance of the transport capacity to assure the supply of materials in connection with the amplification of the national productive-power, the demand for shipping bottoms sharply increased. The pressing demand was due primarily to the increased movement of important cargoes consisting of coal, ores, miscellaneous goods, etc. When a lull occurred in freight movement in the earlier part of the year, the return to the market of a large number of specially commissioned vessels and the placing into service of newly-constructed ships caused a slight temporary surplus of bottoms. In the latter half of the year, however, the first zone of the near-sea service (between 113°-170° E. Long. and 21°-63° N. Lat.) alone was augmented by the addition of 600,000 tons of shipping bottoms, not to speak of the other zones, surpassing the 2,000,000 ton level in July, the remarkable record figure since the summer of 1929. Yet the market absorbed it, leaving hardly any surplus of bottoms.

In spite of the fact that the home market continued to be brisk, later owing to the return to the market of special service ships and ships in northern waters or to the addition of new ships to the service and on account of strengthened control, the shippers were able to send large- and medium-sized ships on the busy overseas routes to some extent with the approach of the close of the year.

Freight Rates In spite of the brisk market and the reaction of the deep-sea market in the latter half of the year, the freight and charter rates in the near-sea routes underwent but a slight change in 1939 according to the standard rates, thanks to the able management of the marine transportation control.

FREIGHT RATES

Cargo	Routes	1939				
		Jan. 1937	Jan. 1938	Jan.	June	Dec.
Coal	Wakamatsu-Tokyo, Yokohama (yen per ton)	2.40	5.30	4.80	4.80	4.80
Soya-bean cakes	Dairen-Yokohama (yen per picul)	0.18	0.37	0.35	0.40	0.50

Cargo Logs	Routes	1939			
		Jan. 1937	Jan. 1938	Jan.	June
	Karafuto-Pacific coast of Japan Proper (yen per 100 koku)	180.0	380.0	350.0	350.0

CHARTER RATES

(Yen per deadweight ton)

Vessels of	1939			
	Jan. 1937	Jan. 1938	Jan.	June
4,000-ton class (near-sea)	3.60	8.00	7.40	7.40
6,000-7,000-ton class (near-sea)	3.30	7.50	6.30	6.30
8,000-9,000-ton class (deep-sea)	3.00	6.80	5.40	5.40

Movement of Shipping Bottoms The deadweight tonnage of Japanese tramp steamers of over 2,000 tons in service increased approximately 650,000 tons since the beginning of the year. This is mainly due to the addition of new ships and also to the increased enlistment of foreign-registered ships.

Since the beginning of the China Affair an exceedingly large number of tramp steamers were pressed into special service, but in recent times when the progress of the Affair had advanced to a constructive stage an increasing number gradually reverted to its former routine. The especially bustling activity in the near-seas sharply increased on the Japanese coast and in the South Sea regions. The North American Pacific Coast, South American, Australian and the African services were expanded, while the British India and the European services declined.

Moreover, significant is the fact that important shipping companies took the lead in cancelling a tremendous volume of shipping space on foreign-chartered ships, according to the national exchange policy, the number of chartered foreign ships drastically dropping to as low as about one-third. Consequently the merchant fleet, which was plying in the seas centered in Japan, could not supply enough bottoms, although it was strengthened by the addition of newly commissioned vessels.

The volume of cargo movement in Japanese foreign trade during the eleven months of 1939 in comparison with the corresponding period of the previous year increased by approximately 21 per cent. The volume of bottoms of trade boats which entered Japanese ports reached a total of 120,000,000 tons,

an increase by 6,800,000 tons, of the total Japanese ships comprised 80,000,000 tons, or 66.5 per cent against 59 per cent of 1938, reflecting the removal of foreign ships from the Oriental routes and the sudden decrease in number of chartered foreign vessels.

Emergency Measures For the consolidation and maintenance of transport capacity in connection with the China Affair and the adjustment of shipping rates, the Autonomous Shipping Federation was early organized among the principal shipping companies. With the close cooperation of Government officials an autonomous control was effected particularly in regard to shipping and charter rates. Standard rates were fixed and strictly enforced, in accordance with the State low-price policy. But entering into 1939 the activity of the near-sea market became more pronounced, manifesting the acute shortage of bottoms, and smaller shipowners began to addict to underhanded dealings, revealing the defect of the autonomous control.

Under the circumstances, officials of the Communications Ministry strengthened the shipping control in the latter part of August by organizing the Shipping Control Committee evolving from the Japan Shipowners' Association and the Autonomous Shipping Federation (renamed as Shipping Federation) and the Smaller S. S. Control Committee evolving from the Near-Sea Steamship Federation.

The newly-established Shipping Control Committee, which was placed into operation on September 1, with the purpose of regulating the harmonization of marine charges and charter rates for controlled management of shipping

business in consonance with the national policy aimed not merely to control the shipping charges, charter rates, etc. as heretofore, but primarily to strengthen control in the distribution of ships and its rationalization, intensifying the trend of Government control rather than the hitherto autonomous control.

The rise in shipping rates had been thus checked considerably by the adoption of the fixed standard rates when it was completely checked by virtue of the Ordinance issued in November to suspend prices and charges at the level of September 18. In the latter part of December an Imperial Ordinance was promulgated concerning the enforcement of the Marine Transportation Association Law.

On February 1, 1940, the Ordinance concerning the Control of Sea Transportation was issued by virtue of Article 8 of the National General Mobilization Law to invest the Government with the power to issue orders to speed up ship-repairing, to charter ships, to hasten shipment of goods and to put shipbuilding and the charter of foreign vessels under a permission system.

The Japan Shipowners' Association was dissolved on May 11, 1940, and the new Japanese Sea Transportation Association was organized by 197 shipowners of Japan, in accordance with the provisions of the Marine Transportation Association Law, while the Shipping Control Committee and the Near-sea Shipping Federation were reorganized by virtue of the same law.

In June, 1934 the N.Y.K. and the O.S.K. agreed upon the continuation of the 1931 agreement on the division of the area of power, the term of which is to expire at the end of 1940, with necessary amendments to meet the present requirements.

On June the Mediterranean Sea was closed and ships were compelled to sail around the Cape of Good Hope. Of course, Japanese shipping, like that of other countries, is greatly affected by this change, but the number of Japanese tramp steamers placed on the seas abroad at the end of the month reached 120 with an aggregate tonnage of 1,245,000 tons, an increase of 13 vessels with 29,700 tons over the previous month.

Warehousing

History

Since warehousing depends on the storing of large quantities of goods, transportation facilities are the factors which influence its success, and expansion of one calls for an expansion of the other and, in Japan, it was the development of transport facilities in the days of Meiji which gave rise to the modern warehousing business.

Warehouses of kinds have always existed. Emperors in olden times kept rice and cereals in warehouses for military purposes. Later, cereals were kept to provide for relief of the people in case of poor crops, but in either case, the warehouses were used for military or political, not commercial, purposes. When the Tokugawas came to rule the country as Shoguns about three hundred years ago, both Yedo (present Tokyo) and Osaka became great cities where trade and commerce flourished. Transportation by sea developed, and many feudal lords came to reside in these cities, bringing with them, or having sent to them, the agricultural products of their country districts. The produce was stored at the

lords' residences, which became, in a sense, public warehouses. The produce was sold by public tender and to the successful bidder a memorandum was given against receipt of payment in cash. This memorandum was equivalent to the warehouse receipt of the present day, and the holder of the memorandum was authorized to keep his cereals in the warehouses for the time stipulated on it. Loans were often raised with memoranda as collaterals.

After the Restoration, owing to development of commerce and activity in the movement of goods, many warehouse businesses were started, the first company to operate on a modern basis being the Soko Kaisha in Fukagawa, Tokyo, established in 1881 with a capital of ¥65,000. Dissolution took place 3 years later. In Osaka, the Konoké family organized the Osaka Soko Kaisha with a capital of ¥200,000 in 1882. In 1883, the Sanbashi Kaisha in Kobe, and in 1884, the Otsu Soko Kaisha in Otsu in Shiga prefecture, were established. In 1886, the Tokyo Soko Kaisha, Ltd., was founded by the Iwasaki family. After that year there was no great

change until after the Sino-Japanese War, when with increased foreign trade and improved transportation facilities by land and sea, the number of warehouse companies rapidly increased. In 1906, there were 536 people engaged in the warehouse business, either on private account or on an incorporated basis.

Present State of the Business

At the end of 1939 the number of warehouses managed by the member companies of the Japan Warehouse As-

sociation was 185, the value of commodities stored, being, on the average throughout the year ¥818,183,000. The monthly average for the first half of 1940 was ¥1,126,170. According to an investigation made by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, the number of warehouse managements in the country at the end of 1938 totalled 456, capitalized at ¥182,736,977, and profit gained ¥6,059,511.

Value of Commodities The quantity and value of commodities stored in the warehouses were as follows:

STOCKS IN WAREHOUSES IN JAPAN PROPER

(According to the Japan Warehouse Association)

Year	Average		End of June		End of December					
	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	
1931	96	22,322	432,715	96	22,113	458,917	96	24,134	410,988	
1932	97	26,732	510,957	98	29,712	546,683	98	23,134	486,144	
1933	101	27,041	577,555	99	28,901	629,965	105	28,892	585,085	
1934	107	37,467	719,276	108	40,208	775,846	107	33,016	661,809	
1935	108	31,750	645,913	107	33,449	686,155	111	27,284	537,809	
1936	127	29,461	614,381	114	30,935	683,639	155	26,026	539,635	
1937	173	33,020	807,692	175	34,045	936,759	183	33,550	722,408	
1938	186	33,933	730,448	187	35,691	762,675	188	30,967	718,828	
1939	188	31,327	818,183	188	32,469	802,841	185	29,947	893,452	

Stocks in Warehouses by Districts

End of	Tokyo-Yokohama District			Kobe-Osaka District			Other Districts		
	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000
1931	19	6,020	159,453	14	9,581	164,500	63	8,532	87,033
1932	20	6,782	182,114	14	8,849	213,263	64	7,492	90,765
1933	21	7,337	187,227	14	11,350	270,406	70	10,204	127,451
1934	21	8,770	202,383	14	10,670	297,127	72	13,575	162,293
1935	20	6,314	165,953	16	8,339	217,798	75	12,630	154,158
1936	24	5,808	134,335	19	7,913	254,411	112	12,305	149,889
1937	24	6,054	186,143	21	9,822	302,009	138	17,674	234,256
1938	27	5,564	199,322	21	8,801	279,648	140	16,602	239,858
1939	28	5,662	245,945	20	9,387	344,874	137	14,893	302,634

(Note: Stocks in warehouses at the end of June 1940 were valued at 1,225.7 million yen, the Tokyo-Yokohama and Kobe-Osaka districts comprising 848.4 million yen.)

STOCKS IN WAREHOUSES BY IMPORTANT COMMODITIES

(Quantity in 1,000 parcels)

At the end of	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Rice	10,386	9,966	14,381	18,630	9,714	6,525	7,729	6,906	2,299
Other cereals & flour	1,741	1,384	2,118	2,267	2,870	2,870	3,804	3,802	5,972
Sugar	1,597	2,637	2,156	818	910	1,011	1,420	654	605
Foodstuffs	1,911	1,464	1,493	2,373	2,776	3,914	3,264	3,257	3,177
Cocoon	269	246	338	218	211	298	369	306	374
Cotton	83	242	368	383	127	303	149	117	152

At the end of	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Wool, etc.	75	115	153	126	139	77	114	88	51
Yarns	309	212	194	223	245	173	547	535	320
Textiles	219	165	305	301	1,162	362	961	817	1,074
Paper and materials	1,022	541	418	680	810	720	71	679	688
Fertilizers & materials	3,026	2,400	1,959	1,610	2,127	2,550	2,738	2,522	2,459
Iron & metal manufactures	1,856	1,603	3,303	2,809	3,452	3,826	5,027	5,502	5,308
Chemicals, dyestuff, fats	605	470	472	572	914	1,181	1,017	852	832
Total	24,134	23,134	28,892	33,016	27,284	26,026	33,550	30,967	29,947

(Value in ¥1,000,000)

At the end of	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Rice	77.2	86.7	122.3	198.2	108.7	75.3	89.5	87.1	40.2
Other cereals & flour	6.4	14.6	9.5	15.3	19.3	27.9	36.6	38.4	82.2
Sugar	22.2	46.9	39.5	12.4	15.1	15.3	26.9	12.5	11.0
Foodstuffs	24.0	21.0	18.1	30.7	35.4	43.5	43.0	53.0	55.3
Cocoons	10.6	15.2	18.2	9.6	15.2	17.2	20.1	16.6	47.4
Cotton	9.6	46.1	68.1	82.7	22.8	68.3	22.8	8.4	9.9
Wool, etc.	21.6	43.9	35.1	37.2	21.1	22.2	41.5	26.1	15.2
Yarns	119.2	126.6	123.3	115.8	102.3	77.3	103.4	94.9	82.3
Textiles	24.9	21.1	44.2	45.1	49.4	43.9	81.4	142.3	184.6
Paper & materials	42.6	29.0	22.2	25.5	31.3	29.6	41.9	37.9	31.0
Fertilizers & materials	17.0	12.7	7.6	6.6	9.6	15.5	19.3	15.1	19.4
Iron & manufactures	17.1	14.6	27.4	22.6	36.0	34.9	73.0	77.7	121.8
Chemicals, dyestuff, fats	10.7	9.3	13.7	12.9	17.5	21.4	32.8	30.4	34.2
Others	21.0	20.1	26.5	33.7	37.3	48.2	89.7	77.8	158.3
Total	410.9	486.1	585.0	661.8	537.8	539.6	722.4	718.8	893.4

CHAPTER XXVI

LABOR AND LABOR MOVEMENTS

Vocational Classification
 Statistics classifying the population in Japan proper according to the kinds of

work actually engaged in and the number of employees in each occupation can be obtained from the Report of the National Census of 1930 as follows:

CLASSIFICATION OF PEOPLE IN JAPAN PROPER ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS

(The 1930 Census)

	Total	Male	Female	Total	Employee	Female
Total Population	64,450,005	32,390,155	32,059,850			
Unoccupied	34,830,365	13,359,918	21,470,447			
Occupied	29,619,640	19,030,237	10,589,403	20,037,851	10,676,109	9,397,742
Farming	14,140,107	7,743,065	6,397,042	9,133,417	3,173,283	5,960,334
Marine	546,624	501,078	45,546	314,378	271,258	43,120
Mining	251,220	210,174	41,046	241,430	200,496	40,934
Industry	5,699,581	4,269,151	1,430,430	4,037,681	2,808,985	1,228,696
Commerce	4,478,098	3,013,903	1,464,195	2,282,556	1,299,831	982,725
Transport	1,107,574	1,028,595	78,979	925,268	848,020	77,248
Public service	2,044,151	1,691,803	352,348	1,821,237	1,532,051	289,186
Domestic	781,319	84,203	697,116	781,319	84,203	697,116
Miscellaneous	570,966	488,265	82,701	536,365	457,982	78,383

According to spot investigations made by the Labor Section of the Social Bureau the classifications of laborers according to kinds of occupation on October 10, 1936 was as follows:

Factory workers	1,810,434
Mine workers	274,694
Transportation and communications	405,292

Labor Conditions

According to the investigation made by the police stations the total number of laborers in Japan proper was 6,765,399, consisting of 4,830,642 males and 1,934,757 females, at the end of 1938, a gain of 343,066 over the previous year. The following table shows the movements of the number of laborers in recent years. (The number of farmers is given in Chapter XIII.)

NUMBER OF LABORERS IN JAPAN PROPER (Compiled by the Home Ministry)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Grand Total						
Total	5,126,719	5,764,277	5,906,589	6,090,116	6,422,333	6,765,399
Male	3,592,899	4,066,322	4,146,960	4,280,023	4,534,342	4,830,642
Female	1,533,820	1,697,955	1,759,629	1,810,093	1,887,991	1,934,757
Factory						
Total	2,234,029	2,539,384	2,791,902	3,067,417	3,406,969	3,855,184
Male	1,247,644	1,438,983	1,629,869	1,813,616	2,127,094	2,487,296
Female	986,385	1,100,401	1,162,033	1,253,801	1,279,875	1,367,888
Mine						
Total	227,988	247,186	274,804	320,481	366,171	435,810
Male	202,862	220,084	247,668	285,414	311,390	389,365
Female	25,126	27,102	27,136	35,067	54,781	46,445

LABOR CONDITIONS

603

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Transportation and Communications						
Total	556,929	555,124	544,475	565,264	549,324	545,158
Male	496,293	488,544	472,101	493,297	476,949	470,601
Female	60,636	66,580	72,374	71,967	72,375	74,557
Day Laborers, etc.						
Total	2,107,773	2,422,583	2,295,408	2,136,954	2,099,869	1,929,247
Male	1,646,100	1,918,711	1,797,322	1,687,696	1,618,909	1,483,380
Female	461,673	503,872	498,086	449,258	480,960	445,867

Factories and Laborers The number of factories where more than 5 operatives are employed in Japan proper at the end of 1938 was 112,332, an increase of 6,327 or 6.0 per cent as compared with the previous year. The number of laborers employed in

the 112,332 factories above mentioned was 3,215,421 (1,997,807 men, 1,217,614 women), gaining 278,909 or 9.5 per cent over the previous year. Classification of the same according to kinds of industry follows:

NUMBER OF FACTORY LABORERS BY INDUSTRIES IN 1938

Industry:	Sex Distribution			
	Number	Percentage to the Total		
			Male	
			Female	
Textile	976,953	30.4	183,355 (18.8%)	793,598 (81.2%)
Metal	377,398	11.7	346,928 (91.9%)	30,470 (8.1%)
Machinery, tools, etc.	860,431	26.8	772,541 (89.8%)	87,890 (10.2%)
Ceramic	105,345	3.3	81,164 (77.0%)	24,181 (23.0%)
Chemical	322,205	10.0	221,494 (68.7%)	100,711 (31.3%)
Lumber and wood-working	113,823	3.5	99,829 (87.7%)	13,994 (12.3%)
Printing and binding	63,568	2.0	54,520 (85.8%)	9,048 (14.2%)
Foodstuff	190,697	5.9	139,869 (73.3%)	50,828 (26.7%)
Gas and electric	10,517	0.3	10,450 (99.4%)	67 (0.6%)
Miscellaneous	194,484	6.1	87,657 (45.1%)	106,827 (54.9%)
Total	3,215,421	100	1,997,807 (62.1%)	1,217,614 (37.9%)

Age Distribution

Industry:	Age Distribution		
	Under 16	16-49	Over 50
Textile	168,386 (17.2%)	796,266 (81.5%)	12,301 (1.3%)
Metal	13,210 (3.5%)	355,233 (94.1%)	8,955 (2.4%)
Machinery, tools, etc.	66,020 (7.7%)	781,133 (90.8%)	13,278 (1.5%)
Ceramic	4,387 (4.2%)	95,785 (90.9%)	5,173 (4.9%)
Chemical	21,270 (6.6%)	294,149 (91.3%)	6,786 (2.1%)
Lumber and wood-working	3,281 (2.9%)	105,038 (92.3%)	5,504 (4.8%)
Printing and binding	3,051 (4.8%)	58,943 (92.7%)	1,574 (2.5%)
Foodstuff	4,791 (2.5%)	180,113 (94.5%)	5,793 (3.0%)
Gas and electric	72 (0.7%)	9,888 (94.0%)	557 (5.3%)
Miscellaneous	12,393 (6.4%)	177,131 (91.1%)	4,960 (2.5%)
Total	296,861 (9.2%)	2,853,679 (88.8%)	64,881 (2.0%)

Labor Conditions in 1939

The Bank of Japan index number of laborers in mills under private management was 133.5 in December 1938 (base: 1926), and it rose to 144.8 in December 1939.

The change in the index number of laborers in recent years is as shown

below. The boom in the munition industries has caused a great increase in the number of laborers employed. The increase is much smaller in the case of female laborers than in that of male laborers. This is explained by the fact that the industries which are showing activity are those which require male labor.

COMPARISON OF INDEX NUMBERS OF LABORERS IN 1938 and 1939

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)

(Base: 1926=100)

	Average		Male		Female			Average		Male		Female	
	1938	1939	1938	1939	1938	1939		1938	1939	1938	1939	1938	1939
Jan.	122.9	134.1	146.2	170.6	99.8	97.5	Aug.	130.2	143.9	161.0	187.8	99.3	99.0
Feb.	123.5	135.0	148.0	173.0	99.1	96.8	Sept.	131.1	144.7	163.4	189.2	98.7	99.0
March	125.0	137.1	150.9	175.9	99.2	98.0	Oct.	131.9	144.8	165.6	190.1	98.1	98.6
April	129.3	142.9	155.4	183.0	103.3	102.5	Nov.	132.8	144.9	167.3	190.7	98.1	98.2
May	129.8	143.5	156.8	184.5	102.9	102.3	Dec.	133.5	144.8	169.0	191.0	97.8	97.7
June	130.0	143.9	158.3	185.8	101.8	101.6	Year	129.2	141.9	158.5	184.0	99.9	99.4
July	129.9	143.8	159.5	186.6	100.2	100.6							

INDEX NUMBER OF FACTORY LABORERS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)

(Base: 1926=100)

Industries	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
					August
Silk reeling	60.3	55.8	54.5	53.7	55.4
Cotton spinning	74.1	72.9	77.8	72.6	65.1
Textiles	79.5	79.9	82.8	78.9	75.3
Dyeing	115.8	122.9	125.5	117.1	112.1
Knitting	93.6	103.8	108.2	104.2	97.1
Machinery	197.6	222.0	280.8	422.4	577.6
Shipbuilding	117.5	143.0	187.7	232.6	276.5
Vehicles	119.4	125.2	134.8	164.9	222.7
Instruments	150.7	171.6	207.9	278.4	375.0
Metal wares	133.0	145.9	168.6	204.0	261.0
Ceramics	85.9	90.8	98.5	99.5	100.8
Paper making	84.5	89.1	94.8	97.2	103.1
Pharmaceutical	134.5	147.3	163.7	186.6	255.3
Rubber goods	147.7	151.0	156.9	141.4	131.2
Artificial fertilizers	96.9	113.3	135.0	158.3	186.0
Foodstuffs	90.1	92.8	97.3	105.9	110.2
Printing and book-binding	97.6	100.8	102.0	101.0	102.0
Lumber and furniture	79.8	82.6	82.4	81.1	78.7

INDEX NUMBER OF WAGE RATES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES

(Base: 1926=100)

Industries	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
					August
Silk reeling	61.6	61.7	64.2	67.9	77.6
Cotton spinning	67.1	67.3	71.2	75.1	83.5
Textiles	73.4	74.2	77.5	79.3	90.5
Dyeing	82.8	82.8	85.1	87.9	101.3
Knitting	74.3	73.2	75.1	81.2	94.5
Machinery	78.0	76.1	76.3	78.7	84.3
Shipbuilding	88.6	86.9	87.1	88.4	94.1
Vehicles	77.1	76.2	78.7	81.0	86.2
Instruments	78.9	77.1	76.7	79.2	85.9
Metal wares	83.3	82.2	82.7	85.6	93.6
Ceramics	83.5	83.8	85.6	89.4	99.1
Paper making	87.3	86.8	89.8	93.7	104.7

Industries	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Pharmaceutical	86.9	87.0	88.4	90.5	August 97.9
Rubber goods	81.3	79.0	79.9	85.6	100.1
Artificial fertilizers	97.9	97.6	96.8	96.5	103.4
Foodstuffs	89.2	89.2	91.4	92.9	98.1
Printing and book-binding	78.8	77.6	77.9	80.7	89.1
Lumber and furniture	77.0	75.9	77.4	81.5	96.3
Average	81.3	80.7	82.4	85.4	92.7

Unemployment The first thorough investigation on unemployment in Japan was made at the national census of October 1, 1935; the number of jobless laborers and salaried-men at that time was 322,527. Annual estimates had been made by the Social Bureau since 1929, based on the reports sent in by local governments at the beginning of every month. The number had increased from 268,000 in September 1929 to 505,000 in September 1932. But

the tendency turned at the end of 1932 as the result of the Government's emergency measures and an increased demand for labor in the heavy industries and an increase in the number of men called up for the services; the number of unemployed fell to 270,000 on December 1, 1937 and 227,000 on November 1, 1938. The rate of decrease of unemployment is greatest for factory and mine laborers as is shown below:

UNEMPLOYMENT BY KINDS OF LABOR

(Compiled by the Welfare Ministry)

(Unit: 1,000)

	Total		Rate	Salaried Men		Rate
	Investigation made on	Unemployment		Investigation made on	Unemployment	
Dec. 1930	6,890	362	5.25	1,624	63	3.91
Dec. 1931	7,047	470	6.68	1,664	77	4.65
Dec. 1932	7,263	463	6.38	1,692	83	4.94
Dec. 1933	7,410	378	5.11	1,720	69	4.01
Dec. 1934	7,517	360	4.80	1,738	67	3.88
Dec. 1935	7,778	351	4.52	1,787	68	3.82
Dec. 1936	7,919	323	4.08	1,829	66	3.58
Dec. 1937	8,012	270	3.37	1,859	59	3.16
Nov. 1938	7,910	227	2.86	1,880	49	2.62
Sept. 1939	8,320	169	2.03	1,881	31	1.66

Laborers

	Day-laborers		Rate	Others		Rate
	Investigation made on	Unemployment		Investigation made on	Unemployment	
Dec. 1930	1,615	146	9.07	3,650	151	4.16
Dec. 1931	1,665	188	11.34	3,717	204	5.50
Dec. 1932	1,781	193	10.88	3,788	185	4.91
Dec. 1933	1,789	183	10.24	3,899	126	3.25
Dec. 1934	1,785	176	9.89	3,992	116	2.92
Dec. 1935	1,816	169	9.34	4,174	113	2.72
Dec. 1936	1,839	155	8.43	4,251	103	2.41
Dec. 1937	1,864	130	6.96	4,289	82	1.90
Nov. 1938	1,827	106	5.78	4,193	71	1.69
Sept. 1939	1,774	90	5.04	4,665	48	1.03

At the end of December 1939, the number of unemployment was 115,192

(employers 26,360, employees 88,832), a decrease of 54,000 from September.

Labor Exchanges The conditions of labor exchanges are mentioned in Chapter XXX.

Wages

According to investigations made by the Ministry of Commerce and Indus-

try, the average wage of factory laborers per hour was 15 sen in 1938, an increase of 2 sen as compared with the preceding years. The lowest 9 sen was to be found among textile industry laborers, for a large number of women and juvenile workers are to be found in this industry. Details follow:

Industry	Aggregate Labor Hours	Total Amount of Wages (In yen)	Per Hour Wage (In sen)
Textile	3,054,272,247	264,602,972	9
Metal	1,142,356,056	251,560,416	22
Machinery, tools, etc.	2,534,835,774	499,497,415	20
Ceramic	310,254,575	50,164,089	16
Chemical	1,040,565,694	149,391,688	14
Lumber and woodworking	336,167,173	49,927,237	15
Printing and binding	207,738,886	37,642,876	18
Foodstuff	460,581,895	62,130,239	13
Gas and electric	39,522,528	9,283,650	23
Miscellaneous	605,718,675	67,808,609	11
Total and average	9,732,113,503	1,442,009,191	15

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF LABORERS

(In 13 largest cities)

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(In Yen)

Kind of Employment	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Textile industry:						
Silk-reeler (Female)	0.62	0.64	0.65	0.68	0.71	0.80
Cotton-spinner (Female)	0.67	0.68	0.68	0.74	0.77	0.85
Silk-thrower (Female)	0.63	0.64	0.63	0.69	0.75	0.82
Cotton-weaver (Machine) (Female)	0.65	0.73	0.68	0.71	0.74	0.85
Silk-weaver (Hand) (Female)	0.24	1.37	1.32	1.23	1.18	1.35
Hosiery-knitter (Male)	1.59	1.59	1.41	1.24	1.42	1.75
" " (Female)	0.66	0.67	0.66	0.68	0.71	0.84
Metal, machine and tool industry:						
Lath-man	2.56	2.58	2.52	2.65	2.75	2.83
Finisher	2.46	2.51	2.49	2.57	2.61	2.82
Founder	2.71	2.72	2.64	2.76	2.92	3.05
Blacksmith	2.45	2.44	2.41	2.72	2.88	3.17
Wooden-pattern maker	2.57	2.61	2.54	2.79	2.91	2.87
Kiln industry:						
Potter	1.39	1.36	1.45	1.59	1.66	1.88
Glass-maker	1.68	1.67	1.70	1.72	1.82	2.08
Cement-maker	2.05	2.04	2.03	2.19	2.31	2.54
Brick-maker (Shape)	1.27	1.25	1.25	1.32	1.41	1.81
Tile-maker (Shape)	1.50	1.54	1.51	1.65	1.58	2.05
Chemical industry:						
Vitriol-maker	2.11	2.17	2.11	2.18	2.36	2.53
Match-maker (Male)	1.04	1.11	1.18	1.25	1.35	1.56
" " (Female)	0.50	0.52	0.53	0.58	0.62	0.67
Oil-presser	1.94	1.97	1.92	2.03	2.01	2.29
Japanese-paper maker	1.48	1.46	1.44	1.55	1.69	1.89
Foreign-style paper maker	1.71	1.75	1.75	1.87	1.92	2.08
Leather-maker	2.38	2.35	2.49	2.61	2.86	3.18

Kind of Employment	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Foodstuff industry:						
Flour-miller	1.88	1.92	1.90	1.89	2.01	2.16
Saké-brewery worker	1.51	1.53	1.58	1.59	1.69	1.94
Soy-brewery worker	1.47	1.45	1.42	1.45	1.49	1.67
Sugar-refinery worker	2.34	2.35	2.50	2.66	2.75	2.96
Confectioner	1.46	1.47	1.45	1.54	1.65	1.84
Canner	1.22	1.21	1.25	1.38	1.52	1.73
Clothing industry:						
Tailor (for European clothes)	1.83	1.79	1.77	1.87	1.96	2.13
Shoe-maker	1.77	1.81	1.82	1.91	2.05	2.18
Wooden-clog maker	1.33	1.35	1.40	1.54	1.70	1.96
Engineering and constructional work:						
Carpenter	1.92	1.93	1.99	2.20	2.35	2.68
Plasterer	2.13	2.16	2.22	2.41	2.55	2.86
Stone-mason	2.33	2.40	2.46	2.66	2.82	3.20
Brick-layer	2.31	2.40	2.43	2.59	2.74	3.17
Roofing-tile layer	2.40	2.41	2.50	2.70	3.03	3.25
Painter	2.10	2.12	2.14	2.27	2.41	2.69
Wood and bamboo work:						
Sawyer (Machine)	1.55	1.56	1.56	1.64	1.79	2.11
Joiner	1.72	1.76	1.80	1.97	2.11	2.48
Lacquerer	1.62	1.62	1.60	1.66	1.74	1.91
Floor-mat maker	1.79	1.84	1.89	1.96	2.07	2.29
Printing and book-binding:						
Compositor	2.17	2.21	2.20	2.24	2.21	2.21
Book-binder	1.61	1.72	1.75	1.78	1.89	1.96
Stevedores and daily laborers:						
Stevedore	2.59	2.66	2.57	2.89	3.14	3.48
Day laborer (Male)	1.31	1.33	1.33	1.43	1.58	1.97
" " (Female)	0.78	0.78	0.77	0.82	0.90	1.09

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF WORKERS EMPLOYED IN TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATIONS

(Average of 27 Prefectures)

(In yen)

	1936		1937		1938	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
General Average	2.01	1.03	2.07	1.11	2.03	1.14
Land transportation			2.12	1.27	1.97	1.30
Railway	2.01	1.03	2.04	1.03	1.97	1.02
Electric railway	2.19	1.32	2.30	1.43	2.38	1.49
Bus	2.66	1.28	2.81	1.36	2.84	1.41
Sea transportation	1.95	—	2.08	—	2.22	—
Ocean	2.26	—	2.49	—	2.82	—
Near seas	1.78	—	1.86	—	1.92	—
Coastal	1.44	—	1.48	—	1.56	—
Forwarding	1.62	0.75	1.62	0.72	1.68	0.68
Communications	1.47	—	1.57	1.01	1.62	1.06
Clerks	1.27	1.07	1.34	1.13	1.36	1.16
Postmen	1.69	1.16	1.83	1.30	1.92	1.40
Engineers	1.35	—	1.46	—	1.48	—
Telephone clerks	—	0.92	—	0.99	—	1.04
Operatives	1.53	—	1.62	—	1.68	—

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF WORKERS EMPLOYED IN FARMING AND SERICULTURE

(In yen)

Wages of Workers Employed in Farming										
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
General index numbers	90	77	59	54	56	56	60	64	73	84
Workers by the year										
Male										
Actual	0.66	0.57	0.47	0.42	0.44	0.44	0.48	0.50	0.60	0.76
Index numbers	88	77	61	56	59	59	64	67	79	87
Female										
Actual	0.48	0.41	0.33	0.29	0.32	0.30	0.32	0.35	0.42	0.48
Index numbers	83	70	56	51	55	52	56	62	72	81
Workers by the season										
Male										
Actual	1.45	1.25	0.95	0.85	0.89	0.88	0.95	1.00	1.14	1.33
Index numbers	96	82	63	58	60	60	64	67	75	86
Female										
Actual	1.08	0.96	0.72	0.66	0.69	0.69	0.78	0.80	0.92	1.01
Index numbers	91	79	61	56	58	58	64	65	75	85
Workers by the day										
Male										
Actual	1.35	1.14	0.86	0.77	0.79	0.79	0.85	0.89	1.00	1.18
Index numbers	89	76	57	52	53	53	57	60	67	80
Female										
Actual	1.03	0.87	0.64	0.55	0.57	0.61	0.65	0.67	0.79	0.94
Index numbers	92	77	55	50	50	54	57	61	71	84

N.B. Wages per day are calculated by averaging wages, and amounts paid in kind are estimated in equivalent money values. The average is the simple arithmetical average. Base: 1921-23=100

Wages of Workers Employed in Sericulture

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
General index numbers	101	78	64	59	64	64	69	73	77	87
Workers by the year										
Male										
Actual	0.94	0.73	0.59	0.53	0.58	0.57	0.61	0.64	0.67	0.85
Index numbers	108	83	68	65	74	73	77	81	84	89
Female										
Actual	0.72	0.51	0.38	0.37	0.41	0.41	0.44	0.48	0.51	0.60
Index numbers	104	81	60	60	75	73	75	80	88	82
Workers by the season										
Male										
Actual	1.32	1.05	0.89	0.81	0.86	0.84	0.95	0.98	0.98	1.27
Index numbers	93	75	64	57	60	60	66	68	68	91
Female										
Actual	1.01	0.84	0.67	0.62	0.65	0.66	0.74	0.79	0.81	0.95
Index numbers	96	81	65	60	61	63	70	74	76	90
Workers by the day										
Male										
Actual	1.52	1.09	0.93	0.86	0.89	0.88	0.96	1.01	1.07	1.30
Index numbers	97	70	60	55	56	56	61	65	69	84
Female										
Actual	1.21	0.85	0.73	0.67	0.69	0.70	0.75	0.79	0.84	0.99
Index numbers	108	75	65	59	60	61	66	69	76	88

N.B. Base: 1921-1923=100.

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF MINERS

(In yen)

	1936		1937		1938	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Mineral mines	1.69	0.64	1.84	0.71	2.02	0.77
Coal mines	1.87	0.79	2.10	0.87	2.47	1.07
Oil-fields	1.65	0.86	1.67	0.88	1.73	0.93
Other mines	1.68	0.68	1.74	0.68	1.89	0.75
Average	1.81	0.74	2.01	0.82	2.33	0.96

MONTHLY INDEX NUMBER OF WAGES

(Base: 1926=100)

	1936	1937	1938	1939
January	81.0	81.5	83.8	89.1
February	81.1	81.7	84.0	90.1
March	80.8	81.6	84.2	91.1
April	80.7	81.4	84.1	91.4
May	80.6	81.8	84.3	91.9
June	80.4	82.4	84.9	92.7
July	80.4	83.0	85.6	93.9
August	80.6	83.0	85.9	94.6
September	80.6	83.0	86.2	—
October	80.6	83.0	86.5	—
November	80.6	83.0	86.9	—
December	80.9	83.3	87.8	—
Year	80.7	82.4	85.4	—

MONTHLY INDEX NUMBER OF ACTUAL EARNINGS

(Base: 1926=100)

	1936	1937	1938	1939
January	91.3	92.7	100.6	112.6
February	92.3	95.5	102.3	114.9
March	93.5	97.0	104.3	118.2
April	90.7	94.9	103.3	115.4
May	91.0	95.9	102.9	115.4
June	90.6	96.6	105.1	117.5
July	90.2	96.3	103.7	117.1
August	90.0	96.0	105.4	118.0
September	90.8	96.1	105.9	—
October	92.2	98.3	107.7	—
November	93.0	99.4	110.2	—
December	96.2	102.9	115.5	—
Year	91.8	96.9	105.6	—

Note: Actual earning means wage plus earnings from overtime work.

INDEX NUMBER OF ACTUAL EARNINGS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES

(Base: 1926=100)

Industries	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Silk reeling	63.3	64.2	67.6	72.0	75.3
Cotton spinning	60.5	60.8	66.4	69.6	74.6
Textiles	65.8	65.5	69.6	71.9	78.5
Dyeing	78.5	76.2	78.8	82.0	94.1
Knitting	66.5	65.3	67.4	69.7	80.7
Machinery	93.2	91.0	92.1	93.6	97.3
Shipbuilding	98.7	98.4	100.7	104.4	105.0
Vehicles	82.0	80.0	82.7	85.4	90.9
Instruments	82.7	80.6	82.8	86.1	88.7
Metal wares	98.1	95.3	99.7	101.2	103.4
Ceramics	82.1	81.8	85.4	90.6	100.0
Papermaking	90.1	89.5	94.1	99.4	107.8
Pharmaceutical	78.6	78.7	81.0	87.4	95.5
Rubber goods	86.8	85.2	89.6	89.6	103.0
Artificial fertilizers	96.1	95.2	99.7	105.9	114.0
Foodstuffs	91.6	91.7	95.2	99.0	105.4
Printing and bookbinding	87.7	86.0	86.5	89.9	96.1
Lumber and furniture	73.3	73.3	75.9	82.4	94.6

Note: Figures for 1939 denote average for first 8 months.

STANDARD DAILY WAGE RATES FOR INEXPERIENCED
OPERATIVES (Male)

At New Employment in Factories

(Unit: yen)

Age	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16	16-17	17-18	18-19	19-20
In the Prefectures of Tokyo, Kanagawa, Aichi, Osaka, Hyogo, and Fukuoka	0.65	0.70	0.75	0.85	0.95	1.05	1.15	1.25
Hokkaido, Fukushima, Ibaraki, Tochigi, Gun- ma, Saitama, Chiba, Niigata, Toyama, Gifu, Shizuoka, Mié, Shiga, Kyoto, Nara, Waka- yama, Okayama, Hiro- shima, Yamaguchi, Ehimé and Nagasaki	0.60	0.65	0.70	0.75	0.85	0.95	1.05	1.15
Aomori, Iwaté, Miyagi, Akita, Yamagata, Ishi- kawa, Fuku, Yama- nashi, Nagano, Tottori, Shimané, Tokushima, Kagawa, Kochi, Saga, Kumamoto, Oita, Miya- zaki, Kagoshima and Okinawa	0.50	0.55	0.60	0.65	0.70	0.80	0.90	1.00

At New Employment in Mines

(Unit: yen)

Age	16-17	17-18	18-19	19-20				
Workers in the Pit (Permanent employment)								
In the mines in								
Sapporo District								
Coal	1.80	1.90	2.00	2.10				
Others	1.20	1.30	1.40	1.50				
Fukuoka District								
Coal	1.60	1.70	1.80	1.90				
Others	1.00	1.10	1.20	1.30				
Sendai, Tokyo and Osaka districts								
Coal	1.40	1.50	1.60	1.70				
Others	1.10	1.20	1.30	1.40				
Workers in oil-wells								
Age	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16	16-17	17-18	18-19	19-20
Wage	0.55	0.60	0.65	0.70	0.75	0.85	0.95	1.05

Labor Disputes

The number of labor disputes in 1931 recorded highest with 2,456 including 998 which were accompanied by strikes, sabotages or lockouts. The following 4 years showed a decreasing tendency in labor disputes, their number in 1935 being 1,872 including 590 cases accom-

panied by strikes, sabotages or lockouts. But in 1936 the number rose once again and in the first half of 1937, it surpassed the corresponding period of the record year 1931, and then suddenly began to decrease after July 1937, when the North China incident occurred.

The reason for the decrease in the number of labor disputes in 1932 and after may be found in the occurrence of the Manchurian incident in September 1931 and the consequent change of thought among the people in which nationalism gained an ascendancy over the socialistic ideologies of labor leaders. The leaders themselves altered their concepts and showed a spirit of co-operation with capitalists in promoting the benefit of industrial enterprises. The prosperity attending the heavy industries and the export trade also had much to do with the decrease in labor disputes, and the nature of disputes

was considerably modified.

The increase in 1936 and the first half of 1937 was caused not by any change in thought but by a purely economic reason, namely, the increase in wage did not correspond to the rise in prices. The sudden decrease in the second half of 1937 was exceptional, being the result of the emergency situation and the national mobilization of men and resources. The tendency prevailed in 1938 and the number of disputes decreased to a half of 1937. The following table is given here to show the general conditions of labor disputes during past 10 years, 1930-1939.

LABOR DISPUTES IN 1930-1939

	Total of Disputes			Disputes accompanied by		
	Cases	Partakers	Partakers per Case	Strikes, Sabotage or Lockouts Cases	Partakers	Partakers Per Case
1930	2,290	191,838	82	907	81,362	90
1931	2,456	154,528	63	998	64,536	65
1932	2,217	123,313	56	893	54,783	61
1933	1,897	116,733	62	610	49,423	81
1934	1,915	120,307	63	626	49,536	79
1935	1,872	103,962	56	590	37,734	64
1936	1,975	92,724	47	547	30,900	56
1937	2,126	213,622	101	628	123,730	197
1938	1,022	53,550	52	262	18,341	70
1939	1,096	90,723	82	688	50,162	72

LABOR DISPUTES BY INDUSTRY

Industry:—	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Metal, machinery and tool	323	408	394	203	269
Chemical	279	258	290	139	119
Textile	252	196	286	105	99
Foodstuff	71	55	85	39	40
Miscellaneous	173	313	277	132	117
Mining	79	102	120	78	88
Gas and electric	—	5	—	—	—
Transportation	255	260	348	166	194
Engineering and construction	115	115	100	61	60
Communications	—	—	—	—	—
Others	325	263	226	99	110
Total	1,872	1,975	2,126	1,022	1,096
Participants	103,962	92,724	213,622	53,550	90,723

CASES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE NATURE OF DEMANDS

	1937 1938 1939			1937 1938 1939		
	1937	1938	1939	1937	1938	1939
Positive demands						
Increase of wages	998	429	559			
Shorter hours	17	—	—			
Recognition of freedom of trade unions	11	—	—			
Better equipments for laborers in factories				9	—	—
Rejection of overseers				50	—	45
Total				1,085	452	604

	1937	1938	1939		1937	1938	1939
Negative demands				For establishment or			
Against lowering of wages	70	29	25	improvement of pen-			
Against revision of working method, etc.	23	—	—	sion	299	207	95
Against revision of the method of paying wages	55	29	19	Against dismissals	235	82	59
				Total	682	347	226
				Others	359	223	241

NUMBER OF LABOR DISPUTES ACCOMPANIED BY STRIKES, SABOTAGE OR LOCKOUTS

	Cases	Partici- pants	Per case		Cases	Partici- pants	Per case
1934				Lockouts	13	432	33.2
Strikes	559	42,091	75.3	Total	547	30,900	56.4
Sabotage	48	6,975	145.3	1937			
Lockouts	16	412	25.8	Strikes	530	53,429	100.8
Total	623	49,478	79.4	Sabotage	75	67,758	903.3
1935				Lockouts	23	2,543	110.5
Strikes	527	31,811	60.4	Total	628	123,730	197.0
Sabotage	43	5,271	122.6	1938			
Lockouts	14	568	40.6	Strikes	224	12,769	57.0
Total	584	37,650	64.5	Sabotage	35	5,084	145.2
1936				Lockouts	3	488	162.6
Strikes	498	26,772	53.7	Total	262	18,341	70.0
Sabotage	36	3,696	102.7				

Classified by Demands

Demand for	1936		1937		1938	
	Cases	Men	Cases	Men	Cases	Men
Recognition of freedom of trade unions	5	233	7	2,483	—	—
Against the reduction of wages	60	3,281	29	1,439	9	1,217
Increase of wages	228	14,259	373	94,844	148	10,591
Against the revision of the method of calculating or paying of wages	38	1,747	24	1,283	12	605
Shorter hours	15	381	12	540	7	130
Establishment of holidays	2	211	2	23	—	—
Against the revision of working method or rules	13	685	9	175	1	6
Payment of wages	—	—	19	814	—	—
Better equipment	4	151	5	129	4	683
Establishment or increase of pensions	19	258	21	5,583	12	108
Reappointment or against dismissals	45	2,099	37	8,337	12	469
Not to punish the leaders of disputes	—	—	—	—	—	—
Rejection of superintendents	29	2,136	31	2,330	15	973
Other	89	5,459	59	5,750	42	2,958
Total	547	30,900	628	123,730	262	18,341

Results of Disputes

	Total	Compro- mised	Demands Accepted	Demands Unaccepted	Defeated	Left Unsettled
1934	623	271(43.5)	163(26.2)	188(30.2)	1(0.1)	—
1935	584	276(47.3)	157(26.9)	151(25.8)	—	—
1936	547	217(39.7)	176(32.2)	153(27.9)	—	1(0.2)
1937	628	261(41.5)	168(26.9)	197(31.3)	2(0.3)	—
1938	262	84(32.0)	90(34.3)	86(32.8)	2(0.8)	—

Figures in parentheses represent percentages.

Tenant Disputes

In the past 5 years tenant disputes centered round the protection of the tenant rights, or the demand of tenants for the continuation of their tenure. The difficulty for a farmer to get another farm has become much greater than that of finding work for a laborer in a city. To lose one's farm is to starve, and tenant disputes along this line are accordingly acute. The number of tenant disputes in 1937 and 1938 decreased as shown in the following table.

TENANT DISPUTES

Year	Number	Tenant Partici- pants	Area Included (In cho)
1934	5,828	121,031	85,129
1935	6,824	113,164	70,160
1936	6,804	77,187	46,036
1937	6,170	63,246	39,255
1938	4,615	52,817	34,075

The causes, demands and results of disputes in the past 5 years have been as follows:

TENANT DISPUTES

By Causes

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Raising tenant rents	114	115	227	237	146
Bad crops	1,940	2,451	1,373	1,116	896
High tenant rents	85	66	155	139	96
Unbalanced production cost	7	6	15	10	5
Cancellation of tenant rights	2,704	3,031	3,644	3,575	2,562
Arrears of farm-rents	505	734	871	621	553
Others	473	421	519	472	357

By Demands

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Temporary lowering of tenant rents	2,168	2,616	1,621	1,546	1,212
Permanent lowering of tenant rents	96	96	213	1,546	1,212
Against raising tenant rents	112	114	197	184	132
Continuation of tenant rights	2,421	2,862	3,674	3,274	2,274
Recognition of tenant rights	44	45	69	47	25
Compensation for lost tenant rights	166	123	184	155	127
Others	821	968	846	964	845

Results of Disputes

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Compromised	3,764	5,131	5,162	4,824	3,619
Demands accepted	922	381	294	277	264
Demands withdrawn	157	160	167	107	85
Naturally settled	76	82	72	76	51
Unsettled	909	1,070	1,109	886	596

Patriotic Industrial Association The outstanding event in the annals of the trade union history in Japan was the birth of the Patriotic Industrial Association (Sangyo Hōkoku Kai) in 1938. The organization of the Association was first initiated by the Arbitration Society for the purpose of readjusting the relations between capital and labor in the time of emergency. A special commission in the Society recommended, early in 1938, the organization of such associations in factories and industrial establishments all over the country, and within a few months the number of the Patriotic Industrial Associations became so many that the Central Patriotic Industrial League was organized on July 30th. The Central League, then began a national campaign for the spread of the principles of the association among the employers and workers in all kinds of factories and for the organization of the association in every one of them in all the districts of the country. On August 24, 1938, the Government decided to give a helping hand to the movement and issued an order, in the

name of Vice-Minister of the Home and Welfare Ministry, to encourage the organization of a patriotic trade union in every factory if possible. Thus the movement became semi-governmental and the number of the Patriotic Industrial Associations rapidly increased. In view of the necessity of national control, the leadership and supervision of the Associations was finally transferred from the Central Patriotic Industrial League to the Government on April 24, 1939, and the National Federation of the Patriotic Industrial Associations was organized, while the Central League was reorganized so as to take the part of education and propaganda only.

According to the report published by the Government on July 20, 1939, the number of the associations reached 5,332 with a membership of 1,849,000. There is no doubt that the appearance of such patriotic trade unions will bear hard upon the existing trade unions and federations which are confronted with the danger of dissolution or disension among members.

TRADE UNIONS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Welfare)

	Unions	Members	Total Number of	
			Laborers	Union Percentage
1931	818	368,975	4,729,436	7.9
1932	932	377,625	4,860,276	7.8
1933	942	384,613	5,126,719	7.5
1934	965	387,964	5,764,277	6.7
1935	993	408,662	5,906,589	6.7
1936	973	420,589	6,090,116	6.9
1937	837	395,290	6,422,333	6.1
1938	731	375,191	6,765,399	5.5

Farmers' Unions Farmers' unions are changing from temporary to permanent organizations, and are steadily increasing in number. According to

the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry in 1921 there were only 681 tenant-farmers' unions, and their growth is shown below.

FARMERS' UNIONS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

	Landowners		Tenant-farmers		Landowners and Tenant-farmers	
	Unions	Members	Unions	Members	Unions	Members
1931	645	50,556	4,414	306,301	2,047	255,088
1932	662	50,454	4,650	296,839	2,098	258,613
1933	686	49,645	4,810	302,736	2,309	279,431
1934	633	48,836	4,390	276,246	2,219	271,434
1935	531	38,172	4,011	242,422	1,748	202,785
1936	513	35,703	3,915	229,209	2,878	254,907
1937	497	35,054	3,879	226,919	2,849	251,056
1938	473	31,902	3,643	217,883	3,158	263,071

Restrictions on the Employment of Juveniles

With the purpose of assuring sufficient supply of labor for important industries, the Welfare Ministry Ordinance for Restricting Employment of Juveniles was issued by virtue of Article VI, the National General Mobilization Law (given in full in Chapter VII, National Defense), and put into force as from March 1, 1940.

Persons Included in the Control Ordinance The age limits of workers whose employment shall be controlled by the Ordinance are from 12 to 30 years of age in the case of men and from 12 to 20 in the case of women, these young men and women being designated in Article II of the Ordinance as "young and juvenile workers." The employment of workers above the maximum age of 30 is left uncontrolled, while boys and girls under the minimum age of 12 do not come under the Ordinance until they reach the age when a continued employment is understood as a new employment subject to the regulations of the Ordinance.

Exceptions from the Control The following persons are exempt from the application of the control regulations without regard to the age limitations stated above:

(1) Graduates of, or those who finished the required courses of study in universities, preparatory departments of universities, higher normal schools, higher schools, colleges, professional institutes, normal schools and such other schools or training institutions as are designated by the Minister of Welfare in the Departmental notification (Section 1, Article 2).

These exemptions arise from the fact that the categories named are not fitted to take their place in the list of general workers in munitions and related industries and their employment as such is rather exceptional.

It may be relevant to mention here that those whose training has been peculiarly in the commercial field of activities, and graduates of agricultural colleges or of the schools of fishery, having specialized in those branches of study, are likewise placed outside the restrictions imposed by the present Ordinance.

(2) The graduates who are mention-

ed in Article 1 of the Ordinance Restricting School Graduates, and who do not come within the purview of Section 1, Article 2 of the present Ordinance (Section 2, Article 2).

Since the employment of such persons is restricted in number by the aforementioned Ordinance, no restrictive provisions are necessary in the present Ordinance so far as they are concerned.

(3) Those who have passed such examinations, or who have received official approval or licence as to their competency, as specified by the Minister of Welfare in the Ministerial notification (Section 3, Article 2).

(4) Other persons specially designated by the Minister of Welfare (Section 4, Article 2). Article 1 of the Regulations for the Enforcement of the Ordinance gives the categories of such other persons as:

(a) Wounded or disabled soldiers, sailors and others who have incurred such disabilities and/or illnesses while on active service, and to the extent stated in Article 24, Paragraph 2 of Article 24 or Article 31 of the Ordinance for the Enforcement of the Pension Law (Section 1, Article 1 of the Regulations pertaining to the Ordinance).

(b) Those who, upon examination, show signs of ill-health or physical disorder and have been deemed unfit by the Director of the employment bureau. To such persons, every facility should be extended for employment in any enterprise suitable to their faculties.

Manner of Effecting the Restriction All male workers between the ages of 12 and 30 inclusive, who are not exempt from the application of the present Ordinance, shall not be engaged except when specially authorized under Article 3 which prescribes as follows:

(1) Where the number of male and/or female workers in one employment is short of the number recognized by Ordinance, the employer may engage exactly the number required to make up the deficiency (Section 1, Article 3).

"The number recognized by Ordinance" signifies 70 per cent of the number of such workers as at December 31, 1939 (Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Regulations); which limitation applies separately to each factory, workshop,

office, retail store or wherever male and/or female workers of from 12 to 30 years of age may have found employment. Where two or more places of work come under one ownership, each will be considered a distinct unit under the terms of the Ordinance.

In calculating the number representing the 70 per cent indicated in the preceding paragraph a fraction must be counted as one (Paragraph 2, Article 2 of the Regulations). Any employer who at the end of 1939 had less than 4 such employees may not add to that number but may replace at any time the vacancies that occur.

The object of these restrictive measures is not to bring about an immediate decrease in the number of workers already employed to the level indicated (i.e. corresponding to 70 per cent of the number at the end of 1939), but more truly, to prevent any replacements on whatever grounds when that level has been attained, exception being made in the matter of those male workers called to the colors. Their absence while on active service will not count against their re-employment upon their return to civil life; neither will the employer be construed to have lost their services under the term of this Ordinance. In fact, should the number of male workers so called (to the colors) reduced to under the 70 per cent level, explained above, the number of workers remaining behind, the employer shall have the faculty of making up the deficiency to the 70 per cent mark and continue to regard those taken by military service as still in his employ (Paragraph 2, Article 2 of the Regulations). After the rehabilitation of those called to the colors, however, the general rule governing the number of workers and the filling up of vacancies shall again apply.

(2) Where the work engaged in has been specially designated by the Minister of Welfare or has been sanctioned by the prefectural governor in accordance with the provisions of the Ordinance in regard to the engagement of workers (Section 2, Article 3 of the Ordinance).

A notification of the Ministry of Welfare gives the enterprises so designated, which include enterprises in connection with munitions industries and those coming under the productive-power-expansion program or pertaining to the manufacturing of goods for

exports, or again important enterprises connected with the execution of current national policies. Sanction of the prefectural governor is obtainable for the engagement of male workers without restriction of number where the work is one that has been designated by the Minister of Welfare. In these circumstances the prefectural governor is empowered to place whatever restrictive conditions of employment he may deem fit (Article 4 of the Regulations), and fix the period of employment with each employer. This period, upon expiry, may be renewed upon application by the employer. Any employer desiring the gubernatorial sanction above referred to, must apply for it through the employment bureau of the district in which his place of business is situated. Should such a district be outside the limits of Japan proper, the application will have to be addressed directly to the governor of the prefecture in Japan in which the head office is situated; or if no main office exists in Japan proper, then to the prefecture where the greatest number of engagements of workers is made (Article 3 of the Regulations).

Any irregularities or false declarations which may subsequently be discovered in an application renders it liable to cancellation by the prefectural governor by virtue of Paragraph 1, Article 5 of the Ordinance. But in the case of work which has been designated by the Minister of Welfare and was so designated on the date of the enforcement of the Ordinance, the employer is given 60 days' grace in which to file a new and correct application (Paragraph 2, Supplementary Provisions of the Ordinance). During this period of 60 days, the said employer is at liberty to engage as many male workers and as unrestrictedly as he would have prior to the promulgation of the Ordinance. Failing the status of an ordinary employer (i.e. one who does not come under the category connected with work designated by the Minister of Welfare) and the work with which he is connected shall become subject to the restriction of 70 per cent as in the case of any employment not specially designated by the Minister of Welfare.

(3) Where an employer not connected with work that has been designated by the Minister of Welfare wishes to engage the services of such num-

ber of male workers as previously sanctioned by the competent director of the employment bureau by virtue of the provisions of the Ordinance (Section 3, Article 3).

Such a condition may arise in the case of an employer who, at date December 31, 1939, did not have any of this category of workers in his employ; or otherwise, if he desires to fill any vacancies that may occur after the said date, even though the number of such workers as are still in his employ has not fallen to the 70 per cent level. He will then be required in either of the above cases to obtain sanction in respect of the engagement of such male workers as he needs either as new workers or to fill the vacancies that have occurred, and up to the number specified by the director of the employment bureau within whose jurisdiction is situated the place of his business.

In the case of an employer who, at date December 31, 1939, did not have any male workers in his employ and who, after the said date, desires to engage such workers, he shall be required to obtain the sanction of the director of the employment bureau within whose jurisdiction is located his factory, workshop, office or retail store before making any engagements (Article 5 of the Regulation). Any irregularities or false declarations which may subsequently be discovered in his application to the director of the employment bureau for such sanction will render the application liable to cancellation (Paragraph 2, Article 5 of the Ordinance).

(4) Where an employer wishes to reinstate in his employ any male workers returning from military service whose contracts for employment with him actually expired during the period of military service; or those workers who, having been called to the colors, are rejected as unfit and seek re-employment within the three months following their rejection (Section 4, Article 3 of the Ordinance).

The re-instatement in their employment of those who have completed their military service, and who, ipso facto were not considered as having left their original employment, is placed outside the purview of the Ordinance, as prescribed in the Law for Protecting the Employment of Men under Enlistment.

(5) All other cases prescribed by Ordinance (Section 5, Article 3 of the Ordinance).

Article 7 of the Regulations for the enforcement of the present Ordinance designates the following cases of exemption from the restrictive provisions in respect of the employment of male workers:

(a) Where such workers are employed by the day (Section 1, Paragraph 1, Article 7 of the Regulations). But the same shall not be continuously employed for more than 30 days (Paragraph 3, Article 7 of the Regulations).

(b) Where such workers are employed for a duration of less than 30 days (Section 2, Paragraph 1, Article 7 of the Regulations). The same shall not be employed for more than the number of days fixed in the first place (Paragraphs 2 and 3, Article 7 of the Regulations).

(c) Where such workers have been engaged with the sanction of the director of the employment bureau and in respect of urgent or special work or for any other specified reason (Section 3, Paragraph 1, Article 7 of the Regulations). On the grounds of strict necessity which has to do with the efficient execution of any particular work, or for any other specified reason, and subject in each case to the sanction of the director of the employment bureau, an employer may engage male workers under this provision, if not, under the provisions contained in Section 3, Article 3 of the Ordinance. The application for such sanction shall then be made to the director of the employment bureau within whose jurisdiction is situated the applicant's factory, workshop, office, retail store or other place of business.

(d) Where an increase of such workers has been ordered in accordance with the provisions of the Imperial Ordinance Concerning the Management of Factories and Workshops; or such factories or workshops as are supervised or under the control of the Minister of War or of the Minister of the Navy, as designated in the said Imperial Ordinance (Section 4, Paragraph 1, Article 7 of the Regulations).

(e) Where such workers are continuously employed in an enterprise which has been recently assigned to an employer or by which he came through any other cause.

(f) Where such workers are engaged

with the sanction of the Minister of Welfare or of a prefectural governor, in respect to their number, to work in a district located outside the confines of Japan proper (Section 6, Paragraph 1, Article 7 of the Regulations). When the districts from which the workers originate belong to more than one prefecture, and the number of such workers exceeds 30, the employer is required to make application in the prescribed form to the Minister of Welfare; in other cases to the governor of the prefecture where workers are engaged (Paragraph 5, Article 7 of the Regulations).

Female Workers In respect of the employment of female workers whose ages range between 12 and 20, with the exception of those placed outside of the restrictive measures for special reasons, such employment is limited to the work that has been specially designated by the Minister of Welfare, differing in this wise from the restrictions imposed in connection with male workers. A Notification of the Department of Welfare gives the list of those enterprises so designated as being: restaurants, places of entertainment, theaters, stores, etc. where employment is mostly reserved to females. The number of female workers that may be employed is regulated by the Ordinance only for the places indicated. Restrictive measures are generally similar to those applicable in the case of male workers.

The general rule which prevents an employer from supplementing the vacancies that occur after December 31, 1939, excepting where it is necessary to make up the deficiency to 70 per cent of the number employed on the said date, shall likewise apply in the case of the employment of female workers in enterprises designated by the Minister of Welfare (Section 1, Article 4 of the Ordinance).

In the case of an employer who had, at date December 31, 1939, no female workers in his employ; or where an employer deems it necessary after the said date to fill any vacancies that may occur before the 70 per cent level is reached, he is required to obtain the

sanction of the director of the employment bureau in respect to the fixing of the number of such workers to be employed in the designated work (Section 2, Article 4 of the Ordinance and Article 10 of the Regulations).

Formalities All applications made by virtue of the present Ordinance are required to be sent in the form prescribed by the Ordinance and separately to each director of the employment bureau, or prefectural governor.

An employer who at all times employs more than 5 workers in such work as has been designated by the Minister of Welfare is required to specially register their names in the prescribed form for each factory, workshop, office, retail store or other place of work; such registration must be accompanied by particulars regarding all engagements and dismissals. In the case, however, of those enterprises to which the Factory Law or the Mine Law may be applicable, the ordinary registration book will be considered as taking the place of the special register (Article 14 of the Regulations).

The Minister of Welfare, a prefectural governor or a director of an employment bureau is empowered to require reports from those employers of workers mentioned here (Article 7 of the Ordinance and Article 15 of the Regulations). A prefectural governor or the director of an employment bureau may at any time send his agent (or agents) to a workshop, factory, office, retail store or other place (Article 8 of the Ordinance).

Because of the very special nature of such industries as agriculture, forestry, stock-raising, sericulture and fisheries, these are placed outside of the restrictive measures relating to the employment of male workers prescribed in the present Ordinance (Article 19).

Offenders against the provisions of the present Ordinance render themselves liable to the penalty of imprisonment for a period not exceeding one year, or to a fine not exceeding one thousand yen for each offence, in accordance with the provisions of Article 36 of the National General Mobilization Law.

CHAPTER XXVII

JUSTICE AND POLICE

JUDICATURE

The Judicature's Position

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

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

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

Composition of the Courts

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

Local Courts The Local Courts are presided over by single judges. A three instance system is adopted in the adjudication of all ordinary cases, and any one may lodge an appeal against a

judgment rendered in the first instance and demand revision of that rendered in the second instance.

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

1. Demands for money less than 1,000 yen or for articles, the value of which is less than 1,000 yen.

2. The following cases irrespective of value:

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

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

(c) Legal actions only concerning occupations.

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

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

(f) Matters concerning bankruptcy.

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

1. Offences punishable with detention or fine.

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

District Courts District Courts are courts of the first instance. In civil cases, the District Courts possess judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. In the first instance:

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

2. In the second instance:

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

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

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

1. In the first instance:

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

2. In the second instance:

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

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

Courts of Appeal The Courts of Appeal are courts of the second instance and possess judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. Appeals lodged against judgments rendered in the first instance by the District Courts.

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

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

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

1. In the final instance:

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

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

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

2. In the first, and at the same time, final instance: Preliminary examination and adjudication of offences against the Imperial House, offences of internal disturbance, and offences committed by

members of the Imperial Family, for which punishment heavier than imprisonment should be imposed.

Public Procurators

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

Court Officials and Procurators

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

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

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

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

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

Position of Judges and Public Procurators Judges are permanent officials appointed by His Majesty directly, or by His Majesty's order indirectly, or by His Majesty's approval, according to the grade of their position. Unless by way

of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment judges are not to be moved to another post or place, be suspended from office, be deprived of position, or receive a reduction of salary, without their consent, except in so far as the Minister of Justice may order retirement from service by the decision of a general meeting of the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court on account of disability caused through weakness of body or mind.

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

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

Jury System

In 1923 the Jury Law was issued and came into force on October 1, 1928, and Japan finally adopted the jury system under which persons other than judges are allowed to take part in criminal trials. The jury system is used in such criminal cases as where the punishment may be capital, or penal servitude or imprisonment for life. Other criminal cases in which the sentence may be penal servitude or imprisonment for a term longer than 3 years are tried by jury only upon demand of the accused and when they come within the jurisdiction of the District Courts. The following cases are not submitted to trial by jury:

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

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

(3) Violations of the Peace Maintenance Law.

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

(5) Violations of the Public Election Laws.

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

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

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

Penal System

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

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

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

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

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

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

ten years of the term for life" (Article 28).

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

Criminal Compensation System

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

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

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

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

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

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

As compensation to the bereaved of

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

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

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

Criminal Thought Offence

The Imperial Ordinance No. 403 of November 14, 1936, prescribed for the organization of the Protection and Surveillance Station, and other Imperial Ordinances and orders of the Minister of Justice were subsequently issued in connection with the measures to be taken by the State for preventing criminal thought offences.

Protection and Surveillance System

The new rule which involves the creation of protection and surveillance stations and the establishment of a protection and surveillance commission is aimed at protecting persons who have once committed "thought" offences and preventing them from repeating the crime. It not only calls for placing old offenders under surveillance but aims at giving them positive guidance in order that they will not commit similar offences and will walk in the path of rectitude. This positive nature of the new system is expected to help in bringing about the defeat of Communism and elevating the Japanese spirit through encouraging those on the way of changing their minds to forge ahead, and assisting those who have already done so to earn a living. It constitutes an important link in the national "thought" defence line on the strength of its mission towards the preservation of peace and public order by preventing "thought" offences on the one hand and on the other by serving to elevate and clarify the essential spirit of the nation.

Objectives of the New System The objectives of the protection and surveillance system are limited to persons who have committed offences in the

light of the Peace Preservation Law. Offenders of other kinds do not come within its scope. Only those who have been granted a reprieve in indictment by the public prosecutor, or a stay of execution of their sentence by the law court, or who have been released on bail, or who have served their term, are placed under protection and surveillance. The invocation of this rule, however, must be made with the approval of the Protection and Surveillance Commission which is under the control of the Minister of Justice, and in such cases where the commission adopts a resolution against the invocation, the rule cannot be invoked.

Organs and Procedure The new system is enforced through the operation of 22 protection and surveillance stations throughout the country and a protection and surveillance commission. These stations are independent offices and are located in Tokyo, Yokohama, Mito, Mayebashi, Shizuoka, Nagano, Niigata, Osaka, Kyoto, Kobe, Takamatsu, Nagoya, Kanazawa, Hiroshima, Okayama, Fukuoka, Kumamoto, Sendai, Akita, Aomori, Sapporo and Hakodate and their staffs are composed of guiding officials, protecting officials and secretaries.

The guiding officials take charge of directing and supervising the protection and surveillance business and as such may be regarded as the central machinery of the protection and surveillance stations. The protecting officials conduct the enquiry and surveillance business under instructions from the station masters, who are selected from among the guiding officials. There are at present 33 whole-time protecting officials over all the country and the Minister of Justice may commission other suitable persons as part-time officials.

The protection and surveillance stations are to be notified by the authorities concerned when some "thought" offenders have been granted a reprieve in indictment, a stay of execution of their sentence, have been released on bail, or have left prison after serving their term. Upon receipt of such a notification, the station concerned must immediately institute an investigation into the career, environment, mental and physical condition, and changes in thought and other relative affairs of the person in question. In the investigation, special attention should be given to ascertaining whether the person in question has changed his mind or not

and if so, the motive and extent of the financial and family conditions of his guardian and whether there is any prospect of the person in question earning a living in the future.

If the results of the investigation lead to a decision to place the person under protection and surveillance, the station concerned is to refer the matter to the protection and surveillance commission which must then pass a judgment. The station cannot place any person under protection and surveillance until it has received a notification from the commission that its decision has been approved.

Methods of Effecting the Protection and Surveillance There are three different methods for effecting the protection and surveillance. One is that the protecting officials concerned keep a personal surveillance over the person in question, another is to hand the person over to his guardian. In the third method, the person is put in the charge of some protective organization, temple, shrine, church, hospital, etc. In all the three cases, the station authorities concerned must explain to the person in question the significance of the decision to place him under protection and surveillance and caution him about his future conduct.

According to circumstances, two or even three methods may be employed simultaneously. The authorities concerned may also put restrictions on the abode, intercourse and correspondence of the protected if such a measure is deemed necessary or advisable.

The period of protection and surveillance is fixed at two years but it may be shortened or prolonged. Prolongation of the period, however, requires the approval of the protection and surveillance commission.

As already stated, the protection and surveillance system has, as its primary aim, the encouragement of "thought" offenders to change their minds and the assistance of those who have changed their minds in securing a living. It therefore is natural that adequate measures should be taken to guide such persons properly in thought and help them to enjoy life.

In view of the specific nature of "thought" offenders, the authorities follow a principle of respecting their social conscience and conception of justice while encouraging them to master the Japanese spirit. As a stable living

has a close bearing upon the perpetuation of the change in mind, efforts are also made to secure suitable positions for persons under protection and surveillance and to assist them in making their own homes and appreciating the beautiful points of the Japanese family system. Facilities for attendance at school are also provided in some cases.

Treatment of Juvenile Offenders

It was in the code promulgated in 1880, that the treatment of juvenile offenders was, for the first time, definitely regulated. At that time, a house of correction was an institution where children entrusted to it by private individuals, deaf and dumb children as well as juveniles committed by the courts were detained and trained.

The first house of correction which was independent of the ordinary prison was the Sumoto House of Correction, on the Island of Awaji, Hyogo prefecture. Other houses of correction were established within the precinct of prison, under the management of the prison staff. The experimental reformatory established in 1885 and the Naritasan Reformatory, opened in 1886, were outstanding. It was not, however, until 1900, that the Reformatory Act was passed. This Act provided that every prefecture should establish its own reformatory (Kanka-in), which should be under the direct supervision of the prefectural government. At the same time, the system of supplementary reformatories was regulated.

In 1907, the present Criminal Code was promulgated. By the new code, the system of detention in the House of Correction, prescribed in the Criminal Code of 1880, was abolished.

Under the new code, the courts in the larger cities usually appointed judges and procurators especially qualified for such work to take charge of cases in which juveniles were involved. In 1908, the Ministry of Justice issued an order to all procurators, to the effect that wherever it was considered necessary, juveniles under the age of fourteen, who are not amenable to law, should be committed to prefectural reformatories. At the same time, the Home Ministry instructed prefectural governments to receive such juveniles into their institutions. In 1917, by an Imperial Ordinance, sanctioning the establishment of national reformatories, the central government assumed its

share in the care of juvenile offenders. In 1920, after several years of discussion, a special committee appointed by the Ministry of Justice completed a draft of a Juvenile Act, which passed the Diet in 1922, was promulgated on April 17, 1922, and came into effect on January 1, 1923.

A draft of the Act concerning the House of Correction (Kyōsei-in), prepared by the same committee, passed the Diet and came into effect at the same time.

The Act stipulates that persons under 18 years of age shall be regarded as juveniles, though those under 14 are not amenable to law, except when they are sent to the Juvenile Courts by prefectural governors.

Juvenile Courts Juvenile courts are established in Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya and Fukuoka. These cities were selected as centres for respective districts and because they have the largest number of juvenile offenders and those needing protection.

The Juvenile Courts are special organs with an organization entirely different from that of other courts. Their personnel consists of judges, probation officers and clerks. The system of Juvenile Courts falls under the supervision of the Minister of Justice, and their establishment, abolition and jurisdiction are regulated by Imperial Ordinance. The Minister of Justice has the authority to order the presidents of Courts of Appeal or District Courts, to supervise all Juvenile Courts.

In the Juvenile Court, a single judge hears the trial. The judge supervises the work of his subordinates. If two or more judges are assigned to the same court, the one holding the highest rank exercises this power. A judge may simultaneously hold a position in the Juvenile Court and in an ordinary court, if he is qualified for the position.

Probation officers are either officials appointed by the Government or private individuals commissioned by the Minister of Justice. The former are officials appointed because of their special knowledge and experience in dealing with juveniles. The latter are selected from voluntary probation workers who have experience in dealing with juveniles. The probation officers assist the judges by providing material used at trials, or by assisting in the supervision of juveniles. They also have the power to summon juveniles before the

court, by order of the court.

Court Procedure Cases to be tried by the Juvenile Court are brought through various channels, such as notification, recognition by the Court, transfer by the procurator, transference by the ordinary court, commitment by the prefectural governor, or transfer of a case from one Juvenile Court to another.

When a case is brought before the Juvenile Court, the judge makes a preliminary investigation and decides whether to proceed with the case or not. He may order the probation officer to gather materials to help him in this decision. If the case is to be proceeded with the court shall investigate the nature of the case, the character, environment, past record, physical and mental condition, degree of education, etc. of the juvenile, together with his family circumstances and the status and fitness of the guardian. These investigations are to be made principally by the probation officer, and for this purpose, he interviews the juvenile and his guardian in the court or in the juvenile's home. The members of the household of the juvenile, his employer, his former employer, his teacher, his acquaintances and the injured party in the case may also be interviewed or asked to give information in writing. The probation officer then reports to the judge upon the information obtained, and makes whatever suggestion he considers best regarding suitable protective measures in the case. If possible, the court has the juvenile examined as to his physical and mental condition. The court may also order the guardian of the juvenile to investigate the facts in the case, or may entrust the investigation to a protective institution.

The Juvenile Court may summon any person or persons to appear before the court to give evidence, which is considered necessary for the investigation. The court may also order the probation officer to present himself with the juvenile before the court at any time, and, if necessary, it may adopt one or more of the provisional protective measures mentioned above during the period of the investigation.

In March 1928, branches of the House of Correction were opened adjacent to each Juvenile Court for the purpose of detaining juveniles who have to be supervised during the period of investigation. This provisional protective

measure may, at any time be altered or abolished, and if the Court decides that a trial shall not be proceeded with, it is, of course, cancelled. As this is very important to the juvenile, the Court is obliged to inform the guardian whenever such measures are ordered or changed in any way.

Trial and Decision If, after investigation, the Court decides that a case shall be proceeded with, it sets the time for the trial. The Court may, at its own volition, nominate a counsel for the juvenile, if it is considered necessary. The juvenile, his guardian or the protective institution concerned may nominate a counsel, subject to the permission of the Court. Such counsel is chosen from among lawyers, persons engaged in the protection of juveniles, or any other persons whom the court may permit to be chosen.

On the day of the trial, the juvenile, his guardian and counsel are summoned, but the guardian need not be summoned, when the Court considers it unnecessary. For the sake of the juvenile's reputation, the trial is not open to the public, but the Court may permit relatives of the juvenile, persons engaged in juvenile protection or other interested persons to attend the trial. The probation officer, guardian and counsel may express their opinion at the trial; during the statement of which opinions, the Court may order the juvenile to retire, when there is no reason for his presence.

When the trial is completed, the Court renders its final decision. If the Court considers that the juvenile should be tried before the ordinary court, it refers the case to the procurator of a competent court. When, in the case of a juvenile who has previously been referred to the Juvenile Court by an ordinary court or a procurator, new facts are discovered by the Juvenile Court making it necessary to refer such juvenile back to an ordinary court, this may be done upon consultation with a procurator of a competent court. With the exception of such rare cases, however, the Court if protective measures are deemed advisable, orders such measures to be applied to the juvenile. The judge may select one or more of the following 9 protective measures: (1) to give admonitions, (2) to leave them to the guidance of school principals; (3) to let them solemnly declare their sincere repentance in a written statement, (4) to place them, under certain conditions, in

the care of their parents, (5) to place them under the care of temples, churches, protective bodies or other proper persons, (6) to hand them over to the care of the juvenile probation officers, (7) to send them to reformatories, (8) to send them to houses of correction, and (9) to put them under proper treatment in hospitals. When juveniles are admitted to probation or provisional release they are not put under police supervision as is the case with the adults, but are left to the care of the juvenile probation officers. After the juveniles are placed by the Juvenile Court, the probation officers visit them and exercise supervision over them by means of reports submitted by the institutions or individuals with whom the juveniles are placed. They then make monthly reports to the Court. Though the maximum age of juveniles is 18 years, those committed, entrusted or being supervised may continue under the supervision of the Court until they reach the age of 23 years, during which time the Court may at any time cancel or alter its decision regarding said juveniles.

Special Penal Measures Special measures for the punishment of juvenile offenders are:

(1) The death penalty or penal servitude for life is not inflicted upon a person who is under 18 when the crime is committed. When the crime is so grave the death penalty or penal ser-

vitute for life should be passed, the sentence is mitigated to penal servitude or imprisonment for 10-15 years.

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

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

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

(5) Juveniles are not sent to work houses.

Statistics

The following are the statistics relevant to the judicature of the country:

NUMBER OF COURTS (October 15, 1939)

Supreme Court	Courts of Appeal	District Courts	Branch Courts	Local Courts	Branch Offices
1	Tokyo	12	17	64	418
	Osaka	9	12	43	281
	Nagoya	6	9	30	207
	Hiroshima	6	13	36	256
	Nagasaki	8	17	53	292
	Miyagi	6	16	36	233
	Sapporo	5	3	21	103
Total	1	7	52	87	283
					1,790

FIXED NUMBER OF JUDGES AND PROCURATORS (October 1, 1939)

Courts	Supreme Court	Courts of Appeal	Local and District Court
Presidents	1	7	52
Divisional heads	8	32	—
Judges	38	90	1,296
Procurator's Office			
Procurator-General or heads	1	7	51
Procurators	13	39	604

JUSTICE AND POLICE

Courts	Supreme Court	Courts of Appeal	Local and District Court
Judges	1,524	Interpreters	2
Procurators	715	Secretaries	5,873
Judges and procurators in reserve	39	Attendants	59
Probationers	240	Employees	5,096
		Total	13,548

NUMBER OF CIVIL CASES HANDLED AT COURTS IN 1938

Courts	Total	New	Settled
Local Courts	936,232	875,595	886,026
District Courts	93,886	64,395	66,442
Courts of Appeal	9,208	4,615	4,520
The Supreme Court	4,412	3,379	3,280
Total	1,043,738	947,984	960,268
1937	1,198,478	1,098,664	1,102,689
1938	1,364,841	1,259,440	1,264,987

NUMBER OF CRIMINAL CASES HANDLED IN 1933—1937

	No. of the Accused Instance	Preliminary Examinations Instance	Cases of First Instance	Cases of Second Instance	Cases of Third Instance
1933	509,355	7,737	113,939	7,814	2,493
1934	545,360	7,660	123,488	7,301	2,270
1935	524,358	6,920	121,084	8,278	2,364
1936	505,500	7,100	124,494	10,424	4,123
1937	452,025	5,841	117,038	8,772	3,665
1938	429,059	4,617	108,173	4,915	4,307

CRIMINALS SENTENCED IN THE FIRST INSTANCE, JAPAN PROPER

	Total	Penal Servitude			Imprisonment		Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
		Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms			
1933	107,318	26	42	39,365	—	91	59,849	—	7,945
1934	122,330	28	72	42,318	—	84	69,211	—	10,617
1935	121,662	31	51	42,335	—	116	69,905	—	9,224
1936	120,871	19	37	41,413	—	86	70,856	—	8,460
1937	170,883	31	37	38,527	—	117	63,268	1	8,902

CLASSIFIED BY CRIMES (ditto, 1937)

	Total	Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
Incendiarism	612	2	1	608	—	—	1	—	—
Fires through negligence	1,613	—	—	—	—	—	1,613	—	—
Forgery of currency	232	—	—	228	—	—	—	—	4
Forgery of documents	548	—	—	332	—	—	216	—	—
Forgery of seals	9	—	—	9	—	—	—	—	—
Sexual crimes	715	—	—	366	—	—	299	—	50
Gambling	54,636	10	16	1,941	—	—	45,363	—	7,332
Malversation	925	—	—	449	—	4	472	—	—
Murder	882	—	—	856	—	—	—	—	—
Inflicting injury	9,410	—	—	1,472	—	—	6,566	—	1,372

JUSTICE STATISTICS

	Total	Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
Inflicting injury by negligence	6,994	—	—	—	—	112	6,881	1	—
Criminal abortion	127	—	—	127	—	—	—	—	—
Theft	19,652	—	—	19,652	—	—	—	—	—
Burglary	711	19	18	674	—	—	—	—	—
Fraud and blackmail	7,265	—	—	7,255	—	—	10	—	—
Usurpation	2,699	—	—	2,478	—	—	106	—	115
Others	3,853	—	2	2,080	—	1	1,741	—	29
Total	110,883	31	37	38,527	—	117	63,268	1	8,902

CHOSEN (Korea)

Penal Servitude Imprisonment

	Total	Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
1933	16,786	44	26	10,740	—	27	4,731	5	1,213
1934	17,945	21	21	11,254	—	12	5,275	—	1,362
1935	18,713	20	17	11,119	—	25	5,828	2	1,702
1936	18,788	26	21	10,854	—	21	6,254	—	1,612
1937	19,768	36	18	11,731	—	47	6,433	—	1,503

TAIWAN (Formosa)

Penal Servitude Imprisonment

	Total	Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
1933	28,681	6	3	2,613	—	5	11,112	2	14,940
1934	28,543	6	9	2,679	—	2	10,687	1	15,159
1935	30,566	1	2	2,643	—	1	12,732	2	15,158
1936	25,635	3	5	3,079	—	8	8,470	—	14,070
1937	30,022	1	2	2,908	—	4	14,288	2	12,817

KARAFUTO (Saghalien)

Penal Servitude Imprisonment

	Total	Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
1933	265	—	—	237	—	—	22	—	6
1934	312	1	2	287	—	—	18	—	4
1935	356	—	—	334	—	—	21	—	1
1936	428	—	1	412	—	—	15	—	—
1937	294	1	—	284	—	—	8	—	1

NANYO (South Seas)

Penal Servitude Imprisonment

	Total	Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
1933	196	—	—	108	—	—	78	—	10
1934	275	—	—	141	—	—	110	—	24
1935	269	—	—	146	—	—	94	—	29
1936	177	—	—	140	—	—	37	—	—
1937	240	—	—	126	—	—	63	—	51

CRIMINAL CASES SETTLED IN ALL INSTANCES IN JAPAN PROPER

(Crimes against Special Laws Included)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Total	181,792	186,668	183,582	192,377	186,381
Male	172,067	174,982	173,789	182,909	178,585
Female	9,027	11,077	9,314	9,064	7,521
Juridical persons	698	609	479	404	275
First instance					
Guilty,					
Male	159,274	164,266	163,934	166,377	163,695
Female	8,834	10,786	9,033	8,811	7,337
Juridical persons	696	608	479	404	274
Acquittals,					
Male	429	423	370	503	398
Female	35	30	32	48	21
Juridical persons	2	1	—	—	1
Second instance					
Guilty,					
Male	7,523	7,268	6,549	10,887	8,413
Female	126	209	167	141	128
Acquittals,					
Male	186	164	229	284	404
Female	—	17	11	2	5
Third (Final) instance					
Guilty,					
Male	4,631	2,835	2,679	4,812	5,632
Female	31	34	67	62	30
Acquittals,					
Male	25	26	28	46	43
Female	1	1	4	—	—

JUVENILE COURTS

(October 1, 1939)

Courts	4	Probation officers	25
Judges	12	Secretaries	24

Number of New Cases

Year	Sex	1934			1935			1936			1937			1938		
		Cases brought in	Unproceeded	Placed under protection	Cases brought in	Unproceeded	Placed under protection	Cases brought in	Unproceeded	Placed under protection	Cases brought in	Unproceeded	Placed under protection	Cases brought in	Unproceeded	Placed under protection
1934	Boys	23,624	16,042	6,689	19,963	11,516	7,881	24,690	15,784	8,327	19,963	11,516	7,881	24,690	15,784	8,327
"	Girls	1,580	858	637	1,453	662	745	1,668	859	737	1,453	662	745	1,668	859	737
1935	Boys	21,802	14,327	6,526	24,690	15,784	8,327	21,802	14,327	6,526	19,963	11,516	7,881	24,690	15,784	8,327
"	Girls	1,675	937	632	1,668	859	737	1,580	858	637	1,453	662	745	1,668	859	737
1936	Boys	21,704	13,668	7,023	21,802	14,327	6,526	21,704	13,668	7,023	19,963	11,516	7,881	24,690	15,784	8,327
"	Girls	1,468	676	659	1,675	937	632	1,468	676	659	1,580	858	637	1,668	859	737

Results of Protection
(Reports right after the release)

	Year	Number of the released	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory	Report unobtainable
Under Protection bodies and individuals	1934	1,155	701	69	385
	1935	1,188	743	76	369
	1936	1,228	754	66	408
	1937	1,282	762	78	442
	1938	1,285	702	80	503
Under probation officers	1934	1,068	711	34	323
	1935	1,040	701	85	254
	1936	1,096	802	62	232
	1937	1,250	924	70	256
	1938	1,441	1,052	55	334

STATE CORRECTION HOUSES

(October 1, 1939)

Correction houses	4	Secretaries	12
Instructors	29	Assistants	48
Physicians	4	Employees	10

Number of Juveniles Cared For
(Inclusive of temporary cases)

Year	Received	Sent out	Year	Received	Sent out
1934	1,543	1,206	1937	1,845	1,446
1935	1,626	1,255	1938	2,134	1,680
1936	1,651	1,264			

Results of Correction
(Exclusive of temporary cases)

Year	Old	New	Sent out as corrected	Sent out by other reasons	Remaining (at the end of the year)
1934	246	208	98	39	317
1935	317	215	167	21	344
1936	344	195	150	21	368
1937	368	201	174	24	371
1938	371	301	204	28	440

PROTECTION AND SURVEILLANCE STATIONS FOR
THOUGHT OFFENDERS

(October 1, 1939)

Stations	22	Protecting officials	41
Station-masters	22	Secretaries	31
Guiding officials	8	Employees	34

Number of Persons Placed
(During November 1936—June 1939)

Total number of persons placed under protection and surveillance	Men	Women	With satisfactory results		
			Men	Women	
			280	16	
			Decrease by change of measure	65	2
The released	3,733	212	Remaining at the end of June 1939	2,790	161
	878	49			

PRISON SYSTEM

Historical Background

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

Up till recent times the idea at the root of the Japanese penal system was minatory. In other words, the so-called principle of general prevention by warning the people at large against the commission of crimes by imposing heavy punishments upon criminals was adopted. Accordingly, the punishments were principally capital and corporal and ex-

tremely cruel in character. For instance, the Criminal Code of the Yédo Period (1602-1867) recognized the exposing in public of the heads of persons executed; crucifying, burning at the stake and other similar cruel punishments were imposed. In those days the jails were used merely as places of detention for various offenders until their trial, not as places for reforming offenders. Imprisonment was a very unusual form of punishment, for prisons were unknown and imprisonment was not a legal penalty.

Exile and Banishment Punishments which brought loss of liberty for specifi-

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

Prototype of Present Prisons The ninsoku-yoseba were to all intents and purposes the prototype of present day prisons and penal servitude. These places for the detention of convict-coolies were located at Ishikawajima and Tsukudajima in Yédo (Tokyo) and at Kamigo, Ibaraki prefecture, and there vagabonds and those who had been punished by flogging or branded as ex-convicts by tattoo marks were detailed to work as oil pressers or at other kinds of labor for a fixed wage, with the ulterior object of giving them such instruction and training as would fit them to lead the lives of respectable members of society. In and after 1820 those who were punished with banishment heavier than that from the confines of Yédo were put to forced labor for a fixed period of time in lieu of that punishment. Thus the ninsoku-yoseba, which had been instituted as workhouses for vagabonds, were turned into prisons for the reclamation of criminals through ordered life and labor. In its correctional idea ninsoku-yoseba was entirely identical with the London "Bridewell," which was established in England in 1550 "to punish, correct, and reform by labor of

a diversified nature," and the Amsterdam workhouse (tuchthuis) founded at the end of the 16th century and well known for its motto, "Schrick niet! Ick wroecck geen quaet, maer dwing tot goedt, straf ist myn handt, mar lieflijk myn gemoedt." (Do not fear! I will not take revenge upon you for your misdeed; on the contrary, I wish to lead you to good. Although I am rigorous in handling you, my heart is filled with kindness towards you.) In and after 1790 the prisoners detained in the ninsokuyoseba who behaved well and showed notable signs of penitence were liberated on certain conditions and this may be taken as the enforcement of provisional release of prisoners for the first time in Japan. When it is remembered that the system of provisional release of prisoners in Europe originated in a favored release of prisoners from a convicts' colony in Australia in 1791, it is an interesting coincidence that the same system was inaugurated simultaneously both in the West and the East.

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

existing Prison Law was enacted and published the following year.

Management of Prisons

Prisons are placed under the control of the Minister of Justice. Prior to 1900 they were under the control of the Minister of Home Affairs, but since that year they have come under the supervision of the Minister of Justice. With the transfer of affairs relating to prisons from the Ministry of Home Affairs to the Ministry of Justice, the Bureau of Prisons was established in the latter Ministry for the administration of matters concerning the execution of sentences, prisons, provisional releases of prisoners, and the identification of criminals by fingerprints.

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

Classification

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

Treatment of Prisoners

Object of Treatment As to what is the primary and fundamental purpose of punishment by imprisonment, nothing is stated in the Criminal Code or in the Prison Law now in force. But Japanese juridical authorities have for more than ten years endeavoured to reform prisons.

Classification System Inasmuch as punishment by the restriction of personal liberty is enforced today principally with a view to education, criminals are properly classified according to ages, characteristics, terms of imprisonment, numbers and kinds of offences, and are

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

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

Progressive System A treatment on the progressive system is accorded to convicts who form the bulk of the inmates of prisons. This treatment aims at leading them to repent and their treatment is graded in proportion to their aspiration and diligence, thereby gradually bringing them to the conditions of ordinary social life. Any prisoner committed for the first time is

kept in solitary confinement for a certain period of time and a close study is made of him. On the basis of the results he is classified according to character, physical and mental condition, number of convictions, age, nature of crimes, term of service, home, health and thought.

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

The Treatment Governors of prisons may cause convicts in each workshop to elect some from among them to keep the workshop in good order and look after other necessary matters. The elected ones must be popular, trustworthy and belong to the third class. Prisoners belonging to the third class must jointly, once a month, carry out the work of cleaning and sweeping the prison grounds and keeping them in order. Except in cases of special need, prisoners belonging to the fourth class do not undergo physical examination or have their cells searched, and, further, are permitted to talk with one another so long as it does not interfere with the maintenance of discipline. They are also permitted to elect two representatives that they may express their desires to the authorities. These representatives are nominated by the governor of the prison concerned from among several candidates elected by prisoners belonging to the fourth class. Prisoners of the fourth class may be permitted to take walks in a place designated for that purpose in the prison grounds in hours of recess, or hold meet-

ings, take walks in a group, or hold athletic meetings on days free from labor. They give a pledge to the governor, holding themselves responsible for the physical examination of those of their own class, for the search of their cells and keeping them in order, and the maintenance of order among themselves. Should any one of them violate the pledge, the privileged treatment will be suspended for some or all of them. Any one of those belonging to the first class who earns more than ¥5.00 of labor may be permitted to use less than one-fifth of the monthly total in buying postage stamps and in other ways that are deemed necessary; any one of those belonging to the second class, less than one-fourth of the monthly total; any one of those belonging to the third class, less than one-third of the monthly total; and any one of those belonging to the fourth class, less than one-half of the monthly total. While those of the first class are not permitted to change the kinds of labor they engage in, those of the second class and up are permitted to do so. Those who have superior skill or high efficiency and belong to the third class are charged with the task of directing industrial work and those who are similarly qualified in the fourth class are given the task of directing and supervising it. Those of the third class who have particularly superior skill and high efficiency are permitted to work for their own profit outside of working hours, but such free time is limited to two hours per day.

Moral Education Prisoners belonging to the first and fourth classes are chiefly given individual moral and religious instruction, while those belonging to the second and third classes receive the same instruction en masse. Listening to music broadcast on the radio and listening to the playing of gramophone records is permitted to those belonging to the second and higher classes. The time for the enjoyment of this privilege is fixed at twice a month for those belonging to the second class, which may be increased to three times and four times for those belonging to the third and fourth classes respectively. The governor may permit members of the third and fourth classes to hold moral cultural meetings, the number of times being limited to once for those belonging to the third class and twice for those belonging to the fourth. Prison-

ers of the fourth class are permitted to read books or see pictures in the prison library on days free from labor, and may also borrow suitable newspapers and magazines from it. Those of the third and fourth classes may be permitted to play athletic games, the number of times for such amusements being limited to once a month for those of the third and twice for those of the fourth class. While those belonging to the first class are permitted to interview or send letters only to their relatives and those who are concerned with their protection, those belonging to the second and higher classes are permitted to interview or send letters to those who do not interfere with their moral instruction, besides their relatives. The number of interviews and the number of letters that may be written increase in proportion to advances in class.

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

Suspension of Progress In case any prisoner violates the prison regulations, the treatment on the progressive system may be suspended for up to a period of 3 months, but in case it is recognized that there are certain circumstances which have to be taken into consideration before the suspension or in case the prisoner shows signs of sincere penitence the enforcement of the sentence of suspension may be postponed for a fixed period of time. If he further violates the prison regulations during that period, the sentence of suspension will be enforced, but if he passes the said period without any further violation it will not be carried out. Further, in case a prisoner shows marked signs of penitence after the sentence has been delivered, this will be taken into consideration and the sentence repealed in full or in part. In case a prisoner who has been punished with suspension of the treatment again violates the prison regulations, he may be transferred to a lower class according to the circumstances of the case. When a prisoner who has been punished with such degradation shows marked signs of penitence he will be restored to his former category without

reckoning his marks.

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

Prison Labor

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

The Three Systems Industrial work in prisons is managed on three systems, viz.: the public account system, the "made-to-order" system, and the contract system. Under the public account system, a prison itself purchases materials, provides itself with the necessary machinery, implements and tools and makes prisoners manufacture or repair articles or carry on labor under the direction of prison officials, and sells the products. Under the "made-to-order" system, the chief materials are supplied by the outside buyers and prisoners either manufacture or repair articles under the direction of industrial work experts and assistant industrial work experts on the prison staff, and when the articles are either manufactured or repaired the wages of the workers and the cost of requisites in the manufacture or repair are calculated and the prices of the articles fixed by the standard of current prices. The articles

are then delivered to the buyers on payment of the account. Under the contract system, applicants have to supply not only materials, machinery, implements and tools, but also experts for the direction of work, a prison only offering the labor of prisoners and receiving their wages in exchange. Under the contract system now in force in Japan, the prison authorities undertake the supply of provisions, etc. to prisoners, as well as undertaking their supervision and selection for work, and nothing like the lease system that was in vogue in South American countries at one time is recognized.

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

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

Rewards Given as Favors Working hours are from 12 to 13 hours a day and differ according to months. It is permitted to give educational or moral

instruction to prisoners or allow them to take exercise within these hours. A time of recess—15 minutes in the morning and 25 minutes in the afternoon—is given them. All the income from the work of prisoners goes into the national treasury, irrespective of whether it arises from work or from wages. A prisoner who has worked may receive a reward as a favor. This gratuity varies from ¥0.50 to ¥10.00 per month and the sums are fixed according to conduct, character, kinds of work, and the results of the work done. Anyone who does particularly superior work is given an additional reward not exceeding ¥10.00. The reward for his work is, in principle, not given to a prisoner until he is released from prison, but (1) in case a prisoner is entitled to ¥10.00 a month or more, and the money is needed to support his father, mother, wife, child, or to compensate the sufferer from his crime, or to purchase books or other necessary articles, one-third of the amount may be given him while in confinement, and (2) in case it is particularly necessary to do so for the sake of a prisoner, the entire reward may be handed over to him, irrespective of its amount and the way of spending it. In case a prisoner has been injured or has fallen sick while at work, and has died in consequence or has become unable to carry on any work, he may be entitled to a pecuniary reward according to the circumstances of the case. This reward is fixed within the limit of from ¥50 to ¥180 according to the details of the case.

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

hind the times, a specially edited newspaper, "Hito," (Man) is issued and distributed among them.

Aid of Discharged Prisoners

Criminals come in general from among the poorer people, and when they are released from prisons after the completion of their term they are greatly handicapped in entering into gainful occupations or getting positions in shops or offices, being known as "Zenkamono" or "former criminals," and dealt with as such by society, and it becomes difficult for them to earn a livelihood, so that they are forced into further crimes. For the protection of the discharged prisoners measures have to be employed for giving moral instruction and a knowledge of some useful arts while providing them with necessary funds so that they may establish themselves in some suitable occupation. These works have been entirely left in the hands of volunteer social workers who have made valuable contributions. But the number of establishments for this purpose is insignificant as compared with the number of ex-convicts who are in immediate need of protection and the fund contributed by benevolent persons to these protection houses is too insufficient.

The Organizations Among these organizations, one noted for its systematic constitution and management was the Shutsu-gokunin Hogo Kaisha (Ex-Convicts Protection Co.) established by Mr. Meizen Kinbara in Shizuoka prefecture. In 1907, the Government decided to make an appropriation of ¥10,000 from the national treasury every year for the encouragement of the work and later, in 1912, the sum was increased to ¥30,000. With the development of the work the number of organizations grew and was returned at 211 throughout the country at the end of 1912. In 1913,

Baron Hachibroyemon Mitsui, head of the House of Mitsui, donated ¥750,000 to the work, and with this money the Hosen-Kai, a foundation, was established for the control of, and extension of help to various organizations interested in the work throughout the country. In 1923 the Ministry of Justice created a Section for the work of protection of ex-prisoners, which supervises the various organizations carrying on this work. In 1925 the Government subsidy was increased to ¥100,000, and since 1923 the Imperial House has made an annual grant to encourage the work, with the result that the work has made steady development, the organizations today number approximately 800.

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

PRISON STATISTICS NUMBER OF PRISONS (December 1, 1939)

Prisons	Branches	Total
53	106	159

FIXED NUMBER OF PRISON OFFICIALS (October 1, 1939)

Governors	43	Chaplains	145
Assistant governors	37	Instructors	37
Chief warders	551	Industrial work experts	19
Interpreters	4	Assistants, ditto	487
Doctors	97	Warders	7,647
Assistant doctors	44	Employees	618
Pharmacists	10	Total	9,739

NUMBER OF PRISONERS KEPT IN PRISON HOUSES
AT THE END OF EACH YEAR

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	Average of the 5 years	1939
Convicts	48,904	51,094	51,977	49,132	46,686	49,559	43,260
Criminal defendants	5,353	5,372	4,675	4,012	3,483	4,579	3,662
Detained in the House of Labor	572	490	462	362	269	431	169
Infants	8	14	9	6	4	8	7
Total	54,837	56,970	57,123	53,512	50,442	54,577	47,098
(Women in the total)	976	915	919	830	702	868	741
Daily average	54,352	56,167	57,440	55,566	52,581	55,221	—

NUMBER OF CONVICTS IN PRISON AT THE END OF
EACH YEAR CLASSIFIED BY AGE

Age	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Under 18	717	858	918	817	821	868
Under 20	1,950	2,059	2,199	2,023	1,956	2,014
Over 20	39,586	43,407	46,805	46,064	48,317	49,095
Total	42,253	46,324	49,922	48,904	51,094	51,977

YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS

Year	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Criminal Code Offences						
Theft	19,259	20,646	18,848	19,167	18,204	17,292
Gambling and lotteries	1,405	1,652	1,838	1,920	1,870	1,831
Fraud and usurpation	6,792	7,372	8,097	7,621	7,138	6,443
Forgery of documents, negotiable securities and seals or stamps	508	451	381	418	344	307
Injury	1,528	1,523	1,494	1,303	1,158	966
Receiving stolen articles	510	544	418	474	608	559
Murder	684	709	642	647	608	514
Burglary	757	776	729	731	673	555
Incendiarism	818	758	701	584	501	390
Interference with the execution of official duties	94	94	48	31	41	30
Destruction and concealment of another man's property	18	18	25	21	16	14
Forgery of currency	68	46	24	44	24	11
Abortion	30	44	54	34	30	17
Obscenities, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	279	332	287	261	288	253
House-breaking	288	245	249	270	312	504
Perjury	46	43	38	24	34	10
False accusation	12	16	17	22	32	22
Others	442	555	571	573	570	406
Offences against Special Laws						
Criminal law of the army and navy	56	19	42	71	91	140
The forest law	37	43	30	26	25	16
The military service law	12	14	11	18	21	16
The mail and telegraphy law	2	5	—	1	6	5
Others	1,368	1,203	1,034	3,360	2,575	1,074
Police laws and prefectural laws	4,461	4,986	5,520	4,143	3,550	2,932
Total	39,480	42,094	41,093	41,764	38,719	34,307

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

Year	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Penal Servitude							
Penal servitude for life	57	61	64	55	43	34	44
Over 15 years	38	56	45	45	38	33	29
Less than 15 years	68	53	63	38	57	43	36
Under 10 years	890	996	963	816	804	684	607
Under 5 years	2,046	2,309	2,300	2,154	2,040	1,951	1,947
" 3 "	3,210	3,685	4,046	3,719	3,330	3,490	3,220
" 2 "	6,840	7,479	8,462	7,640	7,638	7,097	6,938
" 1 year	12,049	13,111	13,651	13,472	13,730	12,971	11,846
" 6 months	4,638	5,033	5,306	5,282	5,244	4,881	4,128
" 3 "	1,560	1,771	1,882	1,970	2,925	2,520	1,884
Total	31,396	34,554	36,782	35,191	35,849	33,704	30,679
Imprisonment							
For life	—	—	—	—	6	1	—
Over 15 years	—	2	—	—	6	—	—
Less than 15 years	—	1	—	—	1	—	—
Under 14 years	—	3	—	—	8	—	—
Under 5 years	—	11	—	—	11	4	—
" 3 "	—	1	—	3	4	4	1
" 2 "	2	1	1	2	4	6	4
" 1 year	3	5	4	5	41	61	40
" 6 months	69	48	40	47	319	394	199
" 3 "	304	368	238	313	1,355	968	437
Total	378	440	283	370	1,755	1,438	681
Detention	4,491	4,458	4,994	5,518	4,149	3,554	2,932
Death penalty	22	28	35	14	11	23	15
Total	36,287	39,480	42,094	41,093	41,764	38,719	34,307

YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS
ACCORDING TO EDUCATION

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Education in					
Higher schools					
Male	201	226	262	199	270
Female	1	—	3	—	—
Middle schools					
Male	1,627	1,911	2,039	1,967	2,179
Female	8	9	22	16	12
Primary schools					
Male	21,730	24,643	26,647	26,020	27,665
Female	151	175	258	203	241
Uneducated					
Male	6,736	6,966	6,605	6,023	6,147
Female	129	134	134	146	142
Illiterates					
Male	1,072	816	918	880	836
Female	109	104	167	104	104
Ill-informed					
Male	9	10	10	3	7
Female	1	—	—	—	1
Total (investigated)					
Male	31,375	34,572	36,481	35,092	37,104
Female	399	422	584	469	500

YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS
ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION

Occupation	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Agriculture					
Male	2,817	2,731	2,665	3,798	3,132
Female	64	72	65	46	46
Fisheries					
Male	389	351	331	372	310
Female	—	—	1	2	—
Mining					
Male	188	186	207	309	342
Female	—	—	1	1	1
Industry					
Male	6,561	7,150	7,528	8,549	7,948
Female	23	21	10	27	20
Commerce					
Male	5,113	5,245	5,203	4,944	4,593
Female	42	56	53	60	45
Transportation					
Male	768	795	823	794	878
Female	—	—	—	—	1
Official and Cultural					
Male	1,175	1,554	1,786	1,457	1,350
Female	18	21	17	20	17
Miscellaneous					
Male	3,098	3,597	3,695	3,734	3,968
Female	30	49	26	41	24
Servants					
Male	882	910	671	783	744
Female	22	34	43	32	29
Unoccupied					
Male	13,581	13,962	12,183	12,364	11,448
Female	223	331	253	269	246
Total (Investigated)					
Male	34,572	36,481	35,092	37,104	34,713
Female	422	584	469	500	429

POLICE SYSTEM

Authority Vested in State In Japan police authority is entirely vested in the State and is not delegated to other public bodies. The police are administered in the name of the Emperor by the Minister of Home Affairs through the Superintendent-General of the Metropolitan Police, in Tokyo prefecture, governors of other prefectures and the Hokkaido procurator. Although nominally under the Governor of Tokyo prefecture, the Superintendent-General of the Metropolitan Police Board in Tokyo takes his orders direct from the Home Minister as the Board has many political responsibilities unknown in other prefectures. The appointment is actually a political one, the ordinary police business being carried out by the Chief of Police. In Hokkaido and other prefectures the highest police official is the

Chief of the Police Division. Under the Chiefs of Police are the police superintendents, inspectors, assistant inspectors and policemen. A police superintendent is appointed chief of a police station or secretary of a Police Division, or in Tokyo and Osaka prefectures he may be appointed inspector over several police stations. A police inspector or an assistant police inspector may, in some cases, be appointed chief or secretary of a police station. Policemen are divided into sergeants, indoor and outdoor service men, special service men, and police-detectives.

As mentioned above, police officials carry out judicial functions, and when acting in the capacity of judicial police officials and under the dictates of the public procurators they execute warrants of arrest or detention and arrest

persons in flagrant offence. They may seize private possessions or search a house by order of a Court of Justice, an examining judge or a public procurator, or help a public procurator in the investigation of criminal cases.

In Times of Peace and Crisis In times of peace the maintenance of public order rests with the police. Individual policemen wear sabres. Pistols are carried only in special cases though in the police force there are troops of armed constables, while if matters become too serious and on special occasions, the gendarmerie is called on for help. The gendarme is a kind of military policeman, but at such times as the police force is too weak to keep public order, a Governor may ask for the aid of the gendarmerie. Moreover, at a time of crisis or extraordinary social disturbance, the army takes the place of the usual police force and acts with an extraordinary and limitless authority. The occasions which may call forth the military power for keeping public order are as follows: (1) when the country or a district is placed under martial law in times of war, (2) when a district is put under martial law for the maintenance of public order, (3) when the governor asks for the help of the army for subduing social disturbances, and (4) when a Divisional Commander recognizes the need of military power for keeping local order in an emergency in which the request from other authorities is too late.

Police Business

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

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

publication of a periodical or any other printed matter which he considers detrimental to public welfare and morals.

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

(c) Supervision of businesses or commercial shops. Most businesses are free, but in some cases some kind of police supervision is necessary in the interests of public welfare, hygiene, prevention of damage, the safety of traffic, social economy and price control. For instance, such shops and businesses as inns, public baths, employment exchanges for geisha and prostitutes, credit information businesses, barbers, seal or stamp engravers, old clothes dealers, peddlers and stall-holders are inspected or taken care of by the police. Pawnshops and curio or second-hand shops are under special regulations and police inspection and supervision is thoroughly practised as many stolen articles find their way into these shops, and lead to excellent results in the arrest of thieves and burglars. Guides, scribes and employment exchanges for profit are also under special regulations and strict supervision. The police business in connection with the State policy for price control began since 1938, and the police force was augmented.

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

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

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

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

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

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

(g) The care of men who are a danger to public peace and welfare, juveniles who are addicted to bad habits,

ticket-of-leave men, the insane, beggars and vagrants are supervised by the police.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(e) The aviation police are under the supervision of the Minister of Communications.

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

Police and the People

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

(b) Banks, savings banks, mutual financing associations, negotiable security businesses, trust businesses, insurance businesses, commercial ex-

changes, the central wholesale markets in the six largest cities, foreign trade business in important articles, weighing and measuring machine businesses, and auditors partially are under police supervision or limitations.

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

(c) The hygiene and prevention of epidemics among domestic animals is looked after by the police. Many laws are enforced regarding the improvement of animals, and police power is needed to see that the regulations are carried out, especially in connection with horse-racing.

(d) Forestry police mainly prevent damage to the forests.

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

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

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

POLICE STATISTICS

	1934	1935	1936	1937
Police offices:				
Police stations	1,200	1,201	1,203	1,205
Water-Police stations	24	24	23	17
Branch stations	4,644	4,672	4,742	4,704
Police-boxes	14,147	14,240	14,242	14,209
Police officials:				
Divisional directors	51	52	52	52
Police superintendents	339	346	351	412
Police inspectors	1,546	1,548	1,607	1,675
Assistant police inspectors	3,500	3,620	3,909	4,021
Policemen	59,481	59,425	60,609	63,692
Total	65,007	64,991	66,528	69,852

	1934	1935	1936	1937
Fire-brigade stations	228	232	241	243
Fire-brigade officials	3,873	3,893	3,981	17,375
Firemen	12,559	12,486	12,646	
Fire-guilds	11,362	11,446	11,477	11,489
Volunteer firemen	2,087,907	2,105,874	2,139,869	1,971,784
Criminal cases handled by police,				
Cases reported	2,925,557	2,937,557	2,634,933	—
Persons arrested	2,893,135	2,376,220	2,543,309	2,106,987
Suicides:				
Successful, men	10,860	10,400	11,490	
women	6,379	6,270	6,262	14,295
Unsuccessful, men	3,944	3,844	3,794	—
women	2,765	2,642	2,710	—
Murder, Manslaughter, etc.	1,692	—	1,648	—
Traffic accidents:				
Cases	69,342	66,415	59,444	55,958
Killed	3,226	3,549	3,484	3,633
Wounded	50,204	49,227	45,323	43,861
Places of Entertainment:				
Theatres, buildings	1,899	1,898	1,942	1,920
Performances	31,967	31,593	35,628	30,418
Cinemas, buildings	1,458	1,503	1,547	1,620
Shows	78,497	82,540	82,419	93,233
Variety houses	526	507	507	445
Performances	16,063	16,037	16,974	19,868
Miscellaneous shows	65	73	80	79
Performances	12,444	11,689	11,274	10,127
Shops and houses under police supervision:				
(Items less than 10,000 are omitted)				
Pawn shops	12,738	12,585	12,203	12,064
Dealers in second-hand articles	283,873	294,297	308,988	325,684
Hotels	48,851	48,676	47,736	48,073
Boarding houses	10,902	11,916	12,626	25,186
Doss-houses	13,959	13,954	12,163	
Restaurants	61,349	61,107	62,298	65,418
Cafés and bars	37,056	36,202	34,971	32,813
Geisha houses	21,197	21,612	22,052	22,541
Bath-houses	21,701	21,391	21,551	20,987
Eating houses	159,823	156,211	156,918	158,236
Employment exchanges	11,736	11,175	10,192	10,744
Printing houses	14,162	14,680	15,464	15,632
Barber's shops	74,687	75,944	76,455	76,766
Women's hair-dressers	53,314	51,154	48,283	45,920
Recreation houses	20,683	22,794	23,116	26,162
Building contractors	36,179	28,823	43,248	
Shipping agents	12,250	12,307	12,064	
Waggon-business men	148,881	142,977	137,747	137,525
Taxicab garages	27,898	28,972	32,803	52,534
Scribes	18,977	18,440	19,056	20,575
Bicycle dealers	39,545	40,850	42,216	41,847
Rikishamen	17,346	14,926	12,389	10,652
Factories	82,412	90,065	98,581	107,689
Licensed prostitution houses	9,738	9,526	9,386	9,238
Geisha girls, etc.				
Geisha	72,538	74,855	78,699	86,245
"Saké" waitresses	85,121	82,621	85,685	85,699
Café and bar waitresses	107,478	109,335	111,700	111,284
Prostitutes	45,705	45,837	47,078	47,217

	1934	1935	1936	1937
Cinema films, inspected:				
Total number of metres,	18,223,908	20,029,092	21,905,867	25,686,356
Japanese	15,322,117	16,651,811	18,267,431	21,782,195
American	2,278,121	2,431,976	2,699,090	2,884,354
European	623,670	945,305	939,346	1,019,807
Natural calamities and fires				
Flood:				
Municipalities struck	6,325	6,982	5,377	5,019
Flooded areas (hectare)	249,591	529,052	198,006	238,109
Buildings damaged	386,334	7,794	37,799	54,308
Boats lost	5,887	307	313	269
Persons drowned	973	532	93	178
Persons injured	5,529	949	158	383
Damages in yen	389,777,809	176,309,551	31,433,894	67,219,000
Tidal waves:				
Municipalities struck	333	405	291	—
Buildings damaged	6,034	3,985	2,464	—
Boats lost	2,107	1,364	339	—
Persons drowned	127	73	28	—
Persons injured	958	112	20	—
Damages in yen	4,580,944	3,683,076	1,722,680	—
Typhoons:				
Buildings damaged	42,763	15,312	55,947	31,407
Persons killed	201	71	97	164
Persons injured	786	32	254	140
Damages in yen	75,649,789	20,671,728	39,309,347	15,504,000
Fires:				
Number of fires	20,481	19,064	19,135	17,883
Dwellings damaged	23,717	13,750	11,323	11,741
Other buildings damaged	14,112	12,445	10,440	10,042
Damages in yen	171,922,000	53,945,000	48,729,000	48,807,000

CHAPTER XXVIII

EDUCATION

Historical Background

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

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

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

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

"Tera-Koya" Education

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

The word "tera" means Buddhist temple and "koya" children's house, so the tera-koya was a school for children established by a Buddhist temple. It was originated many years before the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate by Buddhist monks. Side by side with Governmental schools for the samurai class, tera-koya education began to spread in the Yedo period among the common folks in business and farm quarters. It gradually ceased to be entirely in the hands of the monks, and assumed a form and nature quite different from the original.

The school-house was no longer in or attached to a temple; teaching was not restricted to the monks; the teacher might be a samurai, monk, doctor or Shinto priest. "Tera-koya" became merely a general name, and the founders of tera-koya schools chose any name they liked for their own. The size of the schools was diverse, the largest one accommodating as many as two or three hundred pupils. There was rarely more than one teacher, but in the larger schools there might be an assistant. The age of the pupils ranged from 6 to 15 years. It was co-education, although the sexes sat apart. The courses of study were commonly penmanship, Japanese literature, and the use of the abacus, with such optional subjects as Chinese literature, poem composition, sewing, flower-arrangement or tea ceremonies. Many textbooks on moral precepts and letter writing were published and used in these schools. These schools were usually kept up largely out of the pocket of the school master himself, for his work was entirely voluntary, inspired by pure devotion to service, for which he gained the honor and respect of community. According to the report of the

Ministry of Education, there were 15,862 tera-koya in Japan at the beginning of the Meiji Era, or just before the establishment of the new elementary school system.

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

Educational Administration

The present educational system of Japan dates from 1872 the 5th year of Meiji, when elementary education was made compulsory. The new system was established, in the main, after the examples of the French system, and the entire country was divided into 7 university districts, each of them consisting of 32 middle school districts and each of which was again divided into 210 primary school districts, or one primary school for 600 of population. The national educational principles are stated in the Imperial Rescript on Education issued on Oct. 30, 1890. This world-renowned rescript was published to lay down leading ideas and principles for the guidance of the Japanese, and it reads as follows:

"Know ye, Our Subjects!

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

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

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

The 30th day of the 10th month of the 23rd year of Meiji.
(Imperial Sign Manual)

(Imperial Seal)

All school education in Japan is supervised by the State, being partly entrusted to local public bodies such as the prefectural councils, towns and villages.

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

The points entrusted to local public bodies are chiefly financial matters, pertaining to the establishment and maintenance of schools, some of which are obligatory while some are left to the discretion of local bodies. The obligatory matters are the establishment by Hokkaido and the prefectures of normal schools, middle schools for boys and

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

also be taught.

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

Under the present system of compulsory education the father's responsibility ends when his child has graduated from the lower elementary school. But the ordinary elementary education of children is not sufficient for the existing conditions of society, and many cities, towns and villages establish higher elementary schools either independently or in connection with ordinary ones.

The following table will give a general idea of the conditions of elementary schools as they were in 1938:

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN 1938

Schools	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Ordinary	—	6,880	79	6,959
Ordinary and Higher	4	18,713	21	18,738
Higher	—	208	1	209
Total	4	25,801	101	25,906
Classes				
Ordinary and supplementary	55	201,641	684	202,380
Higher and supplementary	7	39,577	45	39,629
Total	62	241,218	729	242,009
Teachers	99	267,663	923	268,685
Pupils	2,359	11,762,065	28,314	11,792,738
Graduates	444	2,394,434	4,969	2,399,847
Entrants	518	2,722,750	5,523	2,728,797
Daily Attendance				
Ordinary	2,038	9,703,039	25,506	9,730,583
Higher	211	1,692,332	1,492	1,694,035
Total	2,249	11,395,371	26,998	11,424,618
Percentage of Daily Attendance				
Ordinary	95.14	96.84	96.43	96.84
Higher	97.23	96.25	97.64	96.25
Average	95.33	96.75	96.50	96.75

Teachers There are more male teachers than female in the Japanese elementary schools, and they are classified according to their education and special abilities, as (1) elementary school teachers (2) lower elementary school teach-

ers, (3) teachers on special subjects, (4) assistant teachers, and (5) substitute teachers. The teachers belonging to the first two classes are regular teachers properly qualified for the elementary education of children.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS CLASSIFIED

(March 1, 1938)

Ordinary Elementary Schools	Male	Female	Total
Regular teachers	121,385	59,299	180,684
Special teachers	3,388	7,340	10,728
Assistant teachers	3,330	2,119	5,449

Ordinary Elementary Schools	Male	Female	Total
Substitute teachers	12,891	13,327	26,218
Total	140,994	82,085	223,079
Higher Elementary Schools			
Regular teachers	36,836	3,780	40,616
Special teachers	1,751	1,325	3,076
Assistant teachers	71	11	82
Substitute teachers	1,440	392	1,832
Total	40,098	5,508	45,606

Kokumin Gakko Beginning 1941

Coming Reform in Elementary Education. The term of compulsory general education in this country was fixed at 4 years in 1886, then the period was extended to 6 years in 1908. And now after 32 years, the term will be extended to 8 years beginning April 1941. The ground was prepared for this by the establishment of the young men's school system in 1935, which provides for a five-year course, carried on after completion of the six-year elementary course. It has served to stimulate the extension of compulsory general education by two years, and sets forth an ideal of an eventual eleven-year general education course.

The guiding principle of the forthcoming educational reforms consists in imparting the characteristics of Japanese society to compulsory general education. It will seek to make national education in keeping with the actual conditions of society, which is decidedly an industrial one, with greater emphasis on vocational training and proper co-ordination between the different subjects of study.

These aims of developing the Japanese character and vocational extension are embodied in the curriculum of the Kokumin Gakko, or national school, with special attention paid to the following points:

(1) Not only will knowledge and skill be imparted through the curriculum, but the Kodo (principles of imperial benevolent rule) will be inculcated so as to foster national characteristics.

(2) With a view to effecting basic national training in accordance with the trend of the times and the new theory, the curriculum of the national school is divided into the five courses of civics (kokuminika), science and mathema-

tics, physical training, art and business.

(3) Basic national training will be given so as to qualify the pupils as future useful members of the Empire, by establishing close connections among the five courses themselves and also by co-ordinating the five courses with the teaching of the Kodo which is the nucleus of the system.

(4) All material for the five courses will be systematized so as to give full play to the characteristics of each course, at the same time maintaining close connections among the five courses.

(5) The curriculum for eight years will be systematized so as to establish unification and co-ordination.

(6) The aims of compulsory common education will be realized by paying close attention to selection and arrangement of subjects taught with the addition of necessary items as required.

Article 1 of the National School Regulations declares that the national school is aimed at imparting a type of general education indispensable to the nation and at effecting a basic training for the Emperor's subjects along the lines of the Kodo. Detailed regulations, governing the enforcement of the National School are translated and condensed as follows, so as to give a précis of the Government's regulations:

1. Children shall be educated at the national school in accordance with Article I of the National School Regulations, by observing the following points:

(a) Training in the Kodo shall dominate all educational activities, by fostering the national spirit and strengthening faith in the national

polity.

(b) An outline of the Japanese culture shall be impressed on the pupils with emphasis on salient features. Also the general situation of East Asia in particular and the world in general shall be taught them so as to make them conscious of the position of the Empire.

(c) All courses and subjects of study shall be so handled as to give full play to their characteristics by maintaining close harmony among them, but all shall converge toward the aim of providing a basic national training.

(d) Mind and body shall be trained as a whole with a view to balanced development of national characteristics.

(e) Festivals, ritual, school programs, work, athletics, hygiene, and other educational measures outside the school curriculum shall be incorporated into the curriculum in a suitable manner, so as fully to realize the real aim of common education.

(f) Education must be concrete and practical, in keeping with national life. Greater attention must be given to this point in the higher national school, which is expected to give proper guidance to the pupils in entering vocational life.

(g) Teaching material shall be carefully selected for efficient instruction, while pupils shall be induced to take a voluntary interest in their studies, by means of proper guidance and by cultivating a habit of voluntary study.

(h) Proper training shall be given the pupils, by paying attention to their growth, physical and mental, as well as to the special character, individuality and surroundings of boys and girls.

2. The civic, or national course (kokuminka) shall be divided into morals, Japanese language, geography and history. The mathematics and science course shall be divided into arithmetic and science. The physical training course shall be divided into gymnastics and military arts. The art course shall be divided into music, penmanship, drawing and manual work, while for girls housekeeping and

needlework shall be added to the course. The business course shall be divided into agriculture, technical industry, commerce and fisheries. Other subjects may be added to the curriculum of the higher national school in consideration of the actual local conditions, subject to the approval of the prefectural governor. Such additional subjects may be made optional.

3. The national, or civic course is aimed at clarifying the essence of national polity, fostering the national spirit and making the pupils conscious of their duties for the Empire, by improving their knowledge of the morals, language, history and geography of Japan. The pupils must be induced to appreciate the happiness of being born in the Empire, they must be trained to live in piety and in devoted service to the public. Pupils must be made to understand that the national spirit is based on the aspiration of the Empire, which is to go on developing forever. Further they must be taught not only to understand that the history and geography of Japan have fostered a fine national character, but to strive to create and develop the unique culture of Japan.

The general situation of East Asia in particular and the world in general must be laid before the pupils in an effort to qualify them as future members of a great nation. The national, or civic course must be taught the pupils in close co-ordination with the other courses, by means of reference to politics, economics, national defence and maritime affairs.

4. The science and mathematics course is intended to foster a rational creative spirit, to prepare ground for contributions to the development of the State, by making correct observation of natural phenomena and dealing with them properly in the course of daily life. Pupils must be made to understand that scientific progress offers substantial contribution to the development of the State, and also that they are charged to create new forms of culture in furthering Japan's progress. The pupils must be trained to study mathematics and the laws of nature. A faculty for analytical and logical observation must be fostered, with emphasis on a comprehensive and intuitive grasp of the subject under observation. Efforts must be made for scientific training of the

pupils, by having them undertake accurate, thorough experiments, tests, surveys, drawings and building and other work.

Common sense regarding national defence must be cultivated, by drawing attention to the fact that national defence depends a great deal on scientific progress.

5. The physical course is aimed at co-ordinated training of both body and mind as a whole for the purpose of building up health and cultivating the spirit of fortitude, manliness and generosity. Mass training also must be encouraged to enhance the national spirit, and devotion to the public cause. Pupils must be induced to realize that strong and sturdy physique and vigorous spirit, are essential for national defence.

No effort must be spared to make discipline assert itself in daily life in the form of good manners, posture and other matters, while proper guidance must be given the pupils in consideration for their physical and mental development as well as for the special character of boys and girls. Hygienic care must be given the pupils in accordance with the result of their medical examination.

6. Military arts in the physical training course shall be cultivated for the purpose of training both body and mind and also of fostering the samurai spirit, by making the pupils acquainted with the elements of those arts. In the elementary national school the boys shall be trained in kendo (fencing) and judo, while the girls may be trained in the use of the naginata (a kind of halberd).

7. The art course is aimed at cultivating artistic skill indispensable to the nation. Even in this spiritual training must prevail for the purpose of cultivating a sincere attitude. The essence of artistic skill, peculiar to the people, must be introduced to the pupils for the purpose of cultivating their creative faculty.

The teaching material must be national, selected with special attention to local conditions. Application of artistic skill to daily life must be encouraged; mass work must be imposed on the

pupils from time to time, though a proper development of individuality must not be lost sight of. The pupils must be taught manners and posture, with proper guidance in the use of implements.

8. The business and technical course is to give the pupils common information and skill in industries, cultivating their habit of labor and deepening their understanding of vocations in general. The pupils must be induced to realize the national need of industries, thus preparing themselves to make contributions to the development of the State. The course may include agriculture, technical industry, commerce and fisheries, in accordance with local needs.

Wherever necessary a foreign language, English or Chinese, may be included in the business and technical course.

Actual conditions and the special character of industries in this country must be made clear to the pupils, together with the great contributions made by industry to the prosperity of the country. The pupils must be encouraged to render service to the State by engaging in industrial work. Special attention must be drawn to the close relations between national defence and industry. In connection with morals in the national, or civic, course, it must be taught that a vocation forms a channel through which service can be rendered to the State. Proper guidance must be also given in selecting future vocational work for the pupils.

9. The curriculum of the elementary national school must be based on Schedule No. 1 and that of the higher national school on Schedule No. 2. The total number of weekly lesson hours in the first term of the first year of the national school may be extended to 18, in which case weekly lesson hours of each course and subjects of study must be decided by the school master.

In order to make clearer what has been stated in the above, the curriculum of the proposed national school system is attached in the following pages. Every lesson hour consists of 40 minutes and the lunch recess follows the fourth lesson hour.

Schedule No. 1. (Elementary course)

Curriculum	First year		Second year		Third year	
	Lesson hours	Contents	Lesson hours	Contents	Lesson hours	Contents
National, or civic, course	10	National morals Reading, writing, speaking	11	" "	2	Reading, writing, speaking
	8	General arithmetic, Natural science	5	" "	8	" "
Science and mathematics course	5	Gymnastics, drill, play, Sports & hygienics	5	" "	5	" "
	4	Singing, appreciation, Penmanship	5	" "	1	" "
Physical training course	4	Observation, representation and appreciation of objects, handicraft	2	" "	4	" "
	2		2	" "	2	" "
Art course	2		2		2	
Total weekly lesson hours		21	23	26		
Curriculum	Fourth year		Fifth year		Sixth year	
	Lesson hours	Contents	Lesson hours	Contents	Lesson hours	Contents
National, or civic, course	2	" "	2	" "	2	" "
	8	Local history and geography	7	History (general)	7	" "
Science & mathematics course	1	" "	2	Geography (general)	2	" "
	5	General science	2	" "	2	" "
Physical training course	2	" "	5	Fundamentals of military arts	5	" "
	2	" "	2	" "	2	" "
Art course	2	Needlework (fundamental)	5	" "	5	" "
	4 (boys) 2 (girls)		2	" "	2	" "
Total weekly lesson hours		30	31	32		

Schedule No. 2 (Higher course)

Curriculum	Subjects	First year		Second year	
		Lesson hours	Contents	Lesson hours	Contents
National, or civic, course	Morals	2	National morals	2	"
	Japanese language	4	Reading & writing	4	"
	Japanese history	2	Outline of Japanese history	2	"
Business & technical course	Geography	2	Outline of geography	2	"
	Agriculture	5 (boys)	Outline of one or several of the subjects and practice	5 (boys)	"
	Technical industry				
	Commerce	2 (girls)	"	2 (girls)	"
Fishery					
Science & mathematics course	Arithmetic	3	General arithmetic	3	"
	Science	2	General science	2	"
Physical training course	Gymnastics	6 (boys)	Gymnastics, drills, play sports & hygienics	6 (boys)	"
	Military arts	5 (girls)	Fundamentals of military arts	4 (girls)	"
Art course	Music	1	Singing, appreciation, & basic exercise	1	"
	Penmanship	1	Kana, kaisbo, gyosbo, sosbo and appreciation	1	"
	Drawing	2	Observation, representation and appreciation of objects	2	"
Work					
	Housekeeping (girls)	5	Wood and metal works, gardening & handicraft (girls)	5	"
	Needlework (girls)				
	Lesson hours	30		30	
	Extra hours	2-4		2-4	
	Total weekly lesson hours	32-34		32-34	

Secondary Education

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

Middle Schools The course of the middle school extends over five years, and its object is to give boys such a higher general education as will fit them to be useful members of society after their graduation. The subjects taught

are morals, civics, the Japanese language and Chinese classics, history, both Japanese and foreign, geography, a foreign language (either one of English, German, French or Chinese), mathematics, science, technical studies, drawing, music, practical work (carpentering, gardening, etc) and gymnastics.

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

To the regular course a supplementary course of one year or less may be added, and, if local circumstances require, a preparatory course of two years may also be provided. A boy who desires to enter a middle school must complete either its preparatory course or the full course of an ordinary ele-

mentary school. Those who are twelve or more years of age and in possession of adequate scholastic attainments may be admitted upon examination. Those who have completed the fifth year (the course of the ordinary elementary school ends with the sixth year as mentioned above) of an ordinary elementary school and are physically well developed and have shown excellent scholarship are allowed to apply for the entrance examination, even though under twelve years of age; this is to give a chance to specially gifted boys.

The following are the figures for middle schools and their pupils on March 1 of each year:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1934	554	327,261
1935	555	330,992
1936	557	340,657
1937	559	352,320
1938	563	364,486

A general idea of the condition of the middle schools in 1938 may be obtained by the following table:

MIDDLE SCHOOLS IN 1938

	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Schools	2	441	120	563
Classes, regular course	25	6,340	1,520	7,885
Number of boys in one class	38.44	46.05	46.71	46.15
Teachers, licensed	62	10,102	2,514	12,678
	Female —	Female 2	Female 2	Female 4
" non-licensed	—	949	612	1,561
	Female —	Female 7	Female 2	Female 9
Total	62	11,060	3,130	14,252
Pupils, regular course	961	291,942	71,006	363,909
Preparatory	—	—	15	15
Pupils, supplementary course	—	489	73	562
Total	961	292,431	71,094	364,486
Graduates, regular course	164	47,762	10,699	58,625
Preparatory	—	—	13	13
" supplementary course	—	1,138	73	1,211
Total	164	48,900	10,785	59,849
Applicants, regular course	1,284	109,837	40,772	151,893
" supplementary course	—	3,497	174	3,671
Total	1,284	113,334	40,946	155,564
Admitted, regular course	205	66,973	17,694	84,872
Admitted, supplementary course	—	2,244	137	2,381
Total	205	69,217	17,831	87,253
Left school, regular course	20	18,424	7,052	25,496

Girls' High Schools The system of high schools for girls is made flexible to suit practical requirements. A girl who has completed elementary school or

has equivalent scholastic attainments and is twelve years or more of age may be admitted to a girls' high school. The course of the girls' high school ex-

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

The subjects taught in a girls' high school are the same as those taught in the middle schools, but with the addition of domestic science and sewing, the required hours of study being from 28 to 29 a week. In the case of the Girls' Domestic High School, technical study added and the hours for domestic science and sewing are double those of the ordinary high school, the time allowed for other subjects being shortened, and foreign languages omitted altogether.

Under special circumstances the foreign language, drawing and music may be omitted, and if local circumstances require, pedagogics, manual arts, technical studies and other useful subjects may be taught in addition to the normal curriculum. In cases the total weekly hours may be increased to a little over 30. The curriculum of a domestic course of three years, the entrance requirement of which is the completion of the first year of the higher elementary school, is to be suitably drawn up on the basis of that of a domestic course of two years, the entrance requirement of which is the completion of the higher elementary school, and be submitted to the Minister of Education for approval.

The progress of female education is phenomenal in modern Japan and girls' high schools have taken very marked strides in recent years both in number and quality. At the end of March 1938, there were 996 girls' high schools in Japan proper, many of them being provided with, or contemplating the provision of, a post-graduate course or a higher course.

The number of schools and girl students on March 1 of each year was as follows:

Year	Schools	Girls
1934	975	371,807
1935	970	388,935
1936	974	412,126
1937	985	432,553
1938	996	454,423

GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOLS IN 1938

Schools:	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
High School	2	587	229	818
Domestic H.S.	—	160	18	178
Total	2	747	247	996
Classes:				
Regular course	47.04	5,803	2,512	5,339
In a class, average	—	50.28	49.05	49.90
Post graduate	—	23	—	23
In a class, average	—	31.13	—	31.13
Domestic High School	—	577	115	692
In a class, average	22	43.97	43.46	43.85
Teachers, licensed:				
High School, regular course, male	34	5,665	2,064	7,751
female	—	4,068	2,302	6,404
Post graduate, male	—	38	—	38
female	—	1	—	1
Domestic high school, male	—	316	100	416
female	—	523	81	604

	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Teachers, unlicensed:				
High School, regular course, male	—	285	463	748
female	—	240	461	701
Post graduate, male	—	3	—	3
female	—	9	—	9
Domestic High School, male	—	74	49	123
female	—	52	37	89
Total, male	22	6,381	2,676	9,079
female	34	4,593	2,881	7,808
Total	56	11,274	5,557	16,887
Pupils	1,290	323,893	129,240	454,423
Graduates	292	77,106	26,270	103,674
Applicants	1,104	135,836	64,737	201,677
Admitted	314	91,761	32,382	124,457
Left school in the school year	20	12,129	6,263	18,412

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

short period.

On March 1, 1938 there were 1,355 business schools. The figures for the years 1934-38 are given below:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1934	1,041	316,846
1935	1,125	367,026
1936	1,250	396,968
1937	1,301	433,437
1938	1,355	477,596

Business schools are divided into two classes, A and B. Those schools which belong to A class admit boys and girls who have completed the course of the ordinary elementary school, while those which belong to B class admit those who have completed the course of the higher elementary school. And they are of six kinds, namely, Technical, Agricultural, Fisheries, Commercial, Navigation and Practical. Figures relating to these business schools in 1938 are given below.

BUSINESS SCHOOLS (A)

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted	Left School
Technical	121	2,774	49,757	11,140	48,343	15,773	2,210
Agricultural	264	3,121	61,093	17,551	28,614	21,271	2,833
Commercial	341	7,972	211,588	35,989	109,721	55,193	15,652
Navigation	8	126	1,733	489	821	514	87
Fisheries	15	161	2,602	576	1,327	718	135
Practical	291	3,769	73,792	25,478	37,996	29,760	3,894
Total	1,040	17,923	400,565	91,223	226,822	123,229	24,809

BUSINESS SCHOOLS (B)

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted	Left School
Technical	43	487	12,487	4,401	18,610	8,545	1,576
Agricultural	107	919	22,220	7,790	9,545	8,352	1,357

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted	Left School
Commercial	90	940	25,360	9,218	17,995	12,565	1,852
Navigation	1	12	133	88	238	227	79
Fisheries	5	18	356	114	269	175	55
Practical	69	578	16,475	10,064	16,045	14,318	2,155
Total	315	2,954	77,031	31,674	62,602	44,182	7,074

Of these schools, 14 technical, 12 agricultural, 153 commercial, and 149 practical schools were under private management.

Young Men's School On April 1, 1935, the Young Men's School was established by the amalgamation of the Young Men's Training Institute and the Business Continuation School. The attendance became compulsory from April, 1939.

The purpose of the new institution is to elevate young people's attainment as citizens of Japan by training mind and body, by cultivating moral nature and by educating in knowledge and ability indispensable to their profession and practical life.

The course of study of Young Men's School is graded into three, common, regular and post graduate. The common course extends over two years, the regular course five years for boys and three years for girls (four years for boys and two years for girls may be allowed according to local conditions), and the post graduate course over one year. Graduates of the lower course of elementary school may enter the common course of Young Men's School; those who finished the common course may be advanced to the regular course, while the graduates of the high course of elementary school have the same privilege; and graduates of the regular course or those who are in possession of an adequate scholastic attainment may take the post graduate course.

Subjects of study are, in the common course, morals, civics, some of subjects common to middle schools, agricultural subjects and gymnastics, with additional studies on housekeeping and sewing for girls only; in the regular course the same subjects are given in a more advanced grade; and in the post graduate course, morals, civics and certain studies selected from the subjects of the regular course. Special course may be added. Pupils are free of charge as a rule.

The number of Young Men's Schools and that of their pupils for the years 1934-1938 were as follows:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1934	15,140	1,271,530
1935	15,306	1,281,814
1936	16,708	1,902,876
1937	17,043	1,964,599
1938	17,337	2,041,321

Higher Education

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

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

The number of schools under this heading and higher normal schools and that of students on March 1 of each year follow:

Year	Schools	Students
1934	257	184,473
1935	255	186,963
1936	259	189,151
1937	259	190,332
1938	260	192,377

Higher Schools (Koto Gakko) The higher school is primarily an institution whose object is to complete the general education of young men. But it is as a matter of fact a preparatory school for universities or higher trade and industrial colleges in present-day Japan. No women are admitted. It is divided into two courses, the higher and the lower. The former extends over three and the latter over four years, making seven in all. A postgraduate course of one year may be taken after the higher course. Some schools have the higher course alone. On May 30, 1938, the higher schools with the higher course alone numbered 25, while those with both lower and higher courses numbered 7.

The entrance requirements for the lower course are practically the same

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

There are about the same number of preparatory courses of universities which correspond to higher schools and are directly attached to universities. The following figures for 1937-38 refer to the higher schools only.

HIGHER SCHOOLS

(1937-1938)

Schools	32
(School which have lower course)	(7)
Teachers	1,283
Lower Course	154
Students	14,546
Lower Course	2,471
Graduates	4,419
Lower Course	558
Applicants	34,282
Lower Course	4,974
Entrants	4,668
Lower Course	602
Left School	359
Lower Course	38

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

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

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

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

UNIVERSITIES, March 1938

	Students &			Applicants	Left Entrants	School
	Professors	Pupils	Graduates			
Governmental:						
Tokyo Imperial	589	7,951	2,320	4,615	2,449	290
Kyoto Imperial	460	5,550	1,322	2,243	1,828	527
Tohoku Imperial	245	1,716	494	1,041	544	62
Kyushu Imperial	270	1,889	549	995	557	102
Hokkaido Imperial	280	2,285	648	4,060	735	48
Osaka Imperial	239	1,317	308	539	369	66
Niigata Medical	46	358	91	86	80	6
Okayama Medical	46	440	93	107	101	7
Chiba Medical	55	789	178	996	223	18
Kanazawa Medical	67	513	143	229	143	17
Nagasaki Medical	46	508	136	546	132	20
Kumamoto Medical	38	326	98	101	84	10
Nagoya Medical	77	464	109	132	127	4
Tokyo Commercial	128	2,292	712	3,860	811	75
Kobe Commercial	99	658	205	443	241	19
Tokyo Technical	109	609	172	589	218	21

	Students &			Applicants	Entrants	Left School
	Professors	Pupils	Graduates			
Tokyo Literature and Science	124	422	114	184	138	15
Hiroshima Literature and Science	77	372	104	209	123	8
Total	18	2,995	28,459	7,788	20,576	8,903

Note: Nagoya Medical University was raised to the status of an Imperial University, assuming the new name of Nagoya Imperial University, in 1939.

Public:						
Kyoto Medical	57	665	177	999	185	12
Osaka Commercial	54	784	237	1,270	260	13
Total	2	111	1,449	414	2,269	25
Private:						
Kéio-Gijuku	324	7,227	1,981	7,299	2,445	366
Waseda	429	8,101	2,736	10,655	3,278	431
Meiji	135	3,495	1,141	1,947	1,521	508
Hoséi	189	2,403	671	1,352	954	345
Chuo	158	2,999	996	1,659	1,237	575
Nippon	328	3,809	1,228	3,591	1,808	694
Kokugakuin	79	590	233	324	268	47
Doshisha	111	1,418	498	844	618	162
Tokyo Jikéi-kai Medical	66	1,266	341	2,305	349	21
Ryukoku	92	627	186	291	231	66
Otani	77	441	127	209	168	53
Senshu	134	1,274	179	855	580	269
Rikkyo	119	1,543	449	904	577	110
Ryuméi-kan	69	952	307	713	458	103
Kansai	163	1,387	472	872	613	275
Takushoku	85	725	242	355	297	69
Risshô	100	342	103	106	106	20
Komazawa	99	412	118	169	93	43
Tokyo Agricultural	69	691	230	553	317	33
Nippon Medical	57	1,180	306	1,926	342	22
Koyasan	37	218	67	118	108	52
Taisho	118	498	151	133	145	36
Toyo	67	153	45	109	74	16
Jochi	51	232	80	179	140	38
Kansai-gakuin	125	1,077	374	828	480	63
Total	25	3,279	43,060	13,252	38,306	17,207
Grand Total	45	6,385	72,968	21,454	61,150	26,555

Note: In 1939, Fujihara Engineering University was established at Hiyoshi, Kanagawa prefecture.

The oldest of the 45 universities is Tokyo Imperial University, which was founded in 1877, Kéio-Gijuku was founded in 1858, but it was raised to the present standard in 1920 according to the ordinances enacted at that time.

The following figures as they stood on March 1, 1937 and 1938 show the number of students in these universities classified according to faculties.

	1937	1938
Post graduate course	2,602	2,440
Law	8,432	8,629
Medical Science	8,225	8,287
Science	1,112	1,150
Agriculture	2,200	2,246
Economy	6,138	6,004

	1937	1938
Commerce	4,736	4,946
Law and Literature	4,390	4,155
Politics and Economy	1,358	1,395
Technology	4,170	4,319
Literature	4,571	4,325
Law and Economy	645	652
Science and Technology	821	796
Literature and Science	756	773
Commerce and Economy	872	1,207

Waseda University

In the former numbers of the Japan Year Book, Tokyo Imperial University was mentioned in these columns as representing governmental universities. This year, Waseda University is chosen

as a model of universities established by private bodies.

Historical Summary Waseda University was founded as the Tokyo Semmon Gakko in 1882 by the late Marquis (then Count) Okuma with the assistance of the late Azusa Ono. Under the able management of Dr. Takata and others, the school has developed in half a century from one of sixty students under half a dozen professors to one embracing under its fostering wings over nineteen thousand, including the students in the affiliated schools, with a faculty of nearly four hundred professors and lecturers in the University alone.

In 1886, Takata, Amano, Tsubouchi, Tawara, and Ichishima, who were closely connected with the institution either as teachers or administrators, thought that continued dependence upon Marquis Okuma for financial support would weaken their spirit of independence, and that the best way to repay their benefactor would be to place the school on a self-supporting basis. With this end in view, they introduced many reforms, and by commendable self-sacrifice made a fair headway toward its attainment. As for the Marquis, he continued to interest himself in the work of the institution, and he provided the funds for the erection of several of the later buildings. He remained Honorary President of Waseda University until his death in 1922.

Simultaneously with the above reforms the system of correspondence instruction was inaugurated, and a few years later the University Press was established to take charge of extension work.

In 1889 the Course of Literature was added at the suggestion of Dr. Tsubouchi.

When, in 1891, the Ministry of Justice gave to the graduates of certain institutions the privilege of taking the Examination for Judges, Public Prosecutors, and Lawyers, the graduates of the Tokyo Semmon Gakko were among the first to the privilege. Several years later, graduates of the institution were made eligible for middle-grade school teachers' license. The annual enrollment of students increased from 65 in 1882 to 514 in 1891, and to 846 in 1899.

By 1900 the School had grown so enormously that radical reorganization was found necessary. The times had also changed since its establishment.

Consequently it was decided in June of the same year that the institution should be made a university by the addition of new departments and a school, while retaining the former academic courses.

The plan was unanimously approved by the Alumni Association, and private donations were extensively and willingly made to provide the funds for carrying it into effect. In April 1901, the Preparatory School was established. In September 1902, the new university was born with the name of Waseda University. The University comprised three Departments of Politics and Economics, Law, and Literature; one Preparatory School; and two Special Departments which admit middle school graduates.

The new system proved a brilliant success. The size of the student body increased from 1,010 in 1900 to 4,078 in 1904. The example of Waseda was followed in the next few years by several other private institutions which had courses similar to those of Waseda before its reorganization; and thus the flourishing era of private universities in Japan was ushered in.

In February 1903, it was decided to create a Department of Commerce, from September of the following year, and a course subsidiary to it was opened in the Preparatory School. The Department had nearly one thousand students in its opening year.

In 1903 the Higher Normal School was established. It had three courses: History and Geography, Japanese and Chinese Classics, and the English Language. Later a Course of Science and Mathematics was added.

On the 25th anniversary of the establishment of the institution a great expansion of its sphere of activity was announced. By the autumn of 1909 the University was to have a Department of Engineering, of which two Courses of Electricity and Mechanical Engineering were to be inaugurated in 1909, Mining and Architecture in 1910, to be followed by Applied Chemistry, etc.

The announcement aroused keen interest among the general public. The need for such an institution had long been felt; but such studies as science and engineering required, for the equipment and maintenance of laboratories and workshops, a sum of money far beyond the means of private institutions, as their income is derived almost entirely from tuition fees. His Majesty the

Emperor, to whose ears the news of the plan had come, very highly approved of it, and was graciously pleased to honor the institution with a substantial support in the shape of a gift from the Privy Purse. It is to be noted that the Imperial gift came before public donations were formally solicited, and that it was one of the first contributions to the funds for the new Department. Their Imperial Highnesses the Princes of the Blood followed the example of His Majesty the Emperor, while such distinguished statesmen as Prince Ito, Prince Katsura and Prince Satonji, practically all the members of the Cabinet, Presidents and Vice-Presidents of both Houses also joined in making donations.

It is worthy of special remark that sums amounting to a considerable total were donated by a large number of eminent personages of China. For many years past, Waseda University has had, within its walls, no small number of Chinese students who have for the most part been successful in the Government service, or in education or in business, that the name of Waseda University is better known throughout China than that of any other Japanese school. In 1898 the University established a Normal School for Chinese students in which a three-year course of instruction was to be given in any one of the three groups: Physics and Chemistry, Botany and Zoology, History and Geography. During its existence the school gave instruction to some twenty-five hundred students and turned out several hundred teachers.

The Course of Engineering was opened in the Preparatory School in April 1909. The Department of Engineering is now divided into five Courses: (1) Mechanical Engineering, (2) Electrical Engineering, (3) Mining and Metallurgy, (4) Architecture, (5) Applied Chemistry.

The Waseda Technical School was established in 1910. It gives popular education to artisans, apprentices, and students who cannot take a full college course for lack of preparatory education, time, or necessary means.

To memorialize the gift of the Emperor Meiji a handsome building was erected, the larger part of the cost of its construction having been covered by the gift. On completion in 1911 the building was named the Onshikinenkan (Imperial Gift Memorial Hall). Several

other buildings were added, the campus and the playing-field adjacent to it were greatly enlarged.

In 1918 the Government issued the new Imperial Ordinance relating to the founding of Universities, and Waseda University was vested in April 1920 with the same status as the Imperial Universities. In consequence two Higher Schools were established to replace the Preparatory School.

On January 10, 1922, Marquis Okuma, Father of the institution, passed away. His heir, Marquis Nobutsune Okuma, in pursuance of the late Okuma's will, donated his Waseda residence to the University, which, with its fine spacious gardens, is now known as the Okuma-Kaikan. Dr. Takata succeeded the late Okuma as President and Marquis Nobutsune Okuma became Honorary President. In April of the same year the University planned the erection of a new auditorium in commemoration of its illustrious founder, and started a campaign for the collection of funds. The subscription from the general public, alumni, and others connected with the institution, amounted to more than two million yen. The construction of this new auditorium, which was named the Okuma Memorial Hall, was completed in October 1927, and its formal opening was held on the occasion of the 45th birthday of the institution.

In the great earthquake of 1923, which ravaged almost all Tokyo and Yokohama, Waseda University suffered no loss except the old auditorium and the building of Applied Chemistry, which were destroyed.

In January 1924, the Waseda Semmon Gakko, an evening school for middle-school graduates desirous of obtaining higher education, was established. The new Library and Students' Hall were completed in October 1925.

The University established, in March 1928, the Waseda Higher Technical School with the object of giving short-term engineering education to middle school and technical school graduates.

Besides the library and the auditorium, the University boasts a new feature in the Tsubouchi Theater Museum, which was opened on October 1928. The necessary funds were contributed by the pupils and friends of the late Dr. Yuza Tsubouchi as well as by the general public.

President Takata resigned in 1931 and

Dr. Hozumi Tanaka became his successor. In an address at the inaugural ceremony of the new President on July 3, 1931, Dr. Tanaka said, "At all schools from universities down to elementary schools, students and pupils are forced to devote their entire energy to mere acquirement of knowledge and cramming their lessons at the expense of more important matter, namely, the cultivation of the habit of thinking and contriving to reach the solution of a problem by students themselves, a phase which is sadly neglected. Such is the common defect in our educational circles." Upon assuming the presidency, Dr. Tanaka organized a research committee on the education in the University, and as a result, new methods of teaching, with self-investigation as the key-note, were introduced into all Departments of the University and of Waseda Higher Schools. This "laboratory" method is considered as important and timely innovation in teaching.

The semi-centennial anniversary of the founding of the University was celebrated in October 1932 with a ceremony which was one of the grandest and most memorable functions ever held in this institution. The occasion was honored with the attendance of Prince Chichibu, the Imperial brother, and with a gift from the Privy Purse. To commemorate this graciousness of the Emperor, the University established the Imperial Gift Memorial Prize and Honor Prize immediately after the celebration of the 50th anniversary.

As a part of the program to mark the 50th anniversary of its birth, the University planned the reconstruction of some of the older buildings and the creation of a research institute for the Engineering Department. An appeal for contributions towards the necessary funds was generously responded to by both the alumni and the general public in spite of the unfavorable economic outlook, and the plan is now being steadily carried out. In the spring of 1933 the work on the Administration Building, containing a number of classrooms, was finished. The autumn of the same year saw the completion of the Budo-kan (for the practice of judo, fencing and archery) and the Television Laboratory, and the next year the enlargement of the Library and the completion of the new building for the Departments of Politics and Economics

and of Law. In 1935 the building for the Semmonbu and the Higher Normal School was brought to completion. In 1936 a new Applied Chemistry building, in 1937 Mining and Metallurgy building, and in 1938 the Commercial Department and the Casting Laboratory buildings were completed.

In 1938 the University began to receive young ladies as regular students, and added the faculty of technology in the Semmon-bu.

Departments and Schools The University now comprises the following Departments and affiliated schools;

Departments:

Politics and Economics,
Law,
Commerc,
Engineering.

Affiliated schools:

Semmon-bu (Special Department),
Higher Normal School,
Waseda Semmon Gakko (Special School),
Dai-ichi Waseda Koto-gakuin (First Waseda Higher School),
Dai-ni Waseda Koto-gakuin (Second Waseda Higher School),
Waseda Higher Technical School,
Waseda Technical School.

The total registration of students amounted to nearly 19,000. The graduates number 50,051 in 1936. Besides, there were 14,881 who finished their courses in the Technical and Higher Technical Schools.

Officers of Administration, Deans and Directors Honorary President, Marquis Nobutsune Okuma; President, Dr. Hozumi Tanaka; Executive Committee, Dr. Hozumi Tanaka, Dr. Tadaoki Yamamoto, Dr. Masasada Shiozawa, Dr. Motohiko Terao, Prof. Kojiro Sugimori and Gichi Masuda; Supervisors, Yuichiro Isobe and Tokuji Hayakawa; Board of Trustees, consisting of 34 members; Board of Supporters, consisting of 192 members; Deans, Department of Politics and Economics, Dr. Masasada Shiozawa; Department of Law, Dr. Motohiko Terao; Department of Literature, Tadaichi Hidakka; Department of Commerce, Dr. Shinjiro Kitazawa; Department of Engineering, Dr. Tadaoki Yamamoto; Semmon-bu, Dr. Bunshiro Hattori, Dr. Yoshio Yusa, Dr. Yukimasa Kobayashi; Higher Normal School, Minoru Harada; Directors, First Waseda Higher School, Kaizo Nonomura, Second Waseda Higher School, Kojiro Sugimori; Waseda Sem-

mon Gakko, Tadao Takai; Waseda Higher Technical School, Dr. Kyoji Yoshida; Waseda Technical School, Dr. Hiroshi Yamanouchi; Librarian, Dr. Kimio Hayashi.

Grounds and Buildings The University is situated in Totsuka-machi, Yodobashi-ku, in the north-western part of Tokyo. With the growth of the institution its campus has gradually been enlarged from 7,000 tsubo in 1908 to over 20,000 tsubo in 1939, and the 18 main buildings have undergone improvements and reconstruction to cope with the development. Excepting some older buildings, such as the Imperial Gift Memorial Hall and others, the main buildings are therefore of comparatively recent date. With the completion of buildings for the housing of some of the Departments, as mentioned elsewhere, the campus has come to assume an entirely new appearance.

The University Library contains more than four hundred and two thousand volumes, many of which are very valuable including "state treasures." The building combines simplicity with modernity.

The Tsubouchi Theater Museum is modelled after the Fortune Theater in Shakespeare's days. It contains a library of about fifty thousand volumes on drama and theater arts, over fifty thousand color prints chiefly of actors, part of which were contributed by Dr. Tsubouchi whose name the Museum bears, costumes and various other objects relating to theater arts.

The Okuma-kaikan, the former residence of Marquis Okuma, is on a separate site across the street. Its spacious gardens, laid out in purely Japanese style, are open to students. The buildings house the club of the Faculty and are also used for various gatherings of members of the University and of those who are connected with it. Some of the rooms are kept as they were when the Grand Old Man of Japan used them. In the enclosure stand the Okuma Memorial Hall and the Students' Hall. The latter has accommodations for students' meetings as well as their dining room.

At a short distance from the University campus is the First Higher School with its athletic field and a swimming pool.

Athletic Association The origin of the Athletic Association dates back to

1887. At present the Association comprises eighteen departments and has Dr. T. Yamamoto for its president. Sports represented are judo, Japanese fencing, archery, tennis, rowing, baseball, Association football, Rugby football, basket-ball, ping-pong, running, swimming, horse-riding, mountaineering, skating and hockey, skiing, wrestling and boxing. The Association has the use of four athletic fields in the University campus and elsewhere.

Tuition Fee Each student shall pay, upon admission, a registration fee of 5 yen. The tuition fee for each student is ¥160.00 per annum except that of the Engineering Department, for whom ¥170.00 is charged. The fees are payable in three instalments of ¥70 in April, ¥60 in September and ¥40 in January for students of the Department of Engineering, and ¥60, ¥80 and ¥40 for other students.

The students of the Department of Engineering are required to pay an extra fee for laboratory work.

Scholarships With the view of encouraging research, students of the University (including the University Hall, the Departments, and affiliated Schools) are granted scholarships from the funds donated for this purpose. Recipients of scholarships are selected by the University from among the candidates recommended by the Faculties of the Departments or the affiliated Schools from among the students who come under the following items: (a) A student who has attended the University for over one year, (b) A student who has made excellent records, (c) A student who is of good character, (d) A student who is in excellent health, and (e) A student of scanty means.

A scholarship allotted to each recipient shall be of a value not exceeding ¥150.00 per annum. When a holder has obtained a leave of absence, his scholarship shall be suspended or cancelled.

Regulations for the Degree of 'Hakushi' (Doctor) The degrees to be conferred by Waseda University are as follows:—

Seijigaku-Hakushi (Doctor of Political Science.)
Keizai-gaku-Hakushi (Doctor of Economics).
Hogaku-Hakushi (Doctor of Law).
Bungaku-Hakushi (Doctor of Literature).
Shogaku-Hakushi (Doctor of Com-

merce).

Kogaku-Hakushi (Doctor of Engineering).

A degree is conferred upon the candidates who have studied two years or more in the University Hall and whose theses have been approved of by the Faculty Council, or upon other candidates whose presented theses have been judged by the Faculty Council as representing merit equal to or higher than the aforesaid candidates.

A candidate for a degree must present to the President his thesis in duplicate together with his curriculum vitae and a fee of ¥100.00, specifying the Faculty Council by which his thesis should be examined.

The Faculty Council nominates two or more members of the Faculty as a committee to investigate the thesis for the degree. The Faculty Council may cause the investigation committee to give an oral examination to the candidate.

The investigation committee reports to the Faculty Council, within one year, on the main considerations in the examination of the thesis affixing its opinion as to the disposal of the thesis. The period may be prolonged by the resolution of the Faculty Council.

The Faculty Council decides, on receipt of the report of the committee, by unsigned vote upon the disposal of the thesis. Such a decision requires a majority of not less than two-thirds of all the professors present at the Faculty Council, the quorum of which is two-thirds of the total number of professors in the Department concerned.

Colleges, and Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges "College" is the usual translation of the Japanese "Semmon Gakko" or Specialty School. The required length of the course of a college

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

In March 1938, there were 118 colleges, 8 of them being founded and maintained by the Government, 9 by public bodies and the rest by private bodies. They may be classified as follows according to their nature:

Pharmacy	8
" for women	5
Medical Science	5
" " for women	3
Dentistry	5
" for women	2
Medical and pharmacy, for women	1
Languages	3
Literature	6
" for women	5
Religion	11
Christian Theology	3
Painting and other fine arts	2
" for women	1
Music	2
Commerce	1
Law, Economy, Commerce, Industry	13
Agriculture	1
Colonization	1
Mathematics and Chemistry	1
Meteorology	1
Athletics	2
Fencing and Judo	1
Literature, economy, law, domestic science and other (including for women)	48
Total	118

The following table shows the movement of the college students, classified according to their course of study, in 1937-1938:

Course of Study	Students		Graduates		Applicants		Entrants		Left School	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Medical Science	4,048	1,924	865	370	9,005	741	905	435	96	54
Pharmacy	3,129	2,977	912	604	5,019	1,265	1,023	914	94	154
Dentistry	3,621	473	850	89	2,726	180	947	180	102	48
Law	12,532	46	3,599	9	9,127	21	5,692	21	2,207	14
Economy	1,801	—	333	—	1,479	—	1,087	—	569	—
Commerce	11,781	6	3,188	—	10,500	3	5,351	3	1,962	4
Literature	3,473	2,189	906	646	3,453	1,112	1,376	843	520	219
Mathematics and Chemistry	911	—	69	—	2,296	—	669	—	356	—
Domestic science	—	4,641	—	1,547	—	3,150	—	2,440	—	643

Course of Study	Students		Graduates		Applicants		Entrants		Left School	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Sewing	—	1,416	—	416	—	828	—	610	—	130
Handiwork	—	627	—	136	—	455	—	314	—	92
Religion	2,211	29	645	7	885	16	754	11	198	2
Fine arts	588	37	152	7	165	20	158	18	12	8
Music	77	233	21	58	38	118	34	106	9	18
Athletics	518	67	115	22	353	25	155	22	37	3
Agriculture	691	—	218	—	497	—	254	—	46	—
Colonization	372	—	51	—	334	—	260	—	55	—
Nursing	—	62	—	—	—	76	—	39	—	11
Meteorology	50	—	18	—	249	—	18	—	—	—
Industry	954	—	298	—	1,649	—	331	—	88	—
Normal	3,809	651	896	269	3,732	503	1,697	346	665	46
Shinto	175	—	54	—	113	—	67	—	8	—
Arts	378	—	54	—	269	—	212	—	112	—
Total, 1938	51,119	15,378	13,250	4,180	51,889	8,513	20,990	6,302	7,136	1,446
(Total, 1937	51,002	13,339	13,009	3,039	45,330	6,439	19,470	4,813	7,423	1,208)
Preparatory and Special Courses	3,419	2,172	1,043	1,420	3,147	2,537	2,774	1,937	1,802	507
Grand Total	54,538	17,550	14,293	5,600	55,036	11,050	23,764	8,239	8,938	1,953

The number of Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges and that of their professors and students was as follows in the 1937-38 school year.

Kind	Colleges	Professors	Students	Graduates	Applicants	Entrants	Left School
Technical	19	938	8,275	2,715	24,991	3,185	286
Agricultural	15	609	4,851	1,581	11,884	1,910	177
Commercial	24	791	13,063	4,219	25,543	4,921	562
Navigation	2	150	1,189	276	2,069	261	27
Fisheries	1	37	235	76	737	82	7
Total	61	2,525	27,613	8,867	65,224	10,359	1,059

Other Education

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

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

The following table gives the number of Kindergartens and that of children attending in the years 1934-38:

Year	Kindergartens	Children
1934	1,786	133,735
1935	1,862	143,469
1936	1,892	143,076
1937	1,916	152,627
1938	2,001	162,027

Education for the Blind and the Dumb

It has been the educational policy of the Japanese Government since the beginning of the Meiji Era that there shall be no illiterates in the country. Therefore, even persons with physical defects are admitted to elementary, middle or girls' high schools, provided that they are fit to attend a greater part of the lessons. But boys and girls who are blind or deaf and dumb are encouraged to enter schools specially founded for them. A special ordinance relating to the schools for the blind and schools for the deaf and dumb has lately been issued for the purpose of perfecting their elementary and secondary education. The following table gives the number of them and that of their pupils in the years 1934-1938.

Year	Schools	Pupils	Blind	Deaf & Dumb
1934	138	9,500	4,709	4,791
1935	140	9,907	4,830	5,077
1936	140	10,284	4,950	5,334
1937	140	10,566	5,040	5,526
1938	140	11,030	5,160	5,870

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

The following table gives the number of miscellaneous schools and that of their pupils in the years 1934-1938.

Year	Schools	Pupils
1934	1,950	209,674
1935	1,921	230,394
1936	1,913	241,112
1937	1,931	258,713
1938	1,926	272,140

Of the total given above, 150 were maintained by public bodies and 1,776 by private persons or bodies. As to their category those which might be classified as elementary schools numbered 194, middle schools 115, girls' high schools 73, business schools 646, colleges 31, the blind and the dumb schools 9, and the professional 853. Among miscellaneous schools, there are not a few which to be highly esteemed as educational institutions in their ideas and new methods of education. Many of the Christian schools are included among them.

Training of Teachers

The Japanese Government, alive to the necessity of having a large supply of capable teachers, has spared no efforts in the completion of organs for their training. To give an outline of the present system, Hokkaido and the prefectures are called upon to establish and maintain at least one normal school each, and an institution for the training of Young Men's School teachers when circumstances make it necessary, a responsibility which is also imposed on the cities. The Government itself undertakes the training of teachers of normal schools, middle schools, girls' high schools and technical schools by establishing and maintaining higher normal schools, higher normal schools for women, special institutes for the training of teachers, etc., and the students of these schools are given scholarships, covering part of their expenses, either by the Government or by the local public bodies. Moreover such of the students of universities, colleges and the like as in-

tend to become teachers, receive aid out of public funds or may be exempted from the payment of fees. Persons who have proved themselves deserving extended aid are chosen for studying abroad in order that they may be better qualified to teach higher arts and sciences.

The following table gives the number of schools for training teachers and that of their students in the years 1934-1938:

Year	Schools ¹	Students
1934	155	36,849
1935	156	34,583
1936	156	34,019
1937	157	34,663
1938	156	35,360

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

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

The following table gives the number of normal schools and that of their students and graduates in the years 1934-1938.

Year	Schools	Students	Graduates
1934	103	32,817	11,609
1935	102	30,420	10,735
1936	102	29,825	10,431
1937	101	30,256	10,340
1938	101	30,783	10,499

Organs for Training Teachers for Secondary Education As organs for training the teachers of secondary educa-

¹ Note: There are 4 higher normal schools and their students included in this as well as in the number of the table on higher education.

tion, there are the higher normal schools, higher normal schools for women, special institutes for training teachers, the training course in drawing of the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts and the training course, grade A of the Tokyo Academy of Music. The systems differ more or less with the schools or the main subjects taught, but their entrance requirements are, generally speaking, the completion of middle school, girls' high school and normal school, or the possession of the same or higher scholastic attainments, and their courses extend over four, three or two years, with additional post-graduate and special investigation courses. The number of graduates from these schools is from 850 to 1,000 annually.

In addition to the foregoing, teachers' certificates are issued without examination to graduates of high grade schools both in Japan and in other

countries in order to meet the deficiency in the supply of secondary school teachers. The main conditions are that the schools in question must be equal to or higher than the higher normal schools of Japan in entrance requirements and in curricula. Including those who passed examination there were 8,344 persons, 5,485 men and 2,859 women, who received such certificates in 1937-1938.

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

The following table gives the number of such institutes and that of their students and graduates in the years 1934-1938:

Year	Agricultural		Technical		Commercial		Total		Graduates
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	
1934	1	111	2	150	1	101	4	362	120
1935	1	116	2	144	1	96	4	356	111
1936	1	120	2	142	1	98	4	360	114
1937	1	84	2	224	1	56	4	364	119
1938	—	—	2	139	1	93	3	232	71

As further means of providing business school teachers, certificates are issued without examination to graduates of certain specified schools. Including those who passed examination the number of persons who received such certificates in 1937-1938 was 484.

Organs for Training Teachers of Young Men's Schools For this purpose there are institutes which Hokkaido, the prefectures and cities alone are authorized to establish. They are of one or two year courses above the secondary education. The following table shows the number of these institutes and that of their students in 1933-1938:

Year	Institutes	Students	Graduates
1933	42	1,039	618
1934	43	1,014	529
1935	45	1,106	588
1936	45	1,117	619
1937	47	1,315	539
1938	49	1,596	761

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

Year	Students Abroad	Year	Students Abroad
1933	184	1936	126
1934	136	1937	168
1935	104	1938	112

As a further means of supplying higher grade professors, a professor's licence is granted to persons holding doctor's degrees and those who have graduated from universities and colleges. In 1937-1938 the number of persons who received Higher School Pro-

fessor's licences was 801, of which 6 were women.

Training of Special School Teachers and Nurses of Kindergartens Teachers for the blind and the deaf and dumb are trained in the training courses in the Tokyo School for the Blind and the Tokyo School for the Deaf and Dumb. The nurses of kindergartens are trained in the training courses provided in women's normal school, special courses in the higher normal schools for women and in the special institutions for the purpose established by private bodies. In 1937-1938 the

Teachers of	Applicants	Passed examinations
Elementary School and Kindergarten	40,974	6,966
Normal School, Middle School and Girls' School	5,908	584
Higher Department of Higher School	201	24
Business School	792	116

Physical Education and School Hygiene

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

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

There were 33,870 school physicians, 9,344 dentists, and 3,613 nurses for 33,870 schools in 1938.

For the administrative organs responsible for the work referred to, Hokkaido and prefectures have school hygienic experts and directors of physical training, while the Ministry of Education has the Section of Physical Training, Supervisors of School Hygiene and the Institute for Research in Physical Training. In addition, there are provided in the Education Ministry's School Hygiene Investigation Committee and a Physical Training Investigation Council, which investigate and

number of kindergarten nurses' certificates given was 1,083.

Teacher's Certificate Given by Examination Persons who have similar scholastic attainments with the graduates of the schools mentioned above, may ask for an examination to get a teacher's licence. They have to undergo a strict examination by the special examination committees of the Educational Ministry. The number of persons who passed such examination during 1937-1938 was 7,690. These may be classified as follows:

Applicants	Passed examinations
40,974	6,966
5,908	584
201	24
792	116

make researches in important questions submitted to them by the Minister of Education.

Social Education

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

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

Libraries The spread of libraries in Japan has been rather slow because of many reasons, but the place of the library in social education has been understood more and more clearly with the advancement of national and international life in recent years. The Government, therefore, established a national library at Ueno, Tokyo, and at the same time has given encouragement to local public bodies for establishing their own libraries by granting sub-

sidies to them. It also tries to help them by holding short period courses for training capable librarians. The

results of these efforts have been a notable progress in libraries, as may be observed in the following table:

Year	Public Libraries	Books	Readers	Daily Average of Readers of a Library
1934	4,634	10,762,000	24,949,000	21
1935	4,794	11,376,000	24,866,000	20
1936	4,759	12,319,000	24,191,000	20
1937	4,730	12,648,000	24,124,000	20
1938	4,752	12,985,000	24,551,000	20

In November 1931, the Tokyo Science Museum was established by the Government, and is located in Ueno Park, Tokyo. At the end of 1937, it exhibited 2,079 technical and machine models and 196,910 specimens of natural science, and in 1937, 273,486 people visited it in 356 days.

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

The following table shows the number of young men's and young women's associations and that of their members in the years 1934-1938:

Year	Y.M.A. Members	Y.W.A. Members
1934	15,440	2,488,113
1935	15,469	2,456,505
1936	15,719	2,450,427
1937	15,806	2,442,924
1938	15,859	2,335,548

Educational Expenditure

Education in Japan, as previously mentioned, is principally controlled by the State, though it is partly delegated to local public bodies and partly car-

ried on by private individuals or organizations by permission of the Government. The expenditure incurred is met from these three different financial sources.

Part of the educational expenses of local public bodies, however, is met by the State Treasury in order that the teachers may be sufficiently paid and the burdens on the ratepayers may not be too heavy. Formerly the sum of ¥10,000,000 was yearly defrayed for this purpose, but it has been recently increased to ¥85,000,000 or more, and destitute municipalities receive special consideration in the apportionment of the grant.

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

In recent years educational undertakings have been greatly extended and the treatment of teachers considerably improved in accordance with the post-war program of the country, and this has caused the educational expenditure to swell in a remarkable degree. The following table shows the total governmental and public educational expenditure in yen during the years 1934-1938:

Year	State Treasury	Prefectures	Cities	Towns and Villages	School Associations	Total
1934	152,105,765	100,103,429	102,318,577	202,816,370	87,274	557,434,116
1935	154,732,262	104,617,681	103,435,462	214,853,579	91,476	577,730,460
1936	151,099,914	109,120,439	119,144,631	224,908,617	102,928	604,376,529
1937	142,573,799	111,717,579	137,128,239	230,811,039	122,442	622,353,098
1938	145,642,185	118,091,381	138,575,155	230,306,977	- 95,969	632,711,667

GOVERNMENTAL EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE

1937-1938 (In yen)

Administration	2,463,873	Blind, Deaf and Dumb education	209,614
Elementary and Secondary education	90,364,469	Universities and libraries	32,518,406
Business education	719,472	Total including others	145,642,185
Social education	3,901,879		

PUBLIC EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE BORNE BY LOCAL PUBLIC BODIES

1937-1938 (In yen)

Kind of Education	Hokkaido & Prefectures	School Associations & Towns			Total
		Cities	Municipalities	Villages	
Elementary Schools	—	114,515,114	46,352	195,517,977	310,079,443
Normal Schools	10,098,714	—	—	—	10,098,714
Middle Schools	23,000,806	343,674	42,512	198,430	23,585,422
Girls' High Schools	16,542,021	3,103,163	—	2,101,683	21,746,867
Higher Schools	552,247	—	—	—	552,247
Universities	1,329,587	494,140	—	—	1,823,727
Colleges	337,246	148,478	—	—	485,724
Business Schools	22,133,551	8,187,126	—	2,530,572	32,851,249
Teachers' Training Schools	592,351	—	—	—	592,351
Young Men's Training Schools	89,930	5,113,614	3,828	24,310,438	29,517,810
Blind Schools	1,069,173	67,668	—	19	1,136,860
Deaf and Dumb Schools	457,692	105,040	—	—	562,732
Miscellaneous Schools	391,127	502,244	—	26,080	919,451
Kindergartens	—	1,294,591	—	556,441	1,851,032
Libraries	724,231	793,483	—	261,428	1,779,142
Miscellaneous	40,772,705	3,906,820	3,277	4,803,909	49,486,711
Total	118,091,381	138,575,155	95,969	230,306,977	487,069,482

Other Schools

There are schools in Japan proper which do not come under the control of the Education Ministry, and they have been excluded from the foregoing sections. But to complete the chapter on education we cannot pass without some mention of them. Fuller explanations may also be found in other chapters.

Peers' Schools They belong to the Ministry of the Imperial Household, and the purpose of their establishment is the education of the nobility, but admission to them is by no means restricted to children of titled families. They are called the Gakushu-in and Joshi (women) Gakushu-in. The former is for boys and is composed of three departments, namely, elementary, middle school, and college. The latter is com-

posed of two departments, namely, high school and college.

Two Special Schools The Ministry of Foreign Affairs has two schools; one is the To-a Dobun Sho-in (Tung Wen College) in Shanghai and the other the Russo-Japanese Association School at Harbin.

The Jingu-Kogakkan This was established by the Home Ministry and is a Shinto seminary.

The Fisheries Institute This is under the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

In the territories, schools are under the control of the Territorial Governments, as a matter of course, and full descriptions of them may be found in the chapters on territories. However, a list of the various universities and colleges is here appended.

CHOSEN

Kéijo (Seoul) Imperial University
Kéijo Imperial University Preparatory School
Kéijo Law College
Kéijo Medical College
Kéijo Technical College
Suigen Agricultural and Forestry College
Kéijo Commercial College
Eight private colleges

TAIWAN

Taihoku Imperial University

Taihoku College
Four other colleges

KWANTUNG

Ryojun (Port Arthur) Technical University
Preparatory College for the same
Four private colleges

Foreign Teachers and Students

The number of foreign teachers and students at the end of March 1938, was as follows:

Schools	Teachers			Pupils & Students		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Elementary	4	3	7	286	178	464
Normal	—	—	—	5	—	5
Higher Normal	6	—	6	128	—	128
Woman's Higher Normal	—	—	—	—	25	25
Middle Schools	38	5	43	28	—	28
Girls' High Schools	3	65	68	—	2	2
Higher Schools	69	2	71	115	—	115
Universities	108	1	109	1,778	54	1,832
Colleges	106	73	179	918	226	1,144
Business Colleges	54	—	54	252	3	255
Business Schools	29	10	39	19	—	19
Young People's Schools	—	1	1	—	—	—
Blind Schools	—	1	1	—	—	—
Miscellaneous	101	181	282	893	806	1,699
Total	518	342	860	4,422	1,294	5,716

The comparison for the seven years, 1932-1938, is as follows:

Year	Teachers	Students	Year	Teachers	Students
1932	908	2,761	1934	883	2,765
1933	1,059	2,232	1935	912	4,681
			1936	906	6,942
			1937	915	8,026
			1938	860	5,716

CHAPTER XXIX

RELIGION

General Survey

From prehistoric ages Japan has had an indigenous cult which is now known as Shinto. Buddhism and Confucianism were introduced through Korea and China later, and Christianity more recently still. Islam, however, never gained a footing on her soil until but recently though its literature has been introduced to some extent.

Shintoism is the Japanese national religion which has its origin in the ancient traditions connected with ancestral gods. The peculiarity of Shintoism is that it has no doctrine or creed of any kind other than worship offered to the Imperial ancestors and the ancestral spirits. It is not an idolatry, as foreigners commonly understand, since there is no image enshrined in any of the Shinto shrines. A shrine is simply a place of worship dedicated to a guardian deity whose spirit is represented by a metal mirror placed on the altar. Shintoism has taught the people simplicity and purity of heart and fostered loyalty to the Imperial House and love for the country throughout the ages.

It is now divided into two, namely, national Shintoism, which is represented by the shrines, and sectarian Shintoism, which developed towards the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

Confucianism is rather a code of moral precepts than a religion, except in that it teaches some vague ideas regarding a heavenly God. In the realm of moral culture it has exerted great influence on the minds of the Japanese people and on their principles of daily life; that influence being very noticeable in the Imperial Rescript on Education of the Emperor Meiji.

Buddhism has had still greater influence on all phases of Japanese life. Its fatalism has had a retarding effect on the material progress of the Japanese as with other Oriental nations, but has induced a habit of dauntless composure in their behavior, and its broad philanthropy has given rise to a spirit of mutual help among the people, subduing egotism or individualism. Its philosophi-

cal literature fed the national thought, while its fine art has left many masterpieces enriching the cultural life of the Japanese. Buddhism is still the most powerful among the religions in Japan.

Christianity has made valuable contribution towards the civilization of Japan with its world-wide nature and positive teachings on human life. The number of believers is comparatively small, but its influence on the people's thought and morals is said to be even greater than that of Buddhism. It has raised Japan's moral standards, waging war against licensed prostitution, the low position of women, drinking and smoking, and polygamy as practised in a certain section of society. It has still to amalgamate itself with the life of the people in order to exert greater influence upon them.

Shinto Shrines

While the sectarian Shinto denominations are under the Education Ministry as other religious bodies, most Shinto shrines are supervised by the Shrine Bureau of the Home Ministry, which consists of one chief official and 64 minor officials.

The Isé Grand Shrine is the most honored of all as the first national shrine. The Goddess enshrined in it is Amaterasu-Omikami, which may be translated as Heaven-Shining-Great-Goddess. According to the Japanese mythology, Amaterasu-Omikami sent down her grandson to the Nippon Islands to rule the people by the 'Kingly Way,' giving him the Three Sacred Treasures, which have been handed down even to the present Emperor as the sacred symbols of the Imperial Throne (see Appendix, The Constitution of Japan; The Imperial Household Law Article X; and Chapter III). In the Grand Shrine and appendant shrines more than 10 gods, who represent the Imperial ancestors or personify natural powers, are installed besides the principal Goddess.

The name of the shrine comes from its location in Isé province or more accurately on the Isuzu river, city of Ujiyama, Mie prefecture. The whole sac-

red area of the Grand Shrine includes 13,135 acres.

About 74 priests are attending it under a chief priest. There are established a seminary for the education of priests, a police station, two museums, and a library in connection with the shrine.

According to the report of the Shrine Bureau, the Home Ministry, the number of shrines at the end of 1937 was as follows:

Governmental and national shrines	198
Prefectural and village shrines	49,530
Private shrines	60,703
Soldiers' shrines	104

The number of private shrines in Japan proper has been steadily decreasing since 1880, lessening from 136,783 in that year to 60,703 in 1937, or 133 less than in the previous year. There were many too superstitious and barbarous ones among them and the decrease indicates the healthy progress of the religious ideas of the people and the radical policy of the government.

The total area of the sacred campus of these shrines in 1933 (not including soldiers' shrines) covered 76,948,646 tsubo, 65,721,332 of it being government property.

The total number of priests in Japan proper at the end of the year 1937 was 15,873.

For the education of priests there are one seminary of college grade at Isé as mentioned above, a department in Koku-gakuin (Japanese literature) College of junior college grade, a middle school grade seminary affixed to the one at Isé, and 26 smaller places for giving a course of study.

A list of important shrines other than the Isé Grand Shrine is given below:—

IMPORTANT SHRINES

Name	Location	Date of Festival
Asama-jinja	Shizuoka Pref.	Nov. 4
Aso-jinja	Kumamoto Pref.	July 28
Atsuta-jingu	Minami Ward, Nagoya	June 21
Chosen-jingu	Keijo, Chosen	Oct. 17
Dazafu-jinja	Fukuoka	Aug. 25
Futarayama-jinja	Tochigi Pref.	Apr. 17
Hakozaki-gu	Fukuoka	Aug. 15
Helan-jingu	Sakyo Ward, Kyoto	Apr. 15
Hie-jinja	Kojimachi Ward, Tokyo	June 15
Hikawa-jinja	Saitama Pref.	Aug. 1
Hirono-jinja	Kamikyo Ward, Kyoto	Apr. 2
Hirota-jinja	Nishinomiya, Hyogo	Mar. 16
Hiyoshi-jinja	Shiga Pref.	Apr. 14
Ikutama-jinja	Tennoji Ward, Osaka	Sept. 9
Ikuta-jinja	Kobe	Aug. 15
Inari-jinja	Fushimi Ward, Kyoto	Apr. 9
Itsukushima-jinja	Hiroshima Pref.	June 17
Iwashimizu-hachimangu	Kyoto	Sept. 15
Izumo-taisha	Shimane Pref.	May 14
Kamakura-gu	Kamakura	Aug. 20
Kamo-jinja	Sakyo Ward, Kyoto	May 15
Karafuto-jinja	Karafuto	Aug. 23
Kashii-gu	Fukuoka	Oct. 29
Kashima-jingu	Ibaragi Pref.	Sept. 1
Kashiwara-jingu	Nara Pref.	Feb. 11
Kasuga-jingu	Nara	Feb. 13
Katori-jingu	Chiba Pref.	Apr. 14
Kirishima-jingu	Kagoshima Pref.	Sept. 19
Kitano-jinja	Kamikyo Ward, Kyoto	Aug. 4
Kumanohaya-tama-no-jinja	Shingu, Wakayama	Oct. 15
Matsuo-jinja	Sakyo Ward, Kyoto	Apr. 2
Meiji-jingu	Shibuya Ward, Tokyo	Nov. 3
Minatogawa-jinja	Koto Ward, Kobe	July 12
Mishima-jinja	Shizuoka Pref.	Aug. 16
Nogi-jinja	Akasaka Ward, Tokyo	Sept. 13
Sapporo-jinja	Hokkaido	June 15
Shiramine-gu	Kamikyo Ward, Kyoto	Sept. 21
Sumiyoshi-jinja	Sumiyoshi Ward, Osaka	June 30
Suwa-jinja	Nagano Pref.	Apr. 15
Taiwan-jinja	Taihoku	Oct. 28
Togo-jinja	Shibuya Ward, Tokyo	June 1
Toshogu	Nikko, Tochigi	June 1
Toyokuni-jinja	Higashiyama Ward, Kyoto	Sept. 18
Tsurugaoka-hachimangu	Kamakura	Sept. 15
Usa-jingu	Osaka Pref.	Mar. 18
Yasaka-jinja	Higashiyama Ward, Kyoto	June 15
Yasukuni-jinja	Kudan, Tokyo	Apr. 30
Yoshino-jingu	Nara Pref.	Oct. 23
		Sept. 27

Sectarian Shintoism

Shinto Sect This sect is called by the general name given to the national cult before its later branches had developed. The principal ideas of the sect are to follow the "Great Way of the Gods," and to propagate the national cult indigenous to the people of this country. Its believers and devotees consider it their most important duty to cultivate reverence for the gods, cherish the spirit of patriotism, elucidate Heavenly Reason and Humanity, pay homage to the Emperor, and observe all the Imperial ordinances.

Kurozumi Sect This was founded by Munetada Kurozumi (1780-1850), who was born at a small village in Okayama prefecture. His main idea was to inhale, while contemplating the Goddess Amaterasu-Omikami, the energy of the

sun, and thereby to fill up the heart with satisfaction and complaisance. He teaches to avoid the following seven evils, which are against the will of the gods: (1) to be faithless to the country of the gods in which one was born; (2) to get angry and to worry over things; (3) to be arrogant and spiteful; (4) to entertain evil desires from seeing others do evil; (5) to neglect one's household affairs while in good health; (6) not to have sincerity even when one is entering upon the path of sincerity; and (7) not to accept things gratefully for which one ought to be grateful every day.

Other sects of Shinto are as follows—the teachings of all being much the same, except that some lay particular stress on the worship of one or another of the early gods:—

Shinto-shusei	Founded by Kunimitsu Nitta (1829-1902) born in Chiba Prefecture.
Taisha	Preached by Sompuku Sengé (1845-1918)
Fuso	Founded by Takekuni Fujiwara (1541-1646) and preached by Han Shishino.
Taisei	Founded by Shosai Hirayama (1815-1890)
Jikko	Founded by Hanamori Shibata (1809-1890)
Shinshu	Founded by Masamochi Yoshimura (1839-1916) Okayama prefecture.
Ontaké	The chief centre of this sect is Mount Ontaké, where the spirits of certain gods are enshrined.
Misogi	The sect of Water Purification. Founded by Masakané Inouyé (1790-1849) of Mié prefecture.
Shinri	Founded by Taunehika Sano (1834-1906)
Konko	Founded by a farmer, Bunjiro Kawaté (1814-1883)
Tenri	Founded by a woman, Miki Nakayama (1798-1887) of Nara prefecture. Of all these sects the Tenri-kyo has perhaps the greatest number of believers; it lays emphasis on personal conduct and mental discipline, in addition to patriotism and obedience to the Emperor and Imperial ordinances. It particularizes the "eight forms of dust which must be swept away"; they are grudging, evil desires, impure attachments, hatred, enmity, anger, covetousness and arrogance.

Buddhism

It was in the thirteenth year of the Emperor Kimmel (552 A.D.) that Buddhism, first founded in India, came over to Japan after passing through China and Korea. Prince Shotoku, Regent from 593 to 628 A.D. and a devout Buddhist, was largely responsible for its rapid spread throughout the country. Six schools of Buddhism, that is, Sanron, Hosso, Jofitsu, Kusha, Ritsu, and Kegon, were introduced one after another. In the reign of the Emperor Kwammu (752-805 A.D.), Tendai and Shingon flourished. New schools such as Jodo, Zen, Shin, Nichiren and others

then gradually developed. Through these long periods of its history Buddhism became further divided, owing to differences in the exposition of the doctrines and in the methods of propagation, into many sub-sects. Eleven of the principal sects still in existence are Hosso, Kegon, Ritsu, Tendai, Shingon, Yuzunembutsu, Jodo, Shin, Ji, Zen, and Nichiren; and these eleven are subdivided into fifty-eight branches.

Hosso Sect This sect was introduced into Japan by Dosho (628-700), a Buddhist priest who went to China in 653 and studied its teachings under Hsuan-tsang.

Kegon Sect Roben (688-770) of Todaiji Temple, Nara, the first propagator of this sect in Japan, learned its doctrines from the Chinese Buddhist priest Dokei who visited Japan during the Tempyo Era (729-749). The head-temple of this Sect is Todaiji in the city of Nara.

Ritsu Sect The Ritsu or the Sect of Moral Discipline ("Vinaya" in Sanskrit) was first propagated in Japan by Ganjin (686-763), a Chinese Buddhist priest, who came to Japan during the Tempyo Era (729-749). It obtains its name from the Vinaya-plitaka, according to which its followers strictly regulate their daily conduct. Toshodaiji in Nara prefecture is the head-temple of this Sect.

Tendai Sect The founder of this sect was Chisha Daishi (537-597) of the Sul Dynasty.

The Japanese priest Saicho (Denkyo Daishi, 766-882) went over to China in the year 782 during the Yenryaku Era, and studied the principles of Tendai there. On his return to Japan, he became the chief exponent of the sect in this country.

There are three sub-sects or branches in this sect, each of them having its own head-temple. They are: (1) the Tendai Branch, whose head-temple, Yenryakuji, is in Shiga prefecture; (2) the Jimon Branch, which has its head-temple in Onjoji in Shiga prefecture; and (3) the Shinsei Branch, the head-temple of which is Saikyoji in Shiga prefecture.

Shingon Sect The first exponent of this sect in Japan was Kukai (Kobo Daishi, 773-835), who went over to China soon after Saicho, the Japanese founder of Tendai.

This sect is sub-divided into eight branches, which are: Koya, Omuro, Daikakuji, Daigo, Toji, Yamashina, Ono, and Senyuji.

Three hundred years after the death of Kukai, the Japanese founder of the Shingon Sect, a priest called Kakuban known as Kokyo Daishi (1094-1143), established a new school of Shingon. Under this there are two branches now, one of which is Chizan and other Buzan. The head-temple of the former is Chishaku-in, Kyoto, while that of the latter is Chokokuji (Hasedera), in Nara prefecture.

Yuzu-nembutsu Sect The head-temple of this sect is Dalnembutsuji of Osaka prefecture.

Jodo Sect The founder of this sect

was Genku, known as Yenku Daishi or Honen (1133-1212), and it was established in 1174. The head-temple, Chion-in, is in Kyoto.

One of Genku's disciples, called Shoku (1176-1247), established a new separate school at Nishiyama, which is known as the Selzan Branch of Jodo. This branch is again subdivided into three: (1) Zenrinji, its head-temple bearing the same title, is in Kyoto prefecture; (2) Komyoji; and (3) Fukakusa, Selgwanji, Kyoto, is its head-temple.

Shin Sect Shinran (1173-1262), who is known as Kenshin Daishi, founded the Shin Sect.

There are at present ten branches of the Shin Sect: Hongwanji, Otani, Bukkoji, Takata, Kibe, Kosho, Idzumoji, Yamamoto, Seishoji, and Sammonto.

Ji Sect This was first promulgated by Ippen (1239-1289).

The head-temple, Shojokoji, is in Kanagawa prefecture.

Zen Sect Under this name three Sects are comprised: Rinza, Soto, and Obaku.

The Rinza Sect of Zen was first taught by Yei-sai (1140-1215) who came back from China in 1192. Soto finds its first Japanese exponent in Dogen (known as Jyo Daishi, 1109-1253) who studied Zen in China during the Sung Dynasty and returned to Japan in 1234. Obaku was introduced to Japan by a naturalized Chinese priest Yin-gen (1592-1673) in 1653.

There are fourteen branches in the Rinza Sect: Kenninji, Kenchoji, Tofukuji, Engakuji, Nanzenji, Daitokuji, Myoshinji, Tenryuji, Yengenji, Shokokuji, Hokeji, Buttsuji, Kokutaiji, and Kogakuji. The Soto Sect has two head-temples, Yeiheiji, and Sojiji. Obaku is undivided, and its head-temple is Mampukuji, Uji, Kyoto prefecture.

Nichiren Sect This was founded by Nichiren (1222-1281) on the merits of the Saddharma-pundarika Sutra.

This sect is sub-divided into nine branches: (1) Nichiren-shu (the head-temple, Kuonji, is in Yamanashi prefecture); (2) Hommon-shu, (Hommonji at Ikegami, Tokyo, and six other temples in Shizuoka prefecture are its head-temples); (3) Hokke-shu (its head-temple, Honjoji, is in Niigata prefecture); (4) Kempon-hokke-shu, (Kochoji and four others in Shizuoka prefecture are its head-temples); (5) Hommyo-hokke-shu, (its head-temple is Honryuji, Kyoto); (6) Nichiren-seishu, (its head-temple is Daisekiji in Shizuoka prefec-

ture); (8) Nichiren-shu-fujufusé-ha, (its head-temple is Myokakuji in Okayama prefecture); and (9) Nichiren-shu-fujufusé-komon-ha, (the head-temple, Hon-

kakuji, is also in Okayama prefecture). (Teachings and doctrines of these Buddhist sects are mentioned in the Japan Year Book, 1939-40, pp. 656-659.

IMPORTANT BUDDHIST TEMPLES

Sect and Branch	Head Temple	Location
Tendai Sect		
Tendai-shu	Enryakuji	Sakamoto, Shiga
Jimon-ha	Enjoji	Otsu
Shinsel-ha	Selkyoji	Sakamoto, Shiga
Kogishingon Sect		
	Kongobuji	Koya, Wakayama
	Daikakuji	Sakyo, Kyoto
	Ninnaji	Sakyo, Kyoto
Shingon Sect		
Dalgo-ha	Dalgoji	Uji, Kyoto
Toji-ha	Toji	Kujo, Kyoto
Senyuji-ha	Senyuji	Imakumano, Kyoto
Yamashina-ha	Kanshuji	Uji, Kyoto
Zentsuji-ha	Zentsuji	Zentsuji, Kagawa
Shingishingon Sect		
Chizan-ha	Chiseklin	Kyoto
Buzan-ha	Hasedera	Nara
Shingon-ritsu Sect	Seldaiji	Fushimi, Nara
Ritsu Sect	Toshodaiji	Nara
Jodo Sect		
Jodo-shu	Chion-in	Sakyo, Kyoto
	Zojoji	Shiba, Tokyo
Nishiyama-zenrinji-ha	Zenrinji	Sakyo, Kyoto
Nishiyama-komyoji-ha	Komyoji	Kyoto
Nishiyama-Fukakusa-ha	Seiganji	Nakakyo, Kyoto
Rinzai Sect		
Tenryuji-ha	Tenryuji	Saga, Kyoto
Sokokuji-ha	Sokokuji	Kamikyo, Kyoto
Kenninji-ha	Kenninji	Higashiyama, Kyoto
Nanzenji-ha	Nanzenji	Sakyo, Kyoto
Myoshinji-ha	Myoshinji	Ukyo, Kyoto
Kenchoji-ha	Kenchoji	Kamakura, Kanagawa
Tofukuji-ha	Tofukuji	Higashiyama, Kyoto
Daitokuji-ha	Daitokuji	Kamikyo, Kyoto
Enkakuji-ha	Enkakuji	Kamakura, Kanagawa
Elgenji-ha	Elgenji	Takano, Shiga
Hokoji-ha	Hokoji	Okuyama, Shizuoka
Buttsuji-ha	Buttsuji	Takasaka, Hiroshima
Kokutaiji-ha	Kokutaiji	Ota, Toyama
Kogakuji-ha	Kogakuji	Shiroyama, Yamanashi
Soto Sect		
	Elheiji	Shibiya, Fukui
	Soji	Tsurumi, Kanagawa
	Mampukuji	Uji, Kyoto
Obaku Sect		
Shin Sect		
Honganji-ha	Honganji (Nishi)	Shimokyo, Kyoto
Otani-ha	Honganji	Shimokyo, Kyoto
Takata-ha	Senshuji	Mie
Kosei-ha	Koseiji	Shimokyo, Kyoto
Bukkoji-ha	Bukkoji	Shimokyo, Kyoto
Kibe-ha	Kinshikiji	Nakazato, Shiga
Izumoji-ha	Gosetsuji	Mimano, Fukui
Yamamoto-ha	Shoseiji	Shin-Yokoe, Fukui
Seishoji-ha	Seishoji	Sabae, Fukui
Sammonto-ha	Keishoji	Toyo, Fukui

Sect and Branch	Head Temple	Location
Nichiren Sect		
Nichiren-shu	Kuonji	Minobu, Yamanashi
	Hommonji	Ikegami, Tokyo
Nichiren-sei-shu	Daisekiji	Ueno, Shizuoka
Kempon-hokke-shu	Myomanji	Kamikyo, Kyoto
Hommon-shu	Hommonji	Kitayama, Shizuoka
Hommon-hokke-shu	Kochoji	Kanaoka, Shizuoka
	Honnoji	Kamikyo, Kyoto
Hokke-shu	Honseiji	Sanjo, Niigata
Hommyohokke-shu	Honryuji	Kamikyo, Kyoto
Fujufuse-ha	Myokokuji	Kanagawa, Okayama
Fujufuse-komon-ha	Honkakuji	Kanagawa, Okayama
Ji Sect	Seijoji	Fujisawa, Kanagawa
Yuzunenbutsu Sect	Dainenbutsuji	Hirano, Osaka
Hosso Sect	Horyuji	Horyuji, Nara
	Kofukuji	Noborioji, Nara
	Todaiji	Zoshi, Nara
Kegon Sect		

Christianity

Before the Restoration Christianity was first introduced into Japan by Francis Xavier, a Jesuit Father, who came to Kagoshima in 1549. This was the time when Nobunaga Oda was at the height of his power, and he gave great encouragement to the spread of the Christian religion. Hideyoshi Toyotomi, his successor, too, was kindly disposed towards it. Combined with the devout and untiring work of the missionaries, this attitude on the part of the authorities made it possible for Christianity to gain followers with wonderful rapidity. Their number is reported to have run into hundreds of thousands.

Hideyoshi, however, changed his policy later on. Christianity was interdicted, its followers were persecuted, and the missionaries had to leave the country. When the Tokugawa Shogunate was established, still stricter measures were adopted, especially after the Shimabara Rebellion in 1637. Christianity had now no hope of prospering under the rigorous Government policy of exclusion. The only port open to foreigners was Deshima, Nagasaki, where the Dutch traders were allowed to carry on their business.

The American envoy, Commodore Perry, came to Uraga in 1853, demanding a friendly commercial treaty with his country. The Shogunate Government granted this request in 1854 not only to America, but to Russia, England, France and Holland, and in the year following the three ports of Kanagawa, Nagasaki, and Hakodate were opened to foreign trade. A party of American missionaries were the first to avail

themselves of the opportunity thus offered to them. Among them were the Rev. J. Liggins, of the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States of America, and the Rev. M. C. Williams, who came to Nagasaki in 1859. These were soon followed by Dr. G. F. Verbeck, of the Presbyterian Church (1859), and J. Goble, of the American Baptist Missionary Society (1860), and others. In 1864, the Rev. J. H. Ballagh, of the Dutch Reformed Church, came from America, and in the following year came Dr. Thompson, of the American Presbyterian Church.

In 1860, the Rev. D. C. Greene made Kobe the basis of his mission work representing the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. The first woman missionary, Miss Kidder, of the Dutch Reformed Church, arrived here in the same year. In 1873, the American Methodist Episcopal Church and the Canadian Methodist Church sent their missionaries, and in 1876 the Evangelical Association of North America started its propaganda work.

The Restoration When the Tokugawa feudal system collapsed and the Imperial House was restored to power, the edicts prohibiting "Kirishitan" were withdrawn, in the sixth year of Meiji (1873), and missionaries were officially permitted to establish schools, publish religious tracts, and preach their doctrines in all the sea-ports open for foreign trade. In 1872, the Rev. Brown and Rev. Ballagh of Yokohama established, aided by their young followers, a Christian church to be known as the Yokohama Yaso Kyokai, which was the beginning of the Union Church. In the following year a sister church was organized at Tsukiji, Tokyo.

This was the first Christian church in the metropolis. In 1876 Nagasaki saw another church established. Later all these churches were federated under the name of the United Church of Christ in Japan. This was the origin of the Nihon Kirisuto Kyokai. The Rev. D. C. Greene who started his mission work in Kobe established a church known as the Settsu First Christian Church. This was the first Congregational Church ever organized in Japan, and developed into the present Kobe Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. In the same year the Umemoto-cho Church came into existence in Osaka, which later came to be called the Osaka Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. Some time before this, 35 students of the Kumamoto Foreign School, who were converted to Christianity under the influence of their American teacher, Captain James, came up to Kyoto, and entered the Doshisha College just established by J. H. Neeshima, who had lately returned from America. After their graduation from the college they grew active as propagators of Christianity, and built up the foundations of the Nihon Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. In 1872, the Rev. Loomis and Rev. Ballagh conducted a Bible class for young men in the above-mentioned Church at Yokohama every Sunday afternoon. In 1873, a Congregational Missionary, Dr. Berry, set up in Kobe a Sunday-school, probably the first one conducted in the Japanese language. As to the vernacular translation of the Bible, in which Dr. Brown had been engaged for some time, the work progressed rapidly early in the Meiji Era, and the New Testament was completed in December 1879, and the Old Testament in 1886. The chief translators were Brown, Verbeck, Greene, and Maclay, while among the native assistants were Takakichi Matsuyama, Masatsuna Okuno, Masahisa Uyemura, Kajinosuke Ibuka, Goro Takahashi, and others.

Y.M.C.A. In 1880, the Young Men's Christian Association was first organized in Tokyo, and among the leaders must be mentioned Hiromichi Kozaki, Kajinosuke Ibuka, Masahisa Uyemura, and Yoshiyasu Hiraiwa.

In 1870, Miss Kidder opened a school for girls in Yokohama. This was the first institution of the kind in Japan, and from it developed the present Ferris School for Girls. Four years later another girls' school, Kobe Jo Gakuin, was erected in Kobe by the Congregationalists.

According to the statistics of 1882, there were in that year 145 foreign missionaries, 93 organized churches, 13 of which were self-supporting, 4,367 adult members, 39 mixed schools, 15 girls' schools, 9 middle schools, 7 theological colleges, 109 Sunday-schools, 49 ordained preachers, 100 assistant preachers, 37 Bible women, and 5 hospitals.

In 1883, the Church of Christ sent missionaries to Japan, and in 1885 the Presbyterian Church of the United States of America did the same. The American Society of Friends, and the Evangelical Protestant Missionary Society of Germany and Switzerland also despatched their agents. In 1886, missionaries came from the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and in Osaka a hall was set up for the Young Men's Christian Association. In 1887 the missionaries and representatives of the Episcopal Church of England and America had a conference, the result of which was the organization of the Holy Catholic Church of Japan. In the same year, the American Unitarian Association sent its representative, the Rev. A. M. Knapp, and following him came the Rev. Clay McCauley.

Freedom of Faith On February 11, 1889, the Constitution was promulgated, and freedom of faith was definitely guaranteed by Article XXVIII. In that year, L. D. Wishard, International College Secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association, came and planned out a summer school for Bible study for the first time in this country. Since then every summer sees its work carried on. The United Church of Christ in Japan changed its name to the Church of Christ in Japan, compiled a fundamental law, settled on its creeds, and at last became an independent organization. Soon after, they put up a Board of Missions and made progress towards financial independence.

In 1890, the Universalist General Convention of America sent its missionaries. In 1895 officers of the Salvation Army came, and Gumpel Yamamuro joined it, and they at once started on their propaganda work. In the same year, the United Brethren in Christ started a mission.

Until 1901 the foreign missionaries had not been allowed to hold land in Japan, which greatly inconvenienced their activities. In that year the Home Minister gave permission to the Baptist Missionary Society in Japan to organize a corporation which could hold and man-

age lands and buildings for missionary purposes.

In 1905 the Japanese Congregationalists planned to be financially independent of the foreign mission by the end of that year; in this they were later successful.

In 1907 representatives of the Methodist Church of Canada, the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and the Methodist Episcopal Church convened in Tokyo with a view to effect a confederation of the three denominations in Japan. The First General Conference of the Methodist Church of Japan thus took place, and Yosichi Honda was chosen to be its first Bishop and was duly consecrated. In the same year F. L. Brown, of the International Sunday School Association, arrived and the outcome of this visit was the organization of the Sunday School Association of Japan, marking an epoch in the history of the Sunday School of the Christian Church. The conference of the World's Student Christian Federation was also held this year in Tokyo, in which 160 foreign visitors took part representing 25 nations. This was the first world's convention of any kind in Japan.

Roman and Greek Churches The Catholic Church has been active ever since the opening of the seaports for foreign trade. Missionaries from the Société des Missions Etrangères in Paris are working all over the country, which is now divided by them into seven districts: Tokyo, Osaka, Hakodate, Nagasaki, Shikoku, Niigata, and Sapporo, with a Bishop resident in Tokyo. In Shikoku there is a Spanish Dominican mission, while in Hokkaido the Franciscans have found their principal fields of activity, where are two Trappist monasteries. The Jesuit missionaries reached here again in 1908, but instead of following up their predecessors' work, they have now a college established in Tokyo and concentrate their efforts on education. Besides the Jesuits, those that are chiefly engaged in educational work are the Missionnaires de Marie, Société des Soeurs de Saint Paul, Société de Sacré Coeur and others. In the prefecture of Nagasaki, Catholics, who have been at work for the last 300 years, though secretly, are still in the ascendancy.

The activities of the Greek Church centered in the person of the Russian priest, Father Nicolai, who came to Japan first as priest attached to the Russian consulate in Hokkaido in 1859. He reached Japan after crossing Siberia, and after

settling in Hakodate he baptized Takuma Sawabe and two other Japanese. In 1872 he came to Tokyo where he began missionary work. In 1884 he started to build a fine large church in Tokyo, which was completed in 1891. The church was regarded at that time as the greatest and finest building of the sort throughout Japan. The internal disturbances in Russia which followed the World War made it very difficult to maintain this beautiful edifice, until in 1919 the followers succeeded in organizing an independent church known by the name of the "Orthodox Church of Christ in Japan."

Contribution of American Missionaries According to the report specially written for the Year Book by Rev. Akira Ebisawa, former General Secretary, National Christian Council of Japan, a considerable decrease of the missionary forces of the Protestant churches in the Orient was witnessed in recent years, as shown in the following table:

Country	Year	No. of Missionaries
Japan Proper	1924	1,253
	1937	829
China	1924	7,633
	1937	5,747
India	1924	5,682
	1937	5,112

In spite of the public opinion against Japan in connection with the China Affair American church people have continued to maintain their Christian fellowship with the Japanese.

Japanese Christian churches have now developed to such a stage of maturity that most of the churches are now becoming self-supporting. Even the Christian educational institutions are now almost all self-supporting and certain missionaries are cooperating as members of the faculty in honorary capacity. In recent years the Japanese churches have been helped largely by the American missionaries in such special projects as school or church buildings or the purchase of land. What has been gathered from first hand information contained in official reports, is presented in the following table. It is confined to funds donated by the different foreign missions during the past ten years, for buildings and equipment and does not include expenses for the mission work and the salaries of the missionaries which amounted approximately to ¥6,450,000 per annum.

CONTRIBUTION OF AMERICAN CHURCHES
in 1928—1938 (Amount in yen)

Missions	Educational Institutions		Social Institutions	Total	Remarks
	Institutions	Churches	Institutions		
Methodist Protestant	43,500	16,000	—	59,500	
Friends	40,500	—	—	40,500	
Methodist Episcopal	650,000	50,000	150,000	850,000	
Methodist Episcopal (South)	450,000	—	—	450,000	Hiroshima Girls' School, etc.
United Brethren	—	80,000	—	80,000	
Yotsuya Mission	—	16,000	—	16,000	
Churches of Christ Mission	163,250	15,000	78,500	256,750	Mostly for Seigakuin Chugaku (150,000)
Evangelical Church	—	163,016	—	163,016	
Southern Baptist	215,655	—	—	215,655	Mostly for Seinan Gakuin & Seinan Jogakuin
American Baptist (Northern)	215,000	114,000	38,000	367,000	
American Board Mission	2,887,500	—	—	2,887,500	Kobe College 2,450,000 Matsuyama Girls' School 87,500 Doshisha Girls' School 87,500 Doshisha Amherst Bldg. 262,500
United Lutheran Church in America	47,200	109,850	35,525	192,575	
Presbyterian South	157,500	—	—	157,500	For Kinjo Jo Gakko
Presbyterian Church in U.S.A.	813,464	2,500	22,754†	838,718	Tokyo Deaf Oral School 2,564 Hokusai Jogakko 290,000 Wilmina Jogakko & Kobe Residence 57,650 Wilmina Land 23,625 Woman's Christian College 202,125 Meiji Gakuin 87,500 Nihon Shingakko 150,000 Rural work
American Church Mission (Episcopal) Tohoku District	—	285,450	—	285,450	7 Church bldgs. 2 Parish houses 3 Kindergartens 6 Rectories 3 Church & Community Centers

Missions	Educational Institutions		Social Institutions	Total	Remarks
	Institutions	Churches	Institutions		
North Kwanto District	561,900	291,279	4,280,000 (Medical)	5,133,179	Including the new buildings for St. Luke's Hospital & Rikkyo Jo Gakko
Kwansai District	271,600	318,700	73,080	663,380	(270,000 for Repairs & Land not included)
Reformed Church in U.S.A.	308,121	87,712	18,742	414,575	
Reformed Church in America	512,490	81,715	450	594,655	Yokohama Ferris Seminary 491,250 Balko Jogakuin 21,240
Cooperative Enterprise	547,000	—	—	547,400	For Library, Chapel-Auditorium Building Woman's Christian College
Y.W.C.A.	—	—	925,000	925,000	
Total	7,885,080	1,631,222	5,622,051	15,138,353	

Fifteen million yen raised among the Christians in America have been spent for cultural projects in Japan, through the different mission boards, during the last ten years. It would reach to a considerable figure if the material resources they have spent for Japan during the past eighty years since the opening of the Protestant missions in Japan are taken into count, while it would be impossible to measure the help rendered by the missionaries in their personal capacity to the advancement of Japan ever since the opening of the country to foreign intercourse.

Islam

Among the world religions Islam has exercised the smallest influence over the Japanese people. The Koran was translated into Japanese early in the Meiji Era (1868-1912), but the faith could not obtain many adherents, because it was introduced to Japan without political or economic elements accompaniments. Islam is not yet officially recognized by the Japanese Government and the number of Islamites in Japan is unknown, although it is believed that there are several hundreds of them.

In August 1937, the Islam Cultural Association was organized in Tokyo. Its president is Ryusaku Endo, and it issues a magazine "Islam" for the promotion of Islamic culture in Japan. A mosque was built in Tokyo, early in 1938, by Japanese Islamites. The friendly atti-

tude of the Islamites in China and Islam countries toward Japan since the occurrence of the Sino-Japanese Conflict in 1937 has aroused the general sympathy and interests of the Japanese people in the religion and its believers.

State Regulation of Religions

Supervising Office A wholesale change of the governmental system took place at the time of the Restoration, and in the third year of Meiji (1870) the Mimbusho was established to take care of various affairs of the state, such as general home affairs, communications, etc. In the fourth year, this office was abolished, and the office of religious affairs was transferred to the Finance Ministry. With the establishment of the Kyobusho, or Ministry of Religions, in 1872, the shrines and temples were placed under the care of the new office. Afterwards the Kyobusho was abolished too, and all the business conducted by this office up to that time was transferred to the Ministry of Home Affairs which was established in 1873. In April 1900, the former Bureau of Shrines and Temples was divided into two sections, i.e., the Bureau of Shinto Shrines and the Bureau of Religions. All administrative policy concerning the Shinto Shrines is now in charge of the former and is entirely independent of the policy governing religions. The Bureau of Religions was transferred to the Education Ministry in 1913 and is

under its jurisdiction at present.

While all the Shinto and Buddhist sects were placed under the direct supervision of the Government, giving official recognition, it gave no official recognition as regards the Christian denominations. In the case of Christianity, therefore, the official supervision did not go further than looking after its missionary activities, selection of preachers, establishment of churches or preaching halls, etc. But times have changed and a bill for Control of Religious Organizations (Shūkyō Dantai Hōan) was presented and approved by the 74th session of the Imperial Diet, and the new law was enforced as from April 1, 1940.

New Religious Law

The new law is comparatively simple in form and consists of 37 articles.

Essential Points 1. The new law is to be applied to both religious organizations and religious societies. A religious organization (Shūkyō Dantai) is understood to be an association of believers organized for the purpose of advocating a religious faith and of conducting rituals; its establishment is recognized by the Minister concerned or by the Prefectural Governor according to specific regulations provided in the law. A religious society (Shūkyō Keshū) is understood to be an organization of believers organized similarly for the purpose of advocating a faith and of conducting rituals, but which is not considered by the State as coming under the category of a religious organization. As a matter of fact, the religious society is a new name for bodies hitherto known as "groups of believers in a faith analogous to a religion" (Ruiji-Shūkyō Dantai).

2. The proposed law groups all religious bodies into five classifications: Shinto sects (Kyōha), Buddhist denominations (Shūha), Christian and other religious organizations (Kyodan), temples, and churches. Actually, the first three of these include the latter two.

In regard to Shinto sects and Buddhist denominations, there has existed a basic law, however incomplete it may have been, known as Ordinance No. 19 of the Dajōkwan (predecessor of the present Cabinet) issued in 1884. Christian churches and other religious organizations have been left untouched, placed outside the purview of the Ordinance. The proposed law, therefore,

includes them as religious organizations similar to Shinto sects or Buddhist denominations.

In principle, Shinto, Buddhism and Christianity are to be treated equally in accordance with the terms of the law. They have, however, different historical and social backgrounds. Accordingly, the law gives separate names to these religious bodies (the above-listed Shinto sects, Buddhist denominations and religious organizations belonging to Christianity and other faiths) to place a certain demarcation between them. However, in contrast to the old regulations which spoke of the religion "other than Shintoism and Buddhism," the new law names Christianity as a religious organization.

3. Establishment of the religious organizations prescribed in the law must obtain official recognition of the competent Minister in the case of the first three groups mentioned in Paragraph 2, or that of the Prefectural Governor in the case of individual temples or churches. Official recognition shall be given only to those organizations that have good traditions and stand on sound foundations, spiritual and material, and make laudable contributions to the nation and to society. The State undertakes to give protection and award special privileges to the religious organizations thus recognized.

According to the proposed law, for example, (1) the privilege of exemption from the income tax, which was hitherto enjoyed only by Buddhist temples, shall be extended to all other religious organizations; (2) the land tax shall not be levied, in principle, on the precincts of temples and churches; (3) the local surtaxes shall not be levied on the income of religious organizations as well as similar taxes on the precincts or buildings of temples and churches which are already exempted; (4) the privilege of being exempt from registration fees shall be extended to the registration of the precincts and buildings of temples and churches; and (5) attachments on the buildings or their lots which are used for public worship by the organizations and on the treasures of temples and churches are, in principle, prohibited.

4. As to protection, the special provisions included in the new law for the creation of a juridical person by the religious organizations provides for a new method of protection.

At present Buddhist temples only are allowed to create such legal persons, although the provisions pertaining to legal persons in the civil code have rarely been applied to them. No regulation exists for the creation of a juridical person by either Shinto sects or Buddhist denominations or Christian organizations.

The new law prescribes that Buddhist temples shall be juridical persons, and that Shinto sects, Buddhist denominations, Christian and other religious organizations and churches may be juridical persons. The law also contains many other provisions relative to this matter. With legal entity thus established, the organizations may be able to solve many of their financial problems and function in a less involved manner.

5. When they meet with bankruptcy, the religious legal bodies are to be dissolved just as secular corporations are, according to the law. But the dissolution of religious organizations merely on account of financial insolvency or acquirement of heavy debts, without taking into account their spiritual aims, origin, history, traditions and existing status, may appear unreasonable.

Accordingly, the proposed law, which may order dissolution of a religious organization, makes a series of special provisions to ameliorate this situation. In case the organization becomes bankrupt, (1) the State may leave it as a recognized religious organization for the time being; (2) the competent Minister may cancel his recognition as such when he comes to the conclusion that the organization cannot be saved by any means; and (3) with the cancellation of recognition, dissolution may take effect.

These provisions may be described as legal grace granted to religious organizations in recognition of their spiritual nature. Application of legal measures against a spiritual body only for secular reasons is contrary to the spirit of the new legislation.

6. The new law states that "the representatives (Sōdal) of the laymen shall assist the head monk or the superintendent of a temple or church in matters of administration." Formerly, the relations between spiritual leaders and the representatives of the believers were very harmonious and the latter were proud of being "great supporters" or "secular protectors" of the spiritual institutions and willingly lent their services to them. But the recent trend in

and out of Buddhist temples demonstrates that this custom is on the wane. The insertion of this provision in the new law is aimed at the sound management of secular affairs indispensable to the existence of temples or churches. Harmony between a temple and its parishioners, in particular, is indispensable for the effective management of temple affairs and at the same time may give a spiritual basis to the dealings of members of communities among themselves.

7. The important protective measures and privileges given to religious organizations by the law, as outlined in foregoing paragraphs, are to be extended only to religious organizations and not to religious societies, as defined in Paragraph 1.

Application for establishment of a religious society must be made by a proper representative to the Prefectural Governor within two weeks of the founding. Neglect in this regard or the presentation of a false report is punishable by fine.

In regard to the formation of new religions or quasi-religious cults, this has hitherto been placed under the jurisdiction of the police. But in view of the present state of ideological affairs, the new law assumes partial jurisdiction and applies to such religions those regulations concerning application for recognition and other conditions specially prescribed for the supervision of the religious societies, with the purpose of halting the unworthy ones in the bud or fostering the worthy ones to healthy growth. According to the provisions of the proposed law, a way is opened to the religious societies to advance to the status of religious organizations.

The inclusion of these societies in the Law for Control of Religious Organizations may be criticized as incongruous. But it is a matter of no little importance in encouraging the general growth of religions that the law gives them a place side by side the major religious organizations defined in Paragraph 2 and affords them the opportunity of raising their status.

8. The new law includes many regulations for supervision over religious organizations and societies, but reference here shall be limited only to those which have relation to Article 28 of the Constitution of the Japanese Empire.

Article 28 states: "Japanese subjects shall, within limits not prejudicial to peace and order, and not antagonistic

to their duties as subjects, enjoy freedom of religious belief." Thus, although the Government has been empowered to resort to any means of restraining against the deeds of religious believers prejudicial to peace and order and antagonistic to their duties as subjects, no special regulations have been enforced to this effect.

The new law provides measures of restraint against religious preaching, rituals or conducts contrary to the prohibition clauses of Article 28 of the Constitution, giving the competent Minister power to cancel the official recognition of the establishment of religious organizations.

9. According to the provisions of the new law, religious groups may appeal to or sue the courts for redress against unreasonable decisions on the part of supervising authorities. This is a new feature in religious regulations in Japan. Where (1) the recognition of the establishment of the religious body is cancelled; where (2) preaching, rituals or other religious functions are restricted or prohibited as prejudicial to peace and order and antagonistic to the duties of the members as subjects of the Empire; and where (3) their conducts are ordered to cease or are prohibited as detrimental to public welfare, the aggrieved group or individual in the group may appeal for redress. Religious organizations who feel that their rights have been injured by the alleged unlawful cancellation of recognition or establishment may appeal to the Court of Administrative Litigation.

10. After legal organization of the religious organizations is completed and their finances are stabilized according to

the law, the greatest problem connected with their activities is the human problem of obtaining the fittest persons for preaching and execution of rituals so that their faiths may be spread among the people and their organizations gain spiritual influence in society. The ability of these ecclesiastical leaders (the new law designates them as "teachers") bears direct consequence on the success of the religious organizations.

The new law, however, includes no provision for fixing the qualifications of the religious teachers and leaves the matter to the private regulations of the different bodies themselves, not from any neglect of the importance of the problem but to avoid possible friction with the traditional usages of different bodies which have their own individual standards, differing from those of other groups in doctrines, creeds, history and traditions. Any unification of such qualifications throughout different religious bodies may be considered an interference with their free religious activities and might, in the end, "kill the bull to strengthen its horns," as a Chinese proverb relates.

Many other important matters exist which the new law leaves untouched solely because the State wishes to respect the self-government of each religious organization and refrain from bringing different religious bodies under a single sweeping standardization.

Religious Statistics

The following are the statistics of preaching halls, preachers and adherents of various religious sects and denominations:

SECTARIAN SHINTO IN JAPAN PROPER

(End of 1936)

Denomination	Preaching		Preachers		Adherents (in 1930)
	Halls	Total	Men	Women	
Shinto	623	4,762	3,952	810	1,206,778
Kurozumi	451	4,108	3,606	502	551,236
Shusel	222	2,195	1,864	331	411,801
Taisha	208	3,067	2,970	97	3,343,477
Fuso	600	5,411	4,035	1,376	486,906
Jikko	257	2,634	1,966	668	403,519
Taisei	206	2,667	2,131	536	728,373
Shinshu	321	2,613	1,860	753	2,039,381
Ontaké	836	8,028	5,379	2,289	738,647
Shinri	336	1,965	1,629	336	1,412,332

Denomination	Preaching		Preachers		Adherents (in 1930)
	Halls	Total	Men	Women	
Misogi	35	1,493	1,306	187	337,283
Konko	1,253	3,314	2,270	1,044	747,869
Tenri	10,909	82,620	47,245	35,575	4,118,238
Total	16,257	124,877	80,573	44,304	16,525,840

Note: The "kancho" or the executive head of each denomination is not included in the number of preachers.

BUDDHISM

(End of 1936)

Denomination	Temples	Priests		Total	Adherents (in 1930)
		Men	Women		
Tendai	4,438	2,851	84	2,935	2,134,369
Shingon	12,000	8,079	70	8,149	8,526,867
Jodo	8,234	6,363	375	6,738	3,997,875
Rinzai	5,978	4,230	320	4,550	2,367,977
Soto	14,351	11,879	331	12,210	6,859,324
Obaku	501	369	15	384	111,841
Shin	19,823	15,966	3	15,969	13,259,390
Nichiren	5,028	4,312	46	4,358	3,315,359
Ji	494	354	0	354	383,171
Yuzunenbutsu	354	234	10	244	133,493
Hosso	42	19	1	20	14,772
Kegon	33	19	0	19	22,869
Total including others	71,326	54,675	1,255	55,930	41,127,307

Note: There were 35,308 minor temples and 7,753 preaching places in addition to the number given above.

CHRISTIANITY

PROTESTANT CHURCHES

(End of 1938)

Deno-	Mem-	Comp.	Aver-	Comp.	Bap-	Comp.	S.S.	Comp.	Money	Comp.
mination	bers	with	age At-	with	tized	with	Pupils	with	Collect-	with
		1937	tendance	1937	1937	1937		1937	ed	1937
Presby-										
terian	54,386	+189	10,598	-166	2,229	-113	36,082	-3,366	589,950	+22,305
Methodist	39,881	+1,405	7,704	-234	1,906	-129	38,252	-2,779	373,030	-60,931
Congrega-										
tional	32,719	-147	5,504	-187	710	-148	18,754	-2,602	449,900	+83,227
Episcopal	28,606	-253	5,717	-261	1,225	-137	19,537	-3,411	262,172	+10,224
Baptist	7,272	-161	1,831	-71	281	-19	5,065	-1,315	64,635	+14,305
Lutheran	4,192	+120	716	-43	199	+1	3,155	-308	23,499	+723
Mifu	3,381	+180	403	-26	184	+24	1,213	-147	19,110	+221
Brethren	3,238	+114	450	-7	119	+18	2,209	-333	25,880	-851
Fukuin	2,758	+121	-	-	227	+107	3,249	-11	30,972	+1,702
Christian	2,354	-14	467	-16	38	-17	1,585	+15	24,692	-2,421
Kiyome	8,712	-932	2,004	+155	864	-158	5,250	-270	162,623	-214
Hollness	13,909	+729	2,838	+60	899	+49	4,872	+513	199,686	+34,208
Free Me-										
thodist	2,861	+91	630	+5	112	-67	2,102	+55	35,040	-778
Union	1,034	+12	255	-221	61	+3	2,180	-35	9,271	+4,459
12 others	10,357	+814	1,115	+160	548	-79	8,105	+1,269	59,524	+4,957
Total	215,166	+2,202	42,440	-937	9,934	-597	156,780	-13,130	2,399,695	+115,477

RELIGION

PROTESTANT SCHOOLS

(End of 1938)

Kind	Number	Pupils and Students	Professors and Teachers		Total of Professors and Teachers
			Japanese	Foreign	
Seminaries	14	513	132	36	246
Colleges	28	11,577	1,232	125	1,901
Middle and Girls' High Schools	54	34,743	1,689	125	3,131
Elementary schools	4	678	42	1	72
Kindergartens	672	—	—	—	—
Total	772	47,511	3,095	286	5,350

GREEK CHURCH
(June 1939)

Churches	184	Senior local officers	1,296
Believers	41,251	Junior soldiers	5,489
Priests and monks	61	Sunday school pupils	8,535
Sunday school pupils	575	Corps	310
		Soldiers participated in campaigns	40,248
		Home leagues	2,592
		Social work institutions	27
SALVATION ARMY (End of 1938)			
Officers and cadets	461		

ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH

(End of 1938)

Parishes and chapels	210	Orphanages	20
Priests and monks	408	Old people's homes	7
Sisters	1,161	Hospitals and sanatoria	15
Believers	111,856	Leper asylums	2
University	1	Students	631
Middle schools	7	Pupils	3,810
Girls' high schools	24	"	8,413
Other schools	129	"	12,010
Sunday schools	104	"	6,192

CHAPTER XXX

SOCIAL WORK

The recorded history of social work in Japan begins with 593 A.D. as was mentioned on p. 669, the Japan Year Book, 1939-40. Social work before the Meiji era, however, was rather spasmodic and local. National social movement and systematized work began in early years of the 20th century as mentioned below.

Meiji Era The Nagoya earthquake in 1891, the North-Eastern tidal wave damages and the famine in 1896, had quickened the development of orphanage work, and at the time of the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese wars relief work for soldiers, child protection, and free medical treatment were also being taken up but mostly by philanthropic individuals so they hardly differed from the old-fashioned benevolent and rescue work. The World War served as a great stimulus for the development of modern social work, for the economic, social and moral changes suddenly brought about at that time and after the great conflict raised various kinds of social problems and at the same time accelerated progress in all kinds of social work, such as relief of the poor, free medical treatment, provision of houses, employment exchanges, child protection, settlement work and the like. The great earthquake of 1923 was an epoch-making event from the standpoint of the development of such work.

From the beginning of the twentieth century the Japanese Government has passed many laws on social work, the most important of them being:—the Military Relief Act of 1917, the Tuberculosis Prevention Act of 1919, the Employment Exchange Act and the Housing Association Act of 1921, the Health Insurance Act of 1922, and the Insanitary Houses Improvement Act and the public Pawnshops Act of 1927.

Social Bureau In regard to the administrative organization of social work, before the World War there were only a few officials engaged in reform and relief work, and these were tucked away in one corner of the Ministry of Home

Affairs. But in August 1917, a relief section was established in its Local Government Bureau. In 1919 this section was called the Section of Social Affairs and in 1920, it became the new Bureau of Social Affairs and a central organization for social work; in 1922, the independent Social Bureau came into existence and the administration of all social work throughout the country was brought under its control. In January 1938, the Bureau was merged into the Ministry of Welfare.

Social Work Law The Social Work Law was promulgated on April 1, 1938 and put into force on July 1 the same year, with the purpose of strengthening control and promotion of social work in Japan. The social services which come within the purview of the law include asylums for the aged, poor relief work, orphanages, day-nurseries and other services for children, medical relief work, institutions for economic relief and such services as are specially designated by Ordinance, excluding social work carried on under other laws or Imperial Ordinances, protective work connected with justice and police, military relief, temporary social work, work carried on by industrial associations and any social work which cares for less than 5 persons. (In regard to the national budget, for the promotion of social services see the items of expenditure of the Ministry of Welfare and other ministries).

Block Committee

Legalization of Homen In (Block Committee) System The Homen In or Block Committee system consists in the appointing, by prefectural governors or other responsible bodies, of honorary committees of those private persons who are interested in social work and are able to get in easy touch with the people who need relief, so that proper relief is given the poor and the maximum results obtained. The system originated with the establishment of an advisory committee to the Saiseikai association in Okayama prefecture in 1917. Since

then, partly because of the recent trend in social affairs and partly by the recognition of the good results brought about by the activities of the Committees, the system has spread not only to all prefectures in Japan proper, but also to Taiwan and Chosen. The promulgation of the revised Relief Law in 1931 called for greater activity on the part of the committees.

At the end of March 1937 the number of Block Committees reached 46,264 for 9,427 blocks in Japan proper. The managing bodies of this system are the prefectural authorities, though there are a certain number of city, town or other private organizations.

The number of cases handled by the Block Committees increases every year,

the figure for 1936-37 being 4,970,756.

CONDITIONS OF THE WORK OF THE BLOCK COMMITTEE

(March 1937)

Number of Committees	
Prefectural	45
City	6
Town and village	26
Private bodies	3
Total	80
Number of Blocks	
Municipalities	9,098
Blocks	9,427
Committeemen	46,264

Number of Poor Families and Their Members Which Are Registered

Kinds	Serious Cases	Registered	
		Ordinary Cases	Total
Families:			
Cities	134,361	141,695	276,056
Towns and villages	69,300	213,329	282,629
House members:			
Cities	507,804	594,170	1,101,974
Towns and villages	221,705	877,696	1,099,401

Child Protection

Child protection in Japan is divided into the following nine main classes:— (1) Care for women in pregnancy or confinement, (2) care for infants, (3) for weakly children, (4) for children of the very poor, (5) for the education of children, (6) for child-workers, (7) for maltreated children, (8) for children to be reformed, (9) for abnormal children and (10) for mother and child.

Women in Pregnancy or Confinement

The infant mortality rate of Japan was lower until 1900 than in Western countries, but since then it has gradually risen, till it reached the deplorable figure of 189 deaths for every 1,000 births in 1918. Though there has been a decrease since then, in 1938 the rate was still as high as 114. As for the still-birth rate, though there was some tendency towards decrease, it was 4.9 for every 100 births in 1935, the total number of still-births reaching 99,528. The greatest emphasis in child protection is laid on the protection and aid of expectant mothers, or the protection of children before and at the time of birth. For this kind of work there are at

present such organizations as maternity hospitals, visiting midwives and confinement advisory institutes. Besides legislation for maternity protection, in March 1936 there were 52 maternity hospitals throughout the country, while visiting midwives' organizations numbered 493. Legislation for maternity protection is included in the Factory Law, the Mining Law and the Health Insurance Law. The first two laws provide that owners of industrial and mining plants shall not require expectant mothers to work if they apply for leave of absence; after child-birth the mother shall not be required to resume work for 6 weeks, though if she requests work after 4 weeks and a doctor certifies her as fit, she may be allowed to resume it.

According to the Health Insurance Law, persons insured are to receive 20 yen for the expenses of confinement and also a daily amount corresponding to 60 per cent of each day's wage throughout the non-productive period for 28 days before and 42 days after child-birth.

Infant Protection The institutions now existing are divided into the follow-

ing four kinds:—(a) hospitals for the unweaned pauper infants, (b) day-nurseries, (c) institutions for providing milk or other nutritious food for sickly and undersized children, and (d) infant health consultation institutes.

(a) **Infant Hospitals.** There were 29 infant hospitals in the country in March 1936. Of these 5 were established by public authorities and the rest were managed by private bodies or individuals.

(b) **Day-nurseries.** The demand for this work has become greater year by year, owing to the recent development of industry and the influx of population into cities. The oldest institute for this work was the one established by Shobi Akazawa in the city of Niigata, June 1890. In March 1937 there were 874 in the country, of which 163 were public establishments.

(c) **Institutions for Providing Nutritious Food.** The work for providing milk was first undertaken by the Hygiene Bureau of the Home Office with the help of the city of Tokyo as an emergency measure immediately after the Earthquake of 1923, for infants whose parents were quartered in parks or other places of the city. There were 8 such organizations.

(d) **Infant Health Clinics.** The first independent organization for this kind of work was the Osaka Children's Clinic established in 1919. In March 1936 there were 152 such advisory institutes.

Child-Protection As for the legislation for the protection of poor children, it is provided for in the part concerning children in the Regulations for Relief of the Poor promulgated on April 2, 1929. According to the national survey made by the Bureau of Social Affairs in 1926, the number of widows and their children and children of widowers or whose parents were destitute of daily necessities was 133,588.

(a) **Orphan Asylums.** As was the case in Western countries, the orphanage may be said to have been one of the earliest institutions that led the Japanese toward social relief work in general. The work has made remarkable progress and is supported by the public with better understanding and large contributions. In March 1936, there were 131 orphan asylums in the country of which only 5 were founded by public bodies. The total expenses of these asylums in 1935-36 were ¥1,087,208 for 7,813 children, chiefly met by incomes

from the funds, incomes from business, subscriptions and public or private donations.

(b) **Protection of Weakly Children.** Physically weak children are cared for in recreation houses located near the sea or in the woods. The first example of this kind of work was that of the Tokyo Child-Nursing Institute which took a number of weakly children to the seashore of Chiba prefecture in 1900. Later, in June 1926, the Child Protection Society, a corporation established in the compounds of the Bureau of Social Affairs, took up the work and has since provided a model example. As for the medical treatment of weakly children, the Children's Charity Hospital and the Children's Department of the Osaka Branch Hospital of the Japan Red Cross Society have been producing good results. In March 1937, there were 212 institutions for the purpose with 8,028 weakly children protected.

(c) **Protection of Children of School Age.** The elementary school attendance in Japan surpasses most of the nations of the world in its high rate. But there are a certain number of children who are kept from school partly through the operation of Article 33 of the Regulations for Elementary Schools, which recognizes as right in certain cases the non-attendance of children of school age, and partly because of poverty of the family. In March 1937, the number of such children was 47,468. Encouragement of school attendance of these children, in some way or other, is made by the Government and various private bodies. Every year the Education Ministry gives Common Education Encouragement Grants to prefectures for the purpose of encouraging children to attend school. Owing to this help, the rate of school attendance of children in general has increased in a notable degree, and the percentage of daily attendance was 99.59 in the school year 1936-37.

The number of schools for giving poor children compulsory education and the number of those which have evening classes for the same purpose was 40 with 8,165 pupils in 1935-36, the expenses for them amounting to ¥119,722. Besides these schools there were 15 nurse-maids' schools with 351 pupils, at the end of March 1936.

The heavy depression in farm and fishing villages deprived many elemen-

ary school children of their lunch and the Government bore the expenses for providing lunches beginning with the year 1932, the amount granted to local governments in 1936-37 reaching ¥660,000. The number of children benefited was 622,584 in 12,264 schools during 1936-37, with an expenditure of ¥1,473,476, including ¥1,168,548 borne by public bodies and ¥304,928 borne by private bodies.

(d) Protection of Child Workers. The International Labor Conference paid great attention to this problem of protection of child workers, and its first conference, in 1919, adopted an agreement relating to the minimum age of child workers employed in industries and to child night work; at the second Conference, in 1920, an agreement relating to the minimum age of child workers at sea, was reached; and at the third Conference, in 1921, an agreement relating to child workers in agriculture was arrived at. In Japan, there had been some laws in force already, but the International Labor Conference, and recent labor conditions necessitated the revision of these laws and regulations. The legislative measures now in force for protection of child workers are the Revised Factory Law of 1923, the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law of 1923, the Regulations for Relief of Miners of 1926, the Minimum Age of Seamen and Certificate of Health Law of 1923, and the Store Law of 1938. In the Revised Factory Law Article III provides that children under 10 years of age and women shall not be employed more than 11 hours a day (exception being 15 hours for certain kinds of occupations.) Article IV prohibits their night work, and Article VII states that they shall not be employed in dangerous work. In the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law Article II provides that children less than 14 years of age shall not be employed in industrial work, but those children over 12 years of age who have finished the ordinary elementary school course shall be exempted from this rule. In the Regulations for Relief of Minors Article VI provides that children under 16 years of age and women shall not be employed more than 11 hours a day, and Articles XII and XIII that children under 16 years of age shall not be employed in dangerous work. In the Minimum Age of Seamen and Certificate of Health Law

Article II provides that children less than 14 years of age shall not be employed, and Article III that in case of children under 18 years of age being employed a doctor's certificate of health must be obtained. In 1935, there were 241,202 boys and girls under 16 years of age employed in factories, comprising about 10 per cent of the total number of workers. The national conference of social workers held in Tokyo on July 26, 1937, presented a petition to the Government for enforcing these protective measures more effectively.

(e) Reformatory Work. In March 1900, the Reformatory Law was enacted and the establishment of prefectural reformatories was encouraged by the Government. According to this law, however, their establishment was voluntary. In 1908, the law was revised and Prefectural authorities were compelled to found reformatories. Within two years of the enactment of the Law 30 reformatories were founded, both public and private. In August 1917, an ordinance in regard to the founding of a national reformatory, which had been pending for many years, was promulgated, and in March 1919, a State Reformatory, named the Musashino-Gakuin, was founded in a suburban village of Tokyo. The bills for juvenile courts and houses of correction, passed by the Diet in April 1921, as the Juvenile Law and the House of Correction Law were revised and promulgated in May 1933, as the Juvenile Protection Law, effective from October 10, 1934.

In March 1938, there were 51 reformatories, with 2,702 children. The expenses amounted to ¥153,400 for 1937-38. In addition to these reformatories, there are 31 Correction Societies which are taking care of boys and girls who are not under the direct care of the reformatories.

(f) Protection of Abnormal Children. In March 1937 blind and deaf-mute children were taken care of in 78 schools for the blind and 62 schools for the deaf-mute, pupils numbering 5,041 and 5,525 respectively. The number of organizations for protecting feeble-minded and other mentally defective children was 113 in all, and the aggregate number of inmates was 1,281, in March 1937.

(g) Prevention of Maltreatment. The Law for the Prevention of Child Maltreatment, which was promulgated with Law No. 40 in April 1933, lays down

the power of prefectural governors to give adequate warning against maltreatment of children by the people who have power over them, makes provisions for putting such children under the care of suitable persons when necessary; and prohibits having such children engage in such performances as acrobatics and circuses or in infamous houses. It was put in force on October 1, 1933 and in the half year from October 1, 1933 to March 31, 1934, the number of children protected by the Law was 593; of the total 179 were those subjected to maltreatment by parents or relatives, while 414 were forced to overwork in petty shows or as street singers, geisha girls, etc.

In 1937 the number of juveniles protected under the Law was 332.

Mother and Child Protection With

the institution of this new law the State has taken the responsibility of assisting unsupported mothers, who are unable to educate their children on account of poverty. According to investigations made by the Social Bureau in August 1937, there were 41,789 such mothers and 91,119 children in Japan proper.

In order to make the relief of these mothers and children more complete the new Mother and Child Protection Law was passed at the 70th session of the Diet. Article 1 of the Mother and Child Protection Law states that those mothers or grandmothers who have children under 13 years of age and have to earn a living by their own effort and cannot live or bring up children because of poverty are protected in accordance with the provisions of the law.

RELIEF OF MOTHERS AND CHILDREN

(Amount in yen)

Fiscal Year	Children under 13 Years of Age		Nursing Mothers		Total	
	Number	Relief Money	Number	Relief Money	Number	Relief Money
1932-33	63,140	1,301,395	1,352	35,571	64,492	1,337,096
1933-34	84,566	1,984,723	1,758	58,098	86,324	2,042,821
1934-35	91,946	2,052,264	999	19,445	92,945	2,071,709
1935-36	97,375	2,222,915	1,089	23,726	98,464	2,246,641
1936-37	100,080	2,232,412	1,206	24,342	101,286	2,256,754

Economic Protection

Supply and Improvement of Houses
(a) Building and Management of Houses by Public Bodies. In the year 1918, to meet the pressing need for economic and sanitary housing a note was issued to encourage public bodies to build and supply houses, the building cost of which might be loaned from the Funds of the Deposits Bureau of the Finance Ministry. This loan together with a loan from the Reserve of the Post Office Life Insurance greatly facilitated the building work. Several other means were adopted to facilitate the work, namely, the sale of building materials produced from Government forests at low cost, reduction in or exemption from freight charge for transportation of building materials, application of the Land Expropriation Law, if necessary, in case of buying land for the building of houses of public bodies, and freedom from the Registration and Construction Taxes.

The Government issued the Housing Association Law in April 1921, and it was put into force the same year. Associations are to be legal persons possessing several privileges in respect of taxation, acquisition of land, etc., working funds being loaned to the associations from the Funds of the Deposits Bureau of the Finance Ministry through the prefectural offices. The Dojun-kai, a building corporation, established immediately after the great earthquake of 1923 with a fund of ¥10,000,000, a part of the contributions for the reconstruction of Tokyo and Yokohama, has supplied many dwellings and apartments for the people in these two cities, independent of the government measure.

The sum of low interest-rate money advanced by the Government since 1921 amounts to more than ¥135,000,000. Demands for dwelling-houses gradually decreased after 1929, and the sum advanced for the purpose has decreased accordingly. The number of dwelling-

houses built under the law up to November 1937 reached 83,000 (of which 6,000 were built through the Wooden Stores Construction Fund.) The number of building societies was 2,913 with a membership of 31,750, and total sum defrayed for buildings reached ¥69,518,266.

(b) Enforcement of the Insanitary Dwelling Site Improvement Law. Supply of dwellings is one aspect of this question and their improvement is another. The first step taken by the Government in the latter was to improve and remake the sites in cities where poorly built houses were crowded together. A nation-wide investigation made in June 1925, showed that there were 217 such quarters with over 72,600 families and over 309,900 inhabitants. The land level was generally low, the quarters naturally damp, and an intricate network of unpleasant narrow roads, together with a congestion of small but not at all compact houses lacking in proper light and ventilation, made the place an unplanned hodge-podge. For the start of their program, the Government, taking up a plan to remake such quarters existing in the six largest cities (Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya, Kyoto, Kobe and Yokohama) and in the rural districts contiguous to them, enacted in March 1927, the Insanitary Dwelling Site Improvement Law which was enforced in the same year. Subsidies granted to local governments from the national treasury for this purpose amounted to ¥3,200,000 in 1927-1935. The work is to be continued till 1943 with a subsidy amounting to ¥1,707,685.

Public Lodgings Single working men, unemployed persons and the like, as a rule, sleep in imperfectly-equipped doss-houses or cheap lodgings, or live with others. In 1925, there were 8,873 doss-houses with 92,861 monthly sojourners who had families, 200,518 single persons and 208,775 one-night lodgers, amounting to 502,154 persons in all. This situation was not at all desirable viewed from any angle, and the preparation of cheap yet healthy public lodging-houses seemed an urgent need for the welfare of laborers and the like. The number of such lodgings in March 1937, was 155, with 3,599,897 one-night lodgers in 1936-37. Of the total number of lodgings 66 were free, the rest charging from 5 to 55 sen a night.

Public Markets The public markets are retail markets managed by public bodies or public welfare organizations having as their aim a cheap supply of food-stuffs and other daily necessities. According to the investigation made in November 1921, by the Bureau of Social Affairs, the average cost of food-stuffs of poor families in the city of Tokyo was 54.7% of their total living expenses. In August 1918 a rice riot, which was started by poor housewives at a small village of Toyama prefecture, spread over the country like a prairie fire. The situation awakened Imperial solicitude, and ¥3,000,000 was granted for relief from the Privy Purse. The Government also provided ¥10,000,000, and the amount of contributions by wealthy men and benevolent persons reached ¥25,000,000. This money was used in giving rice to the poor in the country and in opening establishments where rice was sold at lower prices. In December of the same year, the Government issued a note encouraging the establishment of public markets, and made loans available at a low rate of interest for the necessary expenses in establishing such markets. In March 1937, there were 328 such markets and sales for the fiscal year 1936-37 amounted to ¥54,124,248.

Lunch Rooms The object of the people's lunch rooms, whether attached to a public lodging-house or independent, is to provide laborers, small-salaried men and the like with simple, wholesome and sanitary meals at cheap rates. In March 1937, there were 65 of these people's lunch rooms, most of them managed by public bodies and located in cities and towns, with 9,858,749 meals taken in 1936-37. Each meal cost from 7 to 25 sen, and the total amount paid by customers reached ¥1,054,573.

Public Baths Japanese people greatly enjoy their baths, but only a small proportion of them can afford private baths. The majority have to utilize public baths. Moreover, it is not very infrequently the case that people take fewer baths than they require as the bath-charges are not low enough. Herein lies the need of sanitary, well-equipped, cheap or free public baths. The number of public baths in March 1937, was 177, patronized by 22,021,427 bathers in a year, and total charges reached ¥245,216.

Public Pawnshops The pawnshop and

the money-lender are utilized by people of small means as a simple and popular means of monetary circulation. The Public Pawnshop Law, promulgated in 1927, regulated managing bodies subsidies of 50 per cent of equipment expenses from the national treasury, loans, computation of interest and term of pledge. The financial depression throughout the urban and rural districts had caused unprecedented tightness of money among the salaried men, laborers and farmers of smaller means, and the need for public pawnshops has become more acute.

The number of public pawnshops which was only 71 at the time of the enactment of the Public Pawnshop Law, has increased every year since and reached 1,118, at the end of April 1937. Since the economic crisis of 1932, money has become tight in the rural

districts, so that the Government has been making special efforts to establish pawnshops in those districts.

However, when the above mentioned number of public pawnshops is compared with that of private pawnshops which numbered 12,585 at the end of 1935, the former is still lagging far behind. In view of this the Government is determined to make further efforts for their establishment.

In examining the number of people who are benefiting from the use of pawnshops, classified according to occupation, it is found that laborers are greatest, followed by small retailers, small-scale manufacturers, farmers, salaried men and fishermen in the order named. It will be specially noted that the member of fishermen and farmers has increased conspicuously since 1932.

PAWNERS AT THE PUBLIC PAWNSHOPS

	Pawn-shops	Labor-ers	Pawners				Farm-ers	Fisher-men	Others	Total
			Salaried men	Small Industrialists	Mer-chants	Small				
1931-32	314	393,762	112,888	129,556	229,502	77,590	44,976	176,101	1,164,375	
1932-33	510	465,012	139,498	151,957	293,249	90,091	48,486	237,707	1,432,000	
1933-34	765	567,355	154,810	200,600	394,526	142,487	86,904	311,070	1,857,812	
1934-35	999	709,782	182,742	258,423	500,101	207,571	118,473	404,270	2,381,362	
1935-36	1,079	876,966	209,984	294,519	608,453	254,466	146,809	487,403	2,878,600	
1936-37	1,118	965,741	234,561	299,361	627,880	262,422	140,466	509,466	3,039,853	

STANDING LOANS OF THE PUBLIC PAWNSHOPS

	Pawnshops	Number of Loans	Amount of Loans	Average	Standing	Amount of
				Amount per Loan	Loans at the End of the Fiscal Year	Amount of
			(In yen)	(In yen)	(In yen)	(In yen)
1931-32	314	1,433,020	7,242,398	¥5.05		3,675,878
1932-33	510	1,731,476	8,475,092	4.89		4,031,242
1933-34	765	2,254,220	11,796,763	5.23		5,248,027
1934-35	999	2,900,872	15,690,231	5.41		8,213,794
1935-36	1,079	3,497,487	19,189,167	5.49		8,800,083
1936-37	1,118	3,726,077	21,519,171	5.78		10,166,188

Protection of Unemployed

Employment Exchanges There have been from olden times private employment exchanges called "Kelan" or "Kuchireya" conducted by individuals. But there were no free exchanges until 1901, when in Hongo Ward of the city of Tokyo there was established a free lodging-house for low class laborers and the unemployed, and along with this charitable work the first private free employment exchange was founded for

the lodgers in 1906. The earliest public employment exchanges were established in Tokyo in 1911. At the close of the Great War the Home Office felt the urgent necessity of extending and developing the employment exchanges in order to meet the needs of the time. In 1920, the Office put into circulation a low interest loan for the establishment of employment exchanges to cope with the demands caused by an extreme business depression. And in June of the same year, the Home Office, in order to

systematize the work of employment exchanges, took charge of all the affairs relating to them, and in order to extend, unite and develop them, allowed the Kyocho-kai to start a central managing office of all the employment exchanges in the country.

(a) Employment Exchange Law. Complying with the general demand, the Employment Exchange Law was issued in 1921. According to this Act, employment exchanges are, in principle, public organizations. They are voluntarily established and conducted by the heads of cities or towns, but in some instances the Home Minister gives orders for their establishment in places where he thinks the conditions demand them. The National Government subsidizes them to the extent of one-half of the expenses for buildings and equipment at the beginning, and one-sixth or less of other expenses. One Central and several Local Employment Exchange Bureaux have been founded for the employment exchanges in the country, and the work is under the supervision of the Home Minister and the Directors of these Bureaux. A standing committee is established to direct the management of the exchanges. There may also be established private free employment exchanges with the permission of the administrative authorities, and the aid afforded by all these employment exchanges must be free of charge.

After the enforcement of this Law, in November 1922, the convention relating to unemployment, adopted by the First International Labor Conference at Washington, was ratified and published for the encouragement of this kind of work. In addition to the provision above mentioned, the Regulations for Enforcement of the Employment Exchange Law were revised, in 1924, in order to systematize the connections among employment exchanges, and there were also newly-introduced regulations for the establishment of seasonal-employment exchanges, and of employment exchange committees in cities and towns for the promotion of this work. It is true that there are still a great many employment exchanges run for profit, but owing to the increase and improvement of public employment exchanges they are gradually decreasing. And to conform with a resolution adopted at the Washington Conference of 1919, the National Government enforced from the 1st of January, 1927, Regulations for the

Control of Employment Exchanges for Profit.

In 1936 an improvement was made in the administrative organization concerning employment exchange and a subsidy was granted, as a piece of relief work, for the establishment of facilities for training the unemployed.

In view of the results obtained so far since the enactment of the laws in connection with employment exchanges the Revised Employment Exchange Law was passed at the 69th Session of the Diet in 1936, and put in force as from September of the same year.

Important points of the revision are as follows: (1) According to the old system co-ordination, control and supervision of the work was in the hands of the central and local employment exchange bureaux, seven in all, but this has now been transferred to the Home Minister and prefectural governors. Under the old system the director of the Employment Exchange Bureau had the power to supervise employment exchange business alone, but did not possess the authority in general over cities, towns and villages which are the principal managing bodies of labor exchanges, so his activity was very limited. On the other hand emergency work for the relief of the unemployed, industrial training or handicraft directing work, supervision of employment agencies run for profit, supervision of recruiting laborers, and emigration which are directly connected with employment exchange work, were under the supervision of the prefectural governors. It was therefore thought advisable to transfer the supervision of employment exchanges to the prefectural governors, and thereby develop the work of employment exchanges in co-ordination with the affiliated works just mentioned.

(2) In the past, the principal managing bodies have been, as a rule, cities, towns and villages. But the new Act has made it possible for prefectures to act in that capacity, thus doing away with any financial difficulty and making the selection of suitable locations for the employment exchange offices easier and better for further promotion of the work in all parts of the country.

(3) The revised Act makes those who intend to employ laborers en masse notify prefectural governors as to the items necessary for employment. This has been an entirely new addition, and

is intended to enable prefectural governors to have ready knowledge as to the demands on labor. This provision applies to an employer who intends to employ more than 30 laborers at one time and makes him advise prefectural governors as to the sex, kinds of industry and the number of laborers required.

It is proposed, however, that since the employment exchanges are nationwide they should come under the direct control of the State, and in the 69th

session of the Diet the House of Peers passed the Revised Employment Exchange Law with an additional clause of request for the State control of the work. The question remains for future study.

Conditions of the Work The number of employment exchanges which was 135 in 1923 when the Employment Exchange Bureau was established had increased to 745 in November 1937, of which 717 were public, 28 were private (non-commercial).

EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE

	1929	1933	1935	1936	1937	1938
General						
Situations vacant	720,521	1,451,998	1,917,983	2,297,211	2,804,162	2,930,714
Situations sought	882,491	1,528,291	1,679,508	1,778,145	2,092,348	2,048,192
Situations filled	263,669	663,315	741,642	812,327	966,141	971,083
Day-laborers						
Men wanted	3,015,195	16,897,143	12,988,711	12,561,136	10,595,992	9,177,964
Jobs wanted	3,473,237	20,124,272	14,463,730	13,666,837	11,102,930	8,921,099
Day's work secured	3,010,280	16,779,159	12,867,295	12,270,660	10,196,061	8,391,599

Note: The table does not include private profit employment exchanges the number of which was 1,762, the number of men wanted was 882,660, jobs wanted 500,020 and work secured through them 435,213 in 1938.

Emergency Enterprises for the Unemployed Among the measures taken for the relief of unemployment, the civil engineering work begun in 1925 was the most important. Among others, the establishment of Business Training Institutes for the unemployed began in 1936.

The civil engineering work was first undertaken by public bodies affiliated with the 6 largest cities in the country, the bodies and scope of the work have since gradually widened. The Government has, also, since 1932, directly been undertaking civil engineering work, reclamation work, the adjustment of farm-

lands, munition industries, etc., and has been encouraging large cities where unemployed laborers swarm, to increase enterprises for their relief by granting subsidies or advancing money at low rates of interest. Since 1929 the relief of the low-salaried class has been carried out in the 6 largest cities, and prefectures in which they are located, by giving them work on statistics, investigations, or adjustment of written matters or documents, one-half of the expenses being borne by the State. In the next table a summary of the relief work conducted in the last 3 years is given:

UNEMPLOYMENT RELIEF ENTERPRISES IN 1935-1938

(Subsidized ones only)

Fiscal Year	Kinds of Enterprises	Expenses in Yen	Wages in Yen	Aggregate Number of Work-days
1935-36	Enterprises for ordinary laborers	15,378,527	4,710,145	3,472,024
	For low salaried class	1,499,193	1,385,942	1,130,929
	Total	16,877,720	6,096,087	4,602,953
1936-37	Enterprises for ordinary laborers	22,337,792	6,756,870	4,726,950
	For low salaried class	1,302,695	1,161,473	937,273
	Total	23,640,487	7,918,343	5,664,223

Fiscal Year	Kinds of Enterprises	Expenses in Yen	Wages in Yen	Aggregate Number of Work-days
1937-38	Enterprises for ordinary laborers	11,767,972	3,855,330	2,583,658
	For low salaried class	1,133,372	1,004,596	758,738
	Total	12,901,344	4,859,926	3,342,396

As to the encouragement of the business training of the unemployed which was started in 1936 the Government

bears one-half of the expenses required for the institutes.

BUSINESS TRAINING INSTITUTES FOR THE UNEMPLOYED

(1937-38)

Manager	Number of Institutes	Capacity	Expenses	Subsidy Required	Number of Fully Trained
Tokyo city	2	160	13,209	5,605	86
Kyoto city	1	60	5,279	2,640	32
Osaka prefecture	2	80	6,260	3,130	40
Osaka city	1	120	8,460	4,230	63
Kanagawa prefecture	2	120	8,543	4,542	100
Yokohama city	1	60	5,175	2,592	44
Nagoya city	1	50	1,449	725	14
Kobe city	2	120	9,103	4,510	40
Fukuoka prefecture	1	100	8,502	2,751	20
Total	13	870	65,980	30,724	439

Poor Relief

General Poor Relief The Regulations for Relief of the Poor were promulgated as early as 1874. The revised Relief Law was promulgated on April 2, 1924 and was put in force on January 1, 1933. The regulations maintain the old spirit of mutual help among relatives and neighbors and, at the same time, emphasize social solidarity and public responsibility of relieving impoverished people. Those who are relieved by the law are old poor people above 65, helpless juveniles under 13, pregnant poor women, helpless invalids and cripples, those who are handicapped by sickness, wounds or mental disorders, and poor mothers who are nursing infants under

one year of age.

The period of relief should generally be for as long as it is required, but sometimes, especially when the case is taken up by a Block Committee, it is fixed, for example, at three or four weeks. The method of relief is of two kinds, indoor and outdoor, and as for the former, such large cities as Tokyo or Yokohama have their own homes or other relief institutions, otherwise the smaller municipalities entrust the relief of the poor to those orphanages, asylums or charity hospitals which are managed by private persons or organizations.

The results of the operation of this Act since 1933 are given in the following table:

RESULTS OF RELIEF WORK

(Units 1,000 people and ¥1,000)

Kinds of relief	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Living cost:					
(1) Number of the relieved	176.8	185.9	166.7	190.0	190.1
(2) Expenses defrayed	4,548.1	5,055.9	4,577.3	5,414.2	5,625.1
Medical treatment:					
(1) Number of persons	33.1	34.7	49.6	32.9	35.7
(2) Expenses defrayed	608.4	738.6	1,288.3	757.2	786.7

Kinds of relief	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Maternity cases:					
(1) Number of women	3.2	2.4	2.3	1.5	1.2
(2) Expenses defrayed	14.8	11.1	12.9	7.0	5.7
Help for working:					
(1) Number of persons	0.4	0.5	0.9	0.4	0.4
(2) Expenses defrayed	5.0	4.7	15.8	4.6	5.8
Total					
(1) Persons	213.5	223.5	219.7	225.0	236.5
(2) Expenses defrayed	5,176.2	5,810.3	5,894.5	6,183.1	6,423.4

Special Poor Relief Special poor relief, as against general poor relief, includes: Proper attention for those found sick, dying or dead by the roadside, and relief of sufferers from natural calamities.

Regulations now in force, issued in 1899, aim at relieving those people who are found sick on the road, the disposal of dead bodies, and care of the children who are with them. The heads of the cities or towns where they are found must apply to the prefectures concerned for authority to take charge of them in case there are no relations on whom they can depend. The expenses for their relief, if not met by those who are relieved themselves or their supporters, must be defrayed by the prefectures concerned, and they may be handed over to public or private institutions for further help. There is no limit of time fixed for their relief. In 1935-36, there were 8,030 persons found sick and the money expended for their care amounted to ¥667,194, and 4,515 deaths cared for with an expenditure of ¥58,765.

Calamity Relief Japan suffers particularly from natural calamities owing to its climate and volcanic activities. To relieve the sufferers from these calamities, the Natural Calamities Relief Fund Law and Sea Disaster Relief Fund Law were issued in 1899.

In April 1937, the total of the Natural Calamities Relief Fund amounted to ¥89,974,968, and, if Okinawa prefecture and Hokkaido were excepted, the average fund for each prefecture reached ¥1,980,000. Though particular items for which the fund is expended differ and change according to the nature of calamities, the largest amount of the fund is expended on food, shelters, and for business funds. The money expended for the relief amounted to ¥3,716,071 in 1934, ¥753,211 in 1935 and ¥246,865 in 1936.

The annual number of marine dis-

asters off the coasts of Japan is over 1,000, and the average number of persons killed, injured or missing in these disasters reaches 600 or 700 a year. For the relief of these persons, the Sea Disaster Relief Law was issued in 1899, by the terms of which the heads of municipalities are invested with certain powers to give relief at the expense of the captain or owner of the ship concerned, but in case the money is not refunded by the captain or owner, or the relief proves insufficient, the expense incurred is paid by the National Government.

Military Relief The Military Relief Act has been in force since January of 1918, a part of it being revised in March 1931. It aims to give relief at State expense to those non-commissioned officers and men who are injured or suffer illness in war or during their term of service, and are, on that account, dismissed from the services, or to their families or the bereaved; to the families of soldiers and sailors who are called up for service; and to the bereaved of those soldiers and sailors who die of injuries or during their service if they find it difficult to get a living.

The relief, given under this Act, has greatly increased in recent years owing to the economic depression, the effects of the Manchurian Campaign and the China Affair. In 1938, the Board for the Protection of Wounded Soldiers was established as was mentioned at the end of Chapter XXX, the Japan Year Book, 1939-40.

MILITARY RELIEF 1931-1937

	Number of Persons Relieved	Amount (In yen)
1931-32	71,643	1,731,614
1932-33	90,023	2,427,496
1933-34	98,905	2,702,935
1934-35	105,772	2,809,248
1935-36	111,533	2,897,665
1936-37	117,943	2,968,839

Health Protection

From very long ago, the Imperial Household has paid attention to the care of the sick. Hospitals for the Poor were established in 593, by Prince Shotoku. The present Saisei-Kai, a foundational juridical person, established by the wish of the Emperor Meiji to give medical treatment to the poor, continues the work of these ancient hospitals.

Free Medical Treatment There are many organizations which give free medical treatment, hospitals, medical consultation offices, visiting treatment societies, visiting nursing societies, etc. The Government decided to extend the work to farm-villages and fishing communities with ¥6,000,000, a part of which was donated by the Imperial House. There were 191 public hospitals and 570 smaller branch hospitals or medical clinics, according to the statistics of 1936-37. The cases treated numbered 1,163,863.

Sanatoria, Asylums and Special Hospitals There is to be found a regulation concerning mental disease in the Taiho Laws issued in 701. But the number of sufferers increased in direct proportion to the advancement of civilization. Statistics record the fact that at the end of 1912 there were 32,964 insane persons, by the end of 1922 the figure had risen to 50,891, and in March 1937 it stood at 86,047, an increase of 2,682 as compared with the preceding year, the ratio being 12.25 in every 10,000 of the population, an increase of 0.21 as compared with the preceding year.

(a) Laws and regulations concerning insane persons. The Law for the Custody of Insane Persons was enacted in 1900, with the object of protecting the public from harm at their hands. It provides for the appointment of a responsible person to take an insane person under his custody, and if necessary, by the approval of the prefectural governor, to confine the said insane person. The expenses, according to this law, shall be borne by the estate of the insane persons or by responsible persons, as the case may be, and in case any insane person protected by the order of the head of a municipality is unable to reimburse the money advanced by the municipality, the prefecture shall bear the expenses.

The Insane Asylums Law, which may be taken as a sub-division of the previ-

ous one, gives power to the competent Minister to order and bring prefectures, if necessary, under obligation to establish insane asylums or hospitals (Art. 1), and makes provisions concerning the State subsidy.

(b) Present condition of insane asylums and hospitals. At the end of June 1938 there were 7 public hospitals for the insane and 72 private asylums. There were 5,800 inpatients in these hospitals and asylums.

(c) Tuberculosis. It is almost impossible to get the exact number of cases of tuberculosis in this country, but the ratio of patients per 1,000 of the examined in accordance with the provisions of the Law for the Prevention of Tuberculosis was 0.26, a decrease of 0.05 as compared with the previous year. In 1936, 107,157 died from pulmonary tuberculosis, that is 87.1 in every 1,000 deaths, the highest ratio for five years. The Government issued regulations in 1914 for the establishment of tuberculosis sanatoria in cities of more than 30,000 population, and regulated the State subsidy thereto. The present Tuberculosis Prevention Law was enacted in 1910. In 1935-36 there were 36 sanatoria with 9,215 patients. In 1939, H. I. M. the Empress donated a large sum of money for the relief of the patients.

(d) Leprosy. For the prevention of leprosy, the Leprosy Prevention Law was issued in 1908. By this law, aid for indigent lepers out of public funds, the order of the competent Minister for the establishment of leper-asylums by united prefectures, or the use of private ones in lieu of public ones and other such matters are provided for. The whole country, in conformity with this law, was divided into five Divisions. Besides 9 public leper-asylums, there are 8 private ones. The Koyama Fukusei In, established by the Roman Catholic Church in Shizuoka prefecture, the Iha! En in Tokyo prefecture, the famous Kumamoto Kaishun Byoin founded by an English lady, Miss Riddell, and the Tairo In in Kumamoto prefecture have done valuable work for many years, being managed by Christian missionaries. In 1930, H. I. M. the Empress Dowager donated a large sum of money for the work. In 1935-36, there were 18 leper-asylums, 4 of which established by the Government and 5 by public bodies, with 6,650 patients. (See Chapter XXXI on these subjects.)

Other Social Work

There are other social work not mentioned in this chapter such as social cultural work, social reform work (abolition of the licensed prostitution system, prohibition of smoking among young people, temperance movement), the National Spiritual Mobilization movement, naturalization of Koreans, various

protective work for discharged prisoners and juvenile offenders (mentioned in Chapter XXVII) and social works in overseas territories (mentioned in chapters on those territories).

Social reform is carried on by the National Temperance League of Japan, the Japan Woman's Christian Temperance Union and other temperance associations.

STATISTICAL TABLE OF SOCIAL WORK IN JAPAN

(Compiled by the Ministry of Welfare)

(Fiscal Year 1936-37)

Name	Organization or Institution	Property and Funds	Expenditure
Organs	3,520	¥79,926,548	¥8,684,633
Unifying organizations	59	5,225,098	1,714,908
Investigation organs	34	850	1,204
Educational organs	3	—	—
Supplementary organs	24	70,226,688	4,033,374
Block committees	80	—	1,396,830
Backing organs of the block committees	3,320	4,473,912	1,538,317
Child protection	1,085	14,089,664	4,213,225
Protection of pregnant women (Midwives)	405	27,926	146,240
(Hospitals)	40	1,775,720	867,203
Protection of suckling infants	29	334,796	75,113
Day-nurseries	883	3,379,915	1,017,925
Orphanages	115	12,779,529	1,087,208
Child consultation	152	163,753	133,711
Protection of cripples	2	28,320	7,765
Protection of weak children	9	2,067,658	314,847
Protection of sick children	18	33,670	37,146
Protection of maltreated children	6	33,275	76,869
Education of poor children	40	589,199	119,722
Schools for nursemaids	15	35,942	7,681
Education of working children	10	85,853	11,399
Reformatory education	58	—	805,077
Reformatory protection	32	105,128	52,746
Temporary protection of children	1	113,493	—
Protection of abnormal children	9	892,314	179,135
Stammer correction	4	62,637	22,948
Economic protection	2,430	—	—
Housing work	642	—	—
Common inns	155	—	—
Public markets	208	—	—
Cheap dining rooms	64	—	—
Public baths	177	—	—
Public pawnshops	1,124	—	—
Relief and prevention of unemployment	819	1,877,053	3,072,857
Giving work	72	1,807,053	1,257,834
Employment exchanges	745	—	1,799,577
Vocational guidance	2	70,000	15,446
Poor relief	654	36,818,132	3,639,621
Relief at home	219	4,129,212	360,169
Relief in institutions	152	11,453,769	1,440,315
Protection of cripples and invalids	33	2,367,855	292,841

Name	Organization or Institution	Property and Funds	Expenditure
Protection of the bereaved families of soldiers	250	18,867,296	1,546,296
Medical treatment	949	41,777,140	13,514,409
Charity hospitals	191	31,884,785	8,957,145
Consultation rooms	570	4,240,743	1,760,967
Cared at private hospitals	62	55,062	114,382
Insane hospitals	56	1,117,967	484,620
Tuberculosis sanatoria	51	3,213,708	1,367,661
Leper homes	19	1,264,875	829,634
Miscellaneous	619	106,589,633	24,573,819
Settlement work	189	6,283,515	1,207,761
Consultation bureaux	159	65,818	23,477
Protection of women	27	668,309	182,566
Mother and child protection	15	69,334	23,822
Father and child protection	2	—	1,769
Visiting sick people	12	52,076	39,646
Hygienic education	89	2,334,988	1,092,967
Funeral aid	5	94,235	35,705
Other work	121	97,021,358	21,966,106
Grand Total	10,676	289,379,141	58,448,074

Note:—Figures for property and funds and expenditure are mostly for 1935-36.

Workers and Results

(1935-36)

Organs	Name	Results (Cases, etc.)	Workers
		(Cases) 6,767,817	41,711
		(Students) 94	—
Unifying organizations		—	429
Investigation organs		—	36
Educational organs	(Students)	94	45
Supplementary organs		—	124
Block committees	(Cases)	6,767,817	41,077
Backing organs of the block committees		—	—
Child protection	(Cases)	444,232	5,764
		36,347	—
		7,303	493
Protection of pregnant women	(Cases)	25,512	—
(Midwives)		56,300	469
(Hospitals)		120,818	142
Protection of suckling infants		66,303	2,356
Day-nurseries		1,710	834
Orphanages	(Cases)	161,508	306
Child consultation		53	8
Protection of cripples		1,522	96
Protection of weak children	(Cases)	1,773,603	—
		12,740	78
Protection of sick children		111	29
Protection of maltreated children	(Cases)	3,831	—
		6,165	240
Education of poor children		351	46
Schools for nursemaids		615	69
Education of working children		2,841	509
Reformatory education		—	—
Reformatory protection		507	10
Temporary protection of children		306	57
Protection of abnormal children		5,079	17
Stammer correction		33,500	—
Economic protection	(Houses)	—	—

Name	Results (Cases, etc.)	Workers
	(Houses) 33,354,248	—
	(Sales) ¥54,354,432	—
	(Loans) ¥15,536,332	—
Housing work	(Houses) 33,500	—
Common inns	(Cases) 3,686,593	—
Public markets	(Sales) ¥54,354,432	—
Cheap dining rooms	(Cases) 10,246,608	—
Public baths	(Cases) 19,421,047	—
Public pawnshops	(Loans) ¥15,536,332	—
Relief and prevention of unemployment	(Hired) 672,460	2,678
	(Cases) 14,371,329	—
Giving work		—
Employment exchanges	(Hired) 12,769	303
Vocational guidance	(Cases) 672,460	2,363
Vocational guidance	(Cases) 14,371,329	—
Poor relief		12
	154	—
Relief at home	(Cases) 283,138	1,393
Relief in institutions		233
	15,818	—
Protection of cripples and invalids		852
	9,764	—
Protection of the bereaved families of soldiers		179
	5,025	—
Medical treatment		129
	254,371	—
Charity hospitals		14,886
	2,695,730	—
Consultation rooms		8,637
	1,826,626	—
Cared at private hospitals		4,316
	814,811	—
Insane hospitals		393
	29,627	—
Tuberculosis sanatoria		809
	9,792	—
Leper homes		730
	9,215	—
Miscellaneous	(Offices) 6,659	271
	(Cases) 4,673	2,938
Settlement work	(Cases) 71,785	—
Consultation bureaux		—
Protection of women	(Rooms) 43,446	190
		102
	3,434	—
Mother and child protection		—
	23,042	—
Father and child protection		35
	1,130	—
Visiting sick people		6
	109	—
Hygienic education		38
	—	—
Funeral aid	(Cases) —	35
Other work	(Cases) 5,281	15
		2,517
	3,440,696	69,370
Grand Total	(Cases) 57,109,593	—
	(Houses) 33,500	—
	(Sales) ¥54,354,432	—
	(Loans) ¥15,536,332	—

CHAPTER XXXI

MEDICINE AND SANITATION

Sanitary affairs of the country were placed under the supervision of the Sanitary Bureau, Home Ministry, until 1938 when the Bureau was transferred to the new Welfare Ministry, and the business which had been carried on by the former Sanitary Bureau are divided into 3 Bureaus in the Welfare Ministry, i.e. the Physical Power Bureau, the Sanitary Bureau and the Disease Prevention Bureau.

Health Preservation Work

Control of Foods and Beverages
Milk In the following table are given

the quantities of milk produced during 1938:—

MILK	
Milk plants	6,377
	*43
Number of milk-cows	117,207
	*796
Quantity of milk produced	288,835,131 (Liters)
	*2,379,564
Quantity of milk handled	178,948,530
	*2,105,262

Note:—* Refers to special milk.

GOAT MILK

	1938	Compared with 1937 (Liters)
Number of goat-milk dairies	634	20 (incr.)
Number of milk-goats	6,272	210 (decr.)
Quantity of goat's milk produced	3,338,651	1,762,885 (incr.)

MILK-PRODUCTS

	1938 (kg.)	Compared with the preceding year (kg.)
Condensed milk	17,216,073	6,517,385 (decr.)
Unsweetened condensed milk	5,942,153	33,070 (incr.)
Condensed skimmed milk	4,580,576	1,922,696 (incr.)
Powdered milk	1,254,061	359,415 (incr.)
Unsweetened powdered milk	885,185	628,922 (incr.)
Powdered skimmed milk	159,832	122,913 (incr.)
Butter	5,088,299	1,495,625 (incr.)

Snow and Ice The number of traders in snow and ice (those who gather and sell natural ice, and those who manufacture ice artificially and sell it for the purpose of consumption) at the

end of 1938 and the quantity of snow and ice gathered and manufactured during the year compared with the figures for the preceding year are given in the following table:—

	1938	Compared with 1937
Traders in snow and ice	1,648 persons	12 (incr.)
Artificial ice	2,520,620,982 kg.	178,418,137 (decr.)
Natural ice	146,070,972 "	86,779,907 (incr.)
Snow	234,768 "	80,016 (incr.)

Non-alcoholic Drinks The number of manufacturers of non-alcoholic drinks at the end of 1938 was 3,431 showing an increase of 84 over the preceding year.

	1938	Compared with 1937
Mineral water and plain soda water	697	29 (incr.)
Ramuné	1,754	81 (decr.)
Cider	1,502	40 (decr.)
Lemonade (including fruit water, peppermint water and cinnamon bark juice)	2,002	44 (incr.)
Fruit juice, syrup and others	1,602	29 (decr.)
Acid drinks made from milk or milk-products	234	4 (incr.)

The following table gives the quantity of non-alcoholic drinks manufactured in 1938:

	1938 (Liters)	Compared with the preceding year
Mineral water and plain soda water	14,726,408	6,838,436 (incr.)
Ramuné	45,510,858	1,766,011 (")
Cider	102,287,296	50,109,923 (")
Lemonade (including fruit water, peppermint and cinnamon bark juice)	19,174,621	688,326 (")
Fruit juice, syrup and others	18,890,332	1,216,811 (")
Acid drinks made from milk or milk-products	31,442,179	28,489,198 (")
Total	232,031,694	88,904,705 (")

Waterworks During the year from April 1938 to March 1939, sanction was given for the construction of waterworks in 9 localities.

Undertaken by	No. of Water-works to be constructed	No. of Waterworks Completed
Public bodies	529	489
Associations	8	7
Private parties	115	108
Total	652	604

On April 1, 1938, there were 657 waterworks in operation.
(See Chapter XX, Public Utilities.)

Sewerage During the year 1937, permission to construct sewers was given to three places, namely; Seto city, Aichi prefecture, Himeji city and Sumiyoshi village, Hyogo prefecture.

On April 1, 1938, the places which had already obtained permission to construct sewers were 49 places, consisting of 41 cities, 6 towns and 2 villages.

Slaughter-houses The total number of

slaughter-houses at the end of 1938 was 721, of which 105 were established by cities, 381 by towns and villages, 51 by livestock raisers or industrial associations, 184 by private individuals.

Slaughtering The number of animals of various kinds slaughtered in 1938 for food purpose and its comparison with the figures for the preceding year are given here (those slaughtered in emergencies or for household use are not included):

Kind of Animals	No. of head slaughtered in 1938	Compared with 1937
Cattle	366,692 head	21,307 (incr.)
Calves	35,182 "	8,479 (decr.)
Sheep	2,860 "	326 (incr.)
Goats	6,840 "	2,633 (")
Pigs	1,175,673 "	46,576 (decr.)
Horses	39,587 "	31,840 (")

The following table gives the weight of meat yielded in 1938 by the slaughtered animals and a comparison of the yield with that of the preceding year:

	Total Weight		Average Weight Per Head	
	1938 kg.	Compared with 1937 kg.	1938 kg.	Compared with 1937 kg.
Cattle	69,416,192	4,893,070 (incr.)	189.30	2.48 (incr.)
Calves	1,649,141	988,488 (decr.)	46.87	13.77 (decr.)
Sheep	52,633	5,706 (incr.)	18.40	0.12 (decr.)
Goats	79,382	35,728 (incr.)	11.61	1.23 (incr.)
Pigs	59,262,653	780,096 (decr.)	50.41	1.29 (incr.)
Horses	5,675,371	4,821,760 (decr.)	143.36	3.60 (decr.)

Inspection of Imported Meat The total amount of meat imported in 1938 at the ports of Yokohama, Tsuruga, Osaka, Kobe, Ujina, Shimonoseki, Moji, Nagasaki and Izuhara was 8,081,360 kilograms, of which 160 kilograms were condemned. Compared with the preceding year, the amount of meat inspected decreased by 5,005,124 kilograms, and condemned meat by 3,359 kilograms. Classified by the kinds of meat, it was as follows:

	Weight of meat inspected (in kg.)	Weight of meat condemned (in kg.)	Ratio of condemned meat (%)
Fresh beef	148,756	—	—
Chilled beef	3,558,531	—	—
Frozen beef	4,044,588	110	0.02
Mutton	15,813	—	—
Pork	313,512	50	0.01
Total	8,081,360	160	0.01

Poisoning The total number of persons poisoned in 1938 was 10,380 (a decrease of 2,284 on the preceding year), of which 5,060 (48.67 per cent) were poisoned intentionally, 5,298 (51.04 per cent) by accident and 22 (0.21 per cent) through other's injuries; and of these persons poisoned 2,476 died, of which 2,134 were those poisoned intentionally, 329 those poisoned by accident, and 13 those poisoned by others, so that 87.81 per cent of those intentionally poisoned died, 13.28 per cent of those accidentally poisoned also died, and 0.50 per cent of those poisoned through

other's injuries also succumbed. Of poisonous substance the most frequently used in intentional poisoning and poisoning through other's injuries are chemicals, especially a preparation containing phosphorus; accidental poisoning is mostly due to eating poisonous animals, plants or putrefied food.

Burials and Cremations The total number of burial-grounds at the end of 1938 was 973,342 and their total area was 24,194 hectares, making the average area of burial-ground 0.02 hectare, and the total number of crematoria at the end of the same year was 34,487, in which 736,829 bodies were cremated during the year, so that a crematorium burnt on an average 21.37 bodies. In the same year 633,486 bodies were buried uncremated so that those cremated came to 53.77 per cent and those buried uncremated to 46.23 per cent of the total number of burials, which, when compared with the percentage for the preceding year showed an increase of 0.01 per cent in those cremated.

Insane Persons The total number of insane persons at the end of 1938 was 90,610, showing a decrease of 385 from the preceding year. Its ratio to the population of the country in that year was 12.55 per 10,000, which, compared with the preceding year, shows a decrease of 0.22.

Tuberculosis The following table shows the results of health examinations conducted in 1938 by the prefectural governments, in accordance with the provision of Art. IV, Clause 1 of the Law for the Prevention of Tuberculosis:

	1938	Compared with the preceding year
Estimated number of persons requiring health examination	1,759,210	163,200 (incr.)
Number of persons examined	1,322,977	70,863 (")
Number of persons diagnosed as tuber-	*85,517	*12,164 (")

	1938	Compared with the preceding year
Ratio of the patients per 1,000 of the examined	516	85 (decr.)
Number of persons ordered to suspend from work	0.37	0.08 (")
	61	29 (")

Note:—The figures marked with an asterisk are those for whom more than two examinations were made.

Trachoma The following table shows the results of examinations conducted by the prefectural governments during 1938, in accordance with provision of Art. IV, Clause 1 of the Law for the Prevention of Trachoma:

	1938	Compared with Preceding Year
Number of persons examined	5,790,199	732,355 (decr.)
Number of trachoma cases:	*368,222	*335,560 (")
Severe cases	33,203	6,250 (")
Mild cases	340,977	68,518 (")
Suspected cases	114,125	9,424 (")
Total	488,305	84,192 (")
Ratio of cases per 100 persons examined	7.93	0.01 (incr.)
Number of patients ordered to refrain from work	64	143 (decr.)

Note:—The figures marked with an asterisk are those for whom more than two examinations were made.

Health Examination of Prostitutes The prostitute quarters actually existing at the end of 1938 (the term prostitute quarters does not here and hereinafter necessarily mean segregated quarters, but is also intended for convenience's sake to include all places where licensed prostitutes have been permitted to carry on their trade) numbered 377, being a decrease of 15 from the preceding year. The daily average during the year of licensed prostitutes in these quarters was 42,624, showing a decrease of 2,284 from the preceding year.

The number of health-examination stations for these prostitutes was 348, showing a decrease of 20 from the preceding year, and the total number of examinations made in these stations was 2,648,680, showing a decrease of 121,747 from the preceding year, and in 74,220 cases the prostitutes were found diseased. The ratio of cases of diseases to the total number examined was 2.80 per cent, i.e. 0.65 per cent higher than in the preceding year. The number of hospitals for admitting these diseased prostitutes (including places for treatment lacking hospital accommodations) was 135, and the average number of times a prostitute was admitted

into hospital during the year was 1.74, showing an increase of 0.42 over the preceding year.

Cholera The total number of cases of cholera in 1938 was 18 with 11 deaths, showing a decrease of 39 cases and 9 deaths as compared with the preceding year. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 0.00 cases and deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing a decrease of 0.01 both in the number of cases and deaths as compared with the preceding year. Below are given prefectures where cases of cholera broke out:

Prefecture	Cases	Deaths	No. of cases per 10,000 inhabitants
Okayama	9	6	0.07
Hiroshima	6	3	0.03
Fukuoka	2	1	0.01
Nagoya	1	1	0.01

Of the above total number 9 cases broke out in urban districts, and it represents 50.00% of the total number for the whole country. There were 5 deaths therefrom. The rate of above cases and deaths to the urban popula-

tion was 0.00 in both cases and deaths to 10,000 inhabitants.

Dysentery, including Ekiri The total number of cases of dysentery in 1938 was 80,221 and there were 20,218 deaths therefrom which, when compared with the figures for the preceding year, shows an increase of 1,937 cases and 1,791 deaths. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 11.11 cases and 2.80 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.12 cases and 0.21 deaths.

Typhoid Fever The total number of cases of typhoid fever in 1938 was 42,132 with 7,076 deaths, showing an increase of 3,590 cases and 459 deaths compared with the preceding year. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 5.83 cases and 0.42 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.42 cases and 0.05 deaths.

The total number of cases of typhoid fever reported for urban districts only, during the year was 19,403 which corresponds to 46.05 per cent of the cases for the whole country. Of the above number, there were 3,542 deaths.

The ratios of these cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population was 7.48 and 1.37 respectively, showing, when compared with the preceding year, a decrease of 0.05 for cases and an increase of 0.03 for deaths.

Paratyphoid Fever The total number of cases of paratyphoid fever in 1938 was 6,117, of which 303 ended fatally, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, an increase of 1,637 cases and 11 deaths. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 8.05 cases and 0.04 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, which shows, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.22 cases while the death-rate remained unchanged.

The total number of cases of paratyphoid fever reported for urban districts only in 1938 was 2,808 which corresponds to 45.90 per cent of the total number of cases for the whole country, and the deaths therefrom numbered 141.

The ratios of cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population was 1.08 and

0.05 respectively, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.26 cases, but with no change in death-rate.

Smallpox In 1938 the total number of cases was 30 with 6 deaths. Compared with the figures of the preceding year, there was a decrease of 30 cases but no change for death. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the total population in the same year were 0.01 cases and 0.00 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants. The largest number of cases occurred in Saga prefecture, it being 28 cases with 2 deaths; in the other prefectures the number of cases was less than 8. (In 1937 there were 90 cases with 6 deaths). The total number of cases of smallpox in urban districts was 25 (3 deaths), corresponding to 41.67 per cent of the total number of cases for the whole country, and the ratio to 10,000 of urban population shows 0.01 cases and 0.00 deaths.

Typhus No cases of typhus occurred in 1938.

Scarlet Fever The total number of cases of scarlet fever in 1938 was 19,002 with 402 deaths, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures an increase of 1,399 cases and a decrease of 78 deaths.

The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 2.63 cases and 0.06 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants. When compared with the preceding year an increase of 0.16 case but a decrease of 0.01 death.

Diphtheria The total number of cases of diphtheria in 1938 was 28,426 with 3,853 deaths, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, an increase of 309 cases but a decrease of 206 deaths.

The proportion of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year was 3.94 cases and 0.54 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the preceding year, a decrease of 0.01 cases and 0.03 deaths.

Epidemic Cerebrospinal Meningitis The total number of cases of epidemic cerebrospinal meningitis in 1938 was 996, of which 528 ended fatally, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, an increase of 157 cases and 47 deaths. The proportion of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year was 0.14 cases and 0.07

deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing an increase of 0.02 cases over the preceding year, but with no change in death-rate.

Plague No cases of plague occurred in 1938.

Vaccination The total number of the 1st period vaccinations performed in 1938 was 2,079,919, of which 1,951,483 proved positive and 68,847 negative while 59,589 were not examined for the result of vaccinations. Compared with the figures of the preceding year, there was an increase of 48,087 in the total number of positive vaccinations, of 2,475 in negative vaccinations, and of 2,966 whose result was not examined.

The total number of the 2nd period vaccinations was 2,011,751, of which 1,194,173 proved positive, 785,497 negative while 32,081 were not examined of their result, showing, compared with the figures of the preceding year, an increase of 377 in the total number vaccinated, and a decrease of 20,976 in the positive takes, and an increase of 20,008 in the negative, and of 1,345 in the number of unexamined cases.

The special vaccinations were carried out in 1938 in 40 prefectures, including Tokyo, Kyoto, and Miyagi, and the total number of persons vaccinated thereby was 3,693,216.

Port Quarantine The total number of vessels inspected in 1938 by harbor offices of the Custom Houses and by temporary port quarantine stations was 19,852 Japanese vessels (with a total tonnage of 73,778,168) and 4,917 foreign vessels (with a total tonnage of 31,805,608), making a total of 24,769 vessels (with a total tonnage of 105,583,776). The total number of persons inspected was 2,144,765, of which ships' crews numbered 1,377,771 and passengers 766,994. Compared with the corresponding figures of the preceding year, the number of vessels decreased by 5,490 and that of crew and passengers 732,821. By these inspections were found 12 persons suffering from small-pox, 1 person from typhus and 51 from other notifiable infectious diseases, making a total of 64 cases. Compared with the preceding year, this shows a decrease of 29 cases.

Of the above mentioned vessels inspected, 375 vessels and 2,329 persons thereon were subjected to disinfection. When compared with the preceding year, there was an increase of 111 ves-

sels but a decrease of 3,448 persons. The vessels subjected to detention numbered 14, being a decrease of 79 when compared with the preceding year. The destruction of rats and insects was carried out on 1,269 vessels and 8,889 rats were caught, which, compared with the preceding year, shows a decrease of 162 in the number of vessels but an increase of 1,480 in that of rats.

Rabies In 1938, there was no case of rabies in men. The number of rabid dogs in 1938 was 4 reported in Tokyo and 2 in Hyogo prefecture showing an increase of 1 compared with the preceding year. (In 1938 there was no rabid animal other than dogs). The number of persons bitten by rabid dogs in 1938 was 5 in Tokyo and 11 in Hyogo prefecture, showing an increase of 13 over the preceding year. The number of persons who had preventive injection for rabies in 1938 was 1,770, showing a decrease of 1,978, as compared with the preceding year. Of the above number, 10 were those who had been bitten by rabid dogs, and 1,754 by animals suspected of rabies.

Bacteriological Laboratories The number of bacteriological laboratories at the end of 1938 was 194, consisting of 145 established by prefectural governments, 24 by cities, 1 by towns and villages and 24 by private individuals, showing a decrease of 1 in the total number on the preceding year.

If we examine the number of these laboratories according to locality, we find that Shizuoka prefecture had the largest number with 13, followed by Hyogo prefecture with 12, Osaka and Nagasaki prefectures with 8 each, Hokkaido, Miyagi, and Hiroshima prefectures with 7 each, Ibaraki, Yamaguchi, Fukuoka and Kumamoto with 6 each, while the rest of prefectures all had less than five.

The number of bacteriological examinations made by these laboratories in 1938 were 4,902,460, of which those connected with the notifiable infectious diseases were 4,246,248 and those not connected therewith 656,212, showing an increase of 456,067 in the total number of examinations on the figures of the preceding year.

Medical Affairs

Medical Practitioners The total number of medical licences issued in 1938

was 3,368 (besides 3 to foreigners), showing an increase, compared with the preceding year, of 9 licences (the number issued to foreigners decreased by 14).

Dental Surgeons The total number of licences issued to dental surgeons in 1938 was 1,164, being an increase of 32 when compared with the preceding year.

The total number of dental surgeons at the end of 1938 was 22,735, showing an increase over the preceding year of 663 (number of foreigners decreased 3).

Of the above number those who were actually engaged in practice numbered 20,152 which corresponds to 88.64 per cent of the total number of dental surgeons.

The total number of those dental surgeons who were actually in practice was at the rate of 2.79 per 10,000 of the population, and if we examine the ratio of the dental surgeons in prefectures, we find that the highest ratio was that of Tokyo prefecture with 6.14 per 10,000 inhabitants, followed by Osaka with 3.56, Kanagawa with 3.50, Hyogo with 3.23, Aichi with 3.19 and the lowest ratio was that of Okinawa which was 0.66, followed by Iwaté with 1.20, Yamagata with 1.33 and Miyagi with 1.54.

As to the distribution of dental surgeons in cities and districts of the country the ratio was 4.74 for cities and 1.70 for districts per 10,000 inhabitants.

At the end of 1938, besides the above mentioned number of dental surgeons, there were 79 medical practitioners who specialized in dentistry.

Pharmacists The total number of pharmacists' licences issued in 1938 was 1,970, showing an increase when compared with the preceding year, of 117 licences.

The total number of pharmacists at the end of 1938 was 28,760, showing an increase, compared with the preceding year's figures, of 810 (the number of foreigners decreased 1).

Of these pharmacists, (1) the number of practising pharmacists (those who were engaged in the dispensing of medicines in the pharmacy, those who were engaged in the sale of medicines and those who were engaged in the manufacture of medicines) was 19,190 (2) the number of those who being employed by hospitals or other dispensaries, were engaged in the dispensing

of medicines was 3,270 and (3) those who were exclusively engaged in the sale of patent medicines numbered 1,682. Those coming under (1) correspond to 66.71 per cent of the total number of pharmacists while (2) and (3) represented 11.37 and 5.85 per cent respectively.

Pharmacies and Traders in Medicines Pharmacies. The number of pharmacies at the end of 1938 was 13,189, of which 12,821 were run by pharmacists and 368 by non-pharmacists, showing an increase, when compared with the preceding year, of 62 pharmacies run by the pharmacist and 61 pharmacies managed by non-pharmacists.

Traders in Medicines. The total number of persons engaged in the sale of medicines at the end of 1938 was 30,894, showing a decrease of 28 persons compared with the preceding year; among them, the qualified pharmacists who were engaged in the sale of medicines without opening pharmacies numbered 734 and druggists 30,160. Of these druggists those who were qualified to deal in designated medicines numbered 4,211, of which those employing pharmacists were 2,399, those coming under the provisions of Art. XXXVII, Item 4 of the "Regulations for the Trade in Medicines and the Handling Thereof" were 77 and those coming under the second clause of the supplementary provisions of the same regulations were 1,735.

Medicine-Manufacturers. The total number of medicine-manufacturers at the end of 1938 was 3,959, being a decrease of 115 from the preceding year. Of these manufacturers, 1,042 were pharmacists, 1,321 those who employ pharmacists, and 1,596 neither pharmacists nor those employing pharmacists.

Midwives The total number of midwives at the end of 1938 was 62,200 (besides two foreigners), showing an increase of 477 (no change in the number of foreigners) over the preceding year; they may be classified into 5,753 persons who completed the course in designated schools or training institutes, 53,796 who passed the examination, and 2,290 who have been in practice from time prior to the operation of the Midwives Regulations, and 369 who practise in limited districts.

Distribution of Midwives The total number of midwives was at the ratio of 8.61 per 10,000 inhabitants, being a decrease of 0.05 from the preceding

year; as to the distribution of midwives between urban and rural districts of the country, the ratio was 10.77 in the urban districts and 7.40 in the rural districts per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the ratio in the preceding year, a decrease of 0.24 in the urban districts and an increase of 0.01 in the rural districts.

Nurses The total number at the end of 1938 of nurses who had obtained licence from the prefectural offices was 120,010 (of which 5,332 were under-nurses) showing a decrease of 4,392 from the preceding year (the number of under-nurses increased by 779). The

ratio of the above total number to 10,000 of population was 16.62, showing a decrease of 0.84 from the corresponding figures of the preceding year.

The number of male nurses at the end of 1938 to whom licences had been issued by the prefectural offices was 364 showing an increase of 69 over the figures of the preceding year.

Acupuncture, Moxicaution, and Shampooing The following table gives the number of persons engaged in acupuncture, moxicaution, and shampooing whose licences had been issued by the prefectural offices at the end of 1938.

	Not Blind			Blind		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Acupuncture	2,628	602	3,230	1,395	313	1,708
Moxicaution	*16,930	*3,089	*20,019	*10,104	*2,229	*12,333
Shampooing	3,256	892	4,148	697	197	894
	*17,019	*3,259	*20,278	*7,488	*1,624	*9,112
Acupuncture and moxicaution	6,771	3,984	10,755	14,743	9,341	24,084
Acupuncture and shampooing	*13,688	*5,164	*18,852	*22,617	*11,111	*33,728
Moxicaution and shampooing	7,966	1,412	9,378	1,321	271	1,592
Acupuncture, moxicaution and shampooing	1,120	225	1,345	2,404	614	3,018
Total	581	105	686	486	125	611
Judo treatment for contusion	5,216	850	6,066	4,984	1,031	6,015
	27,538	8,070	35,608	26,030	11,892	37,922

Note:—Figures marked with * include those persons who carry out additional calling than that given in the heading.

Public Hospitals (Charity Hospitals, Tuberculosis Hospitals, Insane Asylums, Leprosaria, Infectious Diseases Hospitals, and Hospitals for Prostitutes excluded). At the end of 1938 there were 127 public hospitals, showing an increase of 2 hospitals over the preceding year.

Accommodation for patients	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
More than 10	13	17	6	36
" 30	7	12	2	21
" 50	17	13	—	30
" 100	36	4	—	40
Total	73	46	8	127

In the following table are given the capacity for admitting patients and the number of patients admitted in 1938 to these hospitals:

Patient admitting capacity	10,954
Of the above capacity:	
For infectious diseases	811

For tuberculosis	313
Number of patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	5,681
Admitted this year	130,264
Discharged	118,691
Died in hospital	10,560
At the end of the year	6,694
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	3,045,754
Average capacity per hospital	86.25
Average number of in-patients per hospital	1,070.43
Average number of days a patient stayed in hospital	22.40

Private Hospitals (Charity Hospitals, Tuberculosis Hospitals, Insane Asylums and Leprosaria excluded). The total number of private hospitals at the end of 1938 was 2,081 (of which 97 had been established by the public juridical persons and 8 by foreigners), which when compared with the figures for the

preceding year, shows an increase of 74 hospitals.

The following table gives the number

	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
With capacity for more than 10	1,407	597	208	2,212
" " " " " 30	261	127	37	425
" " " " " 50	154	51	25	230
" " " " " 100	95	16	3	114
" Total " " " " "	1,917	791	273	2,981

In the following table are given the number of private hospitals classified

	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
Medicine	1,006	584	201	1,791
Surgery	368	97	28	493
Paediatrics	60	7	2	69
Ophthalmology	116	39	23	178
Obstetrics and gynaecology	213	42	17	272
Dermatology and venereal and genito-urinary diseases	54	4	—	58
Otorhinolaryngology	97	18	2	117
Dental surgery	—	—	—	—
Others	3	—	—	3
Total	1,917	791	273	2,981

In the following table are given the figures in connection with capacity of admitting patients and the number of patients etc. in the private hospitals:

Capacity	87,595
Of the above:	
Infectious diseases	4,566
Tuberculosis	2,807
Number of in-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	31,010
Admitted in 1938	715,572
Left the hospital	671,357
Died in hospital	41,817
At the end of 1938	33,408
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	13,033,135
Average capacity per hospital	29.38
Average number of in-patients per hospital	250.45
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	17.46

Charity Hospitals (Tuberculosis Hospitals, Leprosaria and Insane Asylums excluded). The total number of public and private charity hospitals at the end of 1938 was 55, of which 13 were public and 42 private hospitals, show-

of these hospitals in urban and rural districts according to their capacity of admitting patients:

	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
With capacity for more than 10	1,407	597	208	2,212
" " " " " 30	261	127	37	425
" " " " " 50	154	51	25	230
" " " " " 100	95	16	3	114
" Total " " " " "	1,917	791	273	2,981

according to the diseases they treat:

	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
Medicine	1,006	584	201	1,791
Surgery	368	97	28	493
Paediatrics	60	7	2	69
Ophthalmology	116	39	23	178
Obstetrics and gynaecology	213	42	17	272
Dermatology and venereal and genito-urinary diseases	54	4	—	58
Otorhinolaryngology	97	18	2	117
Dental surgery	—	—	—	—
Others	3	—	—	3
Total	1,917	791	273	2,981

ing, compared with the preceding year, an increase of 2 public hospitals and 7 private hospitals.

The following table gives the capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1938.

Admitting capacity	4,141
Number of in-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	2,925
Admitted in 1938	26,423
Left the hospital	22,296
Died in hospital	4,087
At the end of 1938	2,965
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	1,174,281
Average capacity per hospital	75.29
Average number of in-patients per hospital	654.29
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	35.51
Percentage of paying patients	18.45%

Note:—*indicates the number of paying patients.

Insane Asylums The total number of public and private insane asylums at the end of 1938 was 158, consisting of 12 public and 146 private asylums, showing an increase over the preceding year of 7 private asylums.

The following table gives their admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1938.

Admitting capacity	21,883
Number of in-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	17,599
Admitted in 1938	23,467
Left the asylum	18,079
Died in asylum	4,413
At the end of 1938	18,574
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	3,392,785
Average capacity per asylum	138.50
Average number of in-patients per asylum	259.91
Average number of days in asylum of a patient	165.18
Percentage of paying patients	61.96%

*Indicates the number of paying patients.

Tuberculosis Hospitals The number of government, public and private tuberculosis hospitals at the end of 1938 were one Governmental, 37 public and 115 private hospitals, (four of which had been established by foreigners), showing an increase of 7 public and 30 private hospitals as compared with preceding year.

The following table gives the admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1938.

Admitting capacity	14,138
Number of in-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	9,091
Admitted in 1938	24,044
Left the hospital	14,325
Died in hospital	7,796
At the end of 1938	3,636

At the end of 1938	11,015
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	2,083,111
Average capacity per hospital	92.41
Average number of in-patients per hospital	216.57
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	110.95
Percentage of paying patients	57.04%

*indicate the number of paying patients.

Leprosaria The total number of the Government, public and private leprosarria at the end of 1938 was 17 (one of which had been established by foreigners), consisting of 5 Government, 5 public and 7 private leprosarria. If we examine those leprosarria according to locality, we find that three were in Kumamoto, two each in Gumma, Tokyo, Okayama and Okinawa prefectures and one each in Aomori, Yamaguchi, Shizuoka, Kagawa, Fukuoka and Kagoshima prefectures. The following table gives the admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1938.

Admitting capacity	8,108
Number of in-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	6,871
Admitted in 1938	2,493
Left the leprosarrium	1,204
Died in leprosarrium	521
At the end of 1938	7,639
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	2,549,645
Average capacity per leprosarrium	476.94
Average number of in-patients per leprosarrium	552.12
Average number of days in leprosarrium of a patient	272.22
Percentage of paying patients	0.23%

*indicates the number of patients who bear the whole or a part of their expenses.

The following are the figures concerning the national leprosaria of "Nagashima Aiselen," "Kuryu Rakusen-

en," "Hoshizuka Keiaien," "Miyako Ryoyojo" and "Kunikami Airakuen":

	Nagashima Aiselen	Kuryu Rakusen	Hoshi- zuka Keiaien	Miyako Ryoyojo	Kuni- kami Airaku- en
Capacity of admitting patients	1,200	700	720	200	250
Number of in-patients:					
Remaining from the preceding year	1,338	433	444	217	—
Admitted in 1938	323	247	448	49	333
Discharged	199	59	117	36	20
Died	71	35	67	10	2
At the end of 1938	1,391	586	708	220	311
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	506,350	185,035	164,880	79,199	39,299
Average number of days a patient stayed in leprosarium	304.85	272.11	184.84	297.74	119.09

(Note: See Chapter XXX, Social Work.)

Infectious Diseases Hospitals, Isolation Wards, and Isolation Houses (Established under the provision of the Law for the Prevention of Infectious Diseases). The total number of infectious diseases hospitals at the end of 1938 was 1,008, (a decrease of 2 hospitals from the preceding year), consisting of 122 established by cities, 719 by towns, villages and other similar public corporations, and 107 established by town or village associations or other similar associations. The admitting capacity of these hospitals was 24,160 in total (an increase of 905 over the preceding year), making an average of 23.97 per hospital (an increase of 0.95).

The isolation wards at the end of the same year numbered 6,970, (a decrease of 74 from the preceding year) consisting of 60 established by cities, 6,493 by towns, villages or similar public corporations, and 417 by the town or village associations or similar association; and the admitting capacity in these isolation wards was 68,488 in total, (a decrease of 758 on the preceding year), the average per ward coming to 9.38 (there was no change).

The total number of isolation houses at the end of 1938 was 66, (there was no change as compared with the preceding year) of which 8 were those established by cities, 54 by towns, villages or similar public corporations, 4

by the town or village associations or similar associations. The estimated total capacity of these isolation houses was 1,672 (a decrease of 27 from the preceding year) the average capacity per house coming to 25.33 persons (a decrease of 0.41).

At the end of 1938, there were 46 disinfecting stations (established under the provision of the Law for the Prevention of Infectious Diseases), showing a decrease of 1 in their number from that of the preceding year.

Medicines The total number of persons who have reported in 1938 to the respective prefectural offices of the manufacture, importation and sale of medicines and preparations not to be found in any pharmacopoeia was 853 and the number of medicines reported 2,926, showing, compared with the preceding year, an increase of 126 persons and an increase of 292 medicines.

Patent Medicines The total number of patent medicine traders at the end of 1938 was 43,699, showing an increase of 272 as compared with the figures of the preceding year. Of this total number, 12,663 were pharmacists, 3,578 medical practitioners and veterinary surgeons, 3,150 those persons who employ pharmacists, 16,344 those persons who come under Art. XXIV of the Patent Medicine Regulations and 7,892 those who come under Art. XXV of the same

law, while there were 72 who were engaged exclusively in the importation and sale of patent medicines.

At the end of 1938 the total number of patent medicines for which permission for manufacture or importation was given was 395,186 (of which 163 were imported), showing an increase of 7,676 when compared with the figures of the preceding year, (permissions for importation decreased by 8).

Patent medicines manufactured or

imported in 1938 amounted to ¥129,043,820 (of which ¥138,621 represents foreign imports and the territories), showing an increase of ¥20,893,211 when compared with the preceding year (the amount of importation decreased by ¥531,381), and if we compare the amount of the manufacture and importation combined to the population in that year the ratio is ¥1.79 per capita, being an increase of 27 sen compared with the preceding year.

DEATHS BY CAUSES, 1938

Japan Proper

Causes of Deaths	Number		Proportion per 1,000 Deaths	
	1937	1938	1937	1938
1. Typhoid fever and paratyphoid (Typhoid fever)	7,388	8,116	6.1	6.4
2. Eruptive typhus	7,124	7,819	5.9	6.2
3. Smallpox	1	—	0.0	—
4. Measles	8	6	0.0	0.0
5. Scarlet fever	10,889	4,997	9.0	4.0
6. Whooping cough	454	398	0.4	0.3
7. Diphtheria	10,985	8,871	9.1	7.0
8. Influenza	4,253	4,135	3.5	3.3
9. Dysentery and ekiri (Dysentery)	2,991	7,646	2.5	6.1
10. Bubonic plague	19,726	21,966	16.3	17.4
11. Tuberculosis, lungs & respiratory organs	4,694	5,550	3.9	4.4
12. Tuberculosis, other organs	—	—	—	—
13. Syphilis	104,982	107,442	86.9	85.3
14. Purulent infectious septicemia	39,638	41,385	32.8	32.9
15. Malaria	5,241	4,412	4.3	3.5
16. Intestinal worms	9,500	9,203	7.9	7.3
17. Other epidemics and entozoic worms	65	207	0.1	0.2
18. Cancer & other malignant tumours	2,255	2,322	1.9	1.8
19. Other tumours	10,110	8,602	8.4	6.8
20. Acute articular rheumatism	50,648	50,447	41.9	40.0
21. Chronic rheumatism and gout	2,932	3,032	2.4	2.4
22. Diabetes mellitus	655	614	0.5	0.5
23. Vitamin deficiency (Beriberi)	1,093	1,154	0.9	0.9
24. Disease of thyroid gland	2,812	3,043	2.3	2.4
25. Other whole body diseases	11,041	13,113	9.1	10.4
26. Anaemia	10,627	12,712	8.8	10.1
27. Blood diseases	414	464	0.3	0.4
28. Alcoholism	2,534	2,663	2.1	2.1
29. Other chronic poisoning	801	843	0.7	0.7
30. Meningitis	2,103	2,101	1.7	1.7
31. Myelitis	271	257	0.2	0.2
32. Cerebral haemorrhage, embolism and thrombosis	110	63	0.1	0.1
33. Paralyse dementia	36,188	36,748	30.0	29.2
	1,016	1,029	0.8	0.8
	118,761	126,861	98.3	100.7
	2,716	2,926	2.2	2.3

Causes of Deaths	Number		Proportion per 1,000 Deaths	
	1937	1938	1937	1938
34. Dementia præcox & other mental diseases	3,447	4,107	2.8	3.3
35. Epilepsy	1,076	1,264	0.9	1.0
36. Other diseases of the nervous system	13,167	13,155	10.9	10.4
37. Diseases of eyes, ears, etc.	568	575	0.5	0.5
38. Pericarditis	710	888	0.7	0.7
39. Acute endocarditis	648	618	0.5	0.5
40. Chronic endocarditis, valvular disease	22,897	24,744	19.0	19.6
41. Diseases of heart sinews	2,872	3,288	2.4	2.6
42. Diseases of the coronary arteries and stricture of the heart	5,425	6,039	4.5	4.8
43. Other heart diseases	10,270	11,884	8.5	9.4
44. Aneurism	467	382	0.4	0.3
45. Arterio-sclerosis and gangrene	4,966	5,522	4.1	4.4
46. Other diseases of circulation organs	1,086	1,257	0.9	1.0
47. Bronchitis (Acute bronchitis)	24,030	26,178	19.9	20.8
48. Pneumonia	5,198	5,288	4.3	4.2
49. Pleurisy	108,256	118,153	89.6	93.8
50. Other diseases of the respiratory organs	18,842	20,980	15.6	16.7
51. Ulcer of the stomach or duodenum	14,226	16,198	11.8	12.9
52. Diarrhœa & enteritis (under 2 years)	12,322	13,279	10.2	10.5
53. Diarrhœa, enteritis & ulcer of the entrails (above 2 years)	66,698	58,465	55.2	46.4
54. Appendicitis	53,293	58,491	44.1	46.4
55. Hernia and intestinal obstruction	2,695	2,672	2.2	2.1
56. Cirrhosis of the liver	5,417	5,583	4.5	4.4
57. Other diseases of the liver & gall-duct	4,912	4,942	4.1	3.9
58. Other diseases of the digestive organs	8,445	8,625	7.0	6.8
59. Nephritis	39,607	40,926	32.8	32.5
60. Other diseases of the kidney, & the ureter	56,285	61,996	46.6	49.2
61. Urinary calculus	3,339	3,477	2.8	2.8
62. Diseases of the bladder	182	172	0.1	0.1
63. Diseases of the urethra	1,121	1,268	0.9	1.0
64. Diseases of the prostate	146	160	0.1	0.1
65. Diseases of the genitals	95	101	0.1	0.1
66. Accidents of pregnant women	692	654	0.6	0.5
67. Hæmorrhage at childbirth	507	439	0.4	0.3
68. Puerperal fever	1,268	1,186	1.0	0.9
69. Puerperal sepsis & toxemias of pregnancy	1,307	1,051	1.1	0.8
70. Other puerperal diseases	1,654	1,606	1.4	1.3
71. Diseases of the skin & connective tissue	708	595	0.6	0.5
72. Diseases of bones and motor organs	3,358	3,131	2.8	2.5
73. Congenital malformation	2,136	2,076	1.8	1.6
74. Congenital debility (under 1 year)	4,295	3,916	3.6	3.1
75. Premature parturition	63,387	60,568	52.5	48.1
76. Accidents of childbirth	5,929	5,410	4.9	4.3
77. Diseases peculiar to early infancy	441	381	0.4	0.3
78. Senility	9,645	8,971	8.0	7.1
79. Suicide	84,766	98,772	70.2	78.4
80. Killed	14,295	12,223	11.8	9.7
81. Accidental death	450	435	0.4	0.3
82. Other violent death	30,011	31,541	24.8	25.0
83. Death in battle	84	96	0.1	0.1
84. Capital punishment	—	—	—	—
85. Doubtful diseases and causes	26	16	0.0	0.0
Total	32,849	36,283	27.2	28.8
Total	1,207,899	1,259,805	1,000.0	1,000.0

DEATHS CLASSIFIED BY AGE AND CAUSES, 1938

The cause of death	Japan Proper							
	Total	Total	0	0-4	1	2	3	4
Total	1,259,805	365,852	220,695	62,437	39,348	26,322	17,050	
Infectious and parasitic diseases	229,708	49,119	17,404	9,268	9,190	7,818	5,439	
Cancer & other malignant tumours	53,479	422	120	87	90	69	56	
Rheumatic diseases, diseases due to deficiency of vitamin, diseases of thyroid & parathyroid glands, & other constitutional diseases	21,051	9,181	6,587	707	700	563	324	
Diseases of the blood and blood forming organs	2,944	636	293	110	92	66	75	
Alcoholism and other chronic poisoning	320	5	3	1	1	—	—	
Diseases of the nervous system & sense organs	186,665	26,930	11,858	5,033	4,464	3,345	2,230	
Diseases of the circulatory system	54,622	1,713	785	338	217	186	187	
Diseases of the respiratory system	181,509	84,328	51,805	19,420	7,467	3,553	2,083	
Diseases of the digestive system	192,983	87,839	39,791	22,605	13,050	7,841	4,552	
Diseases of urinary and genital organs	67,828	5,791	1,653	930	1,279	1,115	814	
Diseases of pregnancy & childbirth	4,877	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Diseases of the skin and cellular tissue	3,131	1,322	1,045	176	44	29	28	
Diseases of the bones and organs of locomotion	2,076	336	209	38	32	26	31	
Congenital malformations	3,916	3,614	3,122	267	129	61	35	
Diseases peculiar to early infancy	75,330	75,330	75,330	—	—	—	—	
Senility	98,772	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Suicide, violence, accidents and others	44,311	7,403	1,276	2,113	1,909	1,208	897	
Cause of death not specified or ill defined	36,283	11,883	9,114	1,344	684	442	299	
The cause of death								
Total		5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-29		
Infectious and parasitic diseases	36,552	27,172	62,117	60,499	49,478			
Cancer and other malignant tumours	11,686	11,130	34,252	32,957	24,395			
Rheumatic diseases, diseases due to deficiency of vitamin, diseases of thyroid and parathyroid glands and other constitutional diseases	160	137	206	280	581			
Diseases of the blood and blood forming organs	491	507	1,363	1,136	926			
Alcoholism and other chronic poisoning	201	182	207	154	164			
Diseases of the nervous system and sense organs	—	—	4	8	13			
Diseases of the circulatory system	5,133	2,930	3,456	3,036	2,791			
Diseases of the respiratory system	898	1,128	1,476	1,407	1,612			
Diseases of the digestive system	4,582	3,404	8,034	7,485	6,179			
Diseases of urinary and genital organs	7,036	3,965	6,673	5,736	4,722			
Diseases of pregnancy and childbirth	2,221	1,445	1,680	1,934	2,040			
Diseases of the skin and cellular tissue	—	2	154	849	983			
Diseases of the bones and organs of locomotion	67	59	87	72	94			
Congenital malformations	196	214	122	122	123			
Diseases peculiar to early infancy	127	80	31	17	14			
Senility	—	—	—	—	—			
Suicide, violence, accidents and others	—	—	—	—	—			
Cause of death not specified or ill defined	2,873	1,420	3,484	4,200	3,522			
Total	881	569	888	1,106	1,319			

The cause of death	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59
Total	37,599	37,195	36,303	39,265	43,967	64,697
Infectious and parasitic diseases	14,862	11,071	8,240	6,920	6,239	5,836
Cancer and other malignant tumours	1,110	2,093	3,003	4,320	6,167	8,494
Rheumatic diseases, diseases due to deficiency of vitamin, diseases of thyroid and parathyroid glands, and other constitutional diseases	708	674	617	672	818	1,011
Diseases of the blood and blood forming organs	142	209	158	153	163	155
Alcoholism and other chronic poisoning	15	22	26	54	45	57
Diseases of the nervous system and sense organs	3,084	4,289	5,648	7,828	11,675	16,988
Diseases of the circulatory system	1,593	2,079	2,334	2,963	4,047	5,637
Diseases of the respiratory system	4,710	4,404	4,241	4,234	5,217	7,522
Diseases of the digestive system	4,071	4,248	4,613	5,222	6,697	9,170
Diseases of urinary and genital organs	2,084	2,512	2,654	2,816	3,687	5,112
Diseases of pregnancy and childbirth	1,024	1,179	628	55	3	—
Diseases of the skin and cellular tissue	99	119	127	108	163	177
Diseases of the bones and organs of locomotion	98	95	98	90	88	102
Congenital malformations	6	5	7	6	1	2
Senility	—	—	—	—	—	—
Suicide, violence, accidents and others	2,668	2,611	2,362	2,273	2,081	2,086
Cause of death not specified or ill defined	1,325	1,585	1,547	1,551	1,876	2,349

The cause of death	60-64	65-69	70-79	80-89	90 and above	Doubtful
Total	77,977	77,043	154,290	77,874	6,867	38
Infectious and parasitic diseases	4,786	3,180	3,855	1,115	63	2
Cancer and other malignant tumours	9,407	7,515	8,245	1,296	42	1
Rheumatic diseases, diseases due to deficiency of vitamin, diseases of thyroid and parathyroid glands, and other constitutional diseases	1,031	818	953	140	5	—
Diseases of the blood and blood forming organs	162	124	109	23	2	—
Alcoholism and other chronic poisoning	29	29	12	1	—	—
Diseases of the nervous system and sense organs	22,034	22,360	37,225	10,818	433	7
Diseases of the circulatory system	6,886	6,722	10,699	3,269	157	2
Diseases of the respiratory system	9,150	8,588	14,376	4,808	243	4
Diseases of the digestive system	10,228	9,249	16,290	6,757	462	5
Diseases of urinary and genital organs	6,670	7,222	14,085	5,509	362	4
Diseases of pregnancy and childbirth	—	—	—	—	—	—
Diseases of the skin and cellular tissue	184	165	210	71	7	—
Diseases of the bones and organs of locomotion	106	86	158	38	4	—
Congenital malformations	2	—	4	—	—	—
Senility	3,038	7,421	41,946	41,480	4,885	2
Suicide, violence accidents and others	2,054	1,604	2,655	932	59	25
Cause of death not specified or ill defined	2,210	1,960	3,468	1,617	143	6

CHAPTER XXXII

PROGRESS OF SCIENCE

From some region of the Asiatic continent where the center of the ancient world culture is believed to have existed, premedieval sort of scientific knowledge flowed to the West, such as Persia, Arabia and Greece, and to the East. The eastward movement directly and through China and Korea influenced Japan. Such native knowledge of technical arts as had existed in Japan blended with the imported civilization. After hundreds of years of slow development, activity was about to rise and then in the 16th century western scientific knowledge was introduced by the Portuguese. In this section, a brief sketch is given about the contribution of the Japanese toward the march of science in Japan from the olden days until the opening of the country to the world during the 19th century, followed by a record of the noteworthy accomplishments of recent years, some of which have received world-wide recognition.

Astronomy For the years between 15 B.C. and 1800 A.D. a total of 6,058 records embracing 2,688 cases of astronomical observations exist in Japan, including 576 solar eclipses. All appearances of the Halley comet since 684 have been recorded except the one in 760. The observations include the approach of the same comet on July 16, 912, for which occurrence documentary evidences are lacking in other parts of the world. The magnitude of the comet which made its appearance some 700 years ago was measured only in Japan and in no other country.

Medicine In 808 A.D. during Daido era a medical work called Daido Ruijuho was compiled in Japan. Another, also based on clinical experience gained in the country, came out in 859 or thereabouts. But both these books have been lost. However, there has been preserved a 50-volume work titled Ishinbo, written by Tamba-Yasuyori in 982. It includes chapters on respiratory diseases, diseases of internal organs, skin, eye, ear, teeth and limbs, discourse on tumors, eruptions, wounds, children's and women's

ailments, hygiene and pharmacology. Those were times when Chinese medical knowledge came to Japan through Korea.

According to Hakuon Saegusa, one of the famous research scholars, the study of drugs in a scientific manner began with the first great contribution "Yakukyo Taiso," by Wakeno-Hiroyo of early Heian period.

Natural History One of the early works published on the subject was out during the reign of Emperor Godaigo, 1819-1838, Dr. Yoshito Shinoto, of Tokyo Imperial University, points out. Ono-Ranzan, 1729-1810, together with an associate illustrated 100 herbs and 100 other plants.

Their book entitled Kwai was translated into French by Savatier, medical officer at Yokosuka, in 1873. Ono lectured on "Yamato Honzo," by Kaibara-Ekken, 1630-1714. At the age of 71, Ono was appointed by the Tokugawa government to direct various research activities. Under him studied Inuma-Yokusai, 1783-1865, who modelled his work after the method of Linné and illustrated Japanese plants.

His work contributed greatly toward breaking away from the old Japanese method of study. In 1874 two Japanese associated with Savatier revised volumes of "Somoku Zusetsu," work of Inuma. Hiraga-Gennai in 1759 became the president of the Natural Products Association which a few years later investigated over 1,300 varieties of natural history specimens gathered from all over the country. Contacting Dutch and Chinese scholars at Nagasaki, he wrote two books entitled "Notes on Animals with Illustrations by the Aid of Hollanders," and "Annotations on European Plants by the Aid of Hollanders."

Physical Study Another invention of Hiraga's, in 1770, was a demonstrative device to generate electricity through friction of sheet metal with a sawed-off glass bottle which was rotated. He surprised many feudal lords by demonstrating this experiment in their presence. He was an inventive genius of his time.

Lord Tokugawa-Naraki, 1800-60, possessed chemicals and batteries with which electrolysis was studied. Those relics still exist today. Patriotic Sakuma-Shozan built an electro-therapeutic set. It was so made that when a man held a pair of batons in his hands, electric current from the accumulator flowed to the man's body.

Stories are told of unsuccessful attempts at aerial flights in old days such as the story of a person of Yoshino country who during 720-48 attempted to launch himself into the air on a paper hanger resembling a kite from a hillside, but failed in his attempt. But in 1894 Chubachi Ninomiya constructed a flying model plane. It had canvas propellers back of the seat which could hardly be called a cockpit. The propellers were set in motion in the manner of a cyclist pedalling his bicycle.

Engineering. In 745 A.D. the Great Image of Buddha 53½ feet high was cast from 600 tons of copper and 398 pounds of gold was used for gilding, also 1,954 pounds of mercury. The wooden building, 156 feet in height, soars, with a couple of pagodas, 320 feet high. This remarkable engineering feat is a proof of the advancement made in technical arts in those days.

Other dates of some significance in the realm of engineering are cited by Dr. Sakuro Tanabe as follows: 668 A.D., coal and oil discovered in Yachiyo Province; 607, Horyu temple built; 1614, a cannon was made by means of paper; 1510, a Chinese resident at Sakai imported firearms; 1589, Yedo castle, that was later transformed into the present Imperial Palace in Tokyo, was constructed; 1810, Ino-Tadataka began surveying the whole coastline of Japan and 1849, Satsuma turned out a telegraph machine.

In 1635 an edict was promulgated, prohibiting the building of ships over 70 tons. Four years later the country was closed to the outside world and scientific progress became hampered. The domestic security that was thus brought about, stimulated scientific investigation and original research. Cultural enterprise within the country also received impetus later as the economically rich merchants sought to be enlightened culturally.

Mathematics. In a very crude form mathematics existed in Japan since the far distant days of ancient times accord-

ing to Dr. Kinnosuke Ogura, noted student of Japanese mathematics. Then, in the Tokugawa period old scholars took up abacus-algebra derived from China and despite its being fraught with peculiar difficulties they soon mastered this version of algebra completely. In fact the Tokugawa mathematicians went further by entirely transforming this abacus method to a written system chiefly as a result of the efforts of Seki-Kowa (1708) and his associates. It is noteworthy that it took only 50 years during the feudal age, for this new knowledge to be assimilated and a new system to be developed by the Japanese savants. Tatebe-Kenko (1664-1739) and others of Seki's pupils initiated a method, resembling calculus, for obtaining the circumference and area of a circle. Improved in 1781 it became almost exactly like integration as it is known today. Further improved by Wada-Yasushi (1787-1840) it was so developed as to match the present integration method. To mention only one instance, Seki preceded Leibnitz by more than a decade in unfolding the theory of determinant. Yet, during the turbulent period of the downfall of the Tokugawa rule, it began to be realized that the Japanese form of symbols and signs were unfit for navigational computation and inferior to Western mathematics. Hence the Japanese system of mathematics had to give way to the Western version then imported. For a time early in the Meiji era the Japanese were too busy learning Occidental mathematics. At present wave geometrists of Hiroshima group, as they are known, draw world attention.

Theoretical Effort. Ito-Jinsai, 1620-1705, Confucian scholar of Kyoto and notably Miura-Baien, 1723-89, a country doctor in Bungo Province, expounded a monism of matter as against the dualism of principle and matter, that was the kernel of Chu Tze's interpretation of Chinese philosophy preceding him. Chu Tze's version was then regarded highly in Japan. But Miura expounded his own natural philosophy.

Saegusa points out that no parallel to Miura's conception can be found in the whole vista of Oriental philosophy. Minakawa-Kien also made valuable contributions toward the definition of matter and has earned a place for himself in the Japanese history of Scientific Thought.

After the Meiji Restoration

Scientific progress during the Meiji era (1868-1912) was mainly in the education of all branches of modern science in schools and introduction of Western learning by Foreign professors engaged by governmental universities and Japanese scholars who had made studies in Europe and America.

Medical science, however, was most advanced in Japan because of its early introduction into the country from China and later through Dutch scholars, and Japan made valuable contributions toward the progress of medical science of the world through the achievements by such bacteriologists as Dr. Shibasaburo Kitasato (1852-1931) and Dr. Hideyo Noguchi (1876-1928).

Dr. Ryokichi Yatabe (1851-1899), a disciple of Prof. Asa Gray of America, was the first professor of botany in Tokyo Imperial University and botany was taught in Japan as pure science for the first time. He made translations of Gray's "An Outline of Plants" and Morse's book on zoology, and wrote himself a book "Illustrations and Explanation of Japanese Plants." Dr. Jinzo Natsumura (1856-1928), his assistant, later became professor of Tokyo Imperial University, and published many books on botany. His works are considered an authority on botany.

Another well known botanist in Japan is Dr. Tomitaro Makino (1862-). He is better known as a civilian scientist than a lecturer in the university, and has contributed greatly to the botanical education of the masses of the people. He wrote many papers and books, among which may be named the serial work "Illustrations of the Flora of Japan," beginning with 1888.

Recent Work

Some of the recipients of various prizes given by the Imperial Academy, including the recipients of the Imperial Award, are mentioned below:

1911, Dr. Sakae Kimura, for determining the variation of the earth's axis.

1912, Dr. Jokichi Takamine, for the discovery of Adrenalin.

1923, Dr. Yasuhiko Asahina, a study of the chemical properties of the Chinese herbs.

1924, Dr. Umelaro Suzuki and his associate, for vitamin research.

1927, Dr. Genlehi Kato, for a study of

the transmission phenomenon in nerves without dampening.

1929, Hisao Tanabe, for his study of Oriental music.

1931, Dr. Hakuju Ui, for his treatise on Indian philosophy.

1932, Dr. Ikkyosuke Kanada, for his study of an Ainu epic.

1933, Dr. Jiro Tausl, for his research on photo-elasticity.

1935, Hisayoshi Ogawa, for compiling a collection of Takasago tribal legends in Taiwan in the native language. Masao Suenaga, for research relative to ancient Japanese armors.

1939, Prof. Kinjiro Kuriki, of Hokkaido Imperial University, for a study of space.

Accomplishments in 1936-37 The Asahi Prizes for 1936 went to Dr. Heiichi Nukiyama, director of the Tohoku Imperial University radio-communication laboratory, among other men. The Asahi Shimbun gave the prize for his development of radiophone used in water.

Dr. Tomizo Yoshida as the Japanese delegate, announced the result of his research during the second international cancer conference at Brussels.

Prof. Bumpel Shibata, Utsunomiya Agriculture and Forestry College, found that a moth gives birth to male and female offsprings according to the variations in the temperature around it.

Riken type cosmic ray counter was perfected after more than two years of effort. Beginning January 1937, five of them were placed at various points between Saghalien and the South Seas for permanent observation.

Prof. Mitsunobu Ichikawa, Toyohashi Military Non-commissioned Officers' School, found after over 40 years of frog raising that one variety can remember its name when so taught.

Having tested 12,000 persons of both sexes Dr. Kirihara, of the Japan Labor Science Research Institute, denounced the idea of woman being inferior to man in general competency. He concluded that (1) a man discerns things faster but a woman is more precise, (2) a woman's physical strength is only little more than half that of men but she has greater endurance and (3) a man on the average is about 10% faster in movement but a woman has greater finger sensitivity.

Dr. Hantaro Nagaoka, international authority on atomics and Dr. Kotaro Honda, recipient of a prize from the

Franklin Institute of America, as well as Dr. Sakae Kimura, were granted Culture Decorations on April 25, 1937.

To Dr. Hideyo Noguchi who died in a British territory in Africa, the local authorities decided to dedicate a huge bronze shield in memory of his remarkable research on yellow fever. Ambassador Clive notified Foreign Minister Sato on May 19, 1937.

Prof. Yuzaburo Uchida and another Waseda University psychologist developed a lie-detector and its demonstration was broadcast by JOAK Station on May 31. The person under test was seated in an insulated chair with two fingers of his hand feebly electrified and connected to a meter. When he answered by lying to any of the various questions asked him, his psychological reaction was electrically registered in the meter and was then reflected by a mirror in the form of a light beam.

Takeo Shimizu and an assistant of the Institute for Research of Physics and Chemistry invented a camera using a spark relay device, that takes a picture in 1/1,000,000 of a second.

Keio University archaeologists found accidentally some plant seeds 15 centuries old, which sprouted about a week after they were removed to a glass vessel from an old tomb place at Hiyoshi, Kanagawa Prefecture.

The Austrian Roentgenology Society at Vienna on September 27, 1937 elected Dr. Gochi Fujinami, of Keio University, as an honorary member of the Society.

With the use of an improved stomach mirror Dr. Shinichi Kiriwara, Nagoya Medical University surgeon, took 16 mm. motion pictures by manipulating the mirror several times inside the stomach for over 10 seconds.

Dr. Nishina, of the Institute for Research of Physics and Chemistry, found a particle, heavy electron, proton and neutron as the ultimate components of matter.

Shinichi Shimizu, of Shizuoka, located on January 31, 1937, the missing Daniel comet. In June 1936, during the solar eclipse observation, Mr. Kazuaki Gomi of Nagano, a barber by profession, found a new star and later was awarded a gold medal from Harvard University and a gold Pickering memorial medal from the American Variable Star Observation Society.

A Tachikawa plane named Tsubame was successfully test-flown. Powered by

a Scott 16-horsepower engine it developed a top speed of 166 km. and had a range of 500 kilometers.

Notable Work in 1937-38 Harvard University awarded early in November 1937 a medal to Shigemasa Okabayashi of Kobe, an amateur star-gazer, for discovering a new star in the Sagittarius constellation on November 10, 1936. It is the fifth honor of its kind to be conferred by Harvard University, two of the recipients being from Japan.

On December 28, H.I.M. the Emperor conferred decorations on Dr. Shigeooshi Matsumae and Mr. Noboru Shinohara, Communications Ministry engineers, for perfecting a cable for long distance communication which is not loaded, after strenuous researches made since 1930. The cable permits transmission of 10 circuits of telephonic conversations at one time while saving 50% of the installation cost and 45% of the annual upkeep.

Dr. Shigetake Suzuki, of Chiba Medical University, succeeded in making a frog grow another leg in place of the one which had been cut off. He also successfully transplanted a newt's tail to a tadpole.

The Japan Physico-chemical Research Society, Kyoto Imperial University, conferred the first Fuji prize on March 5, 1938, on Ryohel Inoue, of the Showa Industry Company and former assistant faculty worker in the University, who invented silk wool.

Dr. Takeo Shimizu reported in the Japan Physico-Mathematical Society convention on April 3, 1938, his completion of a daylight motion picture screen.

Susumu Maeda, assistant building inspector at the Yoyogi police station in Tokyo, developed a pre-fabricated summer house and in April 1938, it was introduced to the architects of the world by Assistant Prof. Todaiwa, Waseda University. A house of five tatami area can be put up in five hours as against 20 hours or more when taken for putting up a house by European and American devices. It costs ¥300 and weighs 300 kwan.

Patents in 12 countries were won by Yoshito Watanabe, of Kobe, for a robot SOS receiver that was announced at the Imperial Railway Association on June 24, 1938. A distress signal of various wave-lengths, when received causes a bell to ring for notifying the attendant.

The National Research Council compiled a 825-page catalog of technical journals which are being imported by all collegiate institutions, libraries, laboratories, academies and industrial firms of the country. Since 1934 Dr. Seiji Nakajima as editor obtained more than 53,800 cards listing answers to questionnaires sent to over 1,000 institutions. The catalog clarifies where any of the 933 foreign journals are kept in Japan and is much welcome at a time when foreign books are scarce in the country.

Kametsuru Ikemori, engineer at the Tokyo Works of the Nakajima Airplane Company, told the Society of Mechanical Engineers at its 40th convention in Tokyo, October 1937, that he had statistically ascertained that almost all aircraft motor mishaps occur immediately after the assembly of the machine. To increase the reliability and durability of the engine he emphasized the importance of high assembly competency.

A noiseless gear made of silk, supposedly excelling bakelite or resin gear, was featured in the 5th invention exhibit given in Tokyo during November 1937. Thin sheets of chemically treated silk fiber were laminated to make the gear an inch or two in thickness with any number of teeth cut as desired.

During the autumn of 1937, Masaru Mihara announced that a radio beacon under Japanese direction was trying a system that registered visually on a radio compass of transport planes, instead of giving aural signal to the pilot as with foreign systems. The Japan Airways Company, which is under Mihara's direction, has the new type receiver installed aboard its long distance planes. Different from the autodyne set used in English flying machines the instrument with extra-vacuum tubes permit the company's aircraft wider range of selectivity on various wave bands and also distant reception with fair results.

Experts in the United States Commerce Department had a word of praise when they read translated news that Prof. Osamu Mabuchi, inorganic chemist at Kyoto Imperial University, perfected after two years of experiment a talkie sound-recording device through the use of ultra-violet ray without halation but with much higher frequency and sensitivity. Technicians the world over have been trying for years to complete such process according to the American

researchers.

Kenjiro Takayanagi, connected with the Japan Broadcasting Corporation, publicly announced the data concerning the fleet of four television vans which under his guidance use an improved type of iconoscope invented by Dr. V. K. Zworykin with an equal number of scanning lines as in the United States.

Accomplishments in 1938-1939 The Institute of Research of Physics and Chemistry, Tokyo, completed installing a ¥310,000 cyclotron similar to that planned for the laboratory of Professor Lawrence at the University of California for studying neutron, etc. The iron electric magnet for the cyclotron weighs well over 200 tons. February 23, 1939.

Prof. Tokitaro Saita, of the Tokyo Imperial University seismic research institute, left late in April 1939 for Chile, to aid Chileans in probing the great earthquake of January 24 there.

A floating zenith telescope, of which an equal exists only at Greenwich, was installed late in April 1939 at the Government longitudinal observatory in Iwate Prefecture.

During the 1939 lotus blossoming season five out of eight seeds, 400 years old, sprouted at Hibiya Park. Dr. Oga originally obtained them from peat near Mukden and was awarded his degree in 1927 for his treatise which among other things proved that the seeds were older than those preserved in the British Museum, until then believed to be the oldest in the world. Dr. Oga maintained that his seeds would sprout even after a lapse of 15 centuries.

A young student called Okabayashi at the Kurashiki Observatory located a fourth-degree comet on the evening of April 24, 1939, but it was established later that the new comet had been discovered a week before by some observatory in another part of the world.

The National Language Society selected 1,776 basic Japanese words during 1939. After investigating for seven years, Professor Onishi, Hosei University, established that 92% of the reading matter surveyed by him employed only 3,000 out of 800,000 Chinese characters.

Assistant Professor Sugata, Osaka, perfected an electron microscope with the power of magnifying 30,000 times during 1939.

Army surgeon Nishimura succeeded

in transmitting blood from a corpse.

Dr. Tatsumi, Osaka, performed healing of children's diseases with super-high-frequency sound waves that are inaudible.

Dr. Hoshino, of Osaka Kaisel Hospital, completed a new hearing device for the deaf, by making sound transmit through bone.

Assistant Professor Ono, Musashi Higher School, proved that an old tape measure shrinks, and does not elongate, as universally believed.

The Shimizu Low-Temperature Laboratory, Tokyo, developed an engine powered with liquid air.

The strength of the cosmic ray changes according to temperature variations and longitudes, Dr. Nishina, the world-famous physicist, ascertained. He also reported the mass of Yukawa particle, whose existence was deduced mathematically by Dr. Yukawa and later confirmed by scientists abroad, as nearly 180 times that of the electron.

The Institute for Research of Physics and Chemistry, with which Dr. Nishina is affiliated, also contrived a method of spectroscopic assaying of gold ore.

An African plant was found at the scene of archaeological excavation in Saitama Prefecture.

Dr. Sasakawa, of Osaka Medical College, used ultra-high-frequency sound waves in curing cancer and promoting the sprouting of plant seed.

Tokyo Imperial University seismologists built a simple seismograph for amateurs.

Dr. Kato, Tokyo University of Engineering, developed a new aluminum manufacturing method with alum shale as material.

Tokyo seismic experts reported that the eastern Tokyo deltas are sinking, helped and obstructed twice daily as the bay tide ebbs and sets in.

Dr. Nakagawa, of Nippon University, invented a measure to preclude visionary errors by utilizing an optometric principle.

An average Japanese brain is not inferior to that of an Occidental, proved Dr. Nagayo, of Tokyo Imperial University.

Flesh eats away a bullet lodged in the body, bit by bit, Dr. Goh of Japan Red Cross learned.

Assistant Professor Fukui, of Tokyo Higher Normal School, reported that

there exists more ultra-violet ray in the heart of a city than in the suburbs.

Shimada and his associate of the Architectural Society perfected a bamboo concrete building method.

Dr. Imamura, of Tokyo Imperial University, successfully reconditioned the oldest seismograph in the world.

Prof. Iida, of the same University, made the largest seismograph in the world.

Takebayashi-Tadashiichi was a descendant of Meng Tze, according to the Central Society for the 47 Ronin.

Calcium-fed rabbits bear male babies and magnesium-fed ones bear female ones, it was proved at Osaka Imperial University.

A lamp with the light element taken from illuminant night bugs was built at Tokyo Imperial University.

Dr. Yagi, of the Agriculture and Forestry Ministry, used ultra-high-frequency sound waves for attracting fish.

Dr. Isobe at the Institute for Research of Physics and Chemistry used charcoal as catalyst in coal liquefaction.

Vitamin B is good for fighting nicotine poisoning, according to the same institute.

Dr. Maki, of Tokyo Imperial University, succeeded in enabling the production of khaki dye, making it unnecessary to depend upon foreign supply.

Mt. Fuji was never at the sea bottom as had been formerly believed, Tokyo Imperial University seismologist declared.

Prince Tosho Tercentenary Society gave a scholarship fund to Mr. Bunichi Hazama for his study of electric phenomena in the internal organs. The Nippon Gakujutsu Kyokai, established under the auspices of the Tokyo Imperial University science department, gave one of its 1938 prizes to Tsurumatsu Michino for his chemical research of the ancient history of metallic civilization in the Orient. The Nomura Shogakkai commissioned a Kyoto Imperial University scholar to make a study of the fiber material obtained from the South Sea Islands.

Having encountered difficulties with the American system of radio beacon on account of the peculiar topography of Japan Takeshi Amishima and his associates in the Communications Ministry developed an all-direction or electric rotating beacon to enable air transports to locate their positions at any point. The new method is to issue

innumerable beams from the beacon instead of four beams.

T. Soné and others in the Communications Ministry electrotechnical laboratory reported in English in the official organ (March 1939) published by the Institute of Electrical Engineers, Japan, their finding that a coloring matter invented by Soné when dissolved to the thickness of .002%, successfully curbs the heat and dazzling effects of television studio illumination.

List of Research Institutions

For facilitating foreign scientists several academic organizations are listed hereunder including some which issue journals in foreign languages not included in the appendix of the present Year Book.

Tokoku Gakushikai (The Imperial Academy) Founded 1879 as Tokyo Academy and reorganized 1906; Dr. Hantarō Nagaoka, president; members, 100. This institution is under the control of the Education Minister. The academy is divided into two sections of 50 members each. Section I includes distinguished scholars in cultural branches of learning while section II includes specialists in physical sciences and technology. Each section elects two from among the members to seats in the House of Peers with the sanction of the Throne. Address: Ueno Park, Tokyo.

Gakujutsu Kenkyu Kaigi (The National Research Council). Organized 1920; Dr. Aikitsu Tanakadate, president; members, 200. The purpose of the Council is to maintain contact abroad while coordinating research activities within Japan and making recommendations to the Government Ministers. Publishes journals in English, relating to astronomy and geophysics, chemistry, physics, geology and geography, biology and agriculture, engineering and mathematics. Address: c/o The Tokoku Gakushikai.

Tokugawa Seibutsu-gaku Kenkyusho (The Tokugawa Institute of Biological Research) Established 1918; Marquis Yoshichika Tokugawa, president; research members, six. Issues publications, in Japanese and European languages. Location: 41, Mejiro 4-chome, Toshima ward, Tokyo.

Kitasato Kenkyusho (The Kitasato Institute for Infectious Diseases)

Founded 1914; Dr. Taichi Kitajima, director; 15 associate members and 64 assistants. The purpose of the Institute is to contribute toward public hygiene. It publishes a quarterly in English entitled *Kitasato Archives of Experimental Medicine*. Address: Shirokane Sankochō, Shiba ward, Tokyo.

Shomei Gakkai (The Illumination Engineering Society of Japan) Founded 1886; Ryotaro Mitsuta, president. Address: Denki Club, Yurakucho, Kojimachi ward, Tokyo.

Nippon Tekko Kyokai (The Iron and Steel Institute of Japan) Founded 1915; Daikichi Saito, president. It aims at mineralogical and economic study of ferrous materials. Address: Naka 14-20 Kan, Marunouchi, Kojimachi ward, Tokyo.

Doctor's Degrees

Doctorates awarded up to March 1939 are listed below:

Doctor of	Awarded		Total for
	In 1937	In 1938	Apr. 1927- Mar. 1939
Law	5	5	87
Medicine	1,016	986	10,876
Pharmacology	12	5	80
Technology	41	26	475
Literature	8	8	152
Science	53	65	551
Agriculture	31	26	306
Forestry	—	1	16
Veterinary surgery	—	—	8
Economics	5	3	61
Commerce	2	—	22
Political science	—	—	2
Total	1,173	1,125	12,636

Note:—Figures are for doctors under the new law. The number of those who received doctor's degree under the old law during the years between 1888 and 1932 was 2,047.

Recent Publications of the National Research Council of Japan

During April 1938—March 1940, the following serial publications were issued:

Japanese Journal of Astronomy and Geophysics:

Vol. XVI, No. 1 (published December 1938)—

The velocity of sound in sea water

and calculation of the velocity for use in sonic sounding, by S. Kuwahara.

On the density-distribution of a close binary and the motion of the periastron in its orbit, by T. Yamagata.

Abstracts:—79 entries.

Vol. XVI, No. 2-3 (published March 1939)—

Minutes of the Forty-eighth Meeting of the Division of Geophysics.

Minutes of the Forty-eighth Meeting of the Division of Geophysics.

Minutes of the Forty-ninth Meeting of the Division of Geophysics.

Tyoko and his seismoscope, by A. Imamura.

Correction of the echo-depth for the density of water in the Pacific Ocean, by S. Kuwahara.

On the seismic activity of the Mutsu-Dewa district in early times, by A. Imamura.

Volcanic activity in Japan during the period between November 1935 and December 1938, by H. Tanakadate.

Abstracts:—232 entries.

Vol. XVII, No. 1 (published August 1939)—

Harmonic analysis of latitude variations observed at the three international latitude stations, by S. Nakano.

An interpretation of the spectral sequence for the late type stars, by Y. Fujita. And 10 other papers.

Japanese Journal of Physics:

Vol. XIII, No. 1 (published March 1939)—

On the flow of perfect fluid past curved boundaries, by T. Sakurai.

On the slow steady rotation of cylinder in viscous fluid, Part II, by T. Sakurai.

On the friction to the disc rotating in a cylinder, by T. Okaya and M. Hasegawa.

Abstracts:—133 entries.

Japanese Journal of Geology and Geography:

Vol. XV, No. 3-4 (published November 1938)—

Theory and drawing of stereo-topographic map, by Y. Kokubu.

Zelandites, a genus of Cretaceous Ammonites. Contribution to the Cretaceous palaeontology of Japan. IV, (with Pl. XIV), by T. Matsumoto.

Upper Cambrian fossils from British Columbia with a discussion on the

isolated occurrence of the so-called "Olenus" beds of Mt. Jubilee (with Pls. XV, XVI), by T. Kobayashi.

A study of Japanese arcuate mountains, by K. Mochizuki.

On some features of the meeting of arcs in the Japanese archipelago, by K. Mochizuki.

On the graphic method of representing faults and strata, by M. Morishita.

Abstracts:—163 entries.

Vol. XVI, No. 1-2 (published July 1939)—

Fossil mollusca from the neogene of Isumo, by S. Nomura and K. Hatai.

The geological age of the Mesozoic land floras in Western Japan, by T. Kobayashi.

Discovery of a giant fallow deer from the pleistocene in Japan, by T. Shikama.

And 7 other papers and abstracts (197 entries).

Vol. XVI, No. 3-4 (published December 1939)—

Note on a pre-Cambrian fossil from Liantung peninsula, by H. Yabe.

On an interesting gastropoda from Hahajima, Ogasawara Islands, Japan, by H. Yabe and K. M. Hatai.

The brackish wealden fauna of the Yoshino beds in Nagato province, Japan, by T. Kobayashi and K. Suzuki.

And 3 other papers and abstracts (36 entries).

Japanese Journal of Botany:

Vol. IX, No. 3 (published October 1938)—

Weitere Untersuchungen über die pentaploiden Triticum-Bastarde.

VIII. Die Entwicklung der verschlendenchromosomigen Endospermen in den Rückkreuzungen des Bastards $T. polonicum \times T. spelta$ zu den Eltern (hierzu 5 Textabbildungen u. 5 Tabellen), von S. Matsu-mura.

On the developmental change of quantities of chlorophyll and carotinoid in the leaves of rice-plant, barley, and wheat (with 17 text-figs. and 6 tables), by H. Nagashima.

Notes on the effects of alcohol and acetic acid on spermatogenesis in *Isoetes japonica* Al. Br., by A. Yuasa.

Anomalous secondary growth in the axis of *Bauhinia Championi* Benth. (with Pl. V and 2 text-figs), by T. Handa.

Beeinflussung der Spaltöffnungsweite durch plötzliches Wasserabsperrern und -zuführen, mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Spaltöffnungsbewegung zur Regenzeit (mit 4 Textfiguren und 12 Tabellen), von M. Monzi.

Progenies of some intergeneric hybrids among *Aegilops*, *Triticum* and *Aegilotriticum* (with 5 text-figs. and 8 tables), by Y. Katayama.

Abstracts:—157 entries.

Vol. IX, No. 4 (published March 1939)—

Weiter Untersuchungen über die pentaploiden Triticum-Bastarde. IX. Aequations- und Zertationskreuzungen des Bastards $T. durum \times T. vulgare$ (hierzu 5 Textabbildungen und 11 Tabellen), von S. Matsumura.

Die Mitwirkung der Stomata-Nebenzellen auf die Spaltöffnungsbewegung (mit 8 Textfiguren und 11 Tabellen), von M. Monzi.

Abstracts:—142 entries.

Vol. X, No. 1-2 (published August 1939)—

Studies on the inheritance of a type of large-grained, partially sterile rice plant, by F. Kagawa.

Alteration of characters in crop plants induced by X-ray irradiation, by F. Kagawa.

Studies on the formation of ascorbic acid (vitamin C) in plants, by T. Sugawara.

And 5 other papers and abstracts.

Vol. X, No. 3 (published December 1939)—

Some considerations on the classification of *Oryza sativa* L. into two sub-species, so-called "Japonica" and "Indica," by H. Terao and N. Mizushima.

Critical observations on the origin of the blepharoplast and centrosome in plants, by A. Yuasa, and 4 other papers.

Japanese Journal of Zoology:

Vol. VIII, No. 1 (published November 1938)—

Notes on the development of some Japanese Echinoids, with special reference to the structure of the larval body. Report III, by K. Onoda.

Studies on the helminth fauna of Japan. Part 24. Trematodes of fishes. V, by S. Yamaguchi.

Polychaetous annelids from the vicinity of the Mitsui Institute of Marine Biology, by S. Okuda.

Über den Mechanismus der Wirkung

der Blausäure auf die Xanthindehydrierung, von R. Suto.

Über das Echinochrom, einen Redox-Farbstoff aus dem Seelgel, *Anthocladaris crassispina*, von R. Suto.

Zur Frage des Mangans in der Stechmuschel. Ein Beitrag zur Kenntnis der Pinnaglobines, von R. Suto.

Abstracts:—79 entries.

Vol. VIII, No. 2. (published March 1939)—

Studies on the helminth fauna of Japan. Part 25. Trematodes of birds. IV, by S. Yamaguchi.

Studies on the helminth fauna of Japan. Part 26. Trematodes of fishes. VI, by S. Yamaguchi.

On the enigmatic Coelenterate *Tetraplatia*, by T. Komai.

A new luminous species of the nemertea, *Emplectonema kandal* sp. nov., by A. Kato.

Vol. VIII, No. 3 (published October 1939)—

Modification of sex in a salamander, *Hynobius retardatus*, induced by the implantation of Testis and Hypophysis, by K. Hanaoka.

Movement of abfrontal cilia of *Mytilus*, by H. Kinoshita and T. Kamada.

Attainment of functional activity by the self-differentiated hepatic tissue of the chick embryo in the chorio-allantois, by M. Kume.

And 7 other papers and abstracts.

Vol. VIII, No. 4 (published March 1940)—

Further notes on nematodes of salmonoid fishes in Japan, by T. Fujita.

Regeneration of forceps in *Anisolabis maritima* (Dermatera), by H. Furukawa and 12 other papers and abstracts.

Japanese Journal of Medical Sciences, II. Biochemistry:

Vol. IV, No. 2 (published November 1938)—

Studies in the biochemistry of copper. XXXIII. Metabolism of copper and adrenaline in normal and thyroidless animals, by S. Narasaka.

Studies in the biochemistry of copper. XXXIV. Further studies concerning the significance of thyroid in the metabolism of copper, by Narasaka.

Versuche betreffend die Bedeutung der physiologisch vorkommenden Blutälvulose, von H. Okamura.

Über den Lävuloseverbrauch im Muskel, von H. Okamura.

- On the glycogen of the brain. (1st report.) The micromethod for estimation of glycogen and other reducing substances in the brain, by S. Naka.
- On the glycogen of the brain. (2nd report.) The comparative study between the histological method and the biochemical micromethod on the distribution of the glycogen in the brain, by S. Naka.
- On the glycogen of the brain. (3rd report.) On the accumulation of glycogen in the human brain under the influence of various diseases, by S. Naka.
- On the glycogen of the brain. (4th report.) Experimental study on the amount of the reducing substances in the brain, by S. Naka.
- Studies in the biochemistry of copper. XXXV. Copper in rice plant and seed in different periods of development, by U. Sarata.
- Studies in the biochemistry of copper. XXXVI. Concerning the dissolution of copper in soils, by U. Sarata.
- Studies in the biochemistry of copper. XXXVII. The normal blood copper content in the horse and blood copper in septic conditions, by U. Sarata.
- Studies in the biochemistry of copper. XXXVIII. Copper content of bone-marrow in the horse in normal and anæmic condition, by U. Sarata.
- Japanese Journal of Medical Sciences, III. Biophysics:
- Vol. V, No. 2 (published July 1938)—
- Über den Sitz der Potentialsprünge an der Froschhaut, von K. Motokawa.
- Thermodynamische Studien über Epithelströme. I. Mitteilung. Die Temperaturabhängigkeit der Ruheströme der Froschhaut und die Kritik der Membrantheorie, von K. Motokawa.
- Thermodynamische Studien über Epithelströme. II. Mitteilung. Die Gesetze der Reaktionsgeschwindigkeit und der Verlauf der Aktionsströme, von K. Motokawa.
- On the influence of the autonomic nervous system upon the amount of cystine-cysteine in the liver, by H. Uemura.
- Über die Reizbarkeit der einzelnen Skelettmuskelfaser. I. Mitteilung. Die Bedingungen für das Auftreten der naheleffenden untermaximalen Kontraktionen, von M. Sugl.
- Thermodynamische Studien über Epithelströme. III. Mitteilung. Die

- Energetik der Aktionsströme, von K. Motokawa.
- Über die gerichteten Eigenschaften der Froschhaut in Bezug auf elektrische Leitfähigkeit, Polarisation, und Permeabilität. I. Mitteilung. Die gerichtete Leitfähigkeit als eine sekundäre Erscheinung, von K. Motokawa.
- Über die gerichteten Eigenschaften der Froschhaut in Bezug auf elektrische Leitfähigkeit, Polarisation, und Permeabilität. II. Mitteilung. Ionenpermeabilität und Polarisation in Abhängigkeit von der Membranaladung, von K. Motokawa.
- Influence of cystine-cysteine upon the respiration, by H. Nakayama.
- Vol. V, No. 3 (published December 1938)—
- Influence of phenols on muscular contraction, by S. Tokuyama.
- Über die Reizbarkeit der einzelnen Skelettmuskelfaser. II. Mitteilung. Reizversuch mittels einer mit ellipsenförmiger Öffnung versehenen Kapillarelektrode, von M. Sugl.
- Über den Einfluss der an den Muskelzellgrenzflächen befindlichen Elektrolyten auf die Rheobase, von T. Yamaga.
- Über den Einfluss der an den Nervenzellgrenzflächen befindlichen Elektrolyten auf die Rheobase, von T. Yamaga.
- Kalium- und Aluminiumwanderung im Musculus sartorius der Kröte, von T. Yamaga.
- Über den Einfluss von Nichtelektrolyten auf die Membranpotentiale des Nerven und Muskels der Kröte, von T. Yamaga.
- Elektrotonus und Kaliumwanderung, von T. Yamaga.
- Über den Leuchtflisch, *Malacocephalus laevis* (LOWE), von Y. Haneda.
- Studies on muscle atrophy. I. On the decrease of weight in muscle atrophy, by S. Hirohara.
- On the heat production of pancreas. V. On the distribution of the secretory fibres of the pancreatic nerves, by N. Yoshil.
- Studien über die durch Salzsäure angeregte Pankreassaftsekretion. (I. Mitteilung—V. Mitteilung), von H. Kubo, S. Kanasugi, K. Kamakura, G. Ogihara und K. Yoshikawa.
- Abstracts:—33 entries.
- Vol. V, No. 4 (published December 1938)—
- Proceedings of the Seventeenth Annual

- Meeting of the Japanese Physiological Society, Kyoto, April 1938.
- Japanese Journal of Medical Sciences, IV. Pharmacology:
- Vol. XI, No. 2-3 (published August 1938)—
- CO-Hyperglykämie und -Hyperlactacidämie beim Kaninchen, von S. Ismaru.
- Über die Einflüsse von verschiedenen Sympathomimetica auf die retinale Pigmentverschiebung beim Frosch, von S. Kyo.
- Einfluss der Alkalisalze auf die Blutzucker- und die Blutmilchsäurezunahme sowie die Abnahme der Blutaalkalireserve beim mit CO vergifteten Kaninchen, von S. Ismaru.
- Über den Verhalten des Nervus opticus bei retinaler Pigmentverschiebung beim Frosch, von T. Okamoto.
- Proceedings of the Twelfth Annual Meeting of the Japanese Pharmacological Society, Kyoto, April 1938.
- Japanese Journal of Medical Sciences, V. Pathology:
- Vol. III, No. 2 (published October 1938)—
- Beitrag zur Kenntnis der experimentellen Aktinomykose, von S. Hasegawa, T. Nakamoto, Y. Miyasaki, T. Arimidi und M. Akiyoshi.
- Grundriss der Karyopathologie unter Berücksichtigung histochemischer Forschungsmethoden, von Y. Hamazaki.
- Vol. III, No. 3 (published December 1938)—
- Histologische Einteilung der Lymphknötchenformen unter deren Wechselbeziehungen, von T. Nakagawa.
- Experimental studies on the tissue culture of rabbit sarcoma. Part I. Tissue culture of rabbit sarcoma, by S. Sai.
- Experimental studies on the tissue culture of rabbit sarcoma. Part II. Tissue culture of rabbit sarcoma and serum of splenic venous blood, by S. Sai.
- Experimental studies on Shope's virus papilloma, by N. In, S. Sai, S. Kin and G. Ryo.
- Investigations on the mode of infection of *Wuchereria bancrofti*, by S. Yokogawa.
- Ein Fall von Lindemannscher Atrophie multipler Blutdrüsen, von F. Nittono und S. Fujisaki.
- Japanese Journal of Medical Sciences, VI. Bacteriology and Parasitology:
- Vol. I, No. 2 (published November 1938)—
- Über die Farbstoffreaktion von Bakterien und von Bakterienleibsubstanzen. I. Mitteilung. Grundexperimente unter Benutzung von Staphylokokken und *Calibazillen* als Reaktionsmaterial, von Y. Aoki, M. Kaneko und Y. Zaitzu.
- Abstracts:—817 entries.
- Japanese Journal of Medical Sciences, VII. Social Medicine and Hygiene:
- Vol. II, No. 3 (published September, 1938)—
- Studien über die Komponenten des Komplementes. I. Mitteilung. Über die Bindung des Mittelstückes bei der Hämolyse, von S. Ueno.
- Studien über die Komponenten des Komplementes. II. Mitteilung. Über die Bindung der 4. Komponente bei der Hämolyse, von S. Ueno.
- Zur Kenntnis der Organspezifität des Hämoglobins, von S. Ueno.
- Studien über die Durchgängigkeit der Plazenta für Antigen, Antikörper und Jod, mit Bemerkungen über die Verteilung von Jod in pathologischen Geweben, von K. Sakaki.
- Proceedings of the Twenty-second Annual Meeting of the Japanese Society of Forensic Medicine, Nagoya, April 1937.
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- Vol. V, No. 1 (published December 1938)—
- Studies on the relation of neuritis axialis to beriberi in Japan (First report), by S. Kagawa.
- Studies on the relation of neuritis axialis to beriberi in Japan (Second report), by S. Kagawa.
- Studies on the relation of neuritis axialis to beriberi in Japan (Third report), by S. Kagawa.
- Proceedings of the Thirty-third Annual Meeting of the Japanese Society of Internal Medicine, Tokyo, April 1930.
- Japanese Journal of Medical Sciences, XII. Oto-Rhino-Laryngology:
- Vol. II, No. 3 (published September 1938)—
- Abstracts:—596 entries.

Japanese Journal of Engineering:

Vol. XVI (published November 1938)—
Abstracts:—48 entries on Civil Engineering, 23 entries on Architecture, 92 entries on Mechanical Engineering, 24 entries on Aeronautics, 20 entries on Naval Architecture, 21 entries on Technology of Ordnance and Precision Machinery, 119 entries on Electrical Engineering, 9 entries on Mining, and 25 entries on Metallurgy.

Vol. XVII (published March 1939)—
Abstracts:—29 entries on Civil Engineering, 7 entries on Architecture, 53 entries on Mechanical Engineering, 33 entries on Aeronautics, 21 entries on Naval Architecture, 21 entries on Technology of Ordnance and Precision Machinery, 123 entries on Electrical Engineering, 11 entries on Mining, and 9 entries on Metallurgy.

Vol. XVIII (published October 1939)—
Abstracts:—28 entries on Civil Engineering, 17 entries on Architecture, 61 entries on Mechanical Engineering, 34 entries on Aeronautics, 20 entries on Naval Architecture, 13 entries on Technology of Ordnance and Precision Machinery, 94 entries on Electrical Engineering, 6 entries on Mining, and 23 entries on Metallurgy.

Japanese Journal of Mathematics:

Vol. XV, No. 1 (published August 1938)—

Zur Idealtheorie der einartigen Ringbereiche mit dem Teilerkettensatz. III, von Y. Akizuki.

On Fatou's theorems on Poisson integrals, by M. Tsuji.

On the limits of indetermination of bound harmonic functions, by M. Tsuji.

Abelsche Gruppe und Funktionensystem, von Y. Mizoguchi.

Über die Ungleichung $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} > f(x, y, u, \frac{\partial u}{\partial x})$.

von M. Nagumo.

Vol. XV, No. 2 (published September 1938)—

Zwelfparametrische reguläre Kurvensysteme auf der 2-Sphäre, von H. Terasaka.

Vol. XV, No. 3 (published December 1938)—

On some kind of integrals, by S. Kakeya.

Eine kennzeichnende Eigenschaft der

Ribaucourschen Mitten- und Zentral-kugelfkongruenzen, von T. Takasu.

Fine symmetrisch, metrische Übertragung im Kawaguchischen Raume der Ordnung zwei, von S. Hokari.

Die projektive Theorie eines Systems der "paths" höheren Ordnung. I, von H. Hombu.

Sur l'uniformisation des complémentaires analytiques et les ensembles projectifs de la seconde classe, par M. Kondo.

Vol. XVI, No. 1 (published July 1939)—

Arithmetische Idealtheorie in nicht-kommutativen Ringen, von K. Asano.

Idealtheorie in nicht-kommutativen Halbgruppen, von Y. Kawada und K. Kondo.

And 4 other papers.

Vol. XVI, No. 2 (published September 1939)—

Über die Zerlegung der Gruppencharaktere, von Z. Suetuna.

Some characterization of Euclidean space, by S. Kakutani.

Some new properties of Bohr almost periodic Fourier series, by S. Takahashi.

Vol. XVI, No. 3 (published September 1939)—

Doppelberührungslehre der Kurven zweiter Ordnung. I, von S. Miyazaki.

On Lindelöf's theorem in the theory of differential equations, by M. Tsuji.

Records of Oceanographic Works in Japan:

Vol. X, No. 2 (published March 1939)—

Bopyrids from Kyūshū and Ryūkyū (with 13 text-figs.), by S. M. Shilno.

On some recent brachiopoda from Seto, Prov. Kii. (with 8 text-figs.), by K. M. Hatai.

Further notes on the brachiopoda dredged by the Hukui-maru in Wakasa Bay, Hukui Prefecture, Japan (with 16 tables), by K. M. Hatai.

Chaetognaths collected chiefly from the Bays of Saganji and Suruga, with some notes on the shape and structure of the seminal vesicle. (with 4 pls. and 10 text-figs.), by T. Tokioka.

Peculiarities of the pedicellariae in Psychocidarids (Cidaroida, Psychocidaridae) (with 2 pls.), by H. Ikeda.

A new genus and new species of the Cidaridae from the Bonin Islands

(Cidaroida) (with 4 pls.), by H. Ikeda.

A new species of Diadema from Japan. (with 1 pl.), by T. Ikeda.

Notes on Crustacea Brachyura collected by Professor Teiso Esaki's Micronesian Expeditions 1937-1938, together with a check list of Micronesian Brachyura. (with 6 pls., 19 text-figs. and 1 table), by S. Miyake.

Report of Radio Research in Japan:

Vol. VIII, No. 1 (published June 1938)—

The linear characteristics of a simplex feedback amplifier, by K. Kobayashi.

The virtual cathode in the magnetron, by K. Okabe.

Obtaining dwarf-waves with multi-split-anode magnetrons, by K. Okabe.

A 50 KW short wave broadcaster, by N. Tanaka.

Measurement of current at high frequencies, by K. Tani and N. Taharakuchi.

Japanese Uralgram. IX (from April

1937 to April 1938).

Abstracts:—15 entries.
Vol. VIII, No. 2 (published October 1938)—

Sentron—a new tube for ultra short waves, by S. Uda.

Intercomparison of the absolute values of frequency standard—Ninth report of the Sub-Committee for Frequency Standards, by R. Mitsuda, K. Tani, and Y. Kusunose.

Multiple courses of the aeronautical radio range beacon, and the causes of the phenomenon, by S. Yonezawa and K. Hiraoka.

Direction finding of very short radio waves of 20 to 50 megacycles per second, by K. Maeda and K. Nishikori.

Directional observations of GNO 11, 605 kc from Great Britain received during the day-time, in winter in Japan, by K. Ohno, M. Nakagami, and K. Miya.

Abstracts:—18 entries.

CHRONOLOGY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
IN JAPAN

(Before Meiji Era)

A.D.	Event	A.D.	Event
607	Horyuji temple built.	753	West tower erected, destroyed by lightning in 937.
646	Bridge built over the Uji river.	927	In this year there were 67 iron-smiths in Kyoto, the capital, 102 in Yamato Province, 36 in Kawachi, 3 in Iga, 34 in Omi, 13 in Kii, 10 in Yamanashi, 58 in Settsu, 3 in Ise and 16 in Harima Province.
674	Silver mines found in Tsushima.	1180	The Great Image of Buddha damaged by fire and its head recast with 493 tons of copper.
701	At the Bureau of Pharmacy and Medicine, established simultaneously with the University, a seminary in natural history was conducted for the first time with a textbook adopted from a Chinese version; gold from Tsushima was presented to the Court.	1204-74	Permanent iron smelting furnace erected in Izumo Province for the first time, replacing the long practice with open air process.
708	Minting of copper money started.	1207	A volume titled Illustrations of Herbs for Horse Consumption was written by one Sela, with 17 plants described. Believed to be the first plant book with illustrations.
712	Kojiki, oldest Japanese history, was written with scores of plant names included.	1937	Golden Pavilion built in Kyoto under Ashikaga-Yoshimitsu.
735	Navigational marks and facilities developed.	1451	A total of 950 swords exported to China, more than 30,000 in 1465.
743-5	Great Image of Buddha erected at Nara, the casting work consuming 578 tons of copper, 15,327 kin of refined wax, 398 pounds of gold for gilding and 1,954 pounds of mercury.	1482	Silver Pavilion erected.
747-51	Edifice to enshrine the Image was built, but was subsequently razed by fire and re-built.		
751	East tower of the edifice over the Image was built but was		

- 1501 Japanese hearth process for copper smelting invented.
- 1568 Oda-Nobunaga, Lord of Azuchi castle in Omi Province, accepted the Portuguese missionary plea and allowed 3,000 kinds of herbs to be planted in a 360-square yard garden on Mt. Ibuki.
- 1600 Takase river canal was dug; eighty 100-ton ships constructed at Ito, Izu Province.
- 1609 A group of Hollanders reached Hirato, Kyushu and about this time export of Japanese plants began.
- 1613 Oil well sunk in Echigo.
- 1620 Osaka castle repaired but a 5-story tower, 138 feet high, was demolished by lightning in 1685. Stones of 1,000 square feet with unknown thickness were carried to Osaka for repair work.
- 1668 A survey was taken showing the presence of 23 principal copper mines, 34 in 1685. Ashio alone yielded 2,500,000 kln a year. 90% of the amount annually mined was exported. There were 200,000 miners and 100,000 men engaged in supplying charcoal for smelting purpose.
- 1670 Irrigation tunnel of Lake Hakone built.
- 1683 Seki-Kowa's work unfolded expansion method of matrix while some of his contemporaries wrote theoretical expositions on the subject.
- 1685 Shibukawa-Shunkai, a scholar of Chinese calendology, revised the calendar that had been derived from Chinese Tang dynasty eight or nine centuries earlier and differed considerably with observations at the time of revision.
- 1708 "Yamato Honzo," a scientific work, in 20 volumes, with explanations about 1,362 natural products by Kaibara-Ekken, was published. He produced over 60 works comprising 270 volumes in his life, the most noteworthy among them being Kwafu or Treatise on Flowers, (1694), and Saffu, A Treatise on vegetables.
- 1710 Takashima coal mine discovered.
- 1712 Engelbert Kaempfer had his book *Amoenitatum exoticarum* published, furnishing rich material to Linné and others in studying Japanese plants.
- 1715 Ino-Jakusai died after writing 326 volumes of an encyclopaedia of natural science by order of Tokugawa-Yoshimune, tycoon who was presented with this historic work by the Lord of Kaga. This work was later enlarged into 1,000 volumes.
- 1715 Shogun Yoshimune invited Nishikawa-Joken from Nagasaki and Nakane-Genkel from Kyoto and instituted astronomical research at an observatory erected in his castle compound. In 1720 the Shogun raised the ban on European books and their Chinese translations with the exception of books on religious subjects.
- 1728 A work on Japanese history, in two volumes, by E. Kaempfer, was published, a part of the work being devoted to Japanese plants. This section was translated into English from German by J. G. Scheuchzer under order of Sir Hans Sloane. Kintai bridge at Iwakuni was built with three wooden arches spanning 150 feet each.
- 1770 Hiraga developed electrical contrivances.
- 1776 Karl Peter Thunberg reached Yedo. He had come to the Orient for botanical and zoological study, prompted by Linné.
- 1790-1800 Shiba-Kokan, famed painter, wrote books to popularize the Copernican heliocentric theory disproving the geocentric theory of early missionaries.
- 1800 Ino's survey of entire Japan, coastal and otherwise, began with an elaborate set of instruments.
- 1836 Hoashi-Manri published a book on physics, *Kyuritsu*.
- 1839 Udagawa-Yoan initiated the study of chemistry.
- 1848 Sakuma-Shozan built a Western type of cannon; the first cannon in Japan was cast in 1603.
- 1849 Satsuma made a telegraph machine.

CHAPTER XXXIII

PRESS AND PUBLICATIONS

Press

Early History

Yomiuri Even in Old Japan some form of public announcement was issued from time to time, like the *Acta Diurna* of the era of the Roman Empire, but perhaps the history of newspaper publications in this country, may be said to begin with the *Yomiuri*, the oldest semblance of the newspaper, the word "*Yomiuri*" meaning literally "reading aloud and selling." The *Yomiuri* sheets were so named because the vendors read aloud the contents of the newspaper on the street while soliciting buyers. The *Yomiuri* sheets were essentially the *Flugblatt* of the Middle Ages of Europe. They consisted of single printed sheets, or pamphlets of several pages, recording the latest events of the period. Even in those days the progress of wood-block prints permitted the appearance of illustrations in the sheets. In many cases the illustrations were the outstanding feature, and the descriptive matter was of secondary importance. In this respect the *Yomiuri* differed from the *Flugblatt* of Europe.

Its Publishers Old records are lacking to identify the publishers of the *Yomiuri*, but it appears that the publishers of newspapers, or what served as newspapers, in the earlier part of the Tokugawa period (about 250 years before the Restoration of Meiji, 1868) were men of little fame and honor. Even at the end of the Tokugawa period it appears that the publishers of the *Yomiuri* were men of such lowly social status that they were not permitted to enter the society of even woodblock printers. It is, however, considered likely that this early form of newspaper failed to make any progress owing to government pressure. The *Yomiuri* carried reports that were often inflammatory and distasteful to the government. Suspension of publication was ordered so frequently that no decent publishers dared to take it up as an enterprise. Only men of low repute

engaged in the business often against the law.

Printing of the *Yomiuri* sheets was done by wood-block prints. The contents of the *Yomiuri* sheets can generally be divided into two, prose and poetry. This distinction, it appears, existed from the early part of the Tokugawa period. In the era of Genroku (1688-1704) the hawkers sold the news sheets on the street either calling the attention of prospective buyers by singing, with or without the accompaniment of the *samisen*, or merely reading aloud the contents. At the end of the Tokugawa period sheets were sold with the sellers singing popular ballads.

Its Contents A perusal of those *Yomiuri* sheets still extant shows that at the outset of the development the chief interest of the sheets lay in the illustrations. What are believed to be the oldest *Yomiuri* have illustrations of the Battle of the Osaka Natsu-no-Jin in May in the first year of the era of Genna (1615), accompanied by descriptive matter. Judging from the frequent issuance of suppression or suspension orders, *Yomiuri* sheets appear to have been published and sold in abundance during the eras of Empo (1673-81), Jokyo (1684-88) and Genroku (1688-1704).

In Western Japan, with Osaka as the center, there is evidence of the popularity of erotic contents in *Yomiuri* sheets, featuring such stuff as stories of double suicides. Since the vendetta of the famous Forty-seven Ronin, vendetta stories formed the chief subject of interest and after the era of Genroku, subjects of natural calamities were featured. In the eras of Bunka (1804-18) and Bunsai (1818-30) the enforcement of justice and morality undertaken by the Shogunate government, stressing the protection of right and chastisement of wrong, was reflected in the stories featured in the *Yomiuri* sheets of those days, even in the accounts of natural calamities and those of sex relations.

Because the stories were written by

men of low repute, the contents of the Yomiuri sheets in many cases were repellent in tone. Immediately before and after the Restoration of Meiji, accounts of the civil disturbances were written, but by this time the number of Yomiuri sheets had considerably decreased owing to the appearance of newspapers in the more correct sense of the term.

Fusetsugaki Another equivalent of the modern newspaper, in addition to the Yomiuri, was a periodical named "Fusetsugaki" or Book of Reports, which carried foreign news. These books carried either Dutch or Chinese reports. After the third Tokugawa Shogun adopted the policy of seclusion, it was only China and the Netherlands which had intercourse with Japan. Captain "Yanyos" (Jan Josten) of Holland, after Japan's adoption of the seclusion policy, presented annually a book descriptive of foreign affairs to the Shogunate government. It was the Oranda Fusetsugaki, or Book of Dutch Reports.

The Chinese government in those days presented to the Shogunate government of Japan Chinese intelligence after the manner of the Dutchmen. Information obtained thus was placed in the hands of the Prime Minister and kept confidential, but after the American "black ships" came to knock at the door of Japan, permission was granted to make copies of those books for public circulation.

The presentation of Dutch documents continued until the era of Ansei (1854-60), but as the country was opened to foreign intercourse this custom was discontinued at the request of the Dutch government, which instead of the customary annual volume presented Dutch newspaper to the Japanese government. It is considered certain that the newspapers thus presented to Japan were copies of the *Javasche Courant*, organ of the Government of Batavia.

Precursor of Modern Paper When the provincial clans requested that the Dutch Book of Reports be made public, the Shogunate government's *Yosho Shirabésó*, or Bureau for the Study of Western Learning, agreed and planned to publish it. This plan did not materialize, however, as the Dutch government then replaced the book with newspapers. Instead, the bureau translated the newspapers into Japanese and published them for general circula-

tion. This was the precursor of the modern newspaper in Japan.

Not content with this Dutch newspaper, the Shogunate government continued to translate and publish other newspapers from Holland and imported Chinese-language newspapers published by white Christian evangelists in Hongkong, Shanghai and other places, and had them not only translated and annotated but printed and bound into books and entrusted Hyoshiro Yorozuya, a book purveyor to the Shogunate government, with the public sale of these books.

In general printing wooden types were used. For printing these Chinese newspapers imposition was adopted and for this purpose the Shogunate government had to establish a special department for type foundry. This enterprise was a reflection of the out-and-out principle the Shogunate government adopted for opening the country to foreign intercourse. Those books were chiefly published during the era of Bunkyu (1861-64). Hence they were popularly called Bunkyu Shimbun (newspaper).

Papers in Yokohama In the meantime, anti-foreign sentiment was gaining force in this country and after the era of Bunkyu this interfered with the translation and publication of foreign newspapers. Foreign residents of Yokohama, however, translated foreign-language newspapers and published them in Japanese and they were patronized by those who favored opening the country to foreign intercourse. Men on the staff of the Bureau for the Study of Western Learning had an eye on foreign affairs and established a new institution for the purpose of translating into Japanese articles dealing with Japan which appeared in the English-language newspapers in Yokohama, such as the *Japan Commercial News* and *Japan Times*.

Those translations were not printed but written by scribes and circulated among interested persons. The years during which this was done extended from 1863 to 1865. Foreign residents of Yokohama also published three Japanese-language newspapers, *Kaigai Shimbun* (Foreign Newspaper), *Bankoku Shimbun* (International Newspaper) and *Rondon Shimbun* (London Newspaper).

Of these three, the *Bankoku Shimbun* had in its contents not only informa-

tion from abroad but news of Yokohama and comment on the English-language newspapers of Yokohama; it introduced ideas of British civilization and carried many advertisements. This journal was edited ably in a characteristic style and published monthly. From this time general progress in newspaper-making was noticeable.

The Restoration In Japan, as in other countries, the demand for foreign news was a great incentive for the birth of newspapers. The internal disturbances prior to the Restoration and the great aftermath of the historic event afforded an opportunity for the press to develop in all aspects—thereby laying the foundation for the press in the modern sense of the term.

The Press Law

The press law in Japan was enforced by the Government for the first time in February 1869. This was the signal for several new newspapers to spring up. The Government, however, interfered so much with the press that sales of newspapers were much hindered and the healthy progress of the press was checked. While the business side of the press was dull, editing itself attained notable progress. Political news had become unusually constructive and efforts were made to establish a new civilization and propagate new and advanced ideas among the people.

Modern Papers

The Yokohama Mainichi The first Japanese daily newspaper of the modern kind appeared in December 1870, with the publication of the *Yokohama Mainichi Shimbun*. The newspaper consisted of a single sheet of foreign-style paper with printing done with lead types. In outside appearance it had the semblance of the modern newspaper. Although its contents were much inferior to those of the newspapers that were founded later in Tokyo, it resembled English-language newspapers in that it carried many advertisements.

More Papers Born The year 1872 saw the birth of several more dailies, newspapers which were more perfect in appearance and reading matter than their predecessors. Those newspapers included the *Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun*, *Yubin Hochi Shimbun*, and the *Nissin Shinjishi*, the last being edited under the supervision of Mr. Black, formerly

editor of the *Japan Herald*. The *Nichi Nichi* and *Hochi* remain to this day but the *Shinjishi* had to change hands in 1875 when the Government, in an effort to bring pressure to bear upon democratic newspapers, controlled the activities of foreigners in newspapers. The change of ownership brought decadence to the journal and the paper was discontinued shortly afterwards.

Government and Press

Era of Draconic Press Law An era of drastic gag rule dawned upon Japan's journalism in 1875 when the government, dissatisfied with the way in which the press in general stirred up the discontented elements of the people, revised the press law with the avowed purpose of curbing the influence of the newspapers. Severe punishment was provided for violation of the press law. Journalists writing articles censuring the government were fined or imprisoned. Indeed, this was the first time journalists in Japan were exposed to punishment. Not content with this drastic legislation, the government in July, 1877, invested the Home Minister with power to suppress newspapers or delay their publication, and gave him full discretionary powers to curb newspapers as he saw fit. This objectionable law worked havoc with the press, whose progress was much hampered thereby.

The era in which newspapers served as political party organs began in 1881. Two years earlier a movement in favor of instituting the Diet had been launched by the late *Taisuké Itagaki* and others.

Revised Press Law The government's desperate policy of oppression toward the liberals of the period, which resulted in the prohibition of the formation of political associations and the oppression of newspapers and magazines, came to a definite halt on December 26, 1887, with the enforcement of a new government decree. Two days later a revised press law was issued, considerably modifying the strict control of the press, which had had the effect of almost exterminating all the free political organs of the country. The new press law was drafted on the basis of the principle of "freedom of the press," recognized in the Japanese Constitution which was to be promulgated shortly. The new press law was received among journalistic circles with much satisfac-

tion. Indeed, the modified press law marks a turning point in the history of the development of the modern newspaper in this country.

Whereas under the old law a prospective publisher had to apply for a permit to start a newspaper, by the new regulations he had only to notify the authorities of his intention to issue a journal. The prefectural governor was shorn of his power to suppress newspapers or confiscate the newspaper plants and only the Home Minister was given such power. Unreserved criticism for public good was admitted, and compared with the despotic gag rule that had prevailed before, newspaper management under the new law became markedly free.

Emergence of Independent Dailies

The approaching promulgation of the Constitution, coupled with the removal of the ban on the formation of political associations and the growing political enthusiasm among the people, revived political newspapers. In the meantime, the Diet was instituted and the majority of the best-known editors of influential newspapers were elected to the legislature. As a natural consequence, these editors made use of their newspapers as their political tools and alienated public sympathy. Their popularity showed a decided tendency to wane.

The Kokumin and Yorozu While the political organs were thus losing influence, a strictly politically-independent newspaper which refused to cater to the popular taste but which took upon itself the responsibility to instruct the public was founded and caught the fancy of the intellectuals of the day. Its editing, however, was of the old style and this newspaper failed to capture the popular imagination. In the year 1890 Ichiro Tokutomi founded the Kokumin Shimbun, a popular newspaper. This journal enjoyed the support of the masses and soon other papers more or less imitated the style of editing inaugurated by the Kokumin.

In 1892 the late Shuroku Kuroiwa founded the Yorozu Choho, which added to the Kokumin's style of editing a strong spice of sensationalism, devoting much of its space to the publication of detective and love stories. The Yorozu invaded the fields of the Miyako Shimbun, Yamato Shimbun and other newspapers then having the largest cir-

ulation. Thus, the promulgation of the Constitution served to bring about marked progress in the development of modern journalism.

Chinese War and the Press The Sino-Japanese War (1894-5) caused severe competition in news reporting. The Osaka Asahi Shimbun, by introducing new features in covering war news, greatly increased the number of its subscribers. In Tokyo the Chuo Shimbun, closely affiliated with the military, was conspicuous for its activities in the issuance of extras and consequently gained an enlarged circulation. Other papers also sent war correspondents and featured news from the front. The Yorozu was the most popular newspaper in those days, having a circulation of 50,000. The war was also responsible for the appearance of influential provincial newspapers, including the Fukuoka Nichi Nichi Shimbun in Kyushu, the Shin Alchi in Nagoya, the Kahoku Shimpō in Sendai and the Hokkai Times in Hokkaido.

After the Russo-Japanese War

Catering to the Public Following the Sino-Japanese War the majority of the newspapers in Tokyo adopted a non-partisan attitude toward politics and concentrated their efforts in gaining popularity. To advance their sales they resorted to means which often savored of vulgarity and received public criticism. The city of Osaka witnessed a keen rivalry between the Asahi and the Mainichi not only in business but in news gathering. In the meantime, the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5) occurred to start keen competition in war coverage. The Asahi both in Tokyo and Osaka, the Osaka Mainichi and the Jiji Shimpō competed severely in the matter of extras and increased their circulation. The Russo-Japanese peace treaty was signed at Portsmouth, but the peace terms were found unsatisfactory and were stoutly opposed by all the newspapers of Tokyo and Osaka, except the Kokumin and the Chuo, both of Tokyo, the political organs of the government of the day. Anti-peace mass demonstrations were held in Tokyo and Osaka, and in Tokyo the demonstrators, incited by inflammatory articles in one or two newspapers, turned into a mob and attacked the building of the Kokumin Shimbun. To suppress the rioters the government had to pro-

claim martial law. The government simultaneously issued an urgent Imperial Ordinance and suspended the publication of the newspapers for certain periods which incited the public to violence. During the month following the enforcement of the Imperial Ordinance the Yorozu, the Niroku, the Miyako, the Nihon, the Jimmin, the Asahi of Tokyo and Osaka, and other papers were suspended. Of these papers, the Niroku and the Osaka Asahi suffered suspension twice in a month.

Equilibrium of Influence The panic in the newspaper world thus brought about upset the equilibrium of influence. The Kokumin lost much of its circulation; so did the Chuo. The Yorozu, with a special appeal to the youth of Japan increased its circulation markedly. In Osaka the Mainichi took advantage of the suspension of publication which the Asahi suffered and invaded its unfortunate yet heretofore superior competitor's field, with the result that finally their influence in business and other respects became about even.

Motion Picture Utilized Several changes for the better were effected following the Russo-Japanese War, and it is noteworthy that the changes effected were all concerned with newspaper enterprises. The Kokumin, which had suffered a dwindling popularity since the paper became the object of public censure by supporting the government that signed a "humiliating peace treaty," issued provincial editions, an example which was soon followed by other newspapers. Shortly afterward the Hochi attained success by issuing an evening edition. This ambitious enterprise was also followed by several other competitors.

As regards the contents of newspapers, the Yorozu reported all sorts of sports and amusements; the Asahi brightened its pages with articles from the pen of famous men of letters like the late Soseki Natsume, and the Hochi established a precedent by carrying a novel in serial form that suited home reading. On the business side, the Hochi took the initiative in establishing provincial branches. The Yamato promoted an exhibition and began a motion picture demonstration show throughout the country.

That these enterprises attained favorable results soon showed in the increased number of circulation. According to reports considered reliable, the Osaka Asahi topped the list with 350,000. The

Osaka Mainichi came next with 300,000, and the other papers came in the following order: the Hochi, 200,000; the Yorozu, the Kokumin and the Yamato each 150,000; the Tokyo Asahi, 80,000, and the others 30,000 or 40,000 each.

In the Taisho Era

Expansion of Business One notable advance made by the press of Japan during the Taisho Era was the remarkable expansion of newspaper business. All first-class journals erected imposing structures for their offices and installed expensive high-speed presses. By the end of the era all the leading newspapers in Tokyo and Osaka had become public corporations with their capitalizations exceeding the ¥1,000,000 mark.

The earthquake and fire of 1923 reduced to ashes the majority of the newspapers in Tokyo, except the Hochi, Nichi Nichi and Miyako. Of the unfortunate sufferers, those financially well off made a good start and soon recovered their former positions, but those less financially favored failed to raise their heads again and had to remain content with insignificant positions. At present the Osaka Asahi and Osaka Mainichi claim more than 1,300,000 copies paid circulation each, and some of the leading papers in Tokyo also claim a daily circulation of a million copies. It is not an exaggeration to say that the achievements made by the press of Japan after the dawn of the Showa era (1926), are a high-water mark of Japan's modern culture.

Newspapers Today

In circulation, news service and public influence the Osaka Asahi and Osaka Mainichi, with their head offices in Osaka enjoy a position admittedly superior to all other contemporaries. They have their respective sister papers in Tokyo, the Tokyo Asahi and Tokyo Nichi Nichi. Recently, the Yomiuri, one of the oldest newspapers published in the capital, has come to a close second in circulation and news service.

The two Osaka papers divide the country with their two Tokyo sister papers with Shizuoka as the dividing line. The Osaka edition covers the western part of Japan, Shikoku, Kyushu, Chosen, Taiwan, Manchoukuo, China and other southern regions. The Tokyo edition covers the areas east of Tokyo up to

Hokkaido and Karafuto (the southern half of Saghalien). This system of division seems to have been generally adopted by other Tokyo papers.

Other well-known dailies which exercise considerable influence in respective districts are the following: The Yomiuri, Hochi, Chugai Shogyo, and Miyako, published in Tokyo; The Kahoku Shimpō of Sendai; The Shinano Mainichi of Nagano; The Shin Aichi and Nagoya Shimbun published in Nagoya; The Fukuoka Nichi Nichi of Fukuoka.

Since the Manchurian incident all dailies in Japan have made a definite swing in the direction of a nationalistic outlook, looking at the various problems from a strictly nationalistic point of view. Japan's continental policy is being given much prominence and the pioneering spirit given full support. The press unanimously upheld Japan's policy of extending her influence to the continent and, to that end, forming an alliance with the newly born Empire of Manchoukuo.

China Affair The outbreak of the China Affair (1937) brought about a decided change in the press, both in its physical and moral aspects. On account of the stringent control of paper pulp, the supply of newsprint was rationed while many dailies, weeklies and monthlies had to amalgamate or discontinue publication. All dailies have reduced the number of pages; the noon edition has been given up and, with rare exceptions, the Sunday evening edition has been discarded. The size of advertisements has been reduced and the full page advertisements for toilet articles, department stores, etc. which used to be common formerly have disappeared altogether.

Censorship is enforced with greater vigilance but the press is voluntarily cooperating with the authorities in censoring news and reports that have close bearing upon the military operations and the general policy of carrying out the basic purpose of the China affair.

With the outbreak of the China Affair, the press launched forth a large scale system of news gathering. Picked correspondents and cameramen were dispatched with major army units and quite a number of them were killed in action, while braving the danger of enemy fire for gathering news. The outbreak of the present European War further complicated the international

situation, making the press busier than ever before.

One peculiar feature regarding the daily newspapers in Japan is the absence of the Sunday edition such as is seen in the United States. The edition on Sundays is the same as that on other week days. The traditional custom among the Japanese to spend the Sundays, as far as possible, out of doors for recreational purposes may largely account for the lack of Sunday editions.

(See "The Press in Wartime Japan," Contemporary Japan, April 1940 number).

Number of Newspapers

The number of daily newspapers in Japan proper in December 1938, was 1,103. In addition, there were on the same day 619 newspapers issued 4 times or more a month and 6,017 newspapers issued 3 times or less a month. All these 7,739 papers come under the category of "newspapers" and are so treated by the Government.

Since 1938 the Government strengthened the control of newspapers and advised the publishers of petty dailies to discontinue their publication, in view of the shortage of newsprint and other reasons. The following tables reveal the result of such control in 1938.

NUMBER OF DAILY PAPERS

According to Districts in 1937 and 1938

District	1937	1938
Northern prefectures		
Hokkaido	76	62
Aomori	12	17
Iwaté	14	14
Miyagi	15	16
Akita	7	7
Yamagata	12	11
Fukushima	38	28
Prefectures around Tokyo		
Ibaraki	19	0
Tochigi	15	10
Gumma	14	13
Saitama	7	7
Chiba	14	12
Tokyo	254	238
Kanagawa	19	20
Prefectures facing the Japan Sea		
Niigata	23	20
Toyama	7	6
Ishikawa	10	10
Fukui	14	12

District	1937	1938	District	1937	1938
Prefectures in Central Main Island			Okayama	10	10
Yamanashi	8	7	Hiroshima	17	18
Nagano	40	38	Yamaguchi	17	17
Shizuoka	62	50	Prefectures in Shikoku		
Prefectures around Nagoya			Tokushima	4	3
Gifu	12	12	Kagawa	3	2
Aichi	74	61	Ehime	20	17
Mie	16	16	Kochi	4	4
Prefectures around Osaka			Prefectures in Kyushu		
Shiga	18	17	Fukuoka	56	40
Kyoto	31	33	Saga	6	4
Osaka	95	90	Nagasaki	10	10
Hyogo	48	48	Kumamoto	7	6
Nara	9	9	Oita	32	32
Wakayama	19	18	Miyazaki	13	12
Prefectures in Western Main Island			Kagoshima	6	5
Tottori	3	4	Okinawa	6	6
Shimane	2	2	Total	1,208	1,103

YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF PERIODICAL IN JAPAN PROPER

Year	Sum Total	Total	With Guarantee Money			Without Guarantee Money			
			Daily	4 Times or More Monthly	3 Times or Less Monthly	Total	Daily	4 Times or More Monthly	3 Times or Less Monthly
1929	9,191	5,917	1,020	417	4,480	3,274	201	193	2,880
1930	10,130	5,995	1,031	428	4,536	4,135	184	221	3,730
1931	10,666	6,290	1,083	476	4,731	4,376	197	247	3,932
1932	11,118	6,301	1,124	463	4,714	4,817	206	241	4,370
1933	11,860	6,678	1,179	461	5,038	5,182	210	261	4,711
1934	12,166	7,081	1,219	470	5,392	5,084	215	258	4,611
1935	12,101	7,180	1,222	506	5,452	4,921	219	295	4,407
1936	12,820	7,531	1,226	564	5,741	5,289	209	498	4,582
1937	13,268	7,797	1,208	609	5,980	5,471	214	574	4,683
1938	12,043	7,739	1,103	619	6,017	4,304	176	323	3,805

Note: Publications that discuss political questions must deposit a certain amount of "guarantee money" with the authorities, otherwise they are forbidden to publish anything referring to politics. A magazine devoted to purely literary matters does not come under this regulation.

Circulation

Circulation Unpublished The circulation of daily newspapers in Japan ranges from about 4,000 to about 1,500,000. Japanese newspapers do not publish exact circulation figures. What is believed to be a comparatively accurate estimate of the daily circulation of more than 1,100 newspapers is 19,000,000. In 1937 the average monthly consumption of paper by all newspapers amounted to over 800,000,000 lbs. The number of households in Japan is over 17,500,000. Newspapers are far more widely read in cities than in the provinces and they are read more in commercial and industry districts than in agricultural districts.

Tokyo has the largest number of daily newspapers, and the more powerful ones are a well-defined force in society. Among them are the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, the Yomiuri Shimbun, the Hochi Shimbun, the Miyako Shimbun, the Kokumin Shimbun and the Chugai Shogyo Shimpō.

Osaka City has a relatively small number of daily papers, 84 in all, but, as regards circulation, the Osaka Asahi which is the head office of the Tokyo Asahi, and the Osaka Mainichi, which controls the Tokyo Nichi Nichi, predominate all, and their circulation is said to be nearly the same. The two papers have practically the whole of

Western Japan under their control, and their influence is felt stronger in Kyushu districts by the publication of the "Kyushu Asahi" and the "Western Mainichi" commenced in February 1935.

Estimated Circulation Estimated circulation of leading dailies in Japan is as follows:

Tokyo	
Tokyo Asahi	1,100,000
Tokyo Nichi Nichi	1,000,000
Yomiuri	1,000,000
Chugai Shogyo	150,000
Kokumin	150,000
Hochi	300,000
Osaka	
Osaka Asahi	1,300,000
Osaka Mainichi	1,200,000
Leading Provincial Papers	
Shin-ichi, Nagoya	200,000
Fukuoka Nichi Nichi,	
Fukuoka	150,000
Hokkai Times, Sapporo	100,000
Kahoku Shimpō, Sendai	100,000

Subscriptions Subscription fees of Japanese daily papers in large cities range from ¥1.00 to ¥1.50. Airplanes are used for transportation of newspapers between Osaka and Fukuoka, but in most cases it is done by trains and electric cars.

Magazines

Many and varied are the periodicals, mostly monthlies, published in this country. A casual visit to a book-stall or the book section of any of our department stores, will give one some indication of the amount of mental pabulum provided to the masses by this type of publication. Statistics show that in 1937 the number of magazines including monthlies, semi-monthlies and quarterlies published in Japan totalled 18,651.

The more serious periodicals intended primarily for intellectuals deal with a wide range of subjects including social problems, science, literature, sports, as well as political and economic subjects. There are four or five magazines that may be regarded as representative both in respect of size and contents, catering to the intellectual class of people, and every one of them has the thickness of a fairly big volume, containing from 500 to 600 pages in octavo.

What is more, these magazines become stouter still at least four times a year when special numbers are issued. So far as the number of pages is concerned, these monthlies most probably stand in a class by themselves in the whole world.

These magazines publish, among other things, detailed reports of news relating to political and economic problems, and frank comments by experts on such problems. Besides, every one of these journals contains, as a rule, a treatise or two of topical interest, usually examinations, from various points of view such as political, philosophical, religious, and literary, of some of the heritages of Japan's past which remained ignored while the country was busy transplanting Western civilization to her soil.

Another feature of these periodicals is that a large number of contributors write for each issue. The number averages about 45, of which from one-third to one-half are generally considered as first-rate writers of the day. The writings of these men, excellent both in substance and style, make an attractive feature in any magazine.

Another feature of these monthlies is the large space devoted to short stories and dramas by rising authors. Each issue contains as a rule three or four feature stories or dramas, and in the case of a special number anything from five to seven. Short-story writing has been and still is occupying an important place in the literary field in this country. One of the cogent reasons for the healthy growth of this branch of literature in this country may be sought in the great favor shown by magazine editors to young writers able but unknown to fame. It has been the custom ever since the Meiji era for almost all literary efforts by writers, who have since become famous in the literary world to be introduced to the public first through the pages of magazines of a serious nature.

These serious magazines have a limited circulation of from 30,000 to 70,000 each. Magazines which have a larger circle of readers are those catering to the tastes of the masses, young and old, and those edited primarily for the fair sex.

There are about five popular magazines that are reported to have a combined monthly circulation of more than 1,500,000. As might be expected, editors of such magazines are out to put in

stories calculated to move the reader to tears or tickle his or her sense of humour. Here is a vast scope for popular writers of tales replete with those deeds of derring-do which reflect the ethos of the feudal days. Sentimental love stories by popular novelists are hailed with great delight. The Edgar Wallaces and Wodehouses of Japan find in these journals a great demand for their thrilling and side-splitting stories.

Keeping pace with these journals in point of popularity are women's magazines. They contain, among other things, articles on social problems previously touched upon in newspapers, such as the love affairs concerning film stars, cases of double suicide, scandals of noted ladies and many other sensational topics. Space is not allotted to sensationalism alone. A great deal of space is also devoted to articles on conventional things, such as hints on cookery, sewing and the care of babies—rehashed and repeated year in and year out—as well as romances by popular writers.

Another remarkable thing about all these popular journals is that whenever special numbers are issued, generally three times a year, two or three extra volumes, running up to 200 pages each, are thrown in as a token of gratitude to the reader. This idea of showing generosity was originally hit on by Mr. Noma. The extra volumes thus given into the bargain generally contain articles on the ABC of manual art, or else articles meant purely for amusement.

Of the monthly magazines described above, those of a serious nature generally see the issues of the following month out on or about the 19th of the preceding month, popular magazines

much earlier, that is, about the 10th. As soon as they are out a half-page advertisement, showing the contents with subjects and names of writers of feature articles printed in large type, is inserted for two or three days in the principal newspapers.

There are at present more than 8,500 varieties of monthly journals in Japan. Of these about 800 are on sale in Tokyo. Below are given figures representing some of the principal magazines:

Magazines (serious)	250
Magazines (light)	58
Women's magazines	25
Young men's magazines	95
Juvenile magazines	30

Press Organizations

Nippon Shimbun Kyokai (The Japan Newspaper Association); founded 1913 by daily newspapers, news and advertising agencies, H.I.H. Prince Naruhiko Higashikuni, honorary president since 1926; Count Keigo Kiyoura, former premier, president; Hoshio Mitsunaga, director-in-chief. Its honorary members include a large number of writers of national fame.

Shunjukai; founded 1903; a social club of newspaper editors, magazine writers and correspondents in Tokyo.

Niju-ichi-Nichi-Kai; founded 1926; members include editorial directors, managers, news editors and others holding responsible positions on the editorial staffs of newspapers.

The Federation of Newspapermen and News Agency Reporters; founded 1931; consists of 46 newspapermen's and news agency reporters' clubs at various governmental institutions and economic or financial bodies.

Leading newspaper and news agency reporters' clubs are as follows:

Names

Naikaku Kisha Kai
Shimbun Kisha Club
Kasumi Club
Naisei Kenkyu Kai
Kokucho Kai
Shinyu Club
Tokiwa Club
Uneme Kai
Nosei Kisha Kai
Zaisei Kenkyu Kai
Hitotsubashi Club
Takuma Club
Kosei Club
Tetsudo Isshin Kai

At

Cabinet
Imperial Diet
Foreign Ministry
Home Ministry
Navy Ministry
War Ministry
Communications Ministry
Commerce and Industry Ministry
Agriculture and Forestry Ministry
Finance Ministry
Education Ministry
Overseas Ministry
Welfare Ministry
Railway Ministry

Names	At
Hosel Kenkyu Kai	Justice Ministry
Yamashita Club	Selyukai*
Sakurada Club	Minseito*
Shinto Kisha Kai	Kokumin Domei*
Rodo Kisha Kai	Proletarian Parties*
Kinyu Doshi Kai	Bank of Japan
Kabuto Club	Tokyo Stock Exchange
Keizai Kisha Club	Tokyo Chamber of Commerce and Industry
Tokyo Undo Kisha Club	Of sports writers
* Major political party	headquarters

News Agencies

The Shimbun Rengo Tsushin Sha was merged with the Nippon Dempo Tsushin Sha (June 1, 1936) and became known as the Domei Tsushin Sha. It is organized by 200 Japanese daily newspapers on a non-profit making system, on the same lines as the Associated Press in America, and its directorate is represented by leading dailies and the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan.

The Domei maintains close relations with representative news agencies abroad, and their correspondents in Tokyo have offices in the Domei building. It handles domestic and foreign news, news reels, news photos, overseas radio service.

The Nippon Dempo remains a purely advertising agency.

Schools of Journalism

Waseda, Meiji and Jochi universities maintain their schools of journalism since early 1930's. Tokyo Imperial University opened a similar school as a section of the Faculty of Literature in 1932. Lecturers in the Tokyo Imperial Journalism course include noted men of experience in the active press work. The Newspaper School (Shimbun Gakuin), founded by Shinjiro Yamano, of the Kokumin Shimbun, sent out its first 40 graduates in December 1932.

College Papers

Tokyo Imperial and Waseda universities issue a weekly of their own; Keio and Kyoto Imperial universities a bi-monthly; Meiji and Kansai universities a monthly, all in Japanese and edited by students of journalism. Waseda publishes a monthly newspaper, The Waseda Guardian; Tokyo Imperial University an annual edition, both in English. Kwansel Gakuin used to publish

The Gakuin Observer (also in English) twice a year but is temporarily suspended.

Foreign Language Publications

The Nagasaki Shipping List and Advertiser, a weekly, first issued in Nagasaki in 1861 by a resident Britisher, named Hansard, was the first foreign language newspaper published in Japan. He soon moved to Yokohama where he continued the publication, in December of the same year, under the name of the Japan Herald. He employed another Britisher named Black as its editor.

The Japan Herald was soon followed by a weekly, in 1863, known as the Commercial News, edited by a Portuguese. The Japan Herald, in October of the same year, started, in addition to the weekly, a daily, featuring advertisements. In 1865 the Commercial News was discontinued and a certain banker Rickerby bought the equipment and started The Japan Times in September of the same year. (This publication has no connection whatever with the daily of the same name published in Tokyo).

A dispute arose in the Japan Herald in 1867 between its editor Black and the new owner, and Mr. Black left the paper and started the Japan Gazette, an evening paper. The popularity of the Japan Gazette was so great that it eventually forced the Japan Times out of business.

Shortly after the disappearance of the Japan Times, Captain Brinkley, a Britisher, started the Japan Mail. It enjoyed a large patronage among Japanese and foreign residents and after the death of Captain Brinkley was run by his son, the paper having moved, in the meantime, from Yokohama to Tokyo. In 1914 the Japan Mail was merged with the Japan Times, the paper being known since then as the Japan Times & Mail.

There was another English language

newspaper, the Japan Express, edited by an American, which first appeared in 1866. The copies of the paper were hand-written, engraved in wood blocks and printed. The name of this American and the duration of time the paper was published are unknown but a diplomatic document in the possession of the French Government records that this journal represented American interests.

There were also a French newspaper, L'Echo du Japon, in the Keio era (1865-68), an English magazine, the Japan Punch which was started in the Bunkyo era (1861-64) and lasted for 20 years, and a French magazine of caricatures, "Tobaye." These foreign papers served to stimulate, directly or indirectly, the birth and growth of modern newspapers in Japan.

Mention should be made of the Nagasaki Press, one of the oldest foreign language newspapers, the Kobe Herald, and the Yokohama Gazette. They kept up a heroic struggle but eventually discontinued. The earthquake of 1923 dealt a death blow to them financially.

The Japan Times, started in 1900, sponsored by leading statesmen and businessmen, under the editorship of Motosada Zumoto, may be considered the oldest daily in English (or in any foreign language) in Japan. It was launched with the purpose of presenting correct information about Japan to the world and has been carrying on with increasing success. Its name was changed to the Japan Times & Mail when it was amalgamated with the Japan Mail in 1914. About that time, Mr. Zumoto left the Times.

The Osaka Mainichi, English edition, was begun by the Osaka Mainichi in Osaka with the same purpose as the Japan Times, in 1922. A year later, in April 1923, the Tokyo Nichi Nichi, English edition, was started in the Tokyo Nichi Nichi building, a sister paper of the Osaka Mainichi. The following year, it was transferred to Osaka and fused together with the Osaka Mainichi, becoming known as the Osaka Mainichi & Tokyo Nichi Nichi.

The Japan Advertiser and Japan Chronicle are both foreign-owned dailies of long record. The Advertiser is regarded as a mouthpiece of American interests and the Chronicle that of British interests.

Contemporary Japan was first published in June 1932 as a quarterly by The Foreign Affairs Association of Japan,

founded in 1931, Tokyo, to furnish all principal phases in the current national life of Japan. In order, however, to achieve the object more effectively, consonant to the changing national conditions, it was made from a quarterly to a monthly, (beginning March 1939). Contributors to Contemporary Japan include men of highest authorities in respective lines of their endeavors. Members of Council are: Prince Fumimaro Konoye, Marquis Moritatsu Hosokawa, Counts Nobunaki Makino and Kentaro Kaneko, Viscount Kikujiro Ishii, Barons Yoshiro Sakatani and Kijuro Shidehara, Seihin Ikeda, Hantaro Nagaoka, D. Sc., and Kihelji Onozuka, LL.D., while Prince Iyesato Tokugawa continued a member from the beginning until he passed away in June 1940. The Director is Toshi Go who is also Managing Director of The Japan Times & Mail.

The newspapers and periodicals in foreign languages published in Japan today are as follows:—

Daily

- Japan Times & Mail (published in the evening)
- Japan Advertiser (published in the morning)
- Osaka Mainichi & Tokyo Nichi Nichi (m.e., except Mondays)
- Japan Chronicle (m.e., except Mondays)

Weekly

- Japan Times Weekly (Japan Times Pub. Co.)
- Herald of Asia (Motosada Zumoto, editor)
- Weeks Attractions (Japan Tourist Bureau)
- Deutsche Kulturschau
- Latest China Intelligence
- Trans-Pacific
- Japan Chronicle Weekly
- Japan News Week

Monthly

- Contemporary Japan (Foreign Affairs Association of Japan)
- Monthly Circular (Mitsubishi Economic Research Bureau)
- Tokyo Gazette (Tokyo Gazette Pub. House)
- Tourist (Japan Tourist Bureau)
- Japan Trade Monthly
- Travel Bulletin (N.Y.K.)
- Oriental Economist

Bulletin of South Sea Association
Pictorial Orient (Tokyo Asahi)
Commercial Japan
Japana Esperanto Servo
Rotary
Tenrikyo (The Shinto Sect)
International Gleanings from Japan
World Federation
Milestones of Progress (monthly supplement to Contemporary Manchuria, Dalren)

Quarterly

Travel in Japan (Board of Tourist Industry, Railway Ministry)
Commerce (Japan Foreign Trade Federation)
Contemporary Manchuria (South Manchuria Railway Co.)
Cultural Nippon (Nippon Central Cultural Federation)
Home Life (Osaka Mainichi)

Publications

A Historical Summary

The number of books published in Japan prior to 1881 is not accurately known. But judged from the records and catalogues of books now existing, they may be roughly taken as follows:

About 1,800 between the time of founding the country and one year before the time when the Shogunate Government was established at Kamakura.

About 5,000 since the establishment of the Shogunate Government at Kamakura until one year before the time when the Tokugawa Shogunate was established.

About 60,000 between the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate and the Meiji Restoration.

About 130,000 between the 1st and the 10th year of Meiji, 33,819 between the 10th and the 13th year of Meiji, and 679,368 between 1881 and 1924. Statistics for latest years follow:

1927	19,967
1928	19,880
1929	21,111
1930	22,476
1931	23,110
1932	22,104
1933	24,025
1934	26,331
1935	30,347
1936	31,996
1937	30,732
1938	29,466

Annual

Japan Year Book (Foreign Affairs Association of Japan)
Japan (Japan Times Pub. Co.)
Japan Today & Tomorrow (Osaka Mainichi)
Present Day Nippon (Osaka Asahi)
Japan Advertiser Annual Review (The Japan Advertiser)

Bi-Monthly

Japan Trade Review (Yokohama Commercial & Industrial Museum in Yokohama Chamber of Commerce & Industry)

Daily News Service in English

Domest Service (domestic, foreign, commercial, etc.)
Okuyama Service
Pacific Information
Commercial Daily Report

Since the outbreak of the China Affair, the number of publications in Japan has tended to decrease. Books and pamphlets have fallen off by 4 per cent in 1937 and 1938. This trend is largely due to the high price of paper, which began to rise in the spring of 1937, and to the recent increases in postal charges. Most significant was the decrease in the number of pamphlets and the increase in books. For a time there was actually a deluge of pamphlets, the peak coming in July 1936, when for the 996 books published there appeared 1,520 pamphlets. But the pamphleteer's popularity has dwindled in recent months, and in October 1938, there were only 505 such literary products as compared with 1,898 books, a decrease of about two-thirds.

Many factors have contributed to this decrease in pamphlets, especially the ten-sen brochures. One factor has been the appearance of the Cabinet Information Bureau's Weekly Report, which has acted as an authoritative substitute for the various brands of news-interpretation pamphlets which held the field in the past. Another important cause has been the liquidation of various problems which had supplied the themes for many a pamphleteer owing to the unification of public opinion during the emergency. But the main reason for this significant decline is the fact that serious-minded readers no longer rely upon such pamphlets as a background for the daily

news.

Of the 29,466 publications turned off the press in 1938, the largest individual group is represented by literature, numbering 2,452.

The number decreased by 204 as compared with the previous year. But it is noticeable that the ratio of decrease is but 7.7 per cent against 28.5 per cent of books devoted to politics. The reason why literary works, novels and stories, maintained a steady output during the past 5 years is to be found in the fact that people are seeking entertainment in them in these years of emergency more than in peacetime, so that stories depicting the affairs at the war and home fronts appeared in greater numbers. The decrease in the books on politics is largely due to the decrease in pamphlets.

The number of religious books published remained normal, indicating the presence of a strong thirst for spiritual comfort.

Another interesting result may be seen in the increase of books on language and dictionaries. In spite of a movement against studying matters foreign among nationalist circles, the majority of the people remain as progressive as ever, and the eagerness for obtaining knowledge of foreign countries is much accelerated on account of the China Affair and the prevailing international situation. The increase of young men who enter colleges and universities in recent years is another factor.

The increase noted in the publication of books on military affairs is but natural in the years of emergency.

The total number of books and pamphlets published in 1938 decreased to 1,266 or 4.1 per cent from the previous year. But it is an increase of 780 or 2.6 per cent as compared with the average of the preceding 5 years which was 28,686.

YEARLY COMPARISON OF PUBLICATIONS

Subjects	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Politics	704	1,047	1,127	1,322	945
Law	635	774	876	835	833
Economy	1,005	1,482	2,000	1,707	1,745
Social science	832	804	1,252	1,414	1,222
Statistics	130	256	183	251	205
Religion	1,556	1,816	1,891	1,576	1,453
Philosophy	985	1,245	1,248	1,106	751
Education	2,798	2,041	2,581	1,830	1,677
Text books	1,809	2,260	1,488	2,709	1,948
Literature	2,431	2,669	3,189	2,656	2,452
Language	1,114	967	1,341	1,378	1,621
History	470	530	460	455	503
Biography	532	584	547	411	583
Geography	1,063	1,301	1,467	1,444	1,132
Mathematics	202	347	590	529	404
Natural science	448	660	602	429	422
Engineering	724	804	862	1,035	993
Medicine	809	827	985	927	989
Industry	1,166	1,488	1,884	1,751	1,368
Communications and transportation	151	145	243	246	228
Military subjects	407	383	414	834	961
Fine arts	907	915	1,117	1,107	812
Music	888	1,407	1,185	963	908
Handicrafts	67	145	185	71	245
Dictionaries	134	102	102	123	151
Series	234	369	378	419	511
Domestic subjects	1,163	1,815	1,451	1,011	1,434
Amusements	552	558	761	786	557
Miscellaneous	2,415	2,606	1,587	1,407	2,412
Total	26,311	30,347	31,996	30,732	29,466

LIST OF PRINCIPAL PERIODICALS

Politics and literature:

- Chuo Koron (Central Review)
 Kaizo (Reconstruction)
 Nippon Hyoron (Japanese Review)
 Bungéi Shunju (Literary Review)

Politics and law

- Séikai Chishiki (World Knowledge)
 Shakaiséisaku Jiho (Social Policy Review)

Kokusai Chishiki and Hyoron (International Knowledge)

- Gaiko Jiho (Diplomatic Review)
 Kakushin (Renovation)
 Hogaku Shimpo (Science of Law)

Finance and Economic Magazines:

- Toyo Kéizai Shimpo (Oriental Economic Review)

Economist

Diamond

- Kéizai Chishiki (Economic Knowledge)

Kéizai (Economy)

Zaisei (Finance)

- Honpo Zalkai Josei (Economic Conditions of the Country)

Kokusei Graph (International Graph)

Popular Magazines:

- King
 Hinodé (Rising Sun)
 Kodan Kurabu (Kodan Story Magazine)

Gendai (Present Generation)

All Yomimono (all Stories)

Hanashi (Story)

Shinseinen (New Young Generation)

Taïriku (Continent)

Literary Magazines:

- Bungéi (Literary arts)
 Bungaku (Literature)
 Bungakukai (Literary World)
 Bungakusha (Men of Letters)
 Shincho (New Tide)
 Araragi, a waka magazine
 Hototogisu, a haiku magazine
 Butai (Stage)

Women's Magazines:

- Fujin Koron (Women's Review)
 Fujin Kurabu (Women's Club)
 Shufu-no Tomo (Friend of Ladies)
 Fujin-no Tomo (Women's Friend)

CHAPTER XXXIV
LITERATURE, ARTS AND MUSIC

Literature

History

Yamato Period The history of Japanese literature may be divided, in accordance with the political development of the country, into 6 periods: the Yamato, Héian, Kamakura, Muromachi, Yédo and Tokyo periods. The Yamato period comprises the Kodai (archaic period) and the Nara age that followed. The term, Yamato, is derived from the district of Yamato, Nara prefecture, wherein was the seat of the Imperial capital throughout that age. This nascent age of Japanese literature ended in 781 A. D., with the removal of the Imperial capital to Kyoto, then called Héian, by the Emperor Kammu. It may seem improper to include so long a period under one section, but this early stage of Japanese literary growth can thus conveniently be considered as one concrete age, and be studied as such.

(1) **Literary Works.** The literary works which reveal the mind of the Yamato period and which are still extant, are: the Kojiki, Nihonshoki, Fudoki, Norito, Senmyo, Manyoshu, Kaifuso, and Nihonraiki. The principal writers are: Ohno-Yasumaro, Tonérisshino, Yamabé-no-Akahito, Kakinomoto-no-Hitomaro, Yamanoé-no-Okura, Ohtomono-Yakamochi, Ohmino-Mifuné, besides certain sages of the prehistoric age. The last mentioned, Ohmino-Mifuné, was proficient in Chinese classics

and poetry.

(2) **Development and Classification.** Narrative prose and lyric verse assumed concrete form in this period. From a literary point of view the writings of the period can be divided into two sections: works in descriptive style, of which the Kojiki is the main representative; and poetry that followed, with the Manyoshu¹ anthology as the typical poetic composition.

Individual self-consciousness realized meagre general development; instead, a collective sense controlled society. But ample evidence of a pure national spirit is seen. In the latter part of this period alien ideas were introduced from China and India, but could not find their way deeply into the minds of the people. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that the literary achievements of this awakening period are instinct with the noble national spirit of loyalty and ancestor-worship, permeated with the national traits of optimism, frankness, and genuine simplicity.

Héian Period The Héian period starts from the year in which the Emperor Kammu removed the Imperial palace to Kyoto, then called Héian, and ends in 1186 when the Shogunate government was established by Yoritomo Minamoto at Kamakura. This second literary period, covering nearly 400 years, following the period of dawn, saw Japanese prose and poetry reach full bloom.

¹ Manyoshu (or Manyoshu). The anthology is considered to be one of the greatest poetical attainments of the nation not only in this period, but all through the history of Japanese literature. Its compiler is unknown. The period in which the poets of the book lived covers 450 years from 313 to 764 A.D., and the range of the social standard of the poets extends to all classes from the Emperor down to the farmer or the hermit. The book contains 4,396 poems, which consist of 262 long poems, 4,172 waka and 62 others. Their themes are taken from human relations, love, lamentation, the four seasons, and natural scenery. They are written in the Yamato dialect with Chinese characters. The eminent anthologists in it are Kakinomoto-no-Hitomaro of the epic long poems; Yamanoué-no-Okura of the long lyrics who took his themes from social and economic problems of his day; Yamabé-no-Akahito, the only nature poet among the group; Ohtomono-Yakamochi who is believed by many critics to be the compiler of the book and Nukata-no-Ohogimi and Sakanoé-Iratsumé, who distinctly tower above many poetesses who left beautiful love songs with the anthology to their posterity.

Generally speaking, the literature of the period emerged from a style of clear-cut simplicity to one of elegance and delicacy, all literary productions assuming a mood of refined sentiment. In presentment likewise there appeared the graceful kana syllabary, in keeping with current ideas. This harmonization of content and form in the literature of the Héian period set an example to succeeding generations. The Héian period is thus the golden age of Japanese literary achievement. This period may further be subdivided into the following four sections:

Early Héian period (781-884)

Middle Héian period (885-980)

Mature Héian period (981-1064)

Last Héian period (1065-1182)

(1) Early Héian Period. During this period, imported Chinese culture exercised no small influence on the literary circles of the country, resulting in the popularity of Chinese classics and poetry. Among the poetical works are the *Ryounshu*, *Bunkashureishu*, *Kéikokushu*, while among the authors were the Emperor Saga, Kukai, Onono-Takamura, Miyakono-Yoshika, Onono-Otomo, Sugawarano-Koréyoshi, Tachibanano-Hirosuké, Sugawarano-Michizané, Fujiwarano-Sukéyo and Miyoshi-Kiyoyuki. With the overwhelming influence wielded by these imitators in the domain of the newly imported Chinese literature, the Japanese waka (31-syllabled poem) was threatened at one time with relegation to obscurity. But the situation was saved through realization of a proposal from Sugawarano-Michizané to discontinue the customary visits of Government envoys to China. In consequence, Chinese literature gradually lost its former influence, and the eminent position once occupied by this alien form of belles-letters was taken by Japa-

nese poetry. The forerunner of the revived waka verse was the *Rokkasen*, a collaboration of six representative poets, namely, Ariwarano-Narihira, Onono-Komachi, Bungano-Yasuhidé, Kisenhoshi and Otomono-Kuronushi. A further literary achievement of the period is the appearance of works in the Japanese kana syllabary, such as the *Takétori-monogatari* and the *Isé-monogatari*.

(2) Middle Héian Period. This is the age of national consciousness when the waka poetry triumphed over Chinese forms, pushing itself forward like a tidal wave. In poetry, works like the *Kokin-wakashu* and *Gosen-wakashu* are prominent, while in fiction such works as the *Utsubo* and *Ochikubo* and *Tosa-nikki*, in Japanese kana syllabary, are representative products.

(3) Mature Héian Period. This is the period in which the literary development of the Héian era attained the highest perfection, creating a golden age of prose. In the field of waka we have such poets as Izumi-shikibu, Akazomé-Emon, Fujiwarano-Kinto, Fujiwara-Sanékata and Noin-hoshi, while in the realm of prose there appeared women novelists, like Murasaki-shikibu and Séisho-nagon, the former being the authoress of the *Genji-monogatari*, while the latter composed the *Makura-no-soshi*, opening up a literary régime of women, as if flowers of innumerable variety and colors blossomed all at one time.

(4) Last Héian Period. A general survey of the period gives the impression of its being politically transitional from Imperial rule to Shogunate administration. Along with the decline of the Fujiwara family in power, literature also hastened towards decline. And in consequence, in the early part of the period the literary cult turned from

novels to historical works, producing the *Eiga-monogatari* and *Okagami*. In the realm of poetry also a new tendency was apparent, which gave birth to such noted poets as Toshihira Fujiwara and Saigyô-hoshi; and at the same time a scientific criticism of poetry was initiated and prevailed under students like Mototoshi Fujiwara, Toshiyori Minamoto, and Kiyosuké Fujiwara.

(5) General Development. The most characteristic feature of the period lies in the movement from impromptu and lyrical poetry to stories and narration which require plots and objectification of things. The instinctive or primitive sentiment of the *Manyôshû* precedes the more intellectual *Kokinshû*; and the *Shikashû* that followed is pervaded by more meditative and philosophical reflections. With reference to prose, the myths and legends appearing in the *Manyôshû* and *Kiki* (short for *Kojiki* and *Nihonshoki*) underwent mutation and took the form of narrative tales in the *Takétori-monogatari* and the *Isé-monogatari*. This realistic tendency was further augmented by the *Utsubomonogatari*, and later produced the famous *Genji-monogatari*, turning its direction thenceforward toward historical compositions, such as the *Eiga-monogatari* and the *Okagami*. To enhance this realistic tendency of the time, legends and fairy tales, mingling with current realism, regained their former influence, producing the *Konjaku-monogatari*, a fairy tale dealing with supernatural and supersensuous things. Furthermore, amid this abundance of literary composition there are others with characteristic features common to meditative, lyrical literature, namely the *Tosa-nikki*, *Murasaki-shikibu-nikki*, *Makurano-soshi*, *Izumi-shikibu-nikki*, *Tomononki*, *Tonomura-sho-sho-monogatari* and *Sarashina-nikki*.

Kamakura Period The period of about 150 years, beginning with Minamoto-no-Yoritomo Shogunate government at Kamakura in 1182 and ending in the Kemmu Era of 1334, is called the Kamakura period, in the history of our literature. For the first 50 years literature was under the influence of the preceding Héian period; but the 100 years that followed saw two literary currents sweeping against each other, one at Kyoto, the cultural center, and the other at Kamakura, the pivot of political authority. Although, during the period,

there was no literary movement worthy of special mention, yet it created its own literary atmosphere which resulted in the production of numerous so-called war-tales and religious literature.

(1) Kamakura Literature. The fact that the emotional and sentimental tendency of earlier ages gradually turned to philosophical meditation during this period explains why the works of the time are generally void of individual touch while being true to type. Buddhist pessimism then dominated social thought. The popularization of the Buddhist religion in this period was the result of the natural growth of that religion on the one hand, and of the reaction of public sentiment against the ceaseless civil wars, on the other.

(2) Representative Works. War literature, like the *Hogen-monogatari*, *Héiji-monogatari*, *Héiké-monogatari* and the *Gempéi-séisuiki*, is the most outstanding production of the age. Just as in the preceding period, when literary themes were gathered from historical facts, so in the Kamakura period subjects were sought for from the social conditions of the times when bloodshed, existing side by side with the simple, artless life of the samurai, completely saddened and subdued public sentiment. With reference to waka, inspired by the advent of well-known poetical works like the *Shin-chokusenshu*, were born the *Zoku-gojuishu* and *Kinkashu*. The *Sin-kokinshu*, another anthology of poetry, shows the highest point that Japanese poetry had so far reached. The *Kinkashu* suggests a return to the *Manyôshû*, while the *Sin-chokusenshu* gives an impression of having reached the acme of poetical refinement, retracing its way back to the beauty of simplicity. It is a pity, however, that rival influences between groups of literary men and critics holding different theories of literary values left the healthy development of literature very much handicapped. Ranking as principal poets of the period were Gotoba-joko, Tsuchimikado-joko, Juntoku-joko, Yoshitsuné, Sadafé, Iétaka, Jakuran and Sanétomo.

Muromachi Period The Muromachi period is the term applied to the 270 years sandwiched in between the Kamakura and Tokugawa periods, beginning in 1335 when Takauji Ashikaga rebelled against the Emperor Godaigo and terminating in 1603 when Iyéyasu Tokugawa removed the Shogunate govern-

1. *Genji-monogatari*. The authoress Murasaki-shikibu (975-1031) was born a daughter of Tametoki Fujiwara, a family of the illustrious Fujiwara clan, and served at Court for some years as lady-in-waiting to the Empress Akiko. She is known as Lady Murasaki, but her personal name is not known. The book is a large one (nearly 1,900 pages in Arthur Waley's English translation), written in pure old Japanese, extremely refined and pregnant, with Japanese character, or kana, sentences, and literary critics agree in the opinion that it belongs to the greatest masterpieces of the novels of the world.

Genji-monogatari means the Tale of Genji, mainly a love story between the hero Genji and several heroines. It is also a most vivid picture of a civilization, nine hundred years ago, probably as refined, though in the central city only, and certainly as colourful, as any the world has ever known. The most striking thing about the book is the impression it creates upon us of its modernity and universality of feeling. It reflects the Oriental characteristics in every line and still shows human nature very much the same as the Occidental.