ports of piece-goods may be increased to a maximum of 358 million yards if purchases of raw cotton reach 1½ million bales.

2. Excess imports of cotton piece-goods in one year which may be adjusted against quota of the following year is raised from 20 million to 25 million yards.
3. The coloured category of the old Protocol is subdivided into (a) Coloured Printed Goods and (b) Coloured or Woven Goods, and the total quota is alloted between categories in the following percentages:—

Plain Greys 40%.
Bordered Greys 13%.
Bleached Goods 10 %.
Coloured Printed Goods 20%.
Coloured Dyed or Woven Goods 17%.

4. The quota is exclusive of cotton fents, but Japan undertakes to limit imports of cotton fents into India to 8.95 million yards annually. The Government of India agree that customs duties on cotton fents shall not exceed 35 per cent. ad valorem.

The notice of denunciation given on the 21st of October last of the convention regarding commercial relations between India and Japan will be withdrawn and it is agreed that the Convention shall continue to have effect for the period covered by the protocol."

TRADE AGREEMENT WITH NETHERLANDS INDIES

A trade agreement was signed between Japan and the Netherlands Indies on April 9, 1937 at Batavia after prolonged negotiations centering on the export of Japanese textile goods and the import of Java sugar to Japan.

Restriction against Japanese goods in the Netherlands East Indies appeared in 1934. Japanese firms in the East Indies were ostensibly allowed to handle 25% of imports from Japan. In reality, however, this percentage was greatly reduced by various forms of restrictions. Negotiations opened in May, 1935 but were suspended in the following December without arriving at any conclusion. In June, 1936 a Dutch-Japanese shipping agreement was signed. Simultaneously with this trade negotiations were resumed. According to the agreement, Japanese firms in the Dutch East Indies continue to retail and actually to exploit 25 per cent. of the import trade, whilst Dutch firms in Japan join the Japan Exporters' Association. Moreover, Japan guarantees preferential treatment for the purchase of Java sugar.

TRADE REGULATION AND TRADE PROTECTION LAW

The Trade Regulation and Trade Protection Law was promulgated and enforced in May 1, 1934. The law provides that in case of need to regulate or protect trade in order to meet the measure which is actually taken or which is going to be taken by a foreign country the Government shall be empowered to raise or reduce the duties on special goods for a certain period of time, or prohibit or restrict the importation or exportation of specified goods after submitting the question to the Customs Inquiry Council. The law is to be good for three years from the date of its promulgation.

References: Tables 1, 2, 8 & 10-13—Monthly and Annual Returns of the Foreign Trade of Japan, published by the Dept. of Finance. Tables 3 & 9—Researches of the Finance Department. Table 4—Research of the Yokohama Specie Bank. Table 5—Monthly Return of the Foreign Trade of Japan; Statistical Annual of the Department of Overseas Affairs. Table 6—Monthly Return of the Foreign Trade of Japan; Researches of the Department of Commerce & Industry. Table 7—Researches of the Department of Commerce & Industry. Table 15—Monthly Return of the Foreign Trade of Japan; Monthly Summary of Foreign Commerce of the United States; Accounts Relating and Navigation of the United Kingdom.

CHAPTER XXXIV

KOREA (Chosen)

GEOGRAPHY

POSITION, AREA, CLIMATE, ETC.

Position—33° 6′ 40″—43° 00′ 36″ N.L.; 124° 11′—130° 56′ 23″ E.L.
Area—85,228 sq. m. **Coastline**—18,204 kms. (Inclusive of Outlying islands)

Northern Korea is mountainous and rich in timber, and southern Korea fertile and well cultivated. The Rivers Tumen and Yalu separate the peninsula from Manchoukuo. Principal rivers are the Oryoku-ko (Yalu), 790 kms.; Daido-ko (Tadong), 397 kms.; Kan-do (Han), 470 kms.; and Toman-ko (Tumen), 521 kms.

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATION

Table 1. Temperature

	Fusan	Jinsen	Gensan	Keijo	Heijo
Highest ..	35.3	36.9	39.6	37.5	36.4
Lowest ...	−14·0	−21.0	−21.9	−23.1	−28.5

Table 2. Weather Conditions (1935)

	Fusan	Jinsen	Gensan	Keijo	Heijo
Clear days	87	78	105	75	100
Rainy or snowy days	92	91	103	102	93
Early frost	Nov. 15	Oct. 17	Oct. 17	Oct. 16	Oct. 5
Late frost	Apr. 1	Apr. 16	Apr. 16	Apr. 18	May 2
Early snow	Jan. 23	Nov. 7	Nov. 8	Nov. 8	Oct. 25
Late snow	Jan. 23	Mar. 2	Apr. 30	Mar. 4	Mar. 12

POPULATION

Table 3. Area, Population and Households
(End of 1935)

	Area sq. ri	Households				Population			
		Japanese	Natives	Foreigners	Total	Japanese	Natives	Foreigners	Total
Keiki-do (Kyongki)	12,814.34	34,338	412,419	2,155	448,912	147,671	2,171,713	11,186	2,330,570
Chusei Hoku-do (N. Choongchong)	7,418.38	2,202	167,317	193	169,712	8,530	904,228	649	913,407
Chusei Nan-do (S. Choongchong)	8,106.48	6,192	265,171	492	271.855	25,219	1,442,614	1,807	1,469,640
Zenra Hoku-do (N. Chonla)	8,553.27	8,490	288,990	631	298,111	35,475	1,497,946	2,406	1,535,827
Zenra Nan-do (S. Chonla)	13,887.37	10,218	468,102	340	478,660	42,908	2,365,465	1,2[illegible]9	2,409,602
Keisho Hoku-do (N. Kyongsang)	18,988.83	11,724	452,584	406	464,714	48,607	2,419,140	1,356	2,469,103
Keisho Nan-do (S. Kyongsang)	12,304.58	22,671	400,681	343	423,695	95,078	2,095,270	1,164	2,191,512
Kokai-do (Whanghai)	16,737.66	5,343	308,030	855	314,228	19,466	1,597,050	3,202	1,619,718
Heian Nan-do (S. Pyong-an)	14,925.28	8,904	258,397	954	268,255	37,039	1,367,239	4,753	1,409,031
Heian-Hoku-do (N. Pong-an)	28,444.50	6,386	282,447	3,384	292,217	21,737	1,577,931	18,067	1,617,785
Kogen do (Kwan-won)	26,262.99	3,828	280,525	267	284,620	13,641	1,514,908	808	1,529,357
Kankyo Hokudo (N. Hamkyong)	20,346.50	11,225	131,421	1,572	144,218	41,850	744,277	6,166	792,293
Kankyo Nan-do (S. Hamkyong)	31,978.47	13,294	268,688	1,797	283,779	46,207	1,551,033	6,095	1,603,335
Total	220,768.65	144,815	3,984,772	13,389	4,142,976	583,428	21,248,864	58,888	21,891,180

Table 4. Number of Households By Occupations
(End of 1935)

	Agriculture, Forestry Fishery, etc.	Industry	Commerce and Communications	Civil services & professional occupations	Others	Without occupations	Total	Total for 1934
Japanese	10,440	21,485	38,944	61,594	6,136	6,216	144,815	141,417
Natives	3,029,862	110,068	289,844	132,463	327,025	94,910	3,984,772	3,857,169
Foreigners	2,845	1,964	6,276	534	1,657	113	13,389	12,020
Total	3,043,147	133,517	335,064	194,591	335,418	101,239	4,142,976	3,910,606

Table 5. Population By Occupations

(End of 1935)

	Agriculture, Forestry, Fishery, etc.	Industry	Commerce and Communications	Civil services & professional occupations	Others	Without Occupations	Total	Total for 1934
Japanese	47,794	80,606	175,118	235,964	22,914	21,032	583,428	561,384
Natives	16,899,866	540,221	1,400,003	633,926	1,421,038	353,810	21,248,864	20,513,804
Foreigners	11,955	10,799	26,449	1,938	7,258	489	58,888	50,639
Total	16,959,615	631,626	1,601,570	871,828	1,451,210	375,331	21,891,180	21,125,827

Table 6. Movement of Population

		1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Birth	Male	386,700	406,438	379,861	329,782	322,079	333,899	340,187
	Female	343,478	365,832	338,021	288,495	281,328	295,577	300,381
	Total	730,179	772,270	717,882	618,277	603,407	629,476	640,568
Still-birth	Male	1,997	2,485	2,463	2,557	2,802	2,647	2,734
	Female	1,600	1,945	1,865	2,080	2,150	2,118	2,135
	Total	3,597	4,430	4,328	4,637	4,952	4,765	4,869
Death	Male	244,808	205,164	219,250	243,872	215,090	219,062	231,755
	Female	216,922	176,713	191,138	213,646	186,232	188,201	198,943
	Total	461,730	381,877	410,388	457,518	401,322	407,263	430,698
Marriage		194,265	199,281	184,598	130,550	126,644	121,383	123,416
Divorce		8,184	9,077	8,093	6,712	5,873	5,137	5,323

Table 7. Number of Households and Population of Koreans

	No. of households	Population		
		Male	Female	Total
1928	3,489,344	9,521,317	9,146,017	18,667,334
1929	3,518,094	9,569,706	9,214,731	18,784,437
1930	3,679,463	10,003,042	9,682,545	19,685,587
1931	3,690,695	10,023,837	9,686,331	19,710,168
1932	3,772,234	10,183,362	9,853,911	20,037,273
1933	3,805,684	10,269,286	9,936,305	20,205,591
1934	3,857,169	10,416,040	10,097,764	20,513,804
1935	3,984,772	10,769,916	10,478,948	21,248,864

Table 8. Population in Principal Cities
(End of Oct., 1935)

Keijo (Seoul)	444,098
Jinsen (Chemulpo)	82,997
Gunsan	41,698
Taikyu	107,417
Fusan	182,503
Heijo (Pyongyang)	182,121
Chinnanpo	50,512
Gen-san (Wonsan)	60,734
Moppo	60,734
Kaijo	55,537
Seishin	55,530
Shingishu	58,462
Kanko	56,571

Table 9. Number of Foreigners

Year	Male	Female	Total
1928	44,494	8,828	53,322
1929	47,962	10,184	58,146
1930	56,634	12,475	69,109
1931	31,270	6,854	38,124
1932	31,168	7,983	39,151
1933	33,731	8,895	42,626
1934	40,435	10,204	50,639
1935	46,468	12,420	58,888

ADMINISTRATION

THE GOVERNMENT-GENERAL

Korea is under the rule of the Governor-General, who is appointed by the Emperor. By the revision effected in 1919 in the organization of the administrative machinery of the peninsula, the former military government was replaced with one in which the civil factor is predominant. Thus the Governor-Generalship is now open to either a civilian or a service man, though formerly it was restricted to a General or an Admiral.

Directly under the Governor-General is an Inspector-General of Political Affairs whose function is to assist the Governor-General and inspect the official business of the local governments and various other affiliated objects. The Government-General is divided into the Government-General's Secretariat and the Bureau of Internal Affairs, Finance, Justice, Industry, Education, Politics, Communications, Railways and Monopoly.

The Central Council.—This is in effect a Privy Council and considers matters submitted to it by the Governor-General. The members of the Council consists of one President, one Vice-President, five Advisors and 65 Councillors, all Koreans.

LOCAL ADMINISTRATION

The entire territory is divided into thirteen "do" or provinces which are ruled over by Governors. The names of the provinces and of the seats of the Governments are appended:

Table 10. Thirteen Provinces and Seats of Government

Province	Seat of Office
Keiki-do (Kyongki)	Keijo (Seoul)
Chusei Hoku-do (N. Choongchong)	Seishyu
Chusei Nan-do (S. Choongchong)	Taiden
Zenra Hoku-do (N. Chonla)	Zenshyu
Zenra Nan-do (S. Chonla)	Koshyu
Keisho Hoku-do (N. Kyongsang)	Taikyu
Keisho Nan-do (S. Kyongsang)	Fusan
Kokai-do (Whanghai)	Kaishyu
Heian Nan-do (S. Pyong-an)	Heijo
Heian Hoku-do (N. Pyong-an)	Shingishu
Kogen-do (Kwan-won)	Shunsen
Kankyo Hoku-do (N. Hamkyong)	Ranan
Kankyo Nan-do (S. Hamkyong)	Kankyo

Besides the thirteen provinces mentioned above, there are twelve "fu" corresponding to the city in Japan proper.

Local Councillors.—As a preliminary step toward self-government, local advisory bodies were created in October, 1920. These are essentially consultative bodies and are of three kinds: (1) Provincial Councils, (2) Municipal Councils, (3) Village Councils.

FINANCE

With the annexation a Special Account was established for the Government-General, the expenditure to be met by the revenue of Korea and the deficit filled up with aids from the home Government. All public utility items as road-making, harbours, railways, etc., are defrayed with proceeds from public loans, or borrowed money chargeable to the Special Account, while military and naval outlays are payable out of the General Accounts of the Imperial Government. The latter totalled ¥125,626,000 from 1919 to 1923. In 1919 the Government-General could for the first time dispense with financial aid from the Imperial Government, but the reforms in the police system and other administrative organs carried out that year required help again from the Imperial Treasury.

Table 11. Revenue & Expenditure

(a) Revenue

	1933-34 (Settled)	1934-35 (Settled)	1935-36 (Settled)	1936-37 (Budget)	1937-38 (Budget)
Ordinary:					
Taxes	¥ 47,625,260	¥ 56,129,246	¥ 64,364,257	¥ 59,406,154	¥ 68,675,359
Stamp receipts	13,897,651	16,670,477	18,669,699	17,305,450	18,692,824
Receipts from Government undertakings and properties	135,193,434	160,606,350	175,927,127	190,076,882	228,801,219
Miscellaneous receipts	2,702,537	3,120,642	3,401,346	3,200,455	3,460,915
Total	199,418,882	236,526,714	262,362,429	269,988,941	319,630,317
Extraordinary:					
Proceeds of sale of State property	1,125,421	588,889	465,551	132,439	99,291
Receipts from the issue of public loans or borrowings	25,648,281	27,926,334	20,922,736	31,620,000	65,000,000
National treasury grants	12,853,773	12,825,160	12,825,822	12,918,107	12,913,966
Transfer of the surplus from preceding year	5,805,974	22,849,123	32,592,659	14,191,183	15,440,312
Other receipts	7,274,932	225,840	1,050,287	777,881	1,392,295
Total	52,654,380	64,415,346	67,857,055	59,014,101	94,845,864
Total Revenue	252,073,262	300,942,061	330,219,483	329,003,042	414,476,181

(b) Expenditure

Ordinary:					
Royal Household of Ri	¥ 1,800,000	¥ 1,800,000	¥ 1,800,000	¥ 1,800,000	¥ 1,800,000
Government-General	3,798,662	4,002,293	4,531,916	5,820,344	11,169,497

	1933-34 (Settled)	1934-35 (Settled)	1935-36 (Settled)	1936-37 (Budget)	1937-38 (Budget)
Judicial courts, and office consignment	3,488,056	3,553,495	3,697,742	3,794,504	4,197,503
Prisons	4,615,782	5,063,959	5,715,510	5,310,199	5,814,496
Local governments	29,032,235	26,092,409	26,776,665	27,338,549	28,427,359
Educational institutions and libraries	1,362,104	1,368,384	1,513,125	1,707,425	3,999,852
Customs-houses	1,187,111	1,250,198	1,393,666	1,482,504	1,516,069
Forestry	3,861,800	4,796,144	5,565,418	6,035,313	7,018,153
Communications	13,037,966	13,991,664	14,877,940	15,959,336	18,269,107
Monopoly bureau	23,913,639	27,980,323	30,058,210	32,264,992	37,388,797
Railways	49,291,766	62,313,164	65,979,857	80,540,887	93,546,022
Transferred to national debt consolidation fund special account	24,364,405	25,021,833	27,015,449	31,012,930	29,764,780
Total including others	167,479,360	192,304,566	205,979,461	234,404,778	263,479,153
Extraordinary:					
Subsidies	17,262,011	19,701,868	21,780,546	23,942,298	28,697,097
Expenses for repairs and constructions	1,956,263	3,310,284	4,463,858	5,474,145	6,215,646
Expenses for public works	8,544,594	10,168,941	12,034,777	14,265,503	18,870,749
Railway construction and improvement	18,705,642	18,497,852	23,880,375	34,312,563	63,454,000
Improvement expenses for arable lands	5,136,218	4,414,453	3,850,217	2,853,181	3,368,481
Total including others	61,744,779	76,044,036	77,979,482	95,224,448	150,727,028
Total Expenditure	229,224,139	268,349,402	283,958,943	329,629,368	414,476,181

PUBLIC DEBTS

Table 12. Government Loans Outstanding

(in yen: end of year)

	1933	1934	1935
Drought relief loan	8,750,000	7,750,000	6,250,000
Chosen peers relief fund loan	1,780,000	1,600,000	1,420,000
4% loan (1st series)	636,680	636,680	636,680
5% loan	109,465,104	109,465,104	107,676,651
4½% Exchequer bonds	23,870,636	23,870,636	23,870,636
5% Exchequer bonds	239,113,646	229,113,646	206,373,919
4% Exchequer bonds	81,264,030	118,248,897	162,334,915
4% loan	8,145,550	8,145,550	8,145,550
Total	473,025,646	498,830,513	516,708,351

EDUCATION AND RELIGION

EDUCATION

Under the new educational ordinance and regulations of 1922, the ordinary and higher common schools for Korean boys and girls are placed on the same status as elementary and secondary (i.e. middle and girls' high schools), while according to circumstances, Korean children may be admitted into the latter schools and Japanese into the former. The schools of the secondary and higher grades for vocational training are controlled in practice by the regulations governing the corresponding institutions in Japan proper. Both Japanese and Korean students are co-educated in those schools. The statistics of schools as at the end of March, 1936 are given below:—

Table 13. Statistics of Schools (1935)

(a) Schools of Elementary and Middle Grades

		No. of schools	Teaching staff	Enrolment
Elementary schools	Government	2	17	580
	Public	489	2,385	83,815
Common schools	Government	2	17	660
	Public	2,269	10,829	683,734
	Private	92	605	36,363
Middle schools	Public	12	305	6,715
Higher common schools	Public	15	377	8,133
	Private	11	236	6,372
Girls' high schools	Public	27	413	10,014
	Private	1	21	511
Girls' higher common schools	Public	9	121	2,286
	Private	10	175	3,761
Agricultural schools	Public	30	346	6,414
Commercial schools	Public	16	294	5,895
	Private	7	123	3,010
Supplementary technical schools	Government	1	4	31
	Public	93	380	3,898
	Private	3	9	234
Collegiate schools	Government	5	230	1,213
	Public	2	65	567
	Private	8	295	2,721
Fishery schools	Public	3	42	216
Normal schools	Government	4	140	2,434
Technical schools	Government	1	38	218
Vocational schools	Public	4	44	636
	Private	2	30	683
Kindergartens		299	—	16,700

(b) Government Schools of Higher Grade

	Teaching staff	Enrolment
Keijo Higher Commercial School	23	289
Keijo Law School	12	189
Keijo Medical School	39	333
Keijo Higher Engineering School	33	196
Suigen Agr. and Forestry School	38	206

University Education.—The Imperial University of Keijo was the only government university in the peninsula. It was opened in 1926, consisting of two departments, (1) medicine, and (2) law and literature. The preparatory course of two years attached to the university was opened two year earlier, or in 1924. The course was extended to three years as is the case with the government national colleges in Japan, beginning with the academic year of 1933-34. Both the organization and details of the university are almost the same as the Imperial Universities in Japan. At the end of May, 1935 the university staff consisted of 523, the students numbered 621, while the Preparatory Course enrolled 309 students and the staff consisted of 39.

Normal School Education.—Normal school education is co-educational in principle. Qualifications of the applicant to the normal school are somewhat lower than is the case with Japan, while the course is a little longer. In April, 1929 simultaneously with a reform of the Education Act of Korea it was decided that the normal school should be conducted by the Government only for some time to come. In June of the same year two government normal schools were established one each in Taikyu and Heijo, and in March, 1931 the normal schools, which had hitherto been financed by provincial governments, were closed. In April, 1935 a normal school for girls was established in Keijo. As at the end of May, 1935 there were four normal schools with 140 members of the staffs and 2,434 students.

Korean students studying in Japan on October 1, 1935 numbered 4,954. Of that number 3,542 were in Tokyo and 1,412 in the provinces. Most of those students consisted of those preparing themselves for admission into colleges and universities and of those studying economics and politics in the collegiate course of private universities and other institutions.

RELIGION

All religious faiths enjoy equal opportunity and protection from the Government, there being no state religion in Korea. The confucian cult is spreading among the higher classes, and Buddhism among the lower. The latter, however, is not so prosperous as in Japan propre. Standing between the two, Christianity has gained a great vogue among all classes.

Buddhism once very much flourished in Korea. But, several hundred years had passed be-

fore it began to throw off its depression continuing for several hundred years with the enforcement of the Temple Act in September, 1911. In 1935 there were 31 head temples and 1,306 branch temples, 203 preaching places, 5,902 priests, 986 nuns and 167,891 votaries. The propagation of Buddhism by Japanese in Korea is also very active representing 115 temples, 517 preaching places, 608 priests, approximately 285,000 votaries inclusive of 14,700 Koreans.

As for Shintoism, in 1935 there were 278 preaching places, 539 preachers, roughly 113,200 votaries including 21,700 Koreans. As stated above, Christianity is more influential than any other religion in Korea. In 1935 there were 4,483 places of worship, representing both Protestant and Catholic churches, 2,830 preachers including 386 foreign missionaries, approximately 9,400 Japanese Christians, and 459,400 Korean Christians. Besides, there were about 390 foreign laymen.

Table 14. State of Religious Propagation

	Missions	Missionaries	Adherents: Japanese	Adherents: Natives
Christianity	4,493	2,830	9,400	459,400
Buddhist	632	689	270,300	14,700
Shinto	278	539	91,500	21,700

JUDICATURE

The Law Courts in Korea at the end of 1935 comprised eleven district courts with 51 branches, three Courts of Appeal and one Supreme Court. The latest statistics of new civil and criminal preliminary affairs, etc., are as follows:—

Table 15. Civil and Criminal Preliminary Cases

Year	Civil suits: 1st instance	Civil suits: Appeal	Civil suits: Supreme	Criminal suits: 1st instance	Criminal suits: Appeal	Criminal suits: Supreme	Preliminary	Procurator's visit
1929	55,580	4,258	589	42,087	1,872	159	942	114,983
1930	52,715	3,926	979	47,419	2,122	187	915	123,092
1931	53,420	3,097	694	54,881	1,874	170	886	131,814
1932	48,957	2,758	685	56,436	1,800	165	779	131,360
1933	45,315	2,797	653	57,151	1,689	179	612	126,519
1934	43,833	2,475	694	47,665	1,655	177	616	113,474
1935	46,667	2,688	661	47,323	1,738	202	574	114,211

At the end of 1935 there were thirteen prisons for adults and two for juveniles. The number of convicts and accused classified by sex is tabulated below:

Table 16. Number of Convicts and Accused

Year	No. of convicts: Male	No. of convicts: Female	Criminal defendants: Male	Criminal defendants: Female	In separate: Male	In separate: Female	Infants: Male	Infants: Female
1929	12,840	440	1,999	50	522	35	5	6
1930	14,195	449	1,822	53	651	45	7	10
1931	14,193	402	1,976	66	666	56	11	7
1932	15,279	395	2,491	83	565	51	8	5
1933	15,987	425	1,929	70	631	48	4	7
1934	15,219	465	1,584	81	542	48	9	15
1935	15,933	490	1,422	64	463	42	16	10

GARRISON AND POLICE

The troops in the peninsula represent two Divisions, one being quartered at Ranan and the other at Ryusan near Keijo, besides the 6th air regiment established in 1922-23. Prior to the "independence" agitation the policing force consisted of gendarmes and police. With the reorganization of the administrative system in 1919 the gendarmes were mostly converted into police at their own option. The entire police forces as at the end of 1934 consisted of 19,409 men including 18,143 police men, 760 assistant police inspectors, 462 police inspectors, etc., The police stations numbered 212 with about 2,394 sub-stations and 181 police boxes under them. The gendarmes are now on their proper duty only. Below are given data on police offences and arrests for the last six years:

Table 17. Police Offences and Arrests

Year	No. of Police offences	No. of cases Prosecuted	No. of Persons arrested
1929	167,806	159,895	176,669
1930	178,013	169,094	187,531
1931	175,273	164,963	192,119
1932	187,608	170,187	205,477
1933	186,520	176,795	192,955
1934	195,025	186,754	202,630
1935	199,720	188,170	206,214

PUBLIC WORKS

Roads.—As soon as it was established, the Government-General laid out a complete system of roads consisting of 547 lines of various classes with a total length of 25,842 kilometres. The first term construction or improvement of the roads has been carried out since 1911 as a continuing work of six or seven-year-period with an outlay of ¥10,000,000. The second term work has been carried on from 1917 as a continuing work to be finished by 1938 with the total outlay of ¥31,119,000. In connexion with road-making, a number of bridges have been constructed.

Rivers.—Almost all rivers were in a neglected condition before the annexation, the damage due to floods reaching over 10 million yen in some years. In 1915 the Government-General started investigation into the Rakutoko and thirteen other rivers for purposes of systematic control. As a result, a riparian work was started on the Bankei-ko and Sainei-ko, in 1925 as a six year-work and also on the Rakuto-ko, Daidoko and two other rivers in the following year as a ten year-work. The sum of ¥48,400,000 was estimated as an expenditure for the improvement of these six rivers. In 1929 the sum of ¥5,000,000 was added to the estimate by reason of the necessary extention of the scope of repair involved in the two rivers of the Bankei-ko and the Sanei-ko, but later the expenditure had to be reduced and the work had to be postoponed. After all the expenditure was cut down to ¥49,973,000 and the first term of the work for the six rivers is expected to be completed in 1938-39.

Harbour Work.—Harbour works were commenced with Fusan, where all the terminal facilities for the Fusan-Seoul Railway have been completed. At Jinsen a spacious lockgate dock has been constructed to accommodate two ships of 4,500 gross tons and under, by taking advantage of the great tidal range (22-23 ft.) of the locality. The work of improvement at Gensan, Seishin, Joshin, Gunsan, Moppo, Tashota (first term work) and Yuki (first term work), Jinsen (extension), Chinnampo (extension) and Joshin (provision for storing timber) Seishin fishing port has been completed. A similar work is now in progress at Jinsen, Fusan, Reisui, Yuki, Masan, Joshin and Tashito.

BANKING AND OTHER FINANCIAL ORGANIZATIONS

As for organs for monetary circulation in Korea, there are first of all the Bank of Chosen (formerly called Bank of Korea) as the central bank, the Chosen Industrial Bank and the Oriental Development Company, which both make it their principal business to make advances on real estate. Besides, there are many credit associations and "mujin" companies as petty organs of monetary circulation for the provincial people.

Bank of Chosen.—The Bank of Chosen, of which details are given under Chapter on Banking in the present issue, was as stated above, known as the Bank of Korea before the annexation. On the promulgation of the Bank of Chosen Act in March, 1911, the Bank of Korea was renamed the Bank of Chosen. The authorized capital of the Bank at the end of August, 1936 was ¥40,000,000, of which ¥25,000,000 was paid up.

The Bank has its head office at Seoul and branches or sub-branches at Tokyo, Osaka, Kobe, Shimonoseki, Antung, Dairen, Mukden, Hsinking, Harbin, Kaikuan, Yingkow, Lungchingtsun, Liaoyang, Tiehling, Ssupingkai, Port Arthur, Tsingtao, Shanghai, Tientsin, New York. The results of the Bank for the past seven years are tabulated below:

Table 18. Principal Accounts of Bank of Chosen

(¥1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Nominal capital	40,000	40,000	40,000	40,000	40,000	40,000	40,000
Capital (paid-up)	25,000	25,000	25,000	25,000	25,000	25,000	25,000
Reserves	2,101	2,901	3,701	4,501	5,301	6,101	6,901
Deposits	151,150	98,785	111,462	193,932	215,105	228,193	292,122
Loans	290,462	248,758	273,673	303,785	322,950	373,171	374,248
Bills discounted	24,260	17,796	23,726	33,683	31,558	47,362	48,565
Earnings	26,186	23,492	24,366	38,709	41,477	42,016	42,227
Expenses	24,321	21,664	22,531	36,860	39,624	40,169	40,368
Net profits	1,865	1,828	1,835	1,849	1,853	1,847	1,859
Dividend	900	940	940	940	940	940	940
Rate of dividend (%)	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0

Table 19. Principal Accounts of Chosen Industrial Bank

(¥1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Nominal capital	30,000	30,000	30,000	30,000	30,000	30,000	30,000
Capital (paid-up)	20,000	20,000	20,000	20,000	20,000	20,000	25,000
Reserves	7,043	8,083	9,123	10,163	11,203	12,243	13,283
Deposits	65,990	51,068	65,627	73,622	84,824	105,385	127,864
Loans	258,703	293,580	309,088	325,383	337,338	359,649	405,416
Bills discounted	10,376	8,376	10,742	14,385	14,247	22,835	28,161
Balances of debentures issued	199,685	242,158	247,558	260,992	253,482	244,955	278,674
Earnings	26,377	25,860	27,496	28,141	29,357	30,447	31,237
Expenses	23,552	22,837	24,475	25,123	26,315	27,379	27,932
Net profits	2,824	3,023	3,020	3,017	3,042	3,068	3,305
Dividend	1,609	1,770	1,770	1,770	1,785	1,800	1,929
Rate of dividend (%)	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.0

Chosen Industrial Bank (Chosen Shokusan Ginko).—The Chosen Industrial Bank is also referred to in detail elsewhere in the present issue. It was established in 1906 chiefly for the purpose of making advances on real estate to help promote the industry of the peninsula. It is capitalized at ¥30,000,000, of which ¥15,000,000 is paid up. At the end of 1935 the Bank had 53 branch offices and seven sub-agencies in the peninsula and one branch at Osaka.

Chosen Savings Bank.—Saving deposits in Korea were handled by banks, credit associations and post offices till the Government-General issued the Savings Bank Regulations on December 24, 1928. The following year the Chosen Savings Bank was established in accordance with provisions of the Regulations. The Bank is capitalized at ¥5,000,000, of which ¥2,500,000 is paid up. Its head office is situated in Seoul and branch offices at Fusan, Heijo and Jinsen. Besides, it has a sub-branch at Fusan and is represented by all the offices of the Chosen Industrial Bank.

Table 20. Principal Accounts of Chosen Savings Bank

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
No. of Bank	1	1	1	1	1	1
Nominal capital	5,000	5,000	5,000	5,000	5,000	5,000
Capital (paid-up)	1,250	1,250	1,250	2,500	2,500	2,500
Reserves	20	40	70	140	300	420
Deposits	24,522	26,244	28,340	30,139	34,163	43,714
Advances	6,381	5,651	7,023	8,520	11,198	22,928
Earnings	2,186	2,443	2,215	2,598	2,949	3,282
Expenses	2,043	2,298	2,052	2,360	2,550	2,782
Net profits	142	144	163	238	399	498
Dividend	100	100	100	129	200	200
Rate of dividend (%)	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0

Ordinary Banks.—An ordinary bank was established in Korea for the first time in 1878 when a branch office of the First Bank (Daiichi Ginko) was set up at Fusan. This was soon followed by the creation of similar agencies at various treaty ports by the same bank and other Japanese banks such as the Juhachi, Gojuhachi, etc. In 1889 the Dai Kan Tenichi Ginko was established as the first banking institution formed by Korean capitalists, and in 1903 another Korean bank (Kanjo Ginko) was brought into being. All these banks on the whole made sound developments with extended sphere of operation under the Banking Regulations enacted in 1912 (revised in 1920, amended in 1928 and has been in force since January 1, 1929). At the end of August, 1936 there were in Korea seven banks with 99 branches and sub-branches and six branches of Japanese banks whose head offices were in Japan.

Table 21. Principal Accounts of Ordinary Banks

(In ¥1,000)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
No. of Banks	13	12	12	8	8	7
Nominal capital	26,425	26,425	26,425	26,075	25,675	24,175
Capital (paid-up)	14,721	14,721	14,721	14,371	14,231	13,481
Reserves	3,457	3,513	3,793	3,717	4,029	4,006
Deposits	109,566	106,863	112,793	128,144	144,547	159,349
Loans	90,545	92,876	93,727	99,126	115,925	131,152
Bills discounted	13,802	12,833	16,207	16,879	23,927	26,400
Earnings	14,997	16,034	13,527	13,724	15,512	18,914
Expenses	13,610	14,840	12,344	12,330	14,381	17,317
Net profits	1,387	1,194	1,183	1,412	1,131	1,597
Dividend	731	609	575	487	490	452

Besides the banks mentioned above, there was an agency of the Hong-Kong Shanghai Bank in Korea.

Trust Companies.—Trust business was introduced into Korea in March, 1908 by the Fujimoto Goshi Kaisha. In the war boom of 1919 many trust companies were established in the peninsula. At the end of August, 1936 there was one trust company in Korea, namely, the Chosen Trust Company. The financial position of the company may be seen from the table appended:

Table 22. Financial Position of Chosen Trust Co.

At end of Aug., 1936

(In thousands of yen)

	Capital	Capital p.u.	Reserves	Trust Property
Chosen Trust Co.	10,000	2,500	123	61,213

Bankers' Clearing House.—The first bankers' clearing house in Korea was established in Seoul in July, 1909. There are now similar institutions in eight other places.

Credit Associations.—The credit association makes it its business to make loans to its members, to keep in custody industrial products, to issue warehouse receipts for them, to receive deposits from either the members or non-members, and to act as agents, with the sanction of the Governor-General, for other credit associations or banking establishments. For a village association there is, besides, a Government grant as stock fund of not more than ¥1,000. City associations operating in urban districts are allowed to engage in bill-discounting business. At the end of August 1936 there were 66 city associations and 636 village associations with a total membership of 1,438,949.

Table 23. Results of Credit Associations

(In thousands of yen)

	Associations		
	Village	City	Total
No. of associations	636	62	698
No. of branches	200	—	200
No. of memberships	1,373,479	65,470	1,438,949
Capital paid-up	9,191	2,046	11,237
Reserves	17,122	3,653	20,775
Debts	90,480	6,732	97,212
Deposits with others	46,203	26,480	72,683
Deposits	102,982	49,376	152,358
Loans	170,365	34,410	204,775

Mutual Loan Companies (Mujin Kaisha).—"Mujin" business in Korea has made marked developments since the promulgation of the Chosen Mujin Business Act in April, 1921. In 1931 the legislation was amended in order to keep abreast of the times. At the end of July, 1936 there were 28 mutual loan concerns. Their financial position may be seen from the table appended:

Table 24. Results of Mujin Kaisha

No. of companies	28
Capital	¥ 4,890,000
Capital paid-up	¥ 2,066,000
Reserves	¥ 2,374,509
No. of "mujin"	1,848
No. of instalments	105,680
Amount of contracts	¥153,894,720

FOREIGN TRADE

Thanks to various measures taken by the Governments-General for the promotion of industry and the growth of private enterprises since the annexation, the foreign trade of Korea has gradually developed. Its pace of development since the World War is especially remarkable.

Korea trades extensively with many countries of the world but with none more closely than with Japan proper. As shown by the trade returns for 1935, 85 per cent. of consignments came from Japan and 88 per cent. of shipments went thither, only 12 per cent. of shipments going abroad and 15 per cent. of consignments coming from abroad. Principal destinations of her goods are Manchoukuo, Kwantung Province, the United States of America and China, and principal countries sending goods are Manchoukuo, China, Kwantung Province, the United States, British India, the Philippines, and the Dutch East Indies.

Table 25. Korea's Foreign Trade

(In yen)

(a) Merchandise Imports and Exports

To and from Foreign Countries

Year	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of imports
1929	35,773,033	107,767,710	143,540,743	71,994,677
1930	25,852,353	88,854,562	114,706,915	63,002,209
1931	12,771,572	52,695,966	65,467,538	39,924,394
1932	29,209,754	61,685,953	90,895,707	32,476,199
1933	52,773,273	64,368,264	117,141,537	11,594,991
1934	57,673,853	79,527,309	137,201,162	21,853,456
1935	64,902,252	100,589,577	165,491,829	35,687,325
1936	75,265,783	114,499,061	189,764,844	39,233,278

To and from Japan Proper

Year	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of imports or exports
1929	309,891,023	315,325,841	625,216,864	— 5,434,818
1930	240,694,825	278,194,196	518,889,021	—37,499,371
1931	249,726,697	217,770,365	466,797,062	+31,256,332
1932	282,144,296	258,670,063	540,814,359	+23,474,334
1933	315,854,449	339,817,196	655,671,645	—23,962,747
1934	407,693,582	439,622,621	847,316,203	—31,929,039
1935	485,893,879	558,813,765	1,044,707,644	—72,919,886
1936	518,047,263	647,918,073	1,165,965,336	—129,870,810

(b) Import and Export of Gold Specie and Bullion

To and from Foreign Countries

Year	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of imports
1929	—	246,297	246,297	246,297
1930	2,450	11,594,311	11,596,761	11,591,861
1931	22,486	21,903,782	21,926,268	21,881,296
1932	30,301	753,627	783,927	723,326
1933	20,132	41,085	61,217	20,953
1934	18,531	66,851	85,382	48,320
1935	11,131	69,370,595	69,381,726	69,359,464
1936	2,107,810	7,221,275	9,329,085	5,113,465

To and from Japan Proper

Year	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of exports
1929	6,096,811	639,908	6,736,719	5,456,903
1930	26,801,109	137,178	26,938,287	26,663,931
1931	39,525,530	53,479	39,579,009	39,472,051
1932	28,284,905	9,850,993	38,135,898	18,433,912
1933	24,375,261	3,807,016	28,182,277	20,568,245
1934	36,331,413	335,182	36,666,595	35,992,231
1935	210,581,658	3,847,047	214,428,705	206,734,611
1936	63,465,862	823,137	64,288,999	62,642,725

(c) Staple Exports

To Japan Proper

Items	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Rice	138,428,409	144,796,809	152,693,012	222,289,526	240,434,225	249,426,537
Soya beans	13,778,412	20,484,007	19,260,706	18,142,055	17,401,117	23,460,989
Fresh fish	4,426,650	4,649,938	5,269,295	5,316,852	5,202,297	4,173,504
Dried fish	4,029,455	4,336,589	4,247,943	5,543,116	4,453,581	3,440,742
Sugar	828,368	1,097,991	244,510	1,344	492	742
Ginned cocoon	2,608,664	3,504,100	6,487,791	8,137,014	13,471,226	11,457,447
Raw silk	12,015,054	11,666,127	14,009,028	11,473,610	14,189,104	15,420,612
Cocoon	1,553,073	1,267,177	1,762,348	784,897	1,179,271	1,393,064
Wild silk yarn	6,984,593	7,763,413	9,175,747	6,542,818	5,714,382	4,431,736
Coal	3,061,053	3,841,351	4,549,402	6,003,455	6,460,485	6,259,273
Pig iron	3,027,030	9,178,657	5,085,969	7,325,277	12,313,846	9,621,646
Cows	2,787,611	3,238,022	4,237,448	4,113,590	4,617,372	4,279,873
Fertilizer	8,346,449	18,433,506	18,749,758	25,188,948	32,004,436	38,390,386
Total incl. others	249,026,967	282,144,296	315,854,449	407,693,482	485,893,879	518,047,263

To Foreign Countries

Items	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Rice	48,946	540,416	2,013,646	1,977,653	3,649,495	1,527,879
Soya beans	29,410	55,322	14,653	17,995	170,706	13,181
Fresh fish	575,820	822,387	978,070	1,156,578	941,818	948,515
Dried fish	128,864	233,609	296,289	376,424	448,054	488,489
Sugar	1,821,129	2,350,498	2,292,857	2,522,152	3,146,303	4,018,244
Apple	154,024	413,143	939,245	487,148	838,211	765,234
Cow hide	162,173	107,024	73,369	108,260	215,425	313,547
Ginseng	1,870	23,340	187,810	1,144,432	1,056,075	1,281,881
Cotton yarn	311,952	1,242,997	974,413	1,330,623	559,337	654,268
Cement	144,573	168,143	1,203,048	1,702,897	942,147	1,145,359
Chosen paper	36,187	48,199	74,194	98,028	61,715	40,610
Timber	1,018,794	1,614,656	5,059,753	6,185,495	5,615,767	5,703,236
Total incl. others	12,771,572	29,209,754	52,773,273	57,673,853	64,902,252	75,265,783

(d) Staple Imports

(In Yen)

From Japan Proper

(Incl. Karafuto, Taiwan and Mandated Islands)

Items	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Rice	809,761	1,528,288	1,512,533	3,062,024	7,021,869	4,998,800
Flour	3,791,010	3,766,052	3,983,430	5,403,855	10,949,674	7,828,663
Wheat	157,026	220,355	232,895	965,395	1,948,692	2,878,339
Sugar	4,518,389	7,426,539	4,272,787	5,066,761	5,949,097	6,824,675
Saké	1,119,075	1,160,586	1,118,384	1,513,920	1,656,478	1,974,822
Beer	1,727,007	1,730,031	2,110,216	1,542,354	857,609	808,283
Ginned cotton	4,317,070	6,488,242	8,553,203	11,804,860	16,237,201	24,317,292
Cotton yarn	4,069,201	5,884,644	5,993,135	9,490 865	9,621,128	5,737,832
Jeans	1,395,614	1,899,467	2,881,623	2,029,306	1,304,494	1,003,332
Woolen tissues	4,338,013	5,863,424	8,164,178	9,608,230	10,235,225	12,600,848
Silk tissues	10,606,884	3,327,765	18,440,820	24,950,176	31,993,946	36,564,740
Gunny bags	370,542	645,735	1,100,982	1,143,251	1,212,181	1,395,671
Paper	5,491,006	6,547,846	7,562,282	8,796.170	11,896,340	13,426,605
Coal	4,176,808	4,084,593	5,504,440	6,193,810	8,007,843	10,119,684
Cement	1,7 5,749	2,306,598	3,348,542	5,472,044	4,916,413	7,400,055
Machinery	7,907,967	8,273,700	11,762,408	16,729,304	31,368,506	40,862,486
Total incl. others	217,770,365	258,670,063	339,817,196	439,622,621	558,813,765	647,918,073

From Foreign Countries

Items	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Rice	120,620	242,721	326,894	4,226	12,289	19,050
Millet	7,931,104	16,025,129	12,874,413	15,736,957	19,623,802	22,457,963
Soya bean	2,429,283	1,814,741	2,736.942	3,460,033	2,610,138	5,086,286
Sugar	1,122,171	218,741	1,579,195	1,248,500	1,632,300	3,221,475
Salt	1,278,523	2,091,685	2.713,466	2,423,162	2,501,469	1,971,090
Leaf tobacco	1,319,953	980,213	310,539	3,070,016	4,563,779	2,871,718
Crude oil and heavy oil	1,187,118	1,444,662	1,979,628	2,396,428	4,801,916	10,484,451
Volatile oil	1,545,502	1,891,470	2,497,237	2,388,431	3,624,364	2,201,040
Fuel oil	1,045,027	4,036,884	1,174,358	1,576,051	1,475,828	746,244
Chinese linen	2,353,368	1,204,369	1,147,109	1,776,196	1,510,073	1,472,917
Gunny bags	21,461	20,962	63,220	45,576	39,272	6,450
Coal	4,344,897	3,738,658	5,231,009	6,973,028	6,586,713	7,110,517
Timber	3,222,646	2,033,567	1,605,242	2,044,507	3,739,588	3,457,883
Bean cake	2,846,234	2,529,565	3,463,193	6,018,434	8,153,833	9,172,599
Total incl. others	52,695,966	61,685,953	64,368,264	79,527,309	100,589,577	114,499,061

(e) Imports and Exports By Countries

(In yen)

Asia:	Export 1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
China	12,086,984	947,840	1,598,605	2,007,644	3,312,938	3,702,394
Manchoukuo	—	22,867,847	40,588,063	48,358,325	50,034,014	55,533,097
Hongkong	21,721	108,034	394,565	543,068	499,144	601,111
British India	8,568	20,353	115,999	110,238	343,792	388,568
Straits Settlements	155,279	114,097	222,347	289,973	223,695	244,947

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Dutch India	64,891	48,595	103,070	215,139	200,066	265,148
French Indo-China	33,397	4,355	4,607	20,257	29,930	38,376
Russia	22,458	67,016	79,996	3,976	587,323	34,071
Total incl. others	12,487,060	28,601,327	48,104,447	56,839,684	63,494,423	71,308,119
Europe:						
Great Britain	3,967	2,693	11,409	3,795	197,059	197,446
Germany	4,053	3,282	710,881	2,048	11,722	10,470
Total incl. others	11,044	7,102	743,337	35,875	328,232	292,592
American Countries:						
U. S. A.	121,704	406,897	2,764,723	312,878	546,901	993,879
Canada	1,680	1,228	1,186	972	1,107	11,833
Total incl. others	123,547	408,186	2,747,916	313,891	575,357	1,589,402
Other States	149,921	200,139	1,177,573	484,403	504,240	2,075,670
Grand total incl. others	12,771,572	29,209,754	52,773,273	57 673,853	64,902,252	75,265,783

Import

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Asia:						
China	39,509,056	3,772,679	5,858,038	7,796,226	16,448,267	15,148,347
Manchoukuo	—	39,723,227	40,765,021	46,681,998	49,015,730	59,402,956
Hongkong	21,334	8,625	17,280	31.203	7,664	6,756
British India	357,696	220,017	763,110	2,619,459	565,160	208,983
Straits Settlements	184,200	259,862	127,386	75,013	1,724,384	1,313,681
Dutch India	1,487,943	616,537	2,137,666	1,431,263	3,511,835	9,726,514
French Indo-China	25,027	197,996	3	70,810	60,485	437,157
Asiatic Russia	262,633	1,020,730	1,144,681	113,681	538,213	335,418
Total incl. others	42,089,469	48,940,786	55,102,443	64,766,219	79,205,461	94,519,793
Europe:						
Great Britain	1,313,419	1,545,940	988,625	975,791	3,309,650	5,457,322
Germany	1,312,121	819,286	423,182	380,138	336,480	1,041,959
Total incl. others	2,892,126	2,570,430	1,529,225	1,558,851	4,103,286	7,134,155
American Countries:						
U. S. A.	4,550,470	5,079,175	2,195,225	5,083,778	7,547,938	9,151,692
Canada	32,912	56,343	484.603	724,173	472,725	526,114
Total incl. others	4,627,948	5,162.511	2,713,384	6,192,770	8,373,519	10,632,965
Other States	33,294	1,471,177	652,828	1,309,816	2,611,461	657,372
Grand total	52,695,966	61,635,953	64,368,264	79,527,309	100,589,577	114,499,061

(b) **Egress and Ingress of Ships**

From Foreign Countries

	No. of ships		Tonnage	
	1935	1936	1935	1936
Ingress:				
Steam ships	1,365	1,348	1,519,375	1,648,706
Sailing crafts	21,246	17,681	120,416	122,893
From Japan Proper				
Steam ships	14,800	15,722	12,941,952	13,624,387
Sailing crafts	10,377	10,296	269,470	320,253
For Foreign Countries				
Egress:				
Steam ships	1,337	1,379	1,549,217	1,670,505
Sailing crafts	20,930	17,497	115,890	120,914
For Japan Proper				
Steam ships	14,587	15,550	12,781,198	13,524,412
Sailing crafts	10,402	9,913	268,509	319,957

Note.—The increase of shipments to Japan in 1935 is due to an increase in exports of rice, fertilizer, copper, fruit, iron, beans, etc., the expansion of exports to Manchoukuo and Kwantung Province to an increase in shipments of iron, timber, rice, sugar, cotton cloth, etc., the expansion of exports to China an increase in exports of ginseng, aquatic products, fruit, the increase in consignments from Japan to the expansion of imports of iron, cotton, silk and rayon tissues, machinery, paper, etc., the expansion of imports from Manchoukuo and Kwantung Province to the prosperity of imports of millet, bean-cake, coal, wild silk, etc., and the increase in imports from China to an increase in imports of hemp tissues, millet, salt, etc.

Trade By Ports.—There are twelve trading ports in Korea. These are Fusan, Jinsen, Gensan, Chinnanpo, Gunsan, Moppo, Seishin, Rashin, Yuki, Joshin, Ryuganpo and Shingishu. Fusan ranks first in the amount of trade handled, followed by Jinsen, the former chiefly handling trade with Japan and the latter that with Kwantung Province, China, Europe and America. As for the specialities of these ports, exports are chiefly handled by such ports as Chinnanpo, Gunsan, Shingishu, Moppo, Seishin and imports by Shingishu, Chinnanpo, Seishin, Gensan and Keijo. Recent imports and exports through Fusan and Jinsen are tabulated below:—

(In Thousands of yen)

	1935	1936 (first eight months)	1935	1936 (first eight months)
Fusan	120,105	87,989	205,179	147,184
Jinsen	66,326	48,498	137,775	100,537

MONOPOLY

Ginseng.—Ginseng, a medical root highly valued by Chinese and Koreans, is famous for its quality throughout the world, and the greater part of the manufactured products is exported to China. Owing ,however, to the spread of disease among ginseng and the ravages of thieves, this industry was almost ruined for a time. In 1908, therefore, a special Government office was established, where various curative and preventive measures were studied with great care and efforts, and strict control over them was exercised. On the other hand, cultivators' associations were organized with a view to promoting the common interest, and these associations, supported by Government measures, lent impetus to the improvement of this industry. The production of ginseng in 1935 was 38,951 kin and sales ¥1,620,367.

Salt.—Korea is suitable for salt manufacture by natural process. In 1907, however, from the financial and economic point of view experiments were made in the manufacture of salt by spontaneuos evaporation at Shuan in Keikido. The result turned out to be very successful and the quality of the products was as good as the first or second class salt produced in Japan proper. Thereupon the construction of salt fields at Koryo Bay and Tokudo in Heian-nando was commenced in 1908, the area being 1,205 cho or 1,195 hectares. The area of salt fields as at the end of 1935-36 was 3,387 cho-bu.

The salt consumption of Korea is roughly 548,000,000 kilogrammes a year. The government's capacity of salt supply is about 160,000,000 kilogrames. Even taking into account a supply of 36,000,000 kilogrammes by private enterprise, there is still a shortage of supply of 146,000,000 kilogrammes, which has to be met by imports. The exemption of salt from import duties resultant from the abolition of exceptions in the case of import duties in Korea enforced on and after April, 1930, however, caused a keen competition in the market. As there was further fear of speculative dealings in salt, the Government-General promulgated in March, 1930 an Ordinance providing for the import of salt from Japan proper and abroad to stabilize its price and facilitate its supply.

Table 26. Salt Production and Import

Year	Salt-fields (Cho)	Production (1,000 kin)	Import (1,000 kin)	Import (1,000 yen)
1928	2,446	253,756	247,400	1,851
1929	2,446	309,638	228,778	1,435
1930	2,446	242,167	203,671	1,042,913
1931	2,446	243,870	320,722	1,701,524
1932	2,474	355,742	308,416	2,072,427
1933	2,474	336,541	311,417	2,818,249
1934	2,658	237,863	283,145	2,731,388
1935	2,755	456,191	305,165	3,010,501

Tobacco.—The manufacture of tobacco was undertaken exclusively by the Government-General under Chosen Tobacco Monopoly Ordinance promulgated in April, 1921. Exceptions were made, however, with respect to the cultivation of tobacco for personal use, the private manufacture and sale of cut tobacco and the sale of leaf tobacco by the Government, etc.

The supply of the Government manufactured cut tobacco that was received in 1923 with favour by the consumer and the improvement in economic conditions of the people rendered the above exceptions unnecessary. Thus, the sale of leaf tobacco by the Government-General was discontinued in January, 1927, and the cultivation of tobacco for presonal use and the private manufacture of cut tobacco were abolished at the end of 1929. The area under tobacco and the production in recent years are as follows:—

Table 27. Area Under Tobacco and Production

Year	Area under cultivation (Cho)	Production (Metric tons)
1928	21,870	20,859,908
1929	19,613	24,525,338
1930	14,229	15,100,927
1931	15,233	16,440,671
1932	13,637	19,912,211
1933	13,558	16,553,509
1934	14,693	15,404,374
1935	16,367	21,927,105

Opium.—After the annexation of the peninsula the Government-General frequently issued ordinances regulating opium, setting limits to the area under poppies, receiving manufactured opium and selling it to pharmaceutists specially authorized by the Government. These measures resulted in the eradication of the evils of opium smoking, but there were many persons poisoned by morphine throughout the country. In order to root out the evils, the Government-General entered the names of smokers on a register and gave them medical treatment, while at the same time it gave an authority to control the receiving of opium and the manufacture and sale of morphine to the Monopoly Bureau which commenced the work from March, 1930. The output of morphine and opium for medical use in 1935-36 was 89,280 grammes, of which 87,113 grammes was supplied to private enterprise.

AGRICULTURE

All parts of Korea are suitable for agriculture. The growth of farm crops is especially satisfactory in the southern part of the peninsula which is marked by genial climate. The aridity of climate all the year round especially redounds to the development of agriculture. Rice plants in paddy fields have often suffered from drought for insufficient supply of water. But, this state of things has been gradually improved by the growing development of irrigation facilities. Rice is the most staple farm product, followed by barley, Italian millet, soya-beans, wheat and red beans. There are also such special products as cotton, tobacco, hemp, and ginseng. The cultivation of fruit trees has of late produced very good results and the area of plantations is gradually expanding. Sericulture which had hitherto been in a very poor condition, is now, in consequence of official encouragement, being carried on everywhere. Both are conducted as subsidiary industries by the agricultural community. Livestock is also raised as by-product of agriculture, and cattle, goats and pigs are found everywhere in the country. The cattle are well known for their great size and good quality, and a large number of them are yearly exported to Japan proper and Asiatic Russia.

According to the official returns, the arable land in Korea at the end of December, 1935 totals 4,432,279.2 cho. The area, farming population and production in recent years are shown below:

Table 28. Arable Land Under Cultivation

(In Cho)

Year	Paddy			Upland	Total
	One crop	Two crops	Total		
1929	1,264,182	344,706	1,608,888	2,783,228	4,392,116
1930	1,261,775	355,921	1,617,696	2,770,968	4,388,664
1931	1,263,045	365,939	1,628,984	2,755,526	4,384,510
1932	1,263,945	383,064	1,647,009	2,743,434	4,390,443
1933	1,265,482	394,773	1,660,285	2,751,549	4,411,804
1934	1,258,462	412,927	1,671,389	2,760,094	4,431,483
1935	1,248,581	432,759	1,681,340	2,750,939	4,432,279

Table 29. Farming Population

	Japanese		Natives		Total incl. others	
	Farming-households	Population	Farming-households	Population	Farming-households	Population
1928	10,883	44,321	2,786,226	15,014,529	2,790,000	15,382,775
1929	10,390	45,364	2,801,827	15,153,707	2,815,277	15,424,677
1930	10,505	45,903	2,856,102	15,562,089	2,869,957	15,912,021
1931	10,827	46,258	2,868,569	15,581,611	2,881,689	15,792,104
1932	11,439	49,976	2,917,440	15,927,206	2,928,879	16,007,724
1933	9,025	39,031	2,998,203	16,079,207	3,009,855	16,127,123
1934	8,702	38,121	3,001,839	16,126,747	3,013,104	16,175,373
1935	8,419	37,321	3,055,433	16,598,923	3,066,489	16,647,951

Table 30. Demand and Supply of Rice

Year	Area under Cultivation (Cho)	Output (Koku)	Import (Koku)	Export (Koku)	Consumption (Koku)
1928	1,517,755	13,511,725	451,407	7,085,306	10,664,988
1929	1,632,065	13,701,746	682,990	5,388,231	8,806,484
1930	1,662,020	19,183,135	580,007	5,173,976	9,107,777
1931	1,674,610	15,872,999	65,839	7,996,199	11,250,317
1932	1,643,449	16,345,825	106,497	7,227,436	8,752,060
1933	1,697,464	18,192,720	110,978	7,571,091	8,810,132
1934	1,711,949	16,717,238	128,082	9,456,832	9,287,759
1935	1,694,539	17,884,669	117,428	8,601,523	9,400,574
1936	1,601,335	19,410,763	69,359	8,472,038	11,008,084

Table 31. Output of Staple Crops (koku)

Year	Barley	Wheat	Naked-barley	Soya beans	Red beans	Millet
1931	7,812,127	1,729,987	665,923	4,131,795	862,726	3,950,364
1932	8,003,756	1,778,280	837,113	4,409,677	877,236	5,539,381
1933	7,585,304	1,762,287	1,023,153	4,555,517	914,564	5,145,301
1934	7,993,969	1,837,781	1,285,193	3,813,377	873,367	3,771,730
1935	8,751,963	1,932,817	1,626,516	4,375,278	934,129	4,860,747

Table 32. Output of Special Crops

Year	Cotton (1,000 kin)	Hemp (1,000 kwan)	Ramie (1,000 kwan)	Tobacco (1,000 kwan)	Sesame seeds (koku)
1929	158,238	5,333	127	6,916	39,506
1930	168,770	5,586	130	4,027	40,049
1931	105,913	5,238	130	4,384	37,416
1932	154,278	5,275	145	5,310	37,866
1933	159,416	5,267	145	4,414	39,073
1934	155,035	4,828	139	4,108	37,476
1935	213,749	5,075	151	5,846	39,270

As for cotton, with the exception of Kankyo Hokudo and a portion of Kankyo Nando, all parts of Korea are well suited for cotton cultivation. Since 1906 the authorities have encouraged the cultivation of the American upland variety with considerable success. The area under upland cotton, which stood at 1,268 cho in 1910, increased to 147,643.7 cho at the end of 1935. Since that year, the authorities have been encouraging the cultivation of native species in the four provinces of Keiki, Kokai, Heian Nando and Heian Hokudo and a portion of Keisho Hokudo which are not suited for the cultivation of upland variety. Due partly to these government encouragements and partly to favourable weather conditions, the area under cotton crops at the end of 1935 was as extensive as 209,568 cho.

Table 33. Cotton Crops

Year	Area (cho)	Harvest (1,000 kin)		Export
		Upland	Native	
1930	192,873	127,329	41,441	17,636
1931	192,545	78,721	37,191	8,508
1932	159,269	111,909	42,369	8,600
1933	176,659	114,313	45,102	14,247
1934	193,455	120,774	34,251	15,528
1935	209,568	169,949	43,800	23,228

Stock-farming.—Cattle reared in Kankyo-do, Northern Korea are noted for strong build and perfect flesh development. Every house there keeps a head or two, and as the region is well suited for pasture, the preserved meat business in Northern Korea has a great future. The number of cattle, which was only 700,000, approximately at the time of the inauguration of the Government-General, has increased to over 1,679,000. A considerable number of cattle are exported to Japan proper.

Table 34. Number of Cattle, Horses, etc.

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Cattle	1,611,585	1,637,019	1,664,435	1,663,136	1,671,185	1,679,470
Horses	55,544	54,100	53,887	52,924	53,804	52,608
Swine	1,386,891	1,348,199	912,760	976,933	1,583,513	1,616,408
Sheep	1,561	1,609	2,208	2,675	5,473	9,388
Goats	13,813	25,601	27,363	28,652	31,177	34,395
Fowls	6,146,000	6,294,672	6,601,477	6,868,037	7,178,725	7,117,147

Sericulture.—The climate of Korea is suitable for sericulture owing to the scarcity of rainfall in the rearing season. The authorities are carrying out a programme spreading over fifteen years from 1925 to 1939 for bringing the cocoon crop of the peninsula up to a million koku. A subsidy is yearly granted to the industry to that end. The cocoon crop is so swiftly increasing that the million koku mark is expected to be attained before 1939.

With the recent development of sericulture, the time-honoured method of hand-reeling is being fast replaced by machine-reeling. In consequence, the output of high grade silk for export is increasing. The number of pans for machine-reeling for 1935 was counted by over 9,000 and the amount of raw silk turned out by these machine-reeling filatures was 320,100 kan, valued at ¥13,920,000. Adding to this, silk output by hand-reeling, which is given as 189,000 kan, valued at ¥5,320,000, the total was 519,000 kan in volume and ¥19,240,000 in value.

Table 35. Statistics of Sericulture For Last Six Years

Year	No. of Rearing households	Output of Cocoonn (koku)	No. of Filatures	Output of Raw silk (kwan)
1930....	720,813	555,232	245,857	352,948
1931....	747,084	578,261	264,270	382,107
1932....	786,060	593,058	294,843	406,267
1933....	812,009	668,034	282,636	425,568
1934....	839,814	735,161	386,328	566,976
1935....	821,573	681,801	361,300	509,101

In August, 1935 the Government-General promulgated the Korean Silk Reeling Industry Act with the object of strengthening the control and direction of the industry, thereby promoting it as far as possible.

FISHERIES

Rounded by sea on three sides, Korea has a coast-line extending over 9,000 nautical miles, and is rich in fish, shell-fish and sea-weeds. Mackerels, sardines, Alaska pollacks, Sciaena Sp., herrings, sea-breams, cod, yellow tails, whales, and ear-shells are the principal catches. The encouragement by the Government-General and the improved methods introduced have brought about the rapid development of the industry of late. The recent situation of the business is as follows:—

Table 36. Recent Situation in Fisheries

		No. of fishermen	Value of catches (¥1,000)	Marine Products (¥1,000)	Aquiculture (¥1,000)
1928	Japanese	17,804	33,119	17,231	3,328
	Koreans	460,132	32,994	27,654	
	Total	477,936	66,113	44,885	
1929	Japanese	17,021	30,514	17,095	2,724
	Koreans	456,891	34,823	27,720	
	Total	473,912	65,387	44,815	
1930	Japanese	17,916	23,585	19,742	2,369
	Koreans	469,612	26,543	19,646	
	Total	487,588	50,128	30,388	
1931		....	46,570	27,760	2,610
1932		....	46,260	27,380	2,440
1933		....	51,370	35,590	2,900
1934		....	57,700	45,500	3,800
1935		....	65,960	65,000	2,900

The coast from the River Tumen downwards is noted for Myngtai, Alaska pollacks, and cod fishing, the western sea for the Guchi, Sciaena Sp. fishing and the southern sea near Fusan for cod, herrings, etc.

MINING

Despite rich mineral resources and its very old origin, the mining industry of Korea had long remained quite insignificant. In July, 1906 the Government of Kankoku, as Chosen was then called, promulgated the Mining Law and Regulation for placer mining. Then in 1915 after the annexation the Government-General instituted the Chosen Mining Act and in April the following year put in force regulations for the enforcement of the Chosen Mining Act and Regulations for the Chosen Mining Registration. This Act was intended to accelerate the development of the mining industry by stabilizing the security of mining rights. Later the act was amended more than once with the resultant promulgation of the legislation concerned.

General Survey of Mining Industry.—In the first year of Taisho, or 1912 the number of applications for mining operations was 633. The number gradually increased until in 1917 it reached 6,189. Later the number pursued a downward course due to abnormal economic conditions following the termination of the World War. In 1931, however, the number of applications began appreciably to increase due to the lifting of the gold embargo, which gave a fillip to gold mining. The number stood at 1,805 in that year, and increased to 3,204 in 1932 and to 5,210 in 1933, (of this number 4,800 represented silver mining). The number of mining lots for which premission had been given, as at the end of 1935 was 5,596. It showed an increase of 1,142. The mine output of minerals for 1935 was ¥88,039,201. Contrasted with the preceding year, it shows an expansion of ¥18,866,361.

Table 37. Number of Mining Lots and Mine Output

Year	No. of mining lots: Total	No. of mining lots: Of which worked	Production (Yen)
1930.....	2,262	456	24,654,463
1931.....	2,390	497	21,741,519
1932.....	2,719	939	33,746,958
1933.....	3,343	1,471	48,301,468
1934.....	4,454	2,262	69,172,840
1935.....	5,596	3,368	88,039,201

PRINCIPAL MINERALS

Gold.—The mine output of gold in 1935 was 12,400,951 grammes, valued at ¥38,320,921. Contrasted with the previous year, the volume shows an increase of 1,690,410 grammes and the value ¥5,106,007. The output of alluvial gold stood at 2,309,372 grammes valued at ¥7,136,796. In comparison with the preceding year, the volume shows an increase of 592,311 grammes and the value ¥1,813,452. There are about twelve mines each producing over five hundred thousand yen worth of gold and twenty which are each responsible for the annual production of more than ¥100,000 of gold.

Iron.—Owing to the prosperity of the heavy industry and the accompanying great increase in the demand for iron, the Kenji-ho Iron Foundry, the only iron plant in the peninsula, was in full swing increasing iron output and manufacturing steel. Pig-iron production for 1935 was 147,774 metric tons, valued at ¥7,332,318. Contrasted with the previous year, the volume shows a decrease of 27,728 and the value ¥389,770. The output of steel was 97,424 metric tons, valued at ¥6,764,148. The volume is 38,731 metric tons more than for the preceding year and the value ¥2,585,283. The production of iron ore for the year under review stood at 228,220 metric tons in volume and ¥1,279,269 in value. In comparison with the preceding year, the volume shows an expansion of 52,212 metric tons and the value ¥399,459.

Black-lead.—Market for scaly graphite, which had long been under the harrow of depression due to pressure brought to bear on it by the Ceylon description, had more or less revived since 1933. The mine output of the metal for the year under consideration was 44,698 metric tons, valued at ¥13,404. Contrasted with the previous year, the volume shows an increase of 13,404 tons and the value ¥682,764. The output of earth graphite was 40,464 tons as against 28,862 tons for the previous year. The greater part of the produce is shipped to Japan. Shipments to foreign countries have of late been on the increase.

Not only are both kinds of black-lead superior in quality but the richness of their deposits is of world-wide character. So this mining may be said to hold out bright prospect.

Coal.—In the year under notice coal market in Japan proper showed such prosperity as had never been seen before owing to the animation of industries in general, especially to the booming of the munitions industry. Partly because of this situation in Japan and partly because of the activity of various industries in the peninsula, the demand for coal appreciably increased and with it the price advanced. Coal production for the year under review was 1,999,153 metric tons, valued at 11,925,149. Contrasted with the previous year, the volume shows an increase of 310,506 tons and the value ¥1,984,583.

Table 38. Quantity and Value of Principal Minerals

Kind	Unit	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Gold	Gram	6,186,451	9,031,083	9,700,728	10,203,408	12,427,602	14,710,323
	Yen	6,618,656	9,583,950	19,633,178	26,066,784	38,538,258	45,457,717
Silver	Gram	2,101,065	11,404,022	18,351,300	21,864,573	31,287,181	39,345,459
	Yen	58,207	206,600	552,714	721,651	1,468,079	2,558,130
Gold & silver ore	Kg.	13,411	12,858	10,401	* 21,683	* 27,968	* 58,146
	Yen	1,070,439	653,545	944,252	1,906,445	2,511,481	6,502,959
Copper ore	Ton	5,647	6,156	6,543	5,974	— —	* 1,627
	Yen	45,886	35,485	33,817	41,975	——	10,111
Crude copper	Kg.	589,342	598,446	693,961	784,825	1,434,368	† 2,169,617
	Yen	1,398,225	224,921	307,027	417,368	933,032	1,685,797
Iron ore	Ton	532,496	164,712	151,413	258,267	176,008	228,220
	Yen	2,808,178	824,063	749,259	1,287,788	879,810	1,279,269
Pig iron	Ton	151,378	147,855	163,653	163,937	175,502	147,774
	Yen	5,923,071	4,588,887	4,114,012	5,605,691	7,722,088	7,332,318
Graphite	Kg.	20,073,511	14,049,717	16,813,619	22,677,006	31,294,000	45,118,000
	Yen	423,488	231,975	255,847	465,656	524,804	1,207,568
Coal	Ton	884,138	936,382	1,104,194	1,279,734	1,688,647	1,999,153
	Yen	5,327,966	5,190,064	5,970,119	7,205,406	9,940,566	11,925,149
Lead	Kwan	14,370	97,165	492,782	783,532	1,805,709	1,728,130
	Yen	5,200	5,800	64,375	120,783	306,329	388,762
Silica	Ton	47,346	40,659	43,856	68,818	72,279	38,692
	Yen	42,532	38,993	55,332	96,545	110,615	68,248
Sulphide iron ore	Ton	0	0	7,130	14,518	40,024	55,611
	Yen	292	320	43,997	75,580	243,077	308,028
Tungsten ore	Kg.	11,642	16,050	57,250	152,500	369,340	875,674
	Yen	6,216	7,154	29,845	117,234	734,210	1,388,962
Arsenic acid	Kg.	——	——	——	152,653	331,871	373,000
	Yen	——	——	——	15,846	32,009	46,657
Antimony	Kg.	——	——	7,020	21,050	——	5,000
	Yen	——	——	1,279	3,833	——	2,651

Kind	Unit	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Black lead	Kg.	20,073,511	14,049,717	16,813,619	22,679,006	31,294,000	44,696,223
	Yen	423,314	231,975	255,847	465,656	524,804	1,207,568
Felspar	Ton	2,297	2,648	7,577	9,076	12,099	9,772
	Yen	11,486	11,916	94,697	122,561	131,075	116,420
Magnesite	Ton	—	—	—	—	3,166	2,410
	Yen	—	—	—	—	3,643	7,192
Barytes	Ton	6,096	5,460	6,569	4,969	5,935	11,027
	Yen	60,967	54,600	51,672	58,499	80,616	126,435

Note:—* Metric tons.

FORESTRY

The total area of Korea is 14,312 square ri, approximately. Of this area, about 10,583 square ri, or about 73 per cent. is occupied by forests and plains. As a large part of these forests and plains was in a state of desolation at the time of annexation, the Government-General has since made efforts for afforestation. As a result, forestry enterprises have sprung up in various localities. The principal species recently planted are the Akamatsu (Pinus Thunbergii) the Chosen-karamatsu (Larix dahurica, var. coreana), the Chosen-matsu (Pinus koraiensis), the Kuromatsu (Pinus densiflora), the Manshukuromatsu (Pinus funebris Komar), the Rigidamatsu (Pinus rigida Mill.), the Kunugi (Quercus serrata), the Niseakashia (Robinia pseudoacacia), and the Hannoki (Alnus japonica).

The principal state forests lie in the districts forming the sources of the Rivers Yalu, Tumen, Taidong, Han and other main rivers. The annual amount of the fell from these forests is put at 4,670,000 shakujime, or 1,570,000 cubic metres. The principal trees used for various purposes are the Akamatsu. Chosen-matsu, Chosen-karamatsu, Ezomatsu (Picea ajanensis, Fisch), fir trees, and varieties of deciduous oak. The Akamatsu and other acerose trees are used chiefly for buildings, telegraph poles, bridges and ship-buildings, and Onoorekanba (Betula Schimidtii) called Danboku is valued as timber for vehicles.

The total forest area classified according to localities for the year 1935 is tabulated below:

Table 39. Area of Forests By Localities

(1935)

(In thousands of cho)

Localities	Area with trees	Area with young trees or bare of trees	Area without trees	Total
Keiki-do (Kyongki)	560	67	144	772
Chusei Hoku-do (North Choongchong)	391	84	63	539
Chusei Nan-do (South Choongchong)	338	93	67	498
Zenra Hoku-do (North Chonla)	432	61*	60	552
Zenra Nan-do (South Chonla)	685	86	112	883
Keisho Hoku-do (North Kyongsang)	1,186	70	123	1,379
Keisho Nan-do (South Kyongsang)	581	131	134	846
Kokai-do (Whanghai)	732	157	104	993
Heian Nan-do (South Pyong-an)	776	35	186	996
Heian Hoku-do (North Pyong-an)	1,655	237	415	2,307
Kogen-do (Kwan-won)	1,173	501	514	2,188
Kankyo Nan-do (South Hamkyong)	1,772	384	520	2,676
Kankyo Hoku-do (North Hamkyong)	1,301	198	206	1,705
Total	11,582	2,103	2,649	16,334

Table 40. Area Planted and Number of Trees

Year	Area (Hectares)	No. of trees (1,000 pieces)	Year	Area (Hectares)	No. of trees (1,000 pieces)
1928	92,418	342,621	1932	78,247	294,558
1929	87,948	300,679	1933	71,936	257,122
1930	80,029	271,488	1934	91,640	223,725
1931	80,887	303,259	1935	98,816	208,910

Table 41. Timber and Other Forest Products

(In thousands of yen)

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Timber	7,232	10,752	8,389	7,902	7,431	13,679	17,854	18,137
Fagots	14,210	17,860	12,208	11,358	11,130	23,106	24,508	26,412
Charcoal	2,332	3,128	2,124	2,143	1,914	2,208	2,863	2,686
Bamboo	629	650	547	470	406	291	320	246
Branches and leaves	18,795	19,666	19,022	15,069	13,552	24,591	26,679	28,127
Vines and ferns	18,210	19,373	18,055	19,764	18,265	—	—	—
Green Manure	—	—	—	—	—	3,180	2,540	2,611
Compost Material	—	—	—	—	—	8,503	7,802	8,560
Fodder	—	—	—	—	—	—	3,793	3,956
Seeds	—	—	—	—	—	1,705	1,822	2,334
By products	3,544	2,987	2,925	2,143	1,914	—	—	—
Total incl. others	64,952	74,416	63,360	59,399	55,070	94,330	106,031	114,005

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY

The manufacturing industry of Korea had once attained considerable developments. But it gradually declined until in the closing days of the Li dynasty it was reduced to a very depressed state representing only such goods as fabrics, ceramics, paper, hides and leathers, liquors, metals, etc. These articles were not only limited in volume but very coarse in manufacture, so that they fell far short of meeting the general requirements of the people. A considerable amount of necessaries of life had to be imported from abroad. As soon as it was established, the Government-General bent every nerve to improve and develop the industry, which was in such a sorry plight. Thanks to these efforts on the part of the authorities, the industry has much improved in both quality and quantity. On the other hand, Koreans have become so enlightened in industrial affairs that many natives have come to try factory management, added to which, capitalists in Japan proper have increasingly extended their activity to Korea. The result is that factories on a large scale have been established in many parts of the peninsula for the manufacture of fabrics and yarns, iron, refined sugar, pulp, porcelain, cement, flour, oil, sulphate of ammonia, etc. Industrial products in Korea for 1935 totalled ¥607,470,000, approximately. Of this amount, ¥200,130,000 represented partly a household industry and partly a subsidiary industry. The total value of manufactured goods for the year under review specified according to industry is listed below:

Table 42. Value of Manufactured Goods By Industry

(In thousands of yen)

	No. of Factories 1935	No. of Workers 1935	Production 1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Spinning	377	31,450	24,439	30,612	38,731	49,681	71,165
Metal	239	7,164	16,106	21,524	29,238	41,277	21,338
Machine and tool	324	7,427	2,308	2,780	3,010	5,054	6,619
Ceramics	336	9,996	7,291	7,582	8,730	9,970	14,997
Chemical	1,161	43,169	31,913	35,361	51,992	68,233	117,983
Wood manufacture	340	6,353	6,381	6,754	9,951	11,566	14,393
Printing and bookbinding	285	7,157	8,381	9,179	9,549	10,696	12,169
Gas and Electric	51	1,283	16,129	11,069	10,987	12,831	39,804
Food	2,326	48,879	156,480	192,064	201,331	259,261	325,727
Others	296	5,893	4,221	4,443	5,114	6,748	10,162
Total	5,635	168,771	275,151	323,271	384,822	486,522	634,355

Electric and Gas Enterprises.—At the end of March, 1936 there were 49 electric companies with a combined capital of ¥152,022,900, of which ¥114,876,400 was paid up. They represented a generating power of 880,358 K.W.

At the same date there were two gas companies capitalized at 2,282,064. They had a combined generating capacity of 35,500 cubic metres.

TRADE

Markets.—From old times the greater part of business transactions in Korea have been done in regular markets. Of late traders have increasingly established shops as their permanent seats of business. But, still the markets are important local organs of trading. As at the end of 1935 there were throughout the peninsula 1,494 of these markets, transactions thereon amounting to ¥250, 000,000 and upwards a year. These markets are generally open five or six times a

month.

Trades by Japanese.—Prior to the annexation of the peninsula, trades by Japanese were confined chiefly to those places on which Japanese residents were concentrated such as Jinsen, Fusan, Masan, Gunsan, Gensan, Heijo, Chinnanpo, Shingishu, etc. Since the annexation, however, trading by Japanese has spread to all parts of the country. Principal trades by Japanese consists of exports (inclusive of shipments to Japan) of cereals, aquatic products, cow-hide, and other special products of Korea and imports (inclusive of consignment from Japan) of various kinds of miscellaneous goods, cotton yarn and cloth, fertilizer, petroleum, sugar, matches, etc. Besides, there are many wholesale and retail dealers in various lines of goods. Such goods as the necessaries of life, piecegoods, sake, soy, stationery, sweets, coarse wares, vegetables, etc., are generally supplied by wholesalers in Seoul, Jinsen and Fusan to retaliers in various other places.

Companies.—In sympathy with recent industrial developments, companies on a large scale especially for industrial purposes have been increasingly estabilshed. The table given below will show the situation in recent developments of companies in Korea:—

Table 43.(a) Korean Companies Having Head Offices in Korea

By Lines of Business

End of	Agriculture & Forestry	Commerce	Industry	Fishery	Mining	Banking and other Financial Business	Transport	Gas and Electricity	Others	Total
1911.....	12	66	27	1	1	19	19	7	—	152
1933.....	113	811	581	28	27	133	229	54	305	2,281
1934.....	117	774	587	26	36	149	233	57	323	2,302
1935.....	120	745	672	27	46	132	246	42	329	2,359

(b) Japanese or Foreign Companies Having Branches in Korea

By Lines of Business

(Number of Branch Offices in the Peninsula)

End of	Agriculture & Forestry	Commerce	Industry	Fisheries	Mining	Banking and other Financial Business	Transport	Gas and Electricity	Other	Total
1933.....	34	27	31	5	16	13	10	5	21	162
1934.....	32	27	68	5	19	15	11	2	20	169
1935.....	22	10	32	5	26	6	6	—	21	128

Chambers of Commerce and Industry.—In accordance with the provisions of the Korean Chambers of Commerce and Industry Act promulgated in 1930 the Chambers of Commerce, which had hitherto existed, were renamed as Chambers of Commerce and Industry. These institutions exist in fifteen places including Jinsen, Gunsan, Moppo, Fusan, Heijo, etc. Besides, there is an associated chamber of commerce and industry styled "(The Korean Chamber of Commerce and Industry."

RAILWAYS

The first railway enterprise in Korea dates back to 1890 when a railway line between Keijo (Seoul) and Jinsen (Chemulpo) covering a distance of 29,485 kilometres was laid and opened to traffic by the Kei-jin Railway Company. The outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War caused the Department of War in Japan to build the Keijo-Fusan, Keijo-Shingishu and the Masan lines which were respectively opened to traffic in 1904 and 1905. In 1906 the Imperial Government of Japan nationalized the Keijo-Fusan and also took over the Keijo-Shingishu and the Masan lines from the Department of War, placing all those lines under the control of the Railway Bureau of the Korean Resident-General. Meanwhile the work of construction was steadily pushed on and in 1910 the Heijo-Chinanpo line was completed. On the spanning of the River Yalu with an iron bridge in 1911 the peninsula railway was brought into connexion with the South Manchuria Railway line. In 1914 the Taiden-Moppo and Keijo-Gensan lines were completed, while in 1915 part of the Gensan-Kwanei line was opened. At the end of October, 1936 the total length of the State-owned lines in Korea was 3,752.6 kilometres. Of this extension of lines 328.5 kilometres' length of lines has been entrusted to the South Manchuria Railway Company for management since October 1, 1933, so that the length of lines under the direct management of the Government-General is 3,434.1 kilometres. The railway lines of the peninsula at the end of 1935 were as follows:—

Table 44. Railway Lines

(End of 1935)

Keifu Line	481.5 kms.	*Kankyo Line	660.0 „
Keigi „	610.3 „	*Tomon „	223.0 „
Konan „	285.8 „	Mampo „	176.9 „
Keizen „	258.3 „	Keizan „	99.7 „
Tokai „	371.5 „	Hakumo „	100.5 „
Keigen „	223.7 „	Shorei „	174.9 „
Heigen West Line	96.5 „	Total	3,434.1 „

Note:—* Lines operated on trust not included in Total.

Lines under construction are as follows:—

Table 45. Railway Lines Under Construction

(End of 1935)

Keizen Line	170.4 kms.	Keizan „	42.4 „
Tokai „	325.1 „	Hakumo „	132.1 „
Heigen „	117.2 „	Total	937.1 „
Mampo „	149.9 „		

Table 46. Results of State Railways

Year	Mileage of Railways open to traffic (Kms.)	Rolling stock: Engine	Rolling stock: Passenger carriages	Rolling stock: Freight wagons	No. of Passengers carried: Number	No. of Passengers carried: Fare (Yen)	Volume of goods carried: Weight (M. ton)	Volume of goods carried: Freight (Yen)
1929-30.....	2,751.5	331	828	3,522	23,225,584	21,054,043	6,160,043	20,766,158
1930-31.....	2,792.5	334	829	3,632	20,649,934	17,658,154	5,936,008	19,163,532
1931-32.....	3,008.5	347	867	3,763	19,673,704	16,655,960	6,025,150	19,644,552
1932-33.....	3,142.8	360	900	3,992	20,591,638	18,111,091	6,248,863	20,575,819
1933-34.....	2,935.4	—	—	—	22,238,338	20,801,721	7,254,859	22,444,724
1934-35.....	3,077.4	—	—	—	25,614,815	24,358,001	7,681,776	25,790,513
1935-36.....	3,389.5	—	—	—	29,344,188	28,172,471	8,667,642	28,305,426

PRIVATE RAILWAYS AND TRAMWAYS

For the encouragement of private railway enterprises, the Government-General promulgated the Chosen Light Railway Regulation in 1912, making provisions for their supervision and protection. Since then the authorities have yearly inspected the projected private railway lines. The total length of private railway and tramway lines open to traffic as at the end of October, 1936 was 1,099.4 kilometres, those lines which remained to be opened 451.6 kilometres and lines for specific purposes already completed 319.8 kilometres.

Motor Transport.—The motor transport service in Korea has of late made such swift developments as to be assuming an important position as a land transport organ together with the railway and tram services. In the field of the regular service the operators of the passenger traffic as at the end of October, 1936 numbered 196 (extension of the routes being 27,000 kilometres) and those of the goods traffic 32 (extension of the routes being 5,000 kilometres). The initial expenditures involved total ¥10,000,000. There were eight operators of an indefinite bus service for excursion purposes, the extension of the routes being 113 kilometres and the initial expenditure ¥150,000 and 176 operators of an indefinite truck service, the extension of the routes being 20,000 kilometres and the initial expenditure ¥3,000,000. As for the hire service for irregular routes, the passenger traffic involved 252 operators, the initial expenditure being ¥4,600,000, and the goods traffic 505 operators (initial expenditure being ¥4,900,000).

Table 47. Statistics of Communications

(a) Postal Service

Year	Ordinary: No. of offices open to public	Ordinary: Postal routes (Kms.)	Ordinary: No. of mails	Parcels: No. of offices open to public	Parcels: No. of parcels
1929-30.....	723	45,496	502,481,413	722	5,632,755
1930-31.....	749	45,867	492,913,547	748	5,389,064
1931-32.....	777	47,520	493,770,648	777	5,026,223
1932-33.....	789	58,748	522,472,701	789	5,138,997
1933-34.....	812	72,573	562,735,447	812	5,573,623
1934-35.....	843	72,634	656,102,077	838	5,993,149
1935-36.....	872	122,685	686,456,243	867	6,234,720

(b) Telegraph Service

Year	No. of offices open to public	Length of Lines (Kms.)	Length of Wires (Kms.)	No. of Messages	No. of Translations
1929-30.....	764	8,638	37,752	12,050,040	9,987,770
1930-31.....	789	8,633	39,281	11,332,115	9,349,813
1931-32.....	804	8,638	39,752	11,194,658	9,114,731
1932-33.....	822	8,668	39,987	11,515,845	9,693,670
1933-34.....	834	8,758	41,739	12,780,262	11,086,138
1934-35.....	853	8,793	42,575	14,227,515	12,694,013
1935-36.....	878	8,815	44,251	15,913,683	13,961,511

(c) Telephone Service

Year	No. of offices open to public	Length of Line (Kms.)	Length of Wires (Kms.)	No. of Subscribers	No. of Messages
1929-30.....	664	8,833	128,337	31,488	175,613,290
1930-31.....	685	9,015	137,941	32,664	176,455,929
1931-32.....	702	9,147	144,168	33,900	189,408,731
1932-33.....	714	9,375	152,227	34,869	209,657,071
1933-34.....	730	9,532	164,127	36,229	231,309,215
1934-35.....	750	9,586	173,369	37,694	243,063,067
1935-36.....	766	9,681	190,153	39,763	270,390,868

Table 48. Postal Money Orders and Post Office Savings Banks

Year	Domestic Money Orders		Foreign Money Orders		Savings Banks	
	Issued (Yen)	Paid (Yen)	Issued (Yen)	Paid (Yen)	No. of depositors	Amount (Yen)
1930-31.....	92,966,350	82,627,090	366,357	274,827	2,118,178	38,852,866
1931-32.....	87,125,628	77,217,215	240,660	237,322	2,284,871	41,432,670
1932-33.....	93,585,317	85,225,575	205,289	369,794	2,494,062	40,939,392
1933-34.....	108,254,429	99,723,253	302,782	701,327	2,840,656	44,807,154
1934-35.....	122,063,492	110,909,830	466,402	1,043,834	3,156,094	52,631,553
1935-36.....	130,567,455	115,486,662	522,226	1,746,065	3,571,237	54,820,710

ORIENTAL DEVELOPMENT COMPANY, LIMITED

(Toyo Takushoku Kabushiki Kaisha)

The Oriental Development Company is the first joint undertaking by Japanese and Koreans for exploiting the resources of Korea. It was organized in 1908 with a capital of ¥10,000,000. In 1918 the capital was increased to ¥20,000,000. The following year it was again increased to ¥50,000,000.

While the Company was gradually increasing its capital in order to meet growing requirements of funds, the economic circles of Japan suffered seriously from the slump of 1920 and the great earthquake and fire of 1923. In order to meet the situation the Company set about strengthening its position in 1923 by reducing dividened payments, reforming business, cutting expenditure and readjusting its controlling interests. But, as the trade depression showed no sign of recovery, especially with things in Manchuria getting worse, the Company found it necessary to effect fundamental readjustment of its assets and liabilities. This was carried out in 1926. Thanks to the drastic measure taken by the Company, its position has since greatly improved. Of the abovementioned capital of ¥50,000,000, ¥35,000,000 is paid up. The term of the Company is ten years. The Company is authorised to issue debentures ten times its paid-up capital. From March, 1913 to June, 1936 debentures were issued to the extent of ¥638,440,000, approximately, of which ¥430,590,000 was redeemed and ¥207,850,000 outstanding. The scope of the business of the Company as provided for by Article 11 of the Oriental Development Act is as follows:—

(1) Supplying funds necessary for colonization.

(2) Engaging in agriculture, riparian work, aquirement, management and disposal of land necessary for colonization.

(3) Collecting and distributing immigrants for colonization.

(4) Constructing, buying and selling and renting buildings necessary for the immigrants.

(5) Supplying immigrants and agriculturists with things necessary for colonization and distributing their products.

(6) Managing and supervising land on trust.

(7) Carrying on other businesses, necessary for colonization.

Besides the above forms of business the Company makes loans as an agency of the Hypothec Bank of Japan.

Sphere of Business Activity.—The sphere of the business activity of the Company is so extensive as to cover Korea, Kwantung Province, Manchoukuo, Mongolia, East Asiatic Russia, Hopei Province, Shantung Province and Kiansu Province of China, the Philippines, the South Seas, the Malay Peninsula.

The Company has its head office at Tokyo, to which it was removed in 1917 from Seoul, and branch offices in nine places in Korea and five places in Manchoukuo and agencies in Tsingtao and Tientsin.

Statistics of the business of the Company are tabulated below:—

Table 49. Results of Oriental Development Company

(In 1,000 yen)

		Capital Subscribed	Capital p.u.	Reserves	Profits	Loss	Net profits	Dividend	Ratio of dividend %
1930.	1st half ..	50,000	35,000	1,619	8,744	7,974	770	640	4.0
	2nd half ..	50,000	35,000	1,704	8,498	8,221	276	480	3.0
1931.	1st half ..	50,000	35,000	1,733	8,671	8,052	619	480	3.0
	2nd half ..	50,000	35,000	1,796	9,105	8,295	810	480	3.0
1932.	1st half ..	50,000	35,000	1,878	9,200	8,991	209	—	—
	2nd half ..	50,000	35,000	1,900	10,011	10,418	—	—	—
1933.	1st half ..	50,000	35,000	1,900	11,670	11,670	—	—	—
	2nd half ..	50,000	35,000	1,900	12,029	12,029	—	—	—
1934.	1st half ..	50,000	35,000	1,900	10,709	10,709	—	—	—
	2nd half ..	50,000	35,000	1,900	11,077	10,716	361	—	—
1935.	1st half ..	50,000	35,000	1,936	10,437	9,673	765	—	—
	2nd half ..	50,000	35,000	2,012	11,570	10,289	1,281	—	—

The total land exploited by the Company and the number of settlers cared for by the Company for the last seven years are given below:

Table 50. Work of Oriental Development Co.

(Area in hectares)

Year	Paddy	Upland	Forest & miscellaneous	Total	No. of households of settlers	Area allotted			Area allotted Average per household		
						Paddy	Upland	Total	Paddy	Upland	Total
1929....	46,682	16,944	41,709	105,336	3,967	9,234	942	10,176	2.32	0.24	2.56
1930....	46,584	16,887	60,092	123,565	3,943	9,059	933	9,992	2.29	0.23	2.52
1931....	46,284	16,804	90,085	153,175	3,921	9,138	938	10,076	2.33	0.24	2.57
1932....	46,194	16,926	92,344	155,464	3,905	9,070	935	10,005	2.32	0.24	2.56
1933....	46,157	16,940	101,491	164,588	3,896	9,040	933	9,973	2.32	0.24	2.56
1934....	44,521	18,211	103,686	166,418	3,893	9,051	934	9,985	2.32	0.24	2.56
1935....	42,895	17,300	105,753	165,948	3,891	9,050	934	9,984	2.32	0.24	2.56

References: Tables 1, 2, 6-9, 12, 13, 15-17, 26, 27, 32, 38-42, 45-47 & 49-50—Chosen Sotoku-fu Tokei Nempo (Statistical Annual of the Chosen Govt.-Gen.), 1937. Tables 3-5, 10, 14, 22-24, 28, 31, 33-37, 44 & 48—Chosen Jijo (Outline of Chosen), 1937. Tables 11 & 18-21—Okura-sho Nempo (Annual Return of the Department of Finance), 1936, and Official Gazette. Table 25—Chosen Boeki Geppyo (Monthly Return of the Foreign Trade of Chosen). Table 29—Takumu Tokei (Statistical Annual of the Department of Overseas Affairs), 1937. Table 30—Kome Tokei-hyo (Statistical Annual on Rice), 1937, published by the Department of Agr. & For.)

CHAPTER XXXV

FORMOSA (Taiwan)

GEOGRAPHY

Position—119° 18′—122° 6′ E. L.; 21° 45′—25° 38′ N. L.
Area—Main island 13,423 sq. miles. Boko-to (Pescadores) 48 sq. miles.

The island was ceded to Japan by China as the result of the Sino-Japanese War (1894-5) by virtue of the Shimonoseki Treaty.

The total area of this insular territory almost equals that of Kyushu. The seaboard extends nearly 290 "ri," but with no good indentation except the ports of Keelung and Tamsui in the north and that of Takao in the south.

The main island is traversed from north to south by the Taiwan range, the eastern half thus formed being steep and craggy, but the western half flat and fertile. Highest peaks are Mt. Niitaka (14,500 ft.) and Mt. Sylvia (nearly 13,000 ft.). The rivers are short with swift current.

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS

Table 1. Temperature (1935)

(In Celsius)

	Jan.	Mar.	May	July	Sept.	Nov.	Dec.	Aver.
Taihoku	15.2	16.5	24.1	28.2	26.2	19.7	16.7	21.7
Keelung	15.5	16.6	23.4	27.9	26.3	20.1	17.2	21.6
Taichu	15.7	18.1	25.1	27.7	26.4	20.3	17.2	22.1
Karenko	17.6	19.0	24.5	27.2	25.9	20.8	18.4	22.4
Tainan	17.0	19.6	26.2	27.8	27.0	21.5	18.4	23.1
Taito	19.0	20.7	25.2	27.4	26.4	22.0	19.9	23.4
Koshun	20.4	22.2	26.4	27.5	26.7	23.3	21.3	24.4
Bokoto (Pescadores)	16.3	18.2	25.0	27.9	27.0	21.5	18.2	22.6

Table 2. Rainfall (1935)

(In mm.)

	Jan.	Mar.	May	July	Sept.	Nov.	Dec.	Total
Taihoku	88	182	223	235	238	66	73	2,115
Keelung	297	307	265	138	235	231	285	2,909
Taichu	33	109	234	294	143	17	24	1,749
Karenko	61	108	202	261	262	101	68	1,910
Tainan	20	45	177	380	164	17	15	1,738
Taito	38	62	183	362	287	55	37	1,821
Koshun	22	23	182	497	287	34	16	2,226
Bokoto (Pescadores)	23	61	111	184	99	20	18	995

INHABITANTS AND POPULATION

The inhabitants or population of the island is mainly classified into three, i.e., Japanese, natives and foreigners. The first named, namely, Japanese are those who have come over from Japan proper and settled in the island since its occupation by Japan; the bulk of the foreign population are Chinese, the number of European and American residents being quite limited. The native inhabitants are classified into the Han race and the aboriginal race. The former is again divided into those settlers from Fukien and neighbourhood and those from Canton and neighbourhood, and occupy about 93 per cent. of the total number of the native inhabitants. The natives, the original and oldest inhabitants of the island, are again divided into uncivilized and civilized. In the accompanying statistics which give the number of population at the end of 1935-36, the figure of aborigines is the estimate of those residing in the aboriginal district, while the number of aborigines residing in the districts within the jurisdiction of the insular administration is included in the number of natives.

Table 3. Total Population at End of 1935

	Total	Male	Female	Rate
Total population	5,315,642	2,714,896	2,600,746	100.0
Japanese	269,798	141,765	128,033	5.1
Koreans	1,604	583	1,021	0.0
Natives	4,990,131	2,536,698	2,453,433	93.9
Of which aborigines	150,489	75,371	75,118	2.8
Chinese	53,900	35,738	18,162	1.0
Other foreigners	209	112	97	0.0

The total population (excluding the aborigines dwelling in the aboriginal districts) for 1935 is returned as 5,212,426 which figure, when compared with the similar figure at the end of 1905 when the census in the islands was taken soon after the island became Japanese territory, indicated an increase of 2,172,675. The following figures represent the census population enumerated quinquennially:—

Table 4. Census Population By Sex

	*1935	1930	1925	1920	1915	1905
Male	2,659,819	2,353,288	2,052,669	1,893,541	1,813,053	1,610,816
Female	2,552,607	2,289,249	1,940,739	1,761,767	1,666,869	1,428,935
Total	5,212,426	4,592,537	3,993,408	3,655,308	3,479,922	3,039,751

* including aborigines.

The population as classified according to Japanese, natives and foreigners is as follows:—

Table 5. Population By Japanese, Natives and Foreigners

		Male	Female	Total
1905	Japanese	35,923	23,695	59,618
	Natives	1,570,239	1,408,779	2,979,018
	Foreigners	7,719	504	8,223
	Total	1,613,881	1,432,978	3,046,859
1910	Japanese	58,580	39,468	98,048
	Natives	1,626,338	1,479,885	3,106,223
	Foreigners	13,396	1,444	14,840
	Total	1,698,314	1,520,797	3,219,111
1914	Japanese	82,319	39,516	141,835
	Natives	1,718,835	1,588,467	3,307,302
	Foreigners	16,902	2,680	19,582
	Total	1,818,056	1,650,663	3,468,719
1931	Japanese	131,563	112,309	243,872
	Natives	2,251,354	2,174,768	4,426,122
	Foreigners	30,707	14,577	45,284
	Total	2,413,624	2,301,654	4,715,278
1932	Japanese	131,612	116,916	248,528
	Natives	2,361,826	2,277,400	4,639,226
	Foreigners	27,921	14,287	42,208
	Total	2,521,359	2,408,603	4,929,962
1933	Japanese	136,253	121,265	257,518
	Natives	2,421,881	2,337,316	4,759,197
	Foreigners	28,966	14,826	43,792
	Total	2,587,100	2,473,407	5,060,507
1934	Japanese	139,286	124,994	264,280
	Natives	2,484,771	2,397,517	4,882,288
	Foreigners	32,041	16,371	48,412
	Total	2,656,098	2,538,882	5,194,980
1935	Japanese	142,348	129,054	271,402
	Natives	2,536,698	2,453,433	4,990,131
	Foreigners	35,850	18,259	54,109
	Total	2,714,896	2,600,746	5,315,642

The number of births, deaths, marriages, etc., and their rate per 1,000 population are as follows, excluding aborigines:—

Table 6. Movement of Population

Year	Birth	Still-birth	Death	Marriage	Divorce	Per 1,000 Population: Birth	Still-birth	Death	Marriage	Divorce
1930	206,732	7,351	89,654	46,364	4,300	45.0	1.6	19.5	10.1	0.9
1931	217 136	7,692	101,077	42,468	3.889	46.0	1.6	21.4	9.0	0.8
1932	214,192	7,858	99,125	43,123	3,985	44.2	1.6	20.5	8.9	0.8
1933	221,350	7,885	98,507	44,078	3,949	44.5	1.6	19.8	8.9	0.8
1934	228,676	8,200	105,166	43,450	3,980	44.8	1.6	20.6	8.5	0.8
1935	235,945	7,744	106,905	46,279	3,851	45.2	1.5	20.5	8.9	0.7

Table 7. Census Population in Principal Cities in 1935

Taihoku	278,446	Tainan	111,959
Shinchiku	52,107	Kagi	72,984
Keelung	84,978	Takao	83,735
Taichu	70,467	Shoka	51,236

ABORIGINES

There are nine different tribes ethnologically all more or less allied to the Malay race. At the end of 1935 there were 560 communities, 24,651 households with a population of about 150,502 (75,373 males and 75,129 females), broadly classified into Northern and Southern aborigines. The former are savage head-hunters, the latter more submissive and civilized. The Northern aborigines almost exclusively belong to the Taiyol tribe and occupy a little under half the whole extent of the unexplored regions. The Southern tribes are Tsaissetto, Vonum, Tsco, Tsarien, Taiwan, Puyuma, Amis, Peipo and Yami (this on Botel Tobago island alone, and they are about four times as numerous as the other. These together occupy the region covering about one half the total area of the island, where natural resources abound.

Subjugation and Pacification.—The program of subjugation and pacification at the cost of ¥15,000,000 was completed in about five years ending 1915. The tribesmen were made as mark of allegiance to surrender their firearms, and the number thus captured amounted to 31,523 pieces till the end of 1927. The victims of violence by the savages markedly fell off. The total till the end of 1927 reached 6,918. The heaviest toll was 761 in 1912 as against 41 in 1918, 2 each in 1925 and 1926 and 9 in 1927.

There remain one or two communities to be accounted for; and the peaceful policy of subjugating them by clearing up the wild land is being pursued.

The tendency to engage in various peaceful occupations is steadily growing among the tribesmen. In addition, even the good habits of industry and thrift are in evidence among them. At the end of 1935 their total savings were valued at ¥295,690, representing 17,690 depositors. The highest savings were ¥2,807 and the average per capita ¥16.72.

Principal occupations are rice plantation on paddy fields, stockfarming, sericulture and cultivation of other farm products such as sugar canes, (the area under sugar canes for 1935 was given as 550 ko, crop 42,014,489 kin and sales ¥138,327), tobacco, jute, tea, etc.

ADMINISTRATION

New Local Administration

In August, 1920 five prefectures, Taihoku, Shinchiku, Taichu, etc., were created much on the same lines of local administration as in Japan proper, each under a civil governor, and with it the municipal and village self-government has come into existence. The prefecture, municipality, and village conduct their respective affairs regarding taxation, revenue, management of enterprises, etc., as assigned to each by the new legislation. Advisory council, prefectural, municipal and village, have also been created to deliberate on the financial and legislative affairs, taxation, etc., in their respective commissions. The members of the prefectural council are appointed by the Governor-General, and those of the municipal and village members by the governor of the prefecture to which they belong, each for a term of two years and as gratuitous duty.

FINANCE

Table 8. Revenue and Expenditure

	Revenue (1,000 yen) Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total	Expenditure (1,000 yen) Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
1928-29	104,378	43,146	147,524	76,922	32,189	109,109
1929-30	107,582	42,659	150,241	82,804	39,492	122,295
1930-31	98,517	31,241	129,758	78,363	31,608	109,971
1931-32	93.352	22,620	115,972	76,647	22,413	99,060
1932-33	96,583	23,720	120,303	74,400	22,840	97,240
1933 34	100,664	30,148	130,812	78,989	23,231	102,221
1934-35	110,615	31,003	141,618	87,269	24.: 08	112,177
1935-36	123.408	33,142	156,549	94,025	29,921	123,944
1936-37 (Budget)	117,436	16,100	133,536	98,392	35,145	133,536
1937-38 (,,)	141,856	16,122	157,978	110,521	47,458	157,978

(a) Revenue (yen)

	1935-36 (Settled)	1936-37 (Budget)	1937-38 (Budget)
Ordinary:			
Taxes and Duties	21,930,359	19,272,741	26,671,159
State Undertakings and Property	94,517,065	92,338,206	108,537,340
Stamp Receipts	5,107,200	4,229,025	4,617,707
Miscellaneous Receipts	1,853,210	1,596,340	2,030,276
Total	123,407,834	117,436,312	141,856,482
Extraordinary:			
Proceeds from sale of State Property	831,908	548,333	599,594
Special Profit tax	907,383	810,267	1,777,930
Miscellaneous Receipts	135,727	205,321	135,362
Surplus of preceding year transferred	29,440,912	11,916,805	10,947,039
Total incl. others	33,141,533	16,100,032	16,121,805
Total revenue	156,549,367	133,536,344	157,978,287

(b) Expenditure (yen)

	1935-36 (Settled)	1936-37 (Budget)	1937-38 (Budget)
Ordinary:			
Administration Office	2,702,144	2,983,433	3,910,927
Local Governments	13,836,664	13,995,260	14,866,200
Customs houses	524,169	537,732	570,761
Judicial Courts	1,336,652	1,376,163	1,463,293
Prisons	1,264,484	1,235,538	1,286,349
Police	192,575	194,863	225,648
Hospitals	1,233,057	1,266,459	1,328,421
Research Institute	830,111	857,205	946,491
Education	4,596,376	4,998,379	5,472,060
Communication	23,386,405	25,511,567	28,579,613
Monopoly Bureau	26,450,069	25,677,448	31,782,269
Forestry	3,229,252	3,384,072	3,807,345
Sinking fund	7,593,072	7,418,453	6,720,593
Total including others	94,023,154	98,391,646	110,520,502
Extraordinary:			
Government Undertakings	12,836,417	14,697,155	19,409,419
Repairs	2,481,116	4,472,844	6,849,365
Inspection	1,150,532	1,052,549	1,362,482
Subsidies	5,931,311	8,593,372	9,361,675
Industrial encouragement	1,959,199	2,324,281	3,086,728
Total including others	29,920,811	35,144,698	47,457,785
Total expenditure	123,943,965	133,536,344	157,978,287

EDUCATION

By the regulations promulgated in 1932 both Japanese and natives were placed under a uniform system of education. In the primary grade, however, the native children mostly at-

tend the public schools which formerly admitted only natives to teach them Japanese.

With the creation of the normal schools in 1919 the Language School, which consisted of two departments, Japanese and native, was abolished. The High School established in April 1922 is under the same regulation as that in Japan proper. The number of schools, teachers and students at the end of April 1936 is shown below:—

Table 9. The Number of Schools, Teachers and Students

(End of April, 1936)

	No. of Schools	No. of Teachers	No. of Students
Elementary Schools	138	1,040	42,968
Public Schools	783	6,659 (47)	407,614 (7,031)
Middle Schools	10	276	6,266
Girls' High Schools	13	310	6,041
Normal Schools	4	149	1,408
Agr. & For. Schools	3	84	1,300 (9)
Technical School	1	80	868
Commercial Schools	2	63	1,298
Higher Medical School	1	61	266
Higher Commercial School	1	40	231
Higher Technical School	1	60	205
Higher Agr. & For. School	1	41	142
University	1	307	141
Private Schools	22	191	5,132
Private Institutions kept by native teachers	84	127	3,404
Kindergartens	72	146	4,446
Blind, Deaf & Dumb Schools	2	23	277

Note:—( ) Aborigines.

Taihoku Imperial University

This was inaugurated in April 1928 and consists of Literary and Science Departments, 24 chairs in each. The teaching staff consisted of 307 members as at the end of April, 1936 and the number of students 136, of whom 40 were Formosans. The Medical Department was established towards the end of 1935-36 and opened in 1936-37.

As at the end of March, 1936 the library attached to the University contained 158,052 foreign books and 184,505 Japanese and Chinese books, making a total of 342,557. Contrasted with the like date of the previous year, the number shows an increase of 19,831.

JUSTICE AND PRISONS

The law courts as they exist now in Taiwan are the High Court, with the two Departments of Final Appeal and Revision, and three Local Courts with three branches.

Table 10. Statistics of Law Courts

(a)

	Civil Suits							
	1st instance		Appeal		Supreme		Total	
Year	No. of cases	Cases disposed of	No. of cases	Cases disposed of	No. of cases	Cases disposed of	No. of cases	Cases disposed of
1930	9,475	8,782	1,669	1,458	294	295	11,439	10,534
1931	12,032	11,377	1,617	1,747	392	384	14,041	13,508
1932	11,839	10,300	1,572	1,433	321	392	13,732	12,125
1933	11,258	11,167	1,724	1,388	222	207	13,204	12,762
1934	9,659	11,789	2,113	1,879	330	338	12,102	14,006

(b)

	Criminal Suits						
	Procurators' visits		Preliminary Trial		Suits Classified		
Year	No. of cases	Cases disposed of	No. of cases	Cases disposed of	1st instance	Appeal	Supreme
1930	27,197	26,629	207	198	2,962	358	70
1931	26,137	26,122	161	184	3,494	286	70
1932	26,332	25,680	174	127	3,375	364	51
1933	26,670	26,356	160	153	2,998	388	104
1934	26,152	25,589	138	167	3,179	272	45

As at the end of July, 1936, there were four branches, the immates numbering 4,538 (590 representing suspects and accused, 3,634 convicts and 314 persons who are detained) and prison officers 570.

FORESTRY

The forest area is roughly put at 8,000,000 "ko" (1 "ko"—2.4 acres), including wilderness that occupies 70% of the total area. More than one half of it is the aborigine district noted for vast primeval forests. Reckless felling has devastated the other half. So the authorities have instituted protection forests and are encouraging reafforestation. Afforestation area from the beginning to the end of 1931 totalled 183,427 "ko", of which 32,755 "ko" was conducted by the Government and 150,672 "ko" as private undertaking.

Lumbering Work

Several lumbering enterprises have already been started, principally for utilizing the dense "hinoki" (Chamaecyparis obtusa) forests that exist here and there.

Arisan Forest.—Arisan is a chain of hills rising 2,800 to 8,700 ft. above the sea-level and lies to the east of Kagi city. It is sheltered on the east by Mt. Niitaka. Arisan Proper extends 15 miles from east to west and 20 miles from north to south, and covers 11,008 hectares. The contents of the forest are estimated as follows:—

Conifers 374,230 stamps yielding 2,948,590 cubic metres and broad leafed 1,112,186 stamps yielding 3,125,380 cubic metres.

As the Government utilization programme is to fell every year from 1915-16 250,000 "shakujime" (12 cubic feet) of conifers and 100,000 "shakujime" of the others, their supply is to last 25 and 186 years respectively. By properly filling up the space of felling, permanent supply may be kept up.

Lumbering rails run for 41 miles from Kagi to Nimampei, on the slope of Arisan, the work being completed by the Government-General in January, 1913, at the cost of ¥4,900,000, after the failure of the Fujita Firm which undertook the work but gave it up after laying only 9 miles. The gauge is 30 inches with a maximum slope of 1 in 20. Along the line 68 tunnels exist and also three spiral sections and two switch-backs. The conversion work is done at Kagi where an extensive yard was constructed.

Hassenzan Forest.—The mountain, 7,824 ft. above the sea-level and lying east of Taichu, harbours a primeval forest. The area to be exploited covers 16,057 hectares and is connected with the main traversing railway by a light line. It contains 680,000 cubic metres of conifers and 1,602,000 cubic metres of broad leaf trees, producing cut trees amounting to 2,909 cubic metres in 1935. The lumbering work was started in 1915.

Taiheizan Forest.—The forest area covers 68,177 hectares and is estimated to contain about 14,076,000 cubic metres of trees twice as great a sylvan richness as Arisan, producing 48,519 cubic metres of cut trees as in 1933.

AGRICULTURE

The agriculture of Formosa has so markedly developed since the island was occupied by Japan that the area under cultivation at the end of 1935 is given as 856,775 ko, which compares with 363,390 ko in 1899, or a few years after the occupation of the island. Thus, the area under cultivation has doubled during this comparatively short period. It bears a proportion of over 20 per cent. to the entire area of the island and more than 40 per cent. to the area of the island minus the aborigine districts.

The total value of farm products for 1935 reached ¥361,090,000, approximately, which occupies over 50 per cent. of the value of the whole products of the island. The number of people engaged in agricultural pursuits as at the end of 1935 is 2,790,331, which bears a percentage of about 52 to the total population of the island. Of that number, 881,144 represent landowners 1,034,016 tenants and 875,171 landowners as well as tenant farmers.

Rice is the most prominent farm product of Formosa. With the exception of the Pescadores, the whole island, especially the western districts is so well suited for rice culture that the crops are reaped twice a year. Due to the strenuous efforts made by the Government-General for improvement of seedlings and encouragement of cultivation, great development has been shown by the amount of crops, the quality of the cereal, the area under cultivation, etc. The rice crop for 1935 was roughly 9,120,000 koku, valued at more than ¥190,000,000. Rice is followed in importance by sugar cane and sweet potatoes. These are known as the three staple farm products of the island.

Table 11. Area under Cultivation

(In "ko")

End of	Paddy	Upland	Total	Area under cultivation per capita	End of	Paddy	Upland	Total	Area under cultivation per capita
1930.....	408,972	428,330	837,302	0.17	1933.....	450,485	394,995	845,480	0.17
1931.....	411,073	424,332	835,406	0.17	1934.....	462,914	388,420	851,334	0.16
1932.....	439,466	400,264	839,730	0.17	1935.....	493,535	363,240	856,775	0.16

N.B.:—1 hectare=1.025 "ko."

Table 12. Area under Rice

Year	1st crop Area (Ko)	1st crop Production (Koku)	2nd crop Area (Ko)	2nd crop Production (Koku)	Total Area (Ko)	Total Production (Koku)
1930.....	275,317	3,482,637	358,127	3,887,879	633,444	7,370,516
1931.....	282,861	3,628,445	370,520	3,851,401	653,380	7,479,846
1932.....	292,145	4,221,447	392,783	4,727,769	684,928	8,949,216
1933.....	295,322	3,938,730	401,101	4,423,109	696,423	8,361,839
1934.....	297,422	4,511,046	390,242	4,577,840	687,664	9,088,886
1935.....	305,813	4,328,193	393,863	4,793,959	699,676	9,122,152

Table 13. Area under Sweet Potatoes

Year	Area under cultivation (Ko)	Production (1,000 kin)	Year	Area under cultivation (Ko)	Production (1,000 kin)
1930.....	129,062	2,216,504	1933.....	138,060	2,355,781
1931.....	133,241	2,404,688	1934.....	142,448	2,609,328
1932.....	134,771	2,388,854	1935.....	142,511	2,706,835

Table 14. Production of Principal Crops

Year	Ground nuts (Koku)	Tobacco (Kgs.)	Beans, peas, etc. (Koku)	Jute (1,000 kin)	Ramie (1,000 kin)
1930	465,208	1,503,972	72,952	6,482	1,965
1931	503,792	1,268,323	79,546	6,498	1,518
1932	521,207	1,279,487	75,619	7,654	1,441
1933	475,562	1,535,688	73,813	8,795	1,425
1934	566,183	2,140,455	75,261	15,817	1,654
1935	580,868	2,035,175	72,068	20,881	2,104

FRUITS

Bananas are the representative fruit of Formosa. They are grown in all parts of the island, especially in the two Provinces of Taichu and Takao. The banana is a very important article of export coming next to rice and sugar. The area under bananas in the whole island in 1935 was more than 20,000 ko and the total crop 320,000,000 kin approximately, which was 20,000,000 kin more than in the previous year. About 90 per cent. of the crop was supplied by those two provinces. As for the exportation of the fruit for the year under review, 2,650,000 baskets, valued at ¥12,090,000 were shipped to Japan and Korea. The volume shows an increase of 300,000 baskets and the value ¥1,800,000. 400,000 baskets, valued at ¥2,130,000 were sent to Manchoukuo and China. The volume shows an increase of 30,000 baskets and the value ¥400,000. Next to bananas come pineapples, which have also been widely grown in the island from of old. The growing of pineapples, has made such marked developments in recent years that it is regarded as one of the very promising industries of the island. The number of the fruits gathered in 1935 was 87,227,868. The export of pineapples in raw state for the year under consideration was 3,815,378 kin, valued at 182,710. The export of tinned pineapples for the year was 3,527,082 dozens in volume and ¥8,078,174 in value. Oranges of superior quality are also produced in the island. In particular, Ponkan with the attractive colour and delicious flavor peculiar to southern countries is known as Ponkan of Taiwan to all fruit markets at home and abroad. The other principal varieties of oranges are Tankan, Sekkan, Buntan and Zabon. All these varieties are produced during the period from autumn to spring. The production of fruits in recent years is shown below (in unit of 1,000):—

Table 15. Production of Fruits

(1,000)

	Oranges (Kin)	Bananas (Kin)	Longan (Kin)	Pine-apples (Pieces)
1929	34,266	197,664	24,788	46,626
1930	36,014	216,780	24,788	69,034
1931	41,922	266,993	4,810	70,764
1932	48,803	275,407	26,987	75,072
1933	49,280	292,556	8,282	86,800
1934	55,223	302,418	17,796	85,467
1935	53,783	320,000	4,223	87,228

Table 16. No. of Live-Stocks and Output of Cocoons

Year	Cattle	Swines	Fowls	*Cocoons
1931 ...	383,042	1,738,874	6,663,483	1,737.89
1932 ...	366,606	1,753,962	6,961,697	1,752.76
1933 ...	366,270	1,806,489	7,573,504	1,990.15
1934 ...	394,865	1,836,169	8,167,097	2,201.00
1935 ...	390,454	1,873,209	8,627,530	1,212.00

* In Koku.

FISHERY AND MARINE PRODUCTS

The fishing industry, long left in a backward state, has recently made a marked improvement under official encouragement. The principal branches of the industry carried on at Keelung, Takao and Suo are bonito angling and trawl-line fishing of tunny and sword fish. Coral-reefs are found off the port of Keelung, and whale-fishing is carried on in the southern seas. The total catch of fishes during 1934 amounted in value to ¥11,452,341, an increase of about ¥645,671 compared with the previous year.

Aquiculture in the island is under favourable circumstances owing to the warm climate which helps the rapid breeding of fish, and the method of rearing has also improved. The culture of fresh water fish is conducted on a large scale in the western coast of the island, and the area of the hatcheries all over the island is approximately 28,000 "ko" or 27,065 hectares.

The manufacture of marine products in the island has recently improved with the progress of bonito fishing. Of the total manufactures of marine products amounting to ¥2,290,741 in 1935, dried bonito contributed ¥230,000. The fishing vessels in operation in 1935 numbered 10,074 of which 905 were motor boats, 4,047 wooden boats and 5,122 bamboo rafts.

Table 17. Value of Marine Catches and Products

(In yen)

Year	Catches	Manufacture	Aquiculture	Total
1930	11,771,144	1,793,273	3,142,981	16,707,398
1931	8,482,776	1,524,869	3,047,254	13,054,899
1932	9,179,468	1,545,164	3,130,800	13,873,432
1933	10,806,670	1,908,982	3,223,832	15,939,484
1934	11,452,341	2,908,982	2,890,340	16,633,604
1935	13,639,986	2,290,741	3,483,582	19,414,309

Table 18. Imports and Exports of Aquatic Products

(In yen)

	Exports to foreign countries	Imports from foreign countries	Exports to Japan Proper	Imports from Japan Proper	Total
1933.....	602,046	246,593	3,538,634	4,625,695	9,012,968
1934.....	1,495,293	409,562	3,903,933	5,595,022	10,994,248
1935.....	1,603,720	674,736	3,463,646	5,678,847	11,420,949
1936.....	867,238	725,079	4,496,981	9,062,573	15,151,871

MINERAL PRODUCTS AND MINING

The chief mineral products of Formosa are gold, silver alluvial gold, copper, coal, petroleum, sulphur, phosphorus, etc., mostly found in the northern districts. The total number of mining lots at the end of 1935 was 638 covering an area of 192,365,600 tsubo. The total value of mineral output for 1935-36 was ¥22,838,751. It shows a gain of ¥3,891,084 over the previous year. Classified by the kinds of items the value of mineral production in recent years is tabulated as follows:—

Table 19. Mineral Products

(In yen)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Gold	636,485	722,733	1,681,592	1,581,328	3,169,393	3,494,040
Gold-silver-copper ore	3,457,187	3,027,792	3,709,157	3,773,194	5,008,812	3,995,854
Alluvial gold	9,421	11,611	57,017	94,730	99,068	62,477
Silver	10,790	10,003	16,632	8,472	15,085	21,542
Copper	154,799	174,419	294,388	274,484	327,970	
Gold ore	81,401	70,750	78,982	66,633	56,280	20,127
Quick-silver ore	——	2,488	——	——	——	——
Coal	9,613,416	7,164,598	6,571,195	7,681,689	8,470,375	9,868,193
Sulphur	33,217	51,290	37,148	62,075	75,114	65,553
Phosphorus	2,448	648	——	——	——	365
Crude oil	381,304	263,631	245,944	424,677	308,951	384,860
Volatile oil	760,729	1,784,275	973,423	527,159	382,922	435,484
Carbon black	——	43,552	205,527	341,079	488,267	516,125
Total incl. others	15,141,198	13,337,790	13,950,889	15,196,250	18,947,667	22,838,751

Distribution in Minerals.—Metal ores are confined to the districts from due north to the eastern parts of the island, coal to the northern and central parts, while petroleum is found in almost all parts of the island, especially in the central and southern parts. The output of minerals, which was as limited as ¥112,000 in 1897, or a few years after the annexation of the island to Japan, increased to ¥22,838,751 in 1935-36, as stated above. As for the proportions of principal minerals for 1935-36, coal comes first with over 44% of the total production of minerals, followed by gold-silver-copper (inclusive of gold ore) with 30%, gold 15%, etc.

SUGAR INDUSTRY

The new rulers endeavoured to improve the industry from the highly neglected state in which they found it. First they introduced the Hawaiian Rose Bamboo and Sahaina varieties, but afterward these were replaced by the P. O. J. varieties from Java.

Stimulated by Government encouragement, the industry has made great developments. In 1901-2 there was only one sugar factory with modern equipments and its capacity limited to 300 tons. It was financed at a meagre amount of ¥1,000,000. In the year 1926-27 as many as 45 factories in modern style with a total capacity of 39,414 tons were in operation. The capital involved was ¥290,520,000. Due to readjustment and merger of companies, the capital decreased to ¥233,520,000 in 1935-36. Nevertheless the capacity of the industry increased due to the extension of factories. The sugar output of the whole island, which stood at only 90,000,444 kin in 1901-02, increased to 1,315,540,000 kin approximately, in 1928-29, which enabled the country to supply her requirements of sugar. In 1931-32 the production further increased to 1,648,410,000 kin by shattering all former high records. In 1933-34 it decreased to 1,078,310,000 kin due to the agreement on the reduction of sugar production. In 1935-36 it again created a record at 1,690,420 kin.

Table 20. General Condition of the Taiwan Sugar Industry

	Area of cultivation (Ko)	Total cane crop (Million kin)	Yield per ko (Kin)	Raw Material used (Mill. kin)	Sugar production (Mill. kin)	% of extraction	Sugar produced per ko (Kin)
1909–10	63,411	3,601	56,796	3,363	340	10.12	5,368
1912–13	67,358	1,531	22,722	1,283	119	9.29	1,769
1927–28	108,318	9,698	89,529	8,714	967	11.10	9,937
1928–29	120,046	12,292	102,394	11,241	1,316	11.70	11,980
1929–30	109,397	11,618	106,204	10,621	1,351	12.72	13,509
1930–31	99,094	10,945	110,447	9,811	1,329	13.54	14,954
1931–32	109,511	13,415	122,503	12,606	1,648	13.08	16,023
1932–33	84,330	8,811	104,485	7,879	1,056	13.40	14,000
1933–34	91,163	8,884	97,449	7,650	1,078	14.10	13,740
1934–35	121,628	13,477	110,807	12,192	1,609	13.20	14,627
1935–36	128,329	13,190	102,785	11,832	1,503	12.70	13,054
1936–37	107,925	12,772	118,340	12,776	1,679	13.14	15,550
1937–38 (Estimate)	117,134	13,961	119,190	13,960	1,819	13.03	15,530

Table 21. International Cane Sugar Companies

	Yield of cane: Taiwan (Kin per ko)	Yield of cane: Java (Kgs. per hectare)	Yield of cane: Cuba (Tons per hectare)	Percentage of extraction: Taiwan	Percentage of extraction: Java	Percentage of extraction: Cuba
1928	102,394	15,100	....	11.70	11.45	11.72
1929	106,204	14,800	....	12.72	11.82	12.41
1930	110,447	14,700	12.99	13.54	11.36	12.21
1931	122,503	13,840	15.62	13.08	10.46	12.38
1932	104,935	14,920	20.36	13.40	11.16	11.17
1933	97,400	16,565	15.15	14.10	12.64	11.56
1934	110,807	17,051	....	13.20	12.35	12.55
1935	102,785	18,514	13.25	12.70	13.21	....
1936	118,340	17,205	....	13.14	11.72	....
1937 (Estimate)	119,190	....	....	13.03	....	....

TEA

Formosan teas consist of Oolong tea, Pouchong tea, Black tea, Green tea, etc. The first named three are the most important descriptions of tea produced in the island.

Oolong tea.—As a beverage possessing a special high flavour, Oolong tea is a great favourite in and about Boston and New York. It also goes to England where it is used to improve the flavour of black tea. The Oolong is admittedly superior in quality to black tea, and there is a good hope of its consumption abroad being increased when the taste of foreigners for the tea becomes more refined. The export of Oolong tea (exclusive of shipments to Japan) in 1935 was 6,624,253 kin in volume and ¥3,814,289 in value, showing a considerable improvement over the previous year.

Pouchong tea.—Such factors as the decline in the purchasing power of South China and Java and unfavourable relations between Japan and China have caused the Pouchong tea market to be abnormally dull in recent years. The export of this description of tea (exclusive of shipments to Japan) in the year under review amounted to 4,620,749 kin in volume and ¥2,814,975 in value.

Black tea.—The manufacturing technique of black tea has recently made rapid progress. The export in 1935 was 2,408,928 kin in volume and ¥1,490,187 in value. Inclusive of all other varieties, the total tea export for the year under notice was 14,436,393 kin, valued at ¥8,318,102.

The area under and production of coarse tea are shown below:—

Table 22. Area under and Production of Coarse Tea

Year	Area ("ko")	Production (kin)
1930	47,068	17,302,953
1931	45,948	14,959,584
1932	45,592	14,704,152
1933	45,298	15,544,877
1934	45,765	18,392,028
1935	46,107	17,802,772

Production of refined tea in recent years is tabulated as follows:—

Table 23. Production of Refined Tea

(kin)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935 Quantity (Kin)	1935 Amount (Yen)
Oolong	6,168,150	6,722,554	7,134,756	6,351,351	5,292,394	5,280,031	3,538,321
Pouchong	8,001,398	7,102,776	3,988,119	5,256,617	5,666,233	5,685,480	3,086,095
Green	132,672	33,160	12,570	14,200	16,500	13,003	5,553
Black	725,438	1,101,094	871,780	1,477,475	6,021,461	5,489,728	3,963,690
Total	15,027,658	14,959,584	12,007,225	13,099,643	16,996,587	16,468,242	10,593,659

MONOPOLY

The monopoly system was first instituted in Formosa in regard to opium in 1896 and was subsequently extended to salt and camphor in 1899 and to tobacco in 1905. Further, the monopoly of saké was established in July, 1822. The monopolizing of these industries was due not only to financial necessity, but also from consideration that it would be beneficial to public health, social welfare and productive industries.

Opium.—At the beginning of the Japanese possession of Formosa, the question which attracted most attention at home and abroad in the administration of the island was the prohibition of opium smoking. In February, 1896, with the prohibition of the importation of opium

by private persons, an opium-dose factory was established. In January, 1897, was issued the Formosa Opium Ordinance, by which opium-smoking and dose-manufacture were strictly prohibited; smoking licenses were granted only to such as the Government deemed to be confirmed smokers, who were permitted to purchase and smoke as medicines the doses manufactured by the Government. Government permission was required in all cases for the sale of opium doses, the opening of opium dens, and the manufacture and sale of opium-smoking utensils. The Ordinance was put in operation in April of the same year. The number of licensed smokers and output of opium have in recent years decreased gradually, but the price does not show any decrease as the output of 1st grade opium increased in place of the 3rd grade which has been prohibited sale since August 1927. Statistics are as follows:—

Table 24. Output of Opium

Year	(Grams)	(Yen)
1902–03.....	130,723,125	3,008,386
1914–15.....	99,934,500	5,226,437
1922–23.....	51,828,000	5,449,345
1926–27.....	39,872,250	4,193,487
1930–31.....	38,095,125	4,010,655
1931–32.....	31,535,625	3,320,071
1932–33.....	26,136,075	2,819,388
1933–34.....	21,553,200	2,350,363
1934–35.....	19,668,600	2,146,692
1935–36.....	18,975,600	2,071,934

Table 25. Output of Raw Opium Used

Year	Quantity (Kgs.)	Value (1,000 yen)	Year	Quantity (Kgs.)	Value (1,000 yen)
1926.....	80,127	2,983	1929.....	45,251	1,244
1927.....	58,305	1,959	1930.....	46,474	1,121
1928.....	44,287	1,414	1931.....	69,778	1,665

Table 26. No. of Licensed Opium-smokers

	Natives		Chinese		
Year	Male	Female	Male	Female	Total
1915....	62,156	9,559	1,311	31	76,236
1920....	21,057	3,569	361	35	25,022
1930....	19,395	3,842	208	23	23,468
1931....	17,767	3,531	192	20	21,510
1932....	16,278	3,254	174	17	19,723
1933....	14,841	2,979	155	16	17,991
1934....	13,453	2,737	138	15	16,343
1935....	12,178	2,466	128	15	14,787

Salt.—The Government has given great encouragement to the improvement and increase of salt-fields and the raising of the quality of salt with good results since 1899, when the present system was brought into operation in order to regulate the abandoned salt-fields and the price of salt which were left quite uncared for. The price of salt in the island was made uniform, its supply became abundant, and the surplus is now exported to Japan proper, Korea, Karafuto, the Russian Maritime Province and other places. The total area of salt fields at the end of 1934-35 is given as 1,855 hectares and the output for the year as 191,640,000 kilogrammes. The demand for salt in the island and the export to Japan proper are shown in the following table:—

Table 27. The Demand for Salt in the Island and Export to Japan

Year	Demand in the Island (1,000 kgs.)	Sale to Japan Proper (1,000 kgs.)	To other countries (1,000 kgs.)	Total (1,000 kgs.)	Total value (yen)
1929–30.....	44,402	63,981	14,460	122,844	2,419,151
1930–31.....	45,953	76,375	15,771	138,100	2,334,121
1931–32.....	48,864	105,660	26,450	180,974	2,459,629
1932–33.....	46,211	86,300	17,292	149,804	2,529,209
1933–34.....	50,826	81,399	12,890	145,115	2,718,840
1934–35.....	57,893	88,151	11,210	157,254	2,771,324
1935–36.....	55,734	82,353	48,681	186,768	3,108,796

Camphor.—Before the establishment of the monopoly system in 1899 when Formosa became a Japanese possession, the manufacture of camphor in the island was maintained by reckless felling of the trees which were abundant and by crude manufacture. Since then, with the adoption of various measures for the promotion of the industry, the monopoly has been placed on a firm basis. The annual yield is about 3,000,000 kilogrammes claiming about 70% of the total output of natural camphor. The value of sales amounts to about ¥718,000,000 annually, chief customers being America, England and France. The article is chiefly used as raw material for manufacture of refined camphor and celluloid.

Tobacco.—At the time of the creation of the monopoly system, raw material was for the most part brought from China, and its manufacture was carried on by private contract up to 1912, when it was taken over by the Government. The climate of Formosa is very suitable for the cultivation of tobacco, and as the result of the improvement and development of tobacco cultivation due to the encouragement of the Government since the introduction of the monopoly system, Formosa now produces excellent leaf tobacco which may be used for cut tobacco. The species cultivated at present are the Chinese, the yellow and the cigar tobacco.

Table 28. Statistics on Tobacco

	Production			
Year	Cut (Kgs.)	Both ends cut (1,000 Pieces)	Leaf (1,000 Pieces	Total value of sale (Yen)
1930....	1,181,561	246,279	411	15,711,310
1931....	1,075,470	280,308	384	14,465,962
1932....	1,074,858	341,664	437	14,788,758
1933....	1,038,012	418,062	465	15,247,299
1934....	1,024,542	539,540	538	16,552,070
1935....	990,960	742,469	665	18,428,103

Saké.—There are but few countries in the world where alcoholic liquors are controlled as a government monopoly, and as this was a novel attempt in Japan and its working was to furnish an important example, the utmost efforts were made to carry it to success. In view of the present condition of the island the brewing of alcohol and beer and the sale of the latter are left to private management. But, as for all other alcoholic beverages, their manufacture and sale are managed directly by the Formosan Government-General. The sales of alcoholic beverages in 1935 amounted to 349,845 hectolitres, valued at ¥13,039,882. Below are given statistics showing the figures of the output, and the import from Japan proper and from foreign countries:—

Table 29. Statistics of Saké

(hectolitres)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Output	522,284	479,566	416,074	536,533	585,272	682,817
Import from Japan proper.....	20,772	22,951	23,442	41,574	62,905	72,690
Import from foreign countries...	2,022	989	744	2,006	1,338	2,394

FOREIGN TRADE

The overseas trade of Formosa, which stood at only a little more than ¥30,000,000 in 1897, or a few years after Japan's occupation of the island, increased to ¥81,523,099 in 1935. Of the value of the trade for the year under review, ¥36,544,190 was accounted for by exports and ¥44,978,909 by imports, the latter exceeding the former by ¥8,434,719. The exports of the island for the year under review decreased in respect of Europe due to a decrease in shipments of black tea and camphor. Thanks, however, to a mitigation of anti-Japanism and a sharp rise in silver, a great expansion was shown by exports to China and Hong-Kong, comprising sugar, silk fabrics, pigs, cotton tissues, etc. As for the import trade, though the exchange situation was not favourable to the island, the consumptive power was very active. As a result, there were large consignments of soya beans, salt fish, heavy oil, naphtha, cement, etc. Imports of leaf tobacco and opium were also fairly prosperous. Imports of fertilizer and gunny bags increased in value, though they decreased in volume. As a result of all this, the total of both branches of trade increased by ¥16,900,000 to ¥81,500,000.

The trade of Formosa with Japan has steadily developed, while its trade with foreign countries has been somewhat stagnant. The value of the trade, which was as limited as ¥4,800,000, approximately in 1897, attained the three hundred million yen level in 1921, the four hundred million level in 1934 and further rose to ¥530,000,000 in 1935. This enormous expansion of the trade may be attributed to various causes such as the growing enhancement of transport facilities, industrial development, cultural advancement, a rise in commodity prices, etc. In the case of imports, the most prominent cause is protection afforded by the Customs tariff, which had been revised more than once. The export trade has developed with the expansion of the output of sugar and rice, which constitute two major products of the island. No small contribution has also been made to the development of the export trade by an increase in the produce of such goods as bananas, head wear, timber, ores, copper, tinned pineapples, alcohols, camphor, camphor oil, raw fish, salt, etc. The import trade owes much for its development to an expansion of the output of cotton tissues, iron, fertilizer, timber, aquatic products, paper, tobacco, spirits, rice, wheat flour, vehicles, machinery, matches, cement, gunny bags, petroleum, woolens, knitted underwear, materials for hat making, etc.

Table 30. Exports to and Imports from Foreign Countries

(In thousands of yen)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Exports	22,808	19,449	18,045	17,666	26,518	36,544	29,054
Imports	45,131	30,859	31,004	35,477	38,031	44,979	48,854
Total	67,940	50,308	49,086	53,143	64,549	81,523	77,908
Excess of imports	22,323	11,410	12,996	17,811	11,513	8,435	19,800

Table 31. Exports to and Imports from Japan Proper

(In thousands of yen)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Exports	218,633	201,424	222,683	230,747	279,410	314,200	358,895
Imports	123,127	114,763	133,457	149,912	176,991	218,141	243,832
Total	341,760	316,187	356,140	380,659	456,401	532,341	602,727
Excess of exports	95,506	86,661	89,226	80,835	102,419	96,059	115,063

Table 32. Outflow and Inflow of Bullion to and from Foreign Countries

(In yen)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Exports	——	——	——	5,934	48,936	1,925,258	54,035
Imports	1,571,857	1,060,676	10,100	800	456,392	11,162,810	1,582,474
Total	1,571,857	1,060,676	10,100	6,735	505,328	13,088,068	1,636,509
Excess of imports	1,571,857	1,060,676	10,100	*5,135	407,456	9,237,552	1,528,439

Note:—* Excess of exports.

Table 33. Outflow and Inflow of Bullion to and from Japan Proper

(In yen)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Exports	195,740	221,000	——	199,000	——	——	939,167
Imports	——	——	——	——	——	——	42,680
Total	195,740	221,000	——	199,000	——	——	981,847
Excess of exports	195,740	221,000	——	199,000	——	——	896,487

Table 34. Principal Exports to Japan Proper

(In yen)

Year	Rice	Sugar	Canned Pine-apple	Camphor	Camphor oil	Alcohol	Bananas
1930	38,695,385	141,865,177	3,481,135	1,255,781	2,422,303	2,592,076	8,369,850
1931	41,097,219	120,475,129	4,157,836	766,281	1,824,697	3,054,427	8,329,152
1932	63,074,989	121,718,906	5,151,173	963,624	2,062,234	2,975,544	6,982,753
1933	64,627,800	118,614,462	4,791,127	1,174,428	1,554,731	5,455,367	7,899,188
1934	101,816,421	122,321,543	4,537,125	2,175,749	1,902,033	6,950,923	8,137,941
1935	105,545,183	145,977,479	7,306,809	2,360,464	2,176,418	6,767,165	9,475,551
1936	124,309,901	163,495,301	5,856,855	2,818,940	2,214,311	5,637,922	10,586,507

Table 35. Principal Imports from Japan Proper

(In yen)

Year	Wheat flour	Driedfish and salt fish	Iron	Cotton and silk tissues	Paper	Timber	Fertilizer
1930	2,374,026	4,032,289	7,901,736	13,394,284	3,254,545	4,535,245	5,832,475
1931	2,011,674	3,412,154	7,343,616	13,596,402	3,233,513	4,216,650	4,319,832
1932	2,716,990	3,253,482	8,013,831	13,358,467	3,470,644	5,491,936	7,745,738
1933	2,710,508	3,535,933	10,458,094	15,105,863	3,970,326	6,276,328	11,225,179
1934	3,413,887	3,956,792	11,517,261	17,250,081	4,515,650	7,271,327	16,582,296
1935	4,530,422	4,734,566	15,382,897	20,265,033	5,061,498	10,211,384	22,771,577
1936	5,511,386	4,902,562	16,346,956	19,324,669	5,413,997	11,930,307	28,491,679

Table 36. Exports to Foreign Countries

(¥)

Year	Oolong tea	Pouchong tea	Camphor	Coal	Sugar	Cotton tissues	Matches
1930	2,608,639	5,785,925	1,085,348	2,872,440	67,807	1,842,563	34,391
1931	2,350,845	4,489,261	1,586,448	2,295,114	2,356,530	1,199,195	155,899
1932	2,802,316	1,836,742	1,547,783	1,315,805	3,174,477	1,054,468	188,273
1933	2,894,245	1,816,576	2,962,727	1,530,557	563,249	363,346	210,244
1934	3,117,360	2,641,386	2,381,956	1,387,479	122,277	1,055,176	684,179
1935	3,814,289	2,814,975	2,038,346	1,334,296	5,555,532	2,082,081	720,142
1936	2,954,716	2,279,345	2,514,042	1,216,839	2,622,215	901,487	123,360

Table 37. Imports from Foreign Countries

(¥)

Year	Opium	Leaf-tobacco	Lamp oil	Gunny bags	Timber	Mattings	Bean-cakes
1930	1,122,315	343,021	1,014,775	2,407,543	1,499,969	511,633	10,252,919
1931	1,128,566	275,983	636,749	1,652,823	1,103,782	527,802	7,254,443
1932	707,792	318,361	669,892	1,327,100	556,806	488,939	10,342,041
1933	148,509	582,004	534,424	2,718,230	283,267	534,410	11,593,356
1934	120,600	396,735	375,386	3,270,092	118,364	458,085	12,204,475
1935	445,245	860,326	398,388	3,566,379	176,311	475,039	14,613,885
1936	133,647	1,068,241	314,272	3,360,570	643,316	465,019	14,793,410

Table 38. Exports and Imports Classified By Countries

(¥1,000)

	Exports						Imports					
Asia:	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
China	8,222	6,534	4,746	8,375	13,046	7,879	16,189	15,621	6,671	6,713	6,938	8,622
Manchoukuo	—	27	354	439	380	850	—	4,020	16,604	16,617	21,806	19,618
Kwantung	309	1,973	1,625	2,896	4,113	4,008	889	913	956	1,393	1,772	6,879
Hongkong	2,587	2,670	2,131	2,909	6,654	2,667	52	31	55	33	30	126
Dutch Indies	3,262	1,601	1,095	1,546	1,234	870	1,025	1,622	1,389	1,542	1,769	1,843
French Indo-China	89	4	161	339	303	272	124	—	69	108	116	172
Siam	133	115	299	417	511	628	170	1,390	365	160	235	207
Total incl. others	14,936	13,272	11,057	18,013	28,967	19,459	21,052	26,199	29,247	29,278	36,469	41,214
Europe:												
Great Britain	886	605	1,122	1,754	1,273	1,372	2,345	598	360	2,078	1,307	392
France	127	390	434	258	192	211	55	22	43	15	142	51
Germany	2	23	39	59	5	84	4,024	1,911	3,391	3,705	3,506	3,327
Total incl. others	1,044	991	1,690	2,153	1,575	2,097	6,833	2,587	3,846	5,820	5,009	3,923
American Countries:												
U.S.A.	4,456	3,456	4,719	5,466	5,664	6,146	2,370	1,548	1,841	2,201	3,018	2,908
Canada	6	5	8	76	18	117	374	270	82	1	145	446
Total incl. others	3,462	3,759	4,726	5,542	5,681	6,280	2,744	1,821	2,012	2,519	3,420	3,362
Other States	6	23	194	810	321	1,217	230	431	317	370	82	350
Grand Total	19,449	18,045	17,666	26,518	36,544	29,054	30,859	31,041	35,477	38,031	44,979	48,854

PUBLIC WORKS

When China was in possession of the island, any roads that were found in the island had been built by wealthy individuals. The progress of road-making in recent years is tabulated below:—

Table 39. Statistics on Roads and Bridges

Year	Roads (Kms.)	Bridges (Meters)
1899	6,734	11,660
1909	11,543	37,491
1914	12,064	61,056
1930	15,101	88,368
1931	14,854	97,007
1932	15,055	83,888
1933	15,704	87,129
1934	15,905	92,214
1935	16,501	93,051

Of the harbour-works in hand the more important are those at Keelung, Takao, and Suwo. The first is carried on as a nine-year-programme to be completed in 1943-44. Up to 1934-35 the sum of ¥33,000,000 was appropriated. The second is expected to be completed in 1937-38. From 1908-9 to 1935-36 an expenditure of ¥29,340,000 was required. The third was completed in 1923-24. The total expenditure inclusive of some additional work done in 1925-26 was ¥669,000.

Water-works, large and small, supply water at 84 places, as at the end of 1934-35. The general expenditure involved amounts to ¥20,281,700 (inclusive of extension) and the estimated number of people to be supplied with is

1,110,500. Besides, there are one under construction and one under extension.

Irrigation is costing a great deal of money to the Government-General and islanders among whom the idea of supplying water to cane-fields and farm subject to drought existed from olden time. The Government-General started the 16 years irrigation work at the estimate of ¥30 millions, but as it was decided to help the private Taiwan irrigation with ¥12 millions out of the fund the scope of the Government undertaking has been reduced accordingly. The Government is repairing and improving the existing irrigation works with the fund and also to generate water-power. Already 32,765 "ko" of farms have been irrigated and some 7,200 h.p. of electric power has been secured by utilizing the headwater.

COMMUNICATIONS

Post, Telegraph and Telephone

The postal service was for the first time opened in April, 1895, when prior to the restoration of peace between Japan and China, the Japanese army occupied Boko-to (Pescadores) and established there a military field post office; but when the civil administration was set up in April, 1896, the postal service for the general public was also opened under the control of the Minister of Communications, and the handling of foreign mails was begun from August, 1896. In October, 1900, the Postal Law, the Railway and Marine Postal Law, the Postal Money Orders Law, the Postal Savings Law and the Telegraph Law, all in force in Japan proper, were brought into operation in the island. The Wireless Telegraph Law was effected in November, 1915. With respect to the telephone service, the Taiwan Telephone Exchange Law was promulgated in April, 1900. The service was first opened between Taihoku and Tainan in July of the same year. Since then the system has been put in complete working order. Radio broadcasting was also started in 1928.

Table 40. Statistics on Mails and Parcels

Year	Ordinary mail matters (1,000) Accepted	Ordinary mail matters (1,000) Delivered	Parcels (1,000) Accepted	Parcels (1,000) Delivered
1921–22....	60,058	67,888	784	1,169
1926–27....	52,089	64,193	653	1,103
1930–31....	66,793	78,453	677	1,247
1931–32....	67,133	76,362	640	1,212
1932–33....	70,177	81,993	648	1,231
1933–34....	75,748	85,681	641	1,145
1934–35....	78,211	93,086	661	1,174
1935–36....	89,505	100,601	727	1,224

Year	Telegrams (1,000) Despatched	Delivered	Total	No. of telephone subscribers
1921–22....	1,398	1,400	2,798	8,948
1926–27....	1,378	1,437	2,814	11,147
1930–31....	1,491	1,533	3,024	12,746
1931–32....	1,484	1,547	3,031	13,645
1932–33....	1,566	1,634	3,200	15,110
1933–34....	1,534	1,619	3,153	15,416
1934–35....	1,672	1,728	3,400	15,784
1935–36....	1,902	1,994	3,896	16,371

Year	Domestic money orders (issued) No.	Domestic money orders (issued) Amount (Yen)	Postal Savings No. of depositors	Postal Savings Amount (Yen)
1921–22	968,459	28,693,950	422,352	7,533,850
1926–27	853,854	25,345,521	475,868	9,145,104
1930–31	976,257	26,937,014	516,040	15,074,388
1931–32	992,073	25,990,089	484,073	17,855,759
1932–33	1,042,360	27,551,267	494,847	18,147,761
1933–34	1,051,049	27,735,541	511,482	19,207,329
1934–35	1,085,448	29,147,007	544,983	21,367,007
1935–36	1,138,735	31,991,847	574,423	23,682,297

RAILWAYS

Government Railways.—It was not until the cession of Formosa from China to Japan that the island began to enjoy railway facilities, for, prior to that time, the only railway existing in the island was a small light railway between Keelung and Shinchiku built at the time of the Shin dynasty of China. Soon after the cession, the Governor-General of Formosa 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. The work of construction was started in 1889 from both terminals and finished in April 1908. This line now forms the trunk line in the insular railway system. The construction of that pioneer railway line was soon followed by the building of other lines, that is, the Kyukyokudo-Heito section (Choshu line) completed in 1912, the Taito line in 1917 and the Giran line in 1924, while many others have been built in a rapid succession since then, so that the total length of Government lines operated reached 881.7 kilometres, at the end of March 1936.

Private Railways.—Most of the private railways existing in Taiwan were originally constructed by sugar refining companies for transporting sugar canes and other materials, transportation business being conducted only as a side work. The exception to this were the Taihoku Railway Company, which operated the Manka-Shinten railway of 6.5 miles, and the Taichu Light Railway line of 8.1 miles. The total working length of private lines open to business on March 31, 1936, was 505.0 kilometres. The number of passengers carried was 3,837,863 and the total tonnage of goods hauled 5,207,667 tons. The total receipts amounted to 2,540,608 or ¥418,775 more than those of the preceding year.

Tramways.—The tramways, which form an important factor in the insular communication system, have made a marked development in recent years, the total length of lines in operation at the end of March 1936, being 1,218.3 kilometres with 4,944 carriages in all, the number of passengers carried 3,257,635 and goods hauled 570,633,400 tons, the total receipts reaching ¥1,601,236.

Table 41. Government Railways

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Mileage open to traffic (mile)	549.0	549.0	881.6	881.7	881.7	881.7
No. of locomotives	215	208	....	....	....	....
No. of passenger carriages	491	499	....	....	....	....
No. of wagons	3,930	3,964	....	....	....	....
No. of passengers carried (1,000)	18,316	16,459	16,637	17,141	18,144	20,519
Goods hauled (metric tons)	3,960	4,767	5,121	5,087	5,706	6,260
Parcels (metric tons)	9,295	8,295	8,500	14,179	14,904	15,798
Receipts (¥1,000) Passengers	7,721	6,897	7,109	7,468	7,966	9,578
Receipts (¥1,000) Wagons	11,392	11,367	11,742	11,863	13,459	14,626

Table 42. Private Railways

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Mileage open to traffic (mile)	1,367.7	1,383.1	1,418.3	1,425.8	1,463.4	1,473.5
No. of locomotives	232	251	....	....	....	....
No. of passenger carriages	272	244	....	....	....	....
No. of wagons	15,102	15,768	....	....	....	....
No. of passengers carried (1,000)	3,644	2,884	2,857	2,981	3,189	3,838
*Goods hauled (1,000 tons)	4,258	4,173	4,476	3,509	3,755	5,208
Receipts (¥1,000) Passengers	775	545	461	454	452	522
Receipts (¥1,000) Wagons	2,178	1,904	1,914	1,636	1,893	1,963
Receipts (¥1,000) Others	58	35	33	46	27	56

Note:—* Including goods for companies.

Table 43. Tramways

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Mileage open to traffic (mile)	824.9	849.8	823.6	772.7	770.4	757.0
No. of cars	5,568	5,321	5,133	4,760	4,786	4,944
No. of passengers carried (1,000)	4,006	3,499	3,179	3,304	3,086	3,258
Goods hauled (1,000 metric tons)	694	559	519	670	716	571
Receipts (¥1,000) Passengers	588	562	520	522	514	463
Receipts (¥1,000) Wagons	1,358	1,096	1,049	1,129	1,149	1,138

BANKS AND OTHER FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS

Banks.—The necessity of establishing a special bank was recognized for the development of industry and commerce after the island became Japanese territory and in 1899 the Bank of Taiwan was brought into being. The Nippon Churitsu Bank had already established its sub-branch offices in the islands. In 1899, the Bank was amalgamated with the Thirty-fourth Bank and became a branch office of the latter. The Taiwan Savings Bank was established in the same year, it being followed by the establishment of the Kagi Bank in 1904, the Shoka Bank in 1905 and the Taiwan Commercial and Industrial Bank in 1910. In 1920 another Kagi Bank under joint stock organization was formed to take over the business of the Kagi Bank which had been in the form of partnership. In 1921, the Taiwan Savings Bank was established.

In 1922, the Hypothec Bank of Japan established a branch office at Taihoku to carry on the business of granting credit on real estate and of making loans to public corporations or corporate societies, thereby facilitating agricultural finance .

The aggregate authorized capital of those banks, whose head offices are in the island as at

the end of 1935, is given as ¥28,300,000, of which ¥20,679,850, approximately is paid up. The deposits of the bank are ¥72,000,000, approximately (inclusive of savings deposits for ¥10,780,000) and advances ¥267,420,000, bills of exchange bought and sold ¥1,163,990,000 and ¥1,220,190,000, respectively. The outstanding note issue of the Bank of Taiwan at the end of 1935 was ¥70,190,000, approximately. Of this amount ¥31,330,000 represented the issues beyond the taxable limit.

Credit and Industrial Association.—There are two kinds of credit associations, viz., town credit associations and village credit associations. The number of the former associations at the end of 1935 was 22 with the authorized capital of ¥3,100,000, of which ¥3,010,000 was paid up. The savings were ¥19,490,000, reserves ¥800,000, various funds ¥2,040,000, borrowings ¥110,000, advances ¥15,900,000, bills discounted ¥730,000.

At the end of 1935 there were altogether 439 credit associations other than those for towns people. Some of these associations were engaged in other forms of business as additional occupations. Investigations into 373 of these associations conducted by the Government-General show that the authorized capital was ¥13,360,000, of which ¥11,330,000 was paid up, reserves ¥9,240,000, savings ¥58,410,000, borrowings ¥13,720,000, advances ¥61,430,000, sales of products ¥17,210,000, sales of goods purchased ¥6,850,000. As may be gathered from the figures, these associations are contributing much towards the recovery of the economic life of the farming districts, while serving as an organ for monetary circulation for the populace.

The industrial associations have been slower in development than the credit associations owing to the difficulty and complicacy of the management. At the end of 1935 there were 64 of these associations. The authorized capital of 62 of them, into which investigations had been conducted by the authorities, was ¥1,500,000, approximately, of which ¥950,000 was paid up, reserves ¥840,000, borrowings ¥890,000, sales of products ¥2,370,000, sales of goods purchased ¥6,130,000, charges for utilization ¥120,000, surplus ¥180,000.

Mujin (Mutual Loan Associations).—The legislation on "mujin" was put in force in March 1916. At the end of 1935 there were three joint-stock companies engaging in this line of business with nine branches and five agencies throughout the island. Their authorized capital was ¥850,000, of which ¥387,500 was paid up.

Insurance Business.—At the end of 1935 there were in the island 25 life assurance offices (inclusive of 4 conscript insurance offices) and 34 property assurance offices. These are all branches or sub-branches or agencies of the companies having head offices in Japan, with the single exception of the Taisei Fire and Marine Insurance Company. Results of various forms of insurance companies at the end of 1935 are listed below:—

Table 44. Insurance

(At the end of Dec., 1935)

Kind	No. of contracts	Amount of contracts (Yen)	Premiums Receipts (Yen)	Claims paid (Yen)
Life	183,265	267,741,305	8,917,438	2,095,298
Accident	45	87,900	347	195
Fire	66,804	406,444,068	714,607	391,111
Marine	2,699	16,466,297	408,861	135,846
Transport	9	29,700	575	——
Burglary	4	5,100	65	——
Total	252,826	690,774,370	10,041,893	2,612,450

Formosa Development Company, Limited

The Formosa Development Company was established on November 25, 1936 in accordance with the Formosa Development Company Law which was passed by the 69th session of the Imperial Diet in May, 1936. The capital of the Company is ¥30,000,000 in 600,000 shares of ¥50.00 each. A half of this amount of capital is put up by the Government in the shape of property, or land.

The company has its head office at Taihoku and an agency in Tokyo. The business of the company consists of the following:—

(1) Agriculture, forestry, aquatic and agrarian enterprises, which are necessary for colonization.

(2) Acquisition, management and disposal of land (inclusive of the rights involved) which may be necessary for colonization.

(3) Management and supervision of land on trust.

(4) Such immigration affairs as may be found necessary for colonization,

(5) Supply of goods necessary for colonization to farmers, fishermen, or immigrants, purchase or sale of their products, or improving on them.

(6) Supply of funds necessary for colonization.

(7) Such businesses as may be ancillary to those enumerated above.

(8) Businesses, which are other than those itemized above but which are necessary for colonization.

References: Tables 1-3, 5-7, 9, 11-15, 22-29 & 39-44—Taiwan Jijo (Outline of Taiwan), 1936, published by the Taiwan Govt.-Gen. Tables 4 & 10—Researches of the Cabinet Statistics Bureau. Table 8—Research of the Finance Department. Tables 16 & 17—Takumu Yoran, 1937, published by the Dept. of Overseas Affairs. Table 19—Hompo Kogyo no Susei (Statistical Annual on Mining Industry of Japan), 1936, compiled by the Mining Bureau, Dept. of Com. & Ind. Table 20—Taiwan Togyo Tokei (Statistical Annual on Sugar of the Taiwan Govt.), 1937. Table 21—The International Sugar Journal, July 1937. Tables 18 & 30-38—Taiwan Boeki Geppyo (Monthly Return of Foreign Trade of Taiwan).

CHAPTER XXXVI

KARAFUTO (Southern or Japanese Saghalien)

AREA, POPULATION, ETC.

Position—141° 51′ and 144° 55′ E.L.; 45° 54′ N.L.
Area—36,000 square kilometres. Separated from the northern tip of Hokkaido by the Soya Straits.

The island of Karafuto was occupied by the Japanese forces during the Russo-Japanese War in August, 1905, and the acquisition by Japan of the island south of the fiftieth parallel was confirmed by the Treaty of Portsmouth concluded between Japan and Russia in October of the same year.

Table 1. Area of Karafuto By Districts

	Area (Sq. kms.)	Ratio		Area (Sq. kms.)	Ratio
Shikka	12,416.5	344.04	Motodomari	3,120.9	86.48
Tomarioru	6,902.8	191.26	Maoka	2,490.1	68.99
Otomari	4,842.9	134.19	Honto	1,566.6	43.41
Toyohara	4,750.5	131.63	Total	36,090.3	1,000.00

Table 2. Climate (in 1935)

	Temperature (C.) Average	Maximum	Minimum	No. of clear days	No. of rainy or snowy days
Yasubetsu	1.2	22.7	26.8	31	164
Shikka	0.3	28.0	32.2	59	149
Ochiai	2.1	28.6	27.0	46	200
Maoka	4.1	23.7	19.6	16	195
Honto	4.7	23.8	17.5	11	202
Otomari	3.0	24.4	22.6	37	156

Population

The native inhabitants consist of various tribes, i.e. Ainus, Gilyaks, Orochones and Tungues. These are gradually dwindling in number. The total population of the territory as at the end of 1935 was 322,475, of which 313,115 were Japanese, 7,053 Koreans, 1,955 natives and 352 foreigners. Contrasted with the population of 12,361 at the end of 1906, or a year after the territory was placed under the control of Japan, it shows an increase of 310,113.

Statistics of population for the last few years are tabulated below:—

Table 3. Population By Sex and Nationality

End of December	Total Male	Total Female	Japanese Male	Japanese Female	Natives Male	Natives Female	Foreigners Male	Foreigners Female	Pop. per household	Male per 100 females
1930....	159,919	125,011	158,710	123,929	960	973	249	109	4.96	127.9
1931....	161,767	125,610	160,577	124,507	1,012	997	178	106	5.01	128.8
1932....	164,304	128,868	163,143	127,807	988	949	173	112	5.06	127.5
1933....	167,024	133,274	165,946	132,265	932	905	146	104	5.08	125.3
1934....	175,194	137,936	174,013	136,860	1,008	950	173	162	5.13	127.0
1935....	176,571	145,904	175,389	144,779	958	997	224	128	5.17	121.0

Table 4. Population of Principal Towns

(End of Dec. 1935)

	No. of households	Population
Toyohara	6,819	35,390
Otomari	5,476	27,965
Shirutoru	3,665	18,298
Esutoru	5,052	25,743
Ochiai	2,782	14,421
Shikka	5,021	27,385
Maoka	3,612	18,810
Tomarioru	2,203	10,966
Honto	2,138	11,040
Rutaka	1,785	9,475

Table 5. Population By Occupations

(End of 1935)

Agriculture	48,038
Fishery	15,659
Mining	5,309
Manufacturing Industry	19,522
Commerce	32,854
Communications	7,150
Total including others	322,475

Table 6. Movement of Population

Year	Marriage	Divorce	Birth Male	Birth Female	Still-birth Male	Still-birth Female	Death Male	Death Female
1929.....	1,644	152	4,855	4,527	313	267	3,268	2,213
1930.....	1,794	168	5,407	5,245	331	270	3,330	2,464
1931.....	1,782	163	5,614	5,300	320	275	3,146	2,502
1932.....	1,829	160	5,977	5,558	284	261	3,424	2,684
1933.....	1,733	142	5,809	5,422	253	207	3,398	2,412
1934.....	1,863	176	5,879	5,462	292	234	2,981	2,139

Census Population

The first census was taken on October 1, 1920 and the second on October 1, 1930. Between these dates, or on October 1, 1925 and 1935 rough enumeration of population was effected. The census population as enumerated in the four different years is listed below:—

Table 7. Census Population

	Male	Female	Total	Increase	Percentage of Increase
1920.....	62,327	43,572	105,899	—	—
1925.....	122,379	81,375	203,754	97,855	92.40
1930.....	168,532	126,664	295,196	91,442	44.88
1935.....	186,225	145,718	331,943	36,747	12.44

As will be noted from the above table, the proportion of the expansion of population in the five-year period from 1925-30 appreciably decreased. The average rate of increase was 8.98% for the second period as against 18.48% for the first lustre.

The yearly average of the increase in the population for the third quinquennial period (1930-35) was only 2.49%. The increase of the population for the fifteen years is 226,050 (213.46%) and the yearly average 14.23%.

FINANCE

As regards the finance of Karafuto since the establishment of the Special Account for the territory in April, 1907, it may be noted that a fixed grant has been made annually by the National Treasury, and that this grant, together with the taxes and other sources of revenue of the territory, is used in defraying the expenses of colonization and general administration.

Table 8. Revenue and Expenditure

(¥)

Year	Revenue Ordinary	Revenue Extraordinary	Revenue Total	Expenditure Ordinary	Expenditure Extraordinary	Expenditure Total
1929–30.....	18,611,501	13,728,326	32,339,827	16,640,071	11,947,287	28,587,359
1930–31.....	21,028,918	5,515,613	26,544,532	15,626,775	9,002,516	24,629,292
1931–32.....	18,237,113	5,131,829	23,368,941	14,580,649	6,699,100	21,179,749
1932–33.....	17,090,154	5,548,262	22,638,416	14,657,030	6,206,749	20,863,778
1933–34.....	21,439,139	6,402,359	27,841,498	15,234,314	6,980,272	22,214,586
1934–35.....	33,255,887	6,783,710	40,039,597	16,196,061	8,504,085	24,700,146
1935–36.....	27,469,284	15,435,308	42,904,592	17,050,661	10,411,774	27,462,435
*1936–37.....	29,285,218	4,048,368	33,333,586	18,655,367	14,678,219	33,333,586
*1937–38.....	32,745,465	3,630,259	36,375,724	19,216,546	17,159,178	36,375,724

* Budget Accounts.

Table 9. Budget for 1936–37 & 1937–38

Revenue

Ordinary:	1936-37	1937-38
Taxes	1,849,514	2,847,369
Receipts from Government undertakings and properties.....	25,042,459	27,348,083
Stamp receipts	282,111	311,441
Profits of tobacco monopoly	1,459,341	1,460,437
Miscellaneous receipts	651,793	778,135
Total	29,285,218	32,745,465

Extraordinary:	1936-37	1937-38
Proceeds of sale of State property	126,906	84,177
Miscellaneous receipts	516	518
Profit tax	22,893	37,738
Previous years' surplus transferred	3,898,053	3,507,826
Total	4,048,368	3,630,259
Total revenue ..	33,333,586	36,375,724

(Continued) **Expenditure**

Ordinary:	1926-27	1927-28
The Karafuto Shrine.	18,186	18,186
Karafuto Administration Office	1,433,806	1,889,444
Education	2,449,829	2,602,775
Government undertakings	8,416,760	8,488,433
Forest	1,959,131	1,987,405
Other expenses	4,377,655	3,886,732
Total	18,655,367	19,216,546

Extraordinary:	1926-27	1927-28
Development Expenses	10,066,704	11,348,982
Subsidies	2,174,467	2,196,737
Transfer to general accounts	1,450,000	1,950,000
Other expenses	987,048	1,663,459
Total	14,678,219	17,159,178
Total expenditure	33,333,586	36,375,724

BANKING AND OTHER MONETARY ORGANS

The deposits and advances of the banks in Karafuto as at the end of 1935 were as follows:

Table 10. Bank Accounts

(End of 1935)

	Deposits (Yen)	Loans (Yen)
Branches of Hokkaido Colonial Bank	20,062,922	14,351,965
Karafuto Bank	1,494,397	2,456,470
Branches of Hokumon Savings Bank	950,267	159,267

Industrial Associations and Industrial Federations.—Since the Industrial Association Law was enforced in 1915, industrial associations have been established in many parts of the territory, showing good results. In the year in which the law in question was put in force, only one association was organized. As at the end of 1935 there were 76 industrial associations. The subscribed capital (at the end of 1935) of 68 associations into which investigations had been made was ¥2,045,045, of which ¥1,659,741 was paid up. The working capital inclusive of reserves, savings and borrowings totalled ¥5,049,866. The total membership was 8,869. At the end of 1935 there was only one industrial federation with a membership of 67. Its subscribed capital was ¥192,000, of which ¥93,579 was paid up. Inclusive of reserves, savings, borrowings, the total working capital was ¥1,242,469.

At the end of 1935 there were 87 private and two public pawn brokers. The former represented the balance of loans of ¥121,154 and the latter ¥36,984.

SANITATION, RELIGION AND EDUCATION

The Government keeps under its direct management three medical offices at Toyohara, Otomari and Maoka. At the end of 1935 there were 127 public and 82 private practitioners, 47 public and 23 private dentists, 235 public and 19 private midwives, 105 nurses and 147 acupuncturists.

Table 11. Statistics of Government Hospitals

Name of hospitals	No. of medical officers	No. of beds	No. of out-patients	No. of in-patients	No. of charity-patients
Toyohara hospital	49	127	11,637	1,696	23
Otomari "	31	53	27,233	536	13
Maoka "	29	84	6,359	652	3

Education.—The following table will give a general idea of the spread of education in Karafuto.

Table 12. Number of Schools, Teachers and Pupils

(End of 1935)

Schools	No. of Schools	No. of teachers	No. of pupils
Elementary and Higher elementary schools..	240	1,236	51,813
Middle schools	3	89	1,999
Girls' high schools ...	4	70	1,204
Private schools	5	53	339
Kindergartens	3	10	188
Supplementary schools	10	88	812

Religion.—There are three religions propagated in Karafuto, namely, Buddhism, Shintoism and Christianity. The relative influence of these three religions may be noted from the table appended.

Table 13. Statistics of Religion

(End of 1935)

	No. of shrines, temples or missions	No. of priests or missionaries	No. of pupils
Shintoism	113	50	21,379
Buddhism	75	117	52,645
Christianity	12	12	1,222

AGRICULTURE AND IMMIGRATION

The area under tillage in Karafuto is yearly increasing. But still it was as limited as 31,872.60 hectares at the end of 1935. It is only one-sixth of the arable land which is 469,000 hectares in area. Therefore, there is still room for many thousands of agricultural immigrants. Since 1906, the authorities have encouraged the immigration of farming population by extending them liberal protection and suitable help. A small sum of money is granted to those peasants who settle down within six months of their arrival. As at the end of 1935 the number of these farming immigrants stood at 58,008, representing 11,628 houses. The number of these settlers and that of their houses occupy about 18% of the total number of population and that of houses in the territory. The total amount of farm produce for 1935 was ¥3,744,531. The number of peasant settlers in recent years is shown below:

Table 14. Peasant Settlers in Recent Years

Year	Families	Population
1929.....	1,242	4,332
1930.....	1,132	4,997
1931.....	932	4,169
1932.....	1,341	6,357
1933.....	1,267	4,855
1934.....	1,251	4,893
1935.....	809	3,398

The total amount of various agricultural products in recent years is tabulated as follows:—

Table 15. Total Amount of Farm Produce

Year	Total production
1927.....	¥3,542,592
1928.....	4,206,601
1929.....	3,306,456
1930.....	2,999,036
1931.....	2,105,978
1932.....	2,946,591
1933.....	3,615,313
1934.....	4,058,930
1935.....	3,744,531

The area under various crops classified according to kind is given in the following table:

Table 16. Area under Various Crops

(In hectares)

Year	Oat, barley, wheat, etc.	Beans & peas	Buckwheat	Potatoes	Grass	Vegetables & others
1928.....	7,600	692	692	2,274	3,422	2,941
1929.....	6,425	789	710	2,078	3,526	2,925
1930.....	9,168	813	753	3,154	3,698	2,830
1931.....	8,669	1,071	1,146	2,981	4,025	2,579
1932.....	10,111	1,165	1,191	4,171	4,325	2,965
1933.....	9,836	1,189	1,146	5,144	4,056	3,071
1934.....	10,491	1,888	1,094	5,345	3,914	3,789
1935.....	10,402	2,075	914	4,472	4,299	3,664

Note:—1 hectare=1.008333 cho; 1 cho=0.99174 hectare.

Table 17. Amount of Principal Crops in Recent Years

Year	Oat, barley, wheat, etc. (Hectolitres)	Beans & peas (Hectolitres)	Buckwheat (Hectolitres)	Potatoes (Kgs.)	Grass (Kgs.)	Vegetables & others (Hectolitres)
1928.....	278,500	13,948	17,352	27,022	13,246	25,206
1929.....	250,439	12,546	11,651	17,992	14,413	23,691
1930.....	295,769	12,372	14,819	33,002	17,300	25,327
1931.....	228,608	7,976	13,802	24,035	15,976	19,046
1932.....	291,278	9,664	12,063	38,603	16,295	25,604
1933.....	313,572	18,451	19,686	49,816	19,487	38,947
1934.....	404,442	40,476	23,000	43,376	26,567	48,182
1935.....	378,095	41,203	16,205	34,703	18,221	46,838

FISHERY

Fishery is the oldest industry and constitutes by far the most important resources of Karafuto. The principal fish caught are herring, trout, salmon and cod. The right of fishing is granted under three kinds of license, the special, ordinary and drift-net fishing. The first is limited to bodies of fishermen on specific grounds, while the second is permitted only to those living in Karafuto. The last named was formerly issued by public tender, but now it is restricted to certain persons. The catch of herrings for 1935 was 238,828,942 kilogrammes. The greater part of the fish are manufactured into manure. With regard to the trout and salmon fisheries, it is to be noted that the authorities concerned have lately attempted arti-

ficial fecundation to ensure the multiplication of these varieties. The catch of trout for the year under review was 33,905,447 kilogrammes, and that of salmon 1,753,354 kilogrammes. The catch of codfish was 15,254,175 kilogrammes. And its by-product or codliver oil was produced to the extent of 3,813 kilogrammes. As for crabs, which constitute one of the important items among the catches, 2,886,740 were caught in 1935. In veiw of the gradual decrease in the catches, the authorities have taken measures to prevent the reckless ways of catching crabs hitherto pursued, and in 1934 effected merger of the manufactories in order to unify the quality of manufactures.

The values of catches of various fish mentioned above are all for the respective catches in raw state. Most of these catches are manufactured into various forms. To give values of these manufactures, herrings accounted for ¥7,747,437, trout for ¥3,045,619, salmon for ¥156,970.

Table 18. Statistics of General Situation in Fishery

Year	No. of fishing crafts	No. of fishermen	Catches (¥1,000)	Manufactures (¥1,000)
1928....	11,255	18,546	....	19,482
1929....	12,363	20,636	....	18,828
1930....	12,266	23,527	7,059	13,090
1931....	14,111	24,764	4,257	10,497
1932....	16,451	26,712	5,452	9,370
1933....	16,668	25,259	6,892	10,245
1934....	17,363	25,807	6,822	12,383
1935....	17,273	27,838	8,007	13,529

Table 19. Value of Marine Products

(In yen)

Item	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Herrings	9,811,698	8,020,723	6,756,851	6,868,066	9,356,354	8,155,731
Trouts	1,161,910	609,279	369,120	1,927,229	817,164	3,829,815
Salmons	328,340	194,625	115,885	210,498	295,982	340,143
Cods	1,220,662	916,877	878,439	845,675	757,802	1,046,134
Crabs	1,661,553	1,749,380	937,335	1,683,325	2,280,513	1,885,771
Laminaria	645,251	689,600	934,927	501,406	957,025	1,151,511
Shell-fishes	158,685	131,912	34,281	76,084	79,301	154,264
Total incl. others.	15,909,075	12,750,419	10,638,131	13,195,350	15,673,760	18,737,619

FORESTRY

Karafuto abounds in primeval forest that occupy about 47% of the total area of the island and at present supply the territory with the most important natural products. Acerose trees, growing in the forests, are chiefly Ezo-matsu (Picea ajanensis, Fisch), and Karafuto-rakuyosho (Larix dahurica, Turez). They grow in mixed stands, though pure forests of the larch are found in some places. The broad leafed trees among which birches, willows, elms and alders are prominent, occupy the low lying places such as the river banks. On more elevated land acerose trees (most of which are Todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu but the larch is very scarce) form pure forests, though birches are often found growing mixed with them on the mountain side. The Haimatsu (Pinus pumila) grows densely on the tops of high mountains, while pure forests of birches are found on the tops of low mountains. The larch usually grows in low land. Generally speaking, the Todo-matsu and the Ezo-matsu are most plentiful, forming about 83% of the whole stock. Being very durable, the larch is in great demand for telegraph-poles, railway sleepers, and for other engineering purposes, but the larch not adapted for these purposes is used as fuel. Apart from use as timber and packing material, these acerose trees are utilized in far greater quantities as pulp wood. At present pulp factories exist at Otomari, Toyohara, Maoka, Noda, Ochiai, Shiritori, Tomarioru and Estoru.

The output of pulp and paper is as follows:—

Table 20. Output of Pulp and Paper

Year	No. of factories	Output of Pulp (M. tons)	Output of Pulp (¥1,000)	Output of Paper (M. tons)	Output of Paper (¥1,000)
1929.....	8	151,105	21,126	155,593	30,580
1930.....	8	161,703	21,103	139,562	30,652
1931.....	8	144,454	15,193	132,341	25,666
1932.....	8	128,703	13,421	128,711	24,537
1933.....	8	141,942	20,844	146,882	33,782
1934.....	8	179,096	28,247	156,195	37,229
1935.....	9	204,609	32,464	165,815	38,905

Table 21. Forest Products

Year	Timber (¥1,000)	Fagots (¥1,000)	By-products (Yen)	Total (¥1,000)
1930.....	9,576	108	2,134	9,686
1931.....	8,090	107	2,282	8,200
1932.....	7,120	84	1,609	7,206
1933.....	11,176	113	1,904	11,291
1934.....	21,385	132	4,198	21,521
1935.....	21,138	142	3,344	21,283

The area of the state forests of Karafuto is put at 2,904,294 hectares, which occupy about 80% of the area of the territory. The revenue from the forest for 1935-36 was ¥15,200,000, which was about 35% of the revenue of the Government of Karafuto.

MINING INDUSTRY

The strata of the island are generally of Tertiary formation and hold rich veins of coal. The coal bed consists of three measures, upper, middle and lower. The upper measure, which has a close connexion with the oil-bearing strata, pertains to the Pliocene, and the middle and the lower to the Eocene. Each of these measures exists on the both sides of a Cretaceous mountain range running from north to south, forming many important coal fields in the island. There are three great coal-fields, namely, the Northern, the Middle and the Southern. The Middle coal-field, which runs about 100 kilometres from north to south and has a breadth of from 2 to 5 kilometres, is the largest and belongs to the lower measure. A part of the Southern coal-fields following the western coast and the greater parts of the Northern and Eastern coal-fields belong to the upper measure. In the northern part of the western coast there are also important coal-fields belonging to the middle measure. Each of these contains at least 3 to 13 coal-seams with a thickness of from 1 to 10 metres. Investigations up to the end of 1935 discovered reserves of coal amounting to approximately 1,577,661,000 tons, and it is believed that there are reserves of more than 2,000 million tons in the island. The coal of the middle and lower measure is bituminous and that of the upper measure lignite.

As to petroleum, the demand and supply of oil may be seen from the table given below:

Table 22. Demand and Supply of Oil

(Metric ton)

Year	Output	Import	Export	Consumption
1929...	635,515	27,404	16,380	646,539
1930...	644,947	12,687	12,646	644,988
1931...	637,962	3,960	38,079	603,843
1932...	677,389	241	51,833	625,797
1933...	889,913	—	168,604	721,309

RAILWAYS

The first railway in Karafuto was constructed by the Army Department in 1906 between Otomari (formerly Korsakovsk) and Toyohara (formerly Vladimolovka), 41.8 kms. in length. It was a light railway with a gauge of 2 ft. and exclusively used for military purposes. With the withdrawal of the military government in April, 1907, the railway was transferred to the Karafuto Administration Office and opened to public traffic in August the same year.

Owing to an increase in the traffic, the gauge was widened to 3 ft. in 1910, while the construction of sections further north of Toyohara was started. The work on the Toyohara-Sakaehama section having been completed in 1911, the Otomari-Sakaehama Section (94.1 kms) which now forms the trunk line of the insular railway connexion, was opened to traffic. The work of construction was pushed on and the branch line connecting the Kawakami line with Konuma and the Honto-Noda section on the west coast were completed and opened to business respectively in 1914 and 1920. Besides, the construction of a branch line which connects Toyohara, the Capital of the territory, with Maoka on the west coast was started in 1921 and completed in 1928. The railway lines in operation as at the end of 1935 were 342.9 kilometres in length. Of this length 96.9 was represented by the East Coast Line, 21.9 by the Kawakami Line, 83.8 by the Toshin Line and 140.3 by the West Coast Line. Receipts from the passenger traffic for 1935-36 were ¥1,010,538 and those from the freight traffic ¥1,563,822, totalling ¥2,574,360.

Table 23. Results of the Government Railways

Year	No. of passengers carried	Volume of goods hauled (French tons)	Receipts from passengers traffic (¥)	Receipts from goods traffic (¥)
1929–30	1,837,497	847,252	1,226,694	1,495,202
1930–31	1,592,500	872,682	1,027,407	1,503,965
1931–32	1,519,377	745,707	911,969	1,271,203
1932–33	1,405,030	631,309	812,718	1,069,949
1933–34	1,400,482	735,542	830,639	1,227,819
1934–35	1,606,325	968,896	947,652	1,512,326
1935–36	1,702,285	983,734	1,010,538	1,563,822

Private Railways

At the end of 1935 there were three private railways, namely, the Karafuto Railway Company, the South Karafuto Railway Company and the Naihoro Colliery Railway Company. The first named company operated a line of 239.2 kilometres, the second a line of 18.6 kilometres and the third a line of 16.4 kilometres.

Commerce and Industry

In sympathy with the growing development of industry in Karafuto, many companies of respectable sizes for various purposes have been increasingly established of late years. At the

end of 1935 there were 387 companies with a subscribed capital of ¥72,258,050, of which ¥52,604,601 was paid up. All these companies were exclusively those having head offices in Karafuto.

Besides, there were eleven companies whose head offices were outside the island. Their authorized capital was ¥253,373,000, of which ¥204,163,488 was paid up. The number of companies specified according to industry is tabulated below:—

Table 24. Number of Companies By Industries
(End of 1935)

	No. of Companies	Paid up Capital (Yen)
Agriculture	18	245,200
Fishery	14	120,500
Mining	5	75,200,000
Manufacturing Industry	94	155,840,688
Commerce	196	9,711,895
Transport	71	15,649,806
Total	398	256,768,089

Industry

The industrial products of Karafuto in 1935 amounted to ¥82,281,497, which represented about 60 per cent. of the value of the whole products, which was given as ¥137,845,451. Principal industrial products are pulp, sake, tinned foods, etc.

The output of pulp for 1935 was 204,609 metric tons, valued at ¥32,464,313 and that of paper 165,815 kilogrammes, valued at ¥38,905,-722. The output of pulp required 1,509,868 cubic metres of materials, which represent the greater portion of pulp materials supplied by Japan. The output of sake for 1935-36 was 72,382 hectolitres, valued at ¥3,257,035.

Tinned crabs are the most representative of foods in tins. Their production in 1935 was 45,534 boxes, valued at ¥1,855,752.

Trade with Japan Proper and Foreign Countries

Trade with Japan Proper.—The trade of Karafuto with Japan proper in 1935 amounted to ¥92,884,992 in exports and to ¥38,055,209 in imports, totalling ¥130,940,201 and resulting in an export excess of ¥54,829,783. As compared with the previous year, exports show a decrease of ¥3,763,179 and imports an increase of ¥926,-126.

Principal consignments from Japan in the year under review consisted of rice, textiles, oil, beer, rye, beans, salt, sugar, soy, tobacco, raw fish, vegetables, fruit, metal ware, drugs, wheat flour, eggs, lime, cokes, cement, etc.

Principal shipments consisted of pulp, timber, paper, fertilizer, salt fish, dried fish, fish oil, seaweeds, crabs, tinned foods, etc.

Foreign Trade.—There are two trading ports in Karafuto, one being Otomari and the other Maoka. The former was opened in March, 1909 and the latter in February, 1922. Formerly, foreign trade was almost confined to Korea, China and Russia in East Asia. Trade was opened with Kwantung Province in 1923, with England and America and Germany in 1925, with Spain, Belgium, the Dutch East Indies and Egypt in 1926 and with the Philippines and Manchoukuo in 1932.

The foreign trade of Karafuto began with the exportation of railway sleepers and other timbers to Korea, timber to China and coal to Russia in Asia and the importation of rails and other rolling stocks from Korea and trout and salmon from Russia in Asia. In 1910 exports and imports aggregated ¥35,607. Then trade progressed steadily until in 1913 its total value reached a height of ¥249,869. In 1916, however, the value of trade decreased to ¥53,276 through the effects of the World War. The following year the total value of trade recovered what it had lost due to an increase in exports. Thence it gradually increased until 1928. In 1922 Maoka Port was opened to foreign trade, but this caused an adverse turn to trade. From 1923 to 1928 trade continued showing an import excess. In the latter year imports and exports totalled ¥937,710, resulting in a deficit balance of ¥539,-294. The following year the total value of trade shot ahead of two million yen and showed a favourable balance. From the following year, however, trade began to diminish considerably due to the world-wide economic depression consequent upon the stringency of the money market and has displayed an adverse balance since 1932.

Foreign trade for 1935 figured out at ¥834,-985 in imports and at ¥32,980 in exports totalling ¥867,965 and resulting in a deficit balance of ¥802,005. The principal countries involved are Manchoukuo, Soviet Russia, China, Kwantung Province, etc. Staple exports are seaweeds, salt fish, dried fish, timber, and imports are salt, fodder, machinery.

References: Tables 1, 3, 4, 10-12, 15, 17, 19 & 23—Karafuto Yoran (Annual Report of the Karafuto Government), 1936. Tables 5, 13, 14, 16, 18, 20, 21, 22 & 24—Karafuto-cho Tokei-sho (Statistical Annual of the Karafuto Government), 1936. Tables 8 & 9—Okura-sho Nempo (Annual Report of the Department of Finance), 1936, and Official Gazette. Table 2—Research of the Central Meteorological Observatory. Tables 6 & 7—Researches of the Cabinet Statistics Bureau.

CHAPTER XXXVII

THE SOUTH SEA ISLANDS

GEOGRAPHY

Position and Area

Japan acquired by virtue of the Treaty of Peace concluded after the World War the mandatory right over the former German South Sea Islands north of the Equator. The archipelago had been occupied by a Japanese squadron at the beginning of the World War. It consists of three groups, viz. the Marianas, Marshalls, and Carolines, comprising 1,458 islands, islets and reefs, scattered over a vast expanse of water extending for about 1,200 miles south to north and about 2,500 miles east to west. In other words, the territory stretches on the one hand between 130° to 175° E.L. and on the other between 0° and 22° N.L. and is situated to the south of Japan, with Hawaii far away to the east, and adjacent to the Philippines and the Dutch Celebes to the west, while to the south there lie the Island of New Guinea and the Bismark Group and to the north the Bonin and Iwo Islands which form the southern extremity of the Japanese Empire. The area of the Islands is very small, the total being 960 square miles (2,149 square kilometres) and the population mostly consists of about 50,000 natives.

The number and area of the islands are as follows:—

Table 1. Groups of Islands and Their Area

Group	No. of Islands	Area (sq. kmr.)
Mariana	14	639 (41.43 sq. ri)
Caroline	549	1,320 (85.59 „)
Marshall	60	190 (12.30 „)
Total	623	2,149 (139.32 „)

The number and area of the islands classified according to the jurisdiction of the different branch bureaus of the South Seas Office are as follows:—

Table 2. Islands By Jurisdiction of Branch Bureaus of South Seas Office

Branch Bureau	No. of Islands	Area	Position
Saipan (Mariana Group)	14	639 (41.43 sq. ri)	145°40′ E.L.—15° 5′ N.L.
Yap (Caroline Group)	85	226 (14.64 „)	137°58′ „ — 9°25′ „
Palau („ „)	109	478 (31.00 „)	143°10′ „ — 6°50′ „
Truk („ „)	245	132 (8.55 „)	151 22′ „ — 6 57′ „
Ponape („ „)	138	504 (32.65 „)	158 10′ „ — 6°45′ „
Jaluit (Marshall Group)	32	170 (11.05 „)	169°42′ „ — 5 48′ „
Total	623	2,149 (139.32 „)	

N.B.—The 32 islands under jurisdiction of the Jaluit branch bureau consists of 867 reefs.

The principal islands and their areas are as follows:—

Table 3. Principal Islands and Their Area

Islands	Area
Saipan (Mariana Group)	185 (12 00 sq. ri)
Tinian („ „)	98 (6.35 „)
Rota („ „)	125 (8.10 „)
Yap (West Caroline Group)	216 (14.00 „)
Palau Proper or Baobeltaob (West Caroline Group)	370 (24.00 „)
Korror Island (Palau Group)	8 (0.50 „)
Angaur (West Caroline Group)	8 (0.50 „)
Spring Island (East Caroline Group)	22 (1.43 „)
Summer Island („ „ „)	9 (0.58 „)
Wednesday Island („ „ „)	23 (1.51 „)
Ponape („ „ „)	375 (24.34 „)
Kusaie („ „ „)	116 (7.50 „)
Jaluit (Marshall Group)	8 (0.51 „)

Weather and Climate

The Islands being situated in low altitudes, atmospheric pressure is generally low and undergoes no great change througout the year. Broadly speaking, it is comparatively low in Truk and Ponape Islands. In the western part of the Caroline Group and Mariana Group it is high in February and March, but low in October and November.

Direction of Winds.—As the Islands lie scattered over a vast expanse of water, the direction of winds varies according to the different islands, so that no accurate description can be given. Usually, however, a north-easterly wind or easterly wind prevails from November till April of the following year, while between May and October the direction of the wind varies according to different localities. Thus in the western part of the Caroline Group a westerly or southerly wind prevails and in other localities it blows diversely from the east and from the south. There is no wind for some time when changes take place in the direction of the wind.

Wind Velocity.—In the Mariana Group the wind is somewhat strong, developing a mean velocity of 4.6 m/s. for the year. It is weak in April and during August and September, but is strong from October till February of the following year. In other islands the wind is generally weak, the mean velocity registered being 2.1 m/s. In the western part of the Caroline Group, it is weak between April and June and also in September, but is strong from October till March of the following year. In the eastern part of the same group, it is weak between August and September, but is strong between January and March. There is seldom a really high wind in any of the islands.

Temperature.—Throughout the Islands, except Saipan, temperature is fairly uniform, the mean temperature registering from 26 to 28 degrees with the mean maximum of 29 or 30 degrees and the mean minimum of 24 or 25 degrees. The thermometre seldom rises above 32 degrees or falls below 20 degrees. Throughout the year the variations in temperature are very narrow. It has been observed that the difference between the highest and the lowest on a normal day is about 3 degrees.

Humidity.—All the Islands are humid, the mean relative humidity registered throughout the year being 82%, though in the western part of the Caroline Group it is a little less. In the Mariana Group humidity is greater between September and October and less in March. In the western part of the Caroline Group it is greater between June and July and less between March and April, while in the eastern part it is greater between September and October and less between January and March. There is no great change throughout the year and the minimum of less than 60% is but rarely registered.

Rainfall.—In all the Islands, the rainfall is extremely abundant, the total quality of rainfall in a year varying between 2,000 and 4,000 millimetres and the average reaching as much as above 3,000 millimetres. Saipan is the least visited by rain, while Ponape and Palu are most plentifully favoured by it. It is no rare occurrence in the latter two islands that the total quality of rainfall exceeds 4,000 millimetres a year. As to the rainfall in different seasons, there are places where no clear distinction can be made between the dry and wet seasons, but July-September is generally considered as wet and January-March as dry. Nevertheless it is by no means the same every year.

RACE, LANGUAGE, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS

Race.—The natives of the Islands as a whole may be divided into two great tribes of Kanakas and Chamorros.

Chamorros.—The principal places inhabited by Chamorro tribesmen are the Mariana Group and Yap and Palau Islands in the West Caroline Group, only a few migrated Chamorros living in other islands. The ancestors of the Chamorros are said to have lived in Guam. The fact that they live mostly in the islands around and nearest to that island is probably due to the migration of their forefathers therefrom. Guam was in early days the center of the Mariana Group, and geographically it is quite natural that Chamorro tribesmen should have crossed to Rota from that island and then to Tinian and Saipan. It seems that a great many Chamorro immigrants came to Saipan and Tinian during the Spanish regime, and those two islands were fairly densely populated by them. Owing, however, to internal strifes and massacares following on rebellions, the Chamorro population has greatly dwindled and at present taking both Saipan and Rota together they total only a little more than 2,600, and even adding those living in Yap and Palau they do not much exceed 3,000. The Chamorros living in Saipan, which contains a majority of the Chamorros in the South Sea Islands, are said to have greatly altered through intermarriages, with the Tagala tribesmen of characteristic physiognomical features, with yellowish brown skin and black hair.

Kanakas.—The Kanaka is the general appellation for the natives of Hawaii and other Pacific Islands. A great majority of the natives of the South Sea Islands belong to this race but when close observations are made, it is found that those inhabiting the western islands seem to have much affinity with the Malay race and those inhabiting the eastern islands resemble the Polynesian race, while as one goes further south the more one comes across those similar in racial type to the Melanesian race. Though there is more or less difference between these three groups of Kanakas, they are generally dark-brown skinned and commonly have black hair, in some cases curled. Their eyebrows are thick and the space between the eyebrows and eyes is rather narrow, while their eyes are deeply sunken. Further, the alar cavities of the nose are wide, the mouth large and lips thick. They have not much beard and are generally artless and mild in their expressioon. In stature they are of medium height, but sometimes very big and tall men are found among them, such men being especially numerous in the southern islands.

Tribal Relations of Natives.—It is a fact that Chamorros are generally more advanced in civilization than Kanakas, but this is only relatively true, even Chamorros being very backward as compared with the civilized peoples. Chamorros and Kanaka differ in language, manners and customs, and not only do not intermarry but even in daily life rarely associate with each other. Considering themselves as superior, Chamorros dislike to have any connection with Kanaka in any matter. In fact the two live quite apart and no instance of rivalry, strife or enmity between them has occurred. Nearly all the Islands except Saipan are mainly inhabited by Kanakas, Chamorros being few in number. The two groups of people have always formed separate communities and have never been in the relation of conqueror and conquered, nor will be in the future. As a matter of course, both from the administrative and legal points of view, the Japanese Government treats them equally and without any discrimination.

Anthropological Investigation.—Dr. K. Hasebe, Professor at the Tohoku Imperial University of Japan, is engaged in anthropological investigations among the natives. He was despatched for investigation to the East Caroline Group and Marshall Group in 1915 by order of the Government, and then visited Palau and Yap Islands in 1927, Ponape and Truk in 1928, and Saipan, Ponape, Kusaie and Jaluit in 1929 under the commission from the South Seas Office to continue his research work.

Language.—Different dialects are spoken in different islands, there being no language common to all. Even in one and the same group of islands, the dialects of the principal islands are different and there are not a few cases where in adjacent islands dialects different from those of the principal islands are spoken. For instance, the natives of Yap and those of the adjacent islands speak different dialects. It is the same with the natives of Ponape and Kusaie. All this is due to the difficulty of communications between the islands which are separated by great distances, which is also a cause of great inconvenience in administration. Since the Islands were placed under the mandate rule of Japan, the authorities have established schools at important centers, and even in distant islands schools have been established at places inhabited by Japanese. As a result of the efforts made at those schools for spreading the knowledge of Japanese the number of natives able to speak the language is steadily on the increase, so that in most of the islands the Japanese language has become the medium of communication at least in matters of daily life.

In regard to the natives who can speak English, German or Spanish, no investigation has as yet been made, but there are a number of such natives. This is due to the fact that before Japan undertook the mandatory rule of the Islands, there were not a few natives, who had been educated at mission schools or were employed by Germans, Americans or Spaniards. Those natives who are above 25 years of age and were educated at mission schools or were employed by foreigners, speak more or less one or other of the three languages above mentioned. Among such natives, there are more Kanakas than Chamorros, as the former are more numerous, but in point of ratio to their number Chamorros probably rank above Kanakas.

Manners and Customes.—As all the ilsands lie within the torrid zone, the natives have little need of clothes. Originally they used to go naked and bare-footed, both men and women wearing only a lion cloth. After frequently coming in contact with foreigners, however, many of them began to wear some kind of clothes. At present men mostly have their hair cut short and their faces shaved ,and wear shirts and trousers, some even full suits, while women are generally dressed in a garment resembling the night-gown worn by European women.

As the islands lie scattered over great distances, the manners in one island are naturally different from those of another, so that no

generalization can be made in this respect. But in Saipan Island and the Marshall Group, which were the earliest to come in contact with civilization, the natives imitate Europeans and wear hats and shoes, and look smart like civilized people at least in appearance. In regard to dresses, things get gradually worse as one goes from the middle part of Ponape to Truk, Yap and Palau. Especially is the condition unsatisfactory in Yap, the natives of which still wear no clothes. A curious sight to be seen there is the waist-cloth worn by women. It is made of the fibres of trees or grass and the wearer makes a rustling sound as she walks.

Ornaments.—Having little need of clothes, the natives have not been accustomed to wear ornaments. Nevertheless, they have more or less sense of beauty, and both men and women adorn themselves with something or other, each island having its own custom in this respect. The most common of decorative devices resorted to is tatooing. Simple patterns or letters of the Roman alphabet are tatooed on the limbs or on the breast, and some natives are tattooed all over their hands and feet, it being their pride to have their skin marked as extensively as possible with complicated patterns. Another way of ornamenting the body is to make scars on the arms, thighs or breast. This device is adopted for dual purposes of decoration and the expression of courage, and is most widely practised in Ponape.

In Truk Island, holes are bored through the ear-lobes and gradually enlarged, and rings made of shells or wood are suspended from them. Ear-rings and armlets are also used by natives for decorative purposes.

The above-mentioned customs are practised both by men and women, but are generally confined to people above middle age, and thanks to the spread of education, they are disappearing among the rising generation.

Diet.—The natives live chiefly on wild fruits and vegetables, occasionally taking fish and meat. Relying on nature's bounty, practically none engages in labour for the purpose of obtaining food. A few people sow seeds, but leave them entirely unattended. When the harvest comes, however, they gather more than they can consume, a state of affairs entirely due to the abundance of Nature's favour. The staple foods of the natives is breadfruits, taro potatoes, yam potatoes, and palm fruits, and besides, "hoee" and tapioca are consumed as subsidiary food. Breadfruits and potatoes are most plentifully obtained. Breadfruits, which ripen between May and November, are as large as the head of a child, and when roasted or boiled taste like bread. One is enough for two meals. Yam potatoes grow in mountainous districts and taro potatoes in low-lying land. Both are very large in size. Yams are particularly so, specimens measuring 3 feet by one foot being found. Unripen palm fruits yield juice, which makes a good drink. Pipe plam fruits contain fatty flesh, which is white in colour and has a very agreeable flavour. "Hoee" is consumed in Yap, and tapioca in Palau. The former is a large-sized chestnut and the latter is a sort of starch. Both are favourite foodstuffs of the natives. Bananas, pine-apples, mangoes, papayas, lemons and oranges are obtainable everywhere and in large quantities, but are only taken as a relish. Fish are rich in kind and quantity but the method of fishing being very primitive, the catches taken by natives do not amount to much.

The supply of meat is fairly abundant as oxen, pigs, and chickens are kept everywhere. Intoxicating liquors and tobacco are coveted by the natives, but under the restrictions placed on the consumption of the former by the terms of the Mandate, the natives are not permitted to drink them except on ceremonial occasions and for medical purposes. In certain localities, some natives abstain from drinking and smoking for religious reasons.

The habit of chewing the betel-nut is widespread both in Yap and Palau, nearly all the people being addicted to it, without discrimination between men and women. Many boys and girls contract the habit at an early age.

In Ponape Island, a custom has been prevalent from early times to drink the juice extracted from a perennial herb called Shakao or Sakao by pounding its roots. This drink is taken only on such occasions as marriages, funerals, the construction of new houses, the first use of fishing nets, the reparing of roads and the clearing of the undergrowth in palm forests, when people assemble and take meals together, but it is seldom indulged in at private homes. It causes a slight excitement to the drinker and gradually makes him sleepy. The natives call it Kawakawa or Kawa wine. It is not a kind of alcoholic beverage, and contains no alkaloid similar to that found in morphine or cocaine. But inasmuch as it causes such effect, and if it is abused too often, it may make the drinker indolent, its consumption is permitted, following the precedent established under the German regime, only when there is good justification and when it is not indulged in more than once a week.

Dwelling Houses.—The native houses are very simple in construction and poor in appearance. As the stage of civilization attained in various Islands is different, there is naturally a difference in the building material and in the style of construction among them. The Chamorros in Saipan, who were the earliest to come in contact with civilization, are comparatively advanced in architecture. The houses in Garapan street inhabited by them are mostly built of wood, and stand adjoining each other with stone building between them, so that the street has quite a European appearance. The houses in Yap are low and gloomy, giving an impression of primitiveness. Some have foundations made of stone and built of large timber, but in construction they are not much advanced beyond temporary sheds, with a sharp-pitched roof and a few windows and doors, while inside they are damp, gloomy and dark even during the daytime. In Palau, nearly all the houses have floors and are tolerably well provided with windows and doors. In Ponape the situation is roughly the same as in Palau, but in Truk and Jaluit the houses are very bad having no floors and are no better than temporary sheds. Occasionally, however, houses of European style are found. They belong to wealthy men or to those who have come under European influence.

Throughout the island there are buildings which go by the name of "all men houses." These are used on the occasion of meetings of villages or for lodging visitors from other villages. Each village has one or two such houses, and a community of several villages another. All have been built by co-operation and are used for the common benefit. It is said that they are relics of by-gone fighting ages. These in Yap are famous for their extraordinary size. In the same island, houses exclusively for women are to be found, each village having one or two of them. They are occupied by women during their monthly sickness and on man is allowed access to them. This custom is peculiar to Yap.

In 1925 the Government commissioned Mr. S. Matsuoka to study the manners and customs of the islanders. His work was published in 1927 under the title "On the Micronesian Race."

ADMINISTRATION

In December, 1914, the South Seas Defence Corps was set up to garrison and administer the South Sea Islands. The regulations for the defence corps were revised in July, 1918, and a Civil Administration Department was established which was put under the direction of the Commander of the Defence Corps to take charge of the administration, while the Corps was charged with local defence.

On the adoption by the Council of the League of Nations on December 17, 1920, of the terms of the Mandate for the German possessions in the Pacific Ocean lying north of the Equator, the Japanese Government steadily pushed on preparations for carrying out the duties entrusted to it and after 1921 gradually withdrew the garrisons stationed in the Islands. On April 1, 1922, the Government abolished the system of the South Seas Defence Corps and effected the withdrawal of the garrison, and at the same time created the South Seas Office to carry on the administration of the territory in place of the defence corps.

The South Seas Office has its headquarters in Korror, one of the Palau Islands in the West Caroline Group. The Director of the Office or Governor of the South Sea Islands under the direction and superintendence of the Minister of Overseas Affairs, manages the various administrative affairs of the mandated territory. With regard, however, to matters relating to post and telegraph he is under the superintendence of the Minister of Communications; in matters of currency, banking and customs duties, of the Minister of Finance, and in regard to weights and measures, of the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

The Director (Governor) is entrusted with the management of the general administrative affairs of the Islands and the issuance of necessary regulations with penal clauses imposing penal servitude, imprisonment or detention of a period not exceeding one year, or fines or minor fines not exceeding 200 yen in amount. In cases of emergency and for the purpose of maintaining peace and order he may issue regulations with penal clauses heavier than those mentioned above. In such cases, however, he has to ask for Imperial sanction through the Minister of Overseas Affairs immediately after the issuance of the regulations, and, if Imperial sanction is not obtained, he has to proclaim their invalidity for the future.

Legally, the Director (Governor) is thus authorized to issue regulations concerning matters for the management of the administrative affairs of the mandated territory. In practice, however, all important matters are decided by Imperial Ordinances.

If and when it is necessary, in the judgement of the Director, for the preservation of peace and order in the territory under his jurisdiction, he may request the commander of a naval port or the senior officer in command of the naval forces in the neighbourhood to employ naval force.

The Director may also cancel or suspend rules and instructions issued or measures taken by

officials under his jurisdiction, if he considers such to be at variance with laws and regulations, to be injurious to the public welfare or to exceed the competence of the said officials.

THE SOUTH SEAS OFFICE

The South Seas Office contains the Director's secretariat and five sections, namely, the General Section, the Financial Section, the Police Section, the Economic Development Section and the Communications Section. The Directors secretariat is in charge principally of confidential matters; the General Section, of affairs relating to local administration and public works; the Police Section, of those relating to police, hygiene and prisons; the Financial Section, of those relating to budgets and accounts; the Economic Development Section, of those relating to industry; the Communications Section, of those relating to post, telegraph, shipping and nautical works.

Besides these six sections, there are the Saipan Harbour Works Office and the Products Museum, respectively entrusted with the construction works at the harbour of Saipan and the exhibition of products of the territory.

LOCAL ADMINISTRATION

Until the Regulations for the South Seas Islands Defence Corps were revised in July, 1918, the Islands were divided into six districts, and the commander of the garrison in each district, assisted by a civil secretary, dealt with civil administrative affairs in that district. But after the Regulations were revised, a civil administration office was established in each of the abovementioned six districts, and civil officials were appointed to take charge of local administrative and judicial affairs. The head of such an office was empowered either ex-office or by special authorization to issue regulations with penal clause imposing detention or fines.

On the establishment of the South Seas Office in April, 1922, the civil administration offices were abolished, and six branch bureaux were established in their place, the sphere of their jurisdiction being the same as that of their predecessors. A branch bureau is an ordinary local administrative organ having charge of all affairs relating to census, registration, charity and relief, police, prison, hygiene, collection of taxes, education, religion, industry, civil engineering work, harbours, and other matters which do not come under the competence of any specially established office.

A branch bureau has a head, who, under the direction and superintendence of the Governor or Director of the South Seas Office puts into effect laws and regulations and manages administrative affairs in the district under his jurisdiction.

With regard to administrative affairs in the district under his jurisdiction, the head of a branch bureau is empowered ex-officio or by special authorization to issue rules. He is not authorized, however, to attach thereto any penal clauses. In case the Director of the South Seas Office finds such rules to be at variance with existing laws and regulations, or injurious to public welfare, or to exceed the competence of the authority, he may cancel or suspend them.

The head of a branch bureau is authorized to arbitrate in civil disputes and to pass summary judgment with regard to certain offences. In respect of the detection of offenders, as a judicial police officer, he has the same power as the public procurator of a local court.

The names, sites and sphere of jurisdiction of the branch bureau are as follows:—

Table 4. Names, Sites and Sphere of Jurisdiction of Branch Bureaux

Name	Site	Sphere of Jurisdiction
Saipan Branch Bureau	Saipan Islands of Mariana Group.	Whole of Mariana Group.
Tinian Branch Office	Tinian Island of Mariana Group.	Tinian Island & Agikan Island.
Yap Branch Bureau	Yap Island of West Caroline Group.	West Caroline Group (east of 137° E. L.)
Palau Branch Bureau	Korror Island of the Palau Islands of West Caroline Group.	West Caroline Group (west of 137° E. L.)
Truk Branch Bureau	Summer Island of Truk Islands in the East Caroline Group.	East Caroline Group (west of 154° E. L.)
Ponape Branch Bureau	Ponape Island of East Caroline Group.	East Caroline Group (east of 154° E. L.) and Marshall Group (west of 164° E. L.)
Jaluit Branch Bureau	Jaluit Island of Marshall Group.	Marshall Group (east of 164° E. L.)

Village Officials

In order to admit the appointment of natives as village officials and enable them to participate in the local administration, the offices of village chiefs and assistant village chiefs have been instituted in the district under the jurisdiction of each branch bureau. These village officials are appointed and dismissed by the head of the branch bureau with the sanction of the Director of the South Seas Office. In conformity with old usage, an assistant village chief assists village chiefs in the discharge of their duties or may carry out some portion of them.

The sphere of jurisdiction of a native official is determined in accordance with usage, but it may be charged by the head of a branch bureau after inviting and considering the opinions of interested officials and obtaining the approval of the Directors of the South Seas Office.

A village chief or an assistant village chief shall, under the direction of the head of the branch bureau, execute his functions defined by laws, regulations and local conventions, and at the same time shall execute the following activities which concern native inhabitants.

(1) Bringing laws and regulations to the notice of villagers.
(2) Forwarding to the authorities applications,, reports, etc., sent in by villagers.
(3) Transmission by villagers and the due execution of instructions issued by the head of the branch bureau.

In addition to the abovementioned matters, a village chief or an assistant village chief is required to make a report at least twice a year to the head of the branch bureau or to the proper police officer concerning the conditions, changes in population, etc., of the village under his jurisdiction. In case epidemics break out, natural calamities happen, injurious insects appear, or any other important occurrences take place, he must immediately report it to the authorities.

A village chief may submit to the head of the competent branch bureau his opinion concering the administration of the village under his jurisdiction.

A village chief is accorded a monthly allowance not exceeding 35 yen in amount and an assistant village chief an allowance not exceeding 20 yen in amount.

POPULATION

The total number of population as on April 1, 1936 was 104,833, of which 50,011 represented the islanders, 54,763 Japanese and 109 foreigners.

Natives.—Of the 50,011 islanders, as many as 46,345 were Kanakas and the rest or only 3,666 Chamorros. The Chamorros are very prolific, but the Kanakas are static. Even a yearly decrease is shown by the Kanakas under the jurisdiction of the Yap Bureau Branch.

Japanese.—The number of Japanese, which was only scores at the time of the occupation of the islands by Japan, gradually increased until in April 1, 1936 the number increased to 54,763, as stated above (consisting of 32,600 males and 22,155 females). The majority of them live in the islands under the jurisdiction of the Saipan Bureau Branch, and most of them are engaged in agriculture.

Foreigners.—At the time of Japan's occupation of the islands there were about 100 foreigners, mostly German missionaries and merchants. Later these Germans left the islands. At one time there were only a handful, or ten odd foreigners, English and American, in the islands. In 1921 over 30 Spanish missionaries came to the islands. Since then the islands have gradually been inhabited by German and Belgians. As stated above, there were 109 foreigners resident on April 1, 1936. The greater number of them are concerned either directly or indirectly with religious work.

The inhabitants classified by islands and nationality are tabulated below:—

Table 5. Inhabitants Classified By Islands

(End of March)

		Japanese		Natives		Foreigners		Total	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Saipan	1932	12,033	7,828	2,110	1,970	9	4	14,152	9,802
	1933	14,357	9,310	2,190	1,993	7	8	16,544	11,341
	1934	15,504	11,199	2,255	2,057	7	7	17,766	13,263
	1935	21,305	14,638	2,557	2,360	7	8	23,869	17,006
	1936	23,787	17,501	2,233	2,063	9	7	26,029	19,571
Yap	1932	165	101	3,071	3,250	5	4	3,241	3,355
	1933	228	132	3,131	3,224	6	4	3,365	3,360
	1934	276	143	3,024	3,133	7	4	3,307	3,280
	1935	243	145	2,970	3,068	6	4	3,219	2,220
	1936	268	154	2,873	3,032	6	4	3,147	3,190

		Japanese		Natives		Foreigners		Total	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Palau	1932	2,009	994	3,293	2,738	12	1	5,314	3,733
	1933	2,307	1,350	3,295	2,775	14	2	5,616	4,127
	1934	2,881	1,661	3,310	2,763	14	3	6,205	4,427
	1935	3,980	2,118	3,394	2,703	13	2	7,387	4,823
	1936	4,913	2,597	8,268	2,812	13	6	8,194	5,415
Truk	1932	717	321	7,925	7,487	17	7	8,659	7,812
	1933	736	370	7,754	7,460	19	7	8,509	7,837
	1934	908	502	7,696	7,558	18	7	8,622	8,067
	1935	1,461	608	7,833	7,592	18	6	9,312	8,206
	1936	1,573	733	7,589	7,494	19	7	9,181	8,234
Ponape	1932	757	384	4,383	3,951	13	11	5,153	4,346
	1933	886	531	4,430	3,994	12	11	5,328	4,536
	1934	1,145	670	4,494	4,013	11	12	5,650	4,695
	1935	1,566	870	4,607	4,124	12	13	6,185	5,007
	1936	1,723	980	4,601	4,090	14	16	6,338	5,086
Jaluit	1932	322	135	5,100	4,770	12	3	5,434	4,908
	1933	287	146	5,086	4,782	10	—	5,383	4,928
	1934	292	147	5,031	4,780	12	1	5,395	4,928
	1935	315	160	5,092	4,756	8	—	5,415	4,916
	1936	344	190	5,150	4,806	7	1	5,510	4,997
Total	1932	16,003	9,763	25,882	34,163	68	30	41,953	33,956
	1933	18,801	11,869	25,886	24,201	68	32	44,755	36,129
	1934	21,006	14,322	25,870	24,304	69	34	46,945	36,660
	1935	28,870	18,542	26,453	24,603	64	33	55,387	43,178
	1936	32,608	22,155	25,714	24,297	68	41	58,390	46,493

Japanese immigrating into the islands show an increase yearly. Whereas in 1930 there were only 15,656 Japanese in Saipan the number more than doubled five years later, the population on April 1, 1936 amounting to 41,288.

The number of population and households, and density of population per square kilometre as on the 1st of April, 1936, are tabulated as follows:—

Table 6. Statistics of Population, etc.

(As on the 1st of April, 1936)

Branch bureau	Population	Area sq. kms.	Density per sq. km.	No. of household
Saipan	45,600	639	71.4	10,619
Yap	6,337	226	28.4	1,784
Palau	13,609	478	28.5	2,920
Truk	17,415	132	131.9	3,872
Ponape	11,424	504	22.7	2,382
Jaluit	10,498	170	61.8	1,962
Total	104,883	2,149	48.8	23,539

The number of births, deaths, and the death rate to 100 births for the last few years ended 1935 are returned as follows:—

Table 7. Movement of Population

		Total			Japanese & Foreigners			Natives		
	Year	Births	Deaths	Rate	Births	Deaths	Rate	Births	Deaths	Rate
Saipan	1931	1,178	434	36.8	1,001	309	30.8	177	124	70.6
	1932	1,362	337	24.7	1,214	243	20.0	148	94	63.5
	1933	1,569	468	29.8	1,411	368	26.1	158	100	63.3
	1934	1,705	512	30.0	1,545	415	26.8	160	97	60.6
	1935	2,281	633	27.7	2,118	552	26.0	163	81	49.7
Yap	1931	119	201	168.9	9	3	33.3	110	198	180.0
	1932	141	214	151.7	11	3	27.3	130	211	162.3
	1933	131	267	203.8	10	1	10.0	121	266	219.8
	1934	110	235	213.6	16	9	56.3	94	226	240.4
	1935	93	174	187.1	15	8	53.3	78	166	212.8
Palau	1931	278	166	59.7	97	45	46.4	181	121	66.9
	1932	242	126	52.1	95	28	29.5	147	98	66.7
	1933	320	250	64.1	148	58	39.2	172	147	85.0
	1934	343	162	47.2	206	59	28.6	137	103	75.3
	1935	398	147	36.9	245	69	26.5	153	78	50.9

(Continued)

		Total			Japanese & Foreigners			Natives		
	Year	Births	Deaths	Rate	Births	Deaths	Rate	Births	Deaths	Rate
Truk	1931	358	332	92.5	42	17	40.5	316	315	99.7
	1932	411	363	88.3	38	11	28.9	373	352	94.4
	1933	676	753	111.4	60	18	30.0	616	735	119.3
	1934	520	428	82.3	76	26	24.2	444	402	90.5
	1935	539	449	83.3	79	29	36.7	460	420	91.3
Ponape	1931	279	140	50.2	24	8	33.3	255	232	51.8
	1932	299	145	48.5	58	16	27.6	241	129	53.5
	1933	320	221	69.1	71	24	33.8	249	197	79.1
	1934	281	115	40.9	57	22	38.6	224	93	41.5
	1935	341	145	42.5	99	27	27.3	242	118	48.8
Jaluit	1931	204	177	86.8	14	4	28.6	190	175	91.1
	1932	167	317	189.8	16	6	37.5	151	311	206.0
	1933	263	199	75.7	17	7	41.2	246	192	78.0
	1934	172	190	110.5	20	9	45.0	152	181	119.1
	1935	224	235	104.9	17	7	41.8	207	228	110.1
Total	1931	2,416	1,450	60.0	1,187	386	32.5	1,229	1,064	86.6
	1932	2,622	1,502	57.3	1,433	307	21.4	1,190	1,194	100.4
	1933	3,279	2,113	64.4	1,717	476	27.7	1,562	1,637	104.8
	1934	3,131	1,642	52.4	1,920	540	28.1	1,211	1,102	91.0
	1935	3,876	1,783	46.0	2,573	692	26.9	1,303	1,091	83.8

FINANCE

The budget estimates for the South Seas Office, like the general budget of the Japanese Government, must annually obtain the approval of the Imperial Diet as required by the Constitution. The Financial Law of Japan as well as the special financial law for the South Seas Office applies to the estimates (revenue and expenditure).

The accounts of the South Seas Office are independent of the general account of the Japanese Government, and are dealt with as special accounts. The expenditure of the South Seas Office is met from the revenue collected by the Office plus a subsidy from the general accounts of the Japanese Government. The Government should draw up estimates of the revenue and expenditure under the special accounts of the South Seas Office and submit them to the Imperial Diet together with the general budget of its revenue and expenditure.

The revenue and expenditure for the last few years ending 1937-38 are shown below (in yen):—

Table 8. Revenue and Expenditure

(¥)

Year	Revenue			Expenditure		
	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
1931-32	4,699,059	2,999,531	7,698,590	2,432,547	2,143,889	4,576,436
1932-33	4,819,390	3,134,687	7,953,987	2,500,544	2,233,199	4,733,743
1933-34	5,011,282	3,237,488	8,248,769	2,755,171	2,527,324	5,282,495
1934-35	5,118,467	2,979,829	8,098,295	2,914,837	2,478,925	5,393,762
1935-36	6,555,755	2,720,360	9,276,115	3,082,749	2,742,902	5,825,650
*1936-37	6,647,823	740,235	7,388,058	3,522,595	3,865,463	7,388,058
*1937-38	7,282,724	1,399,758	8,682,482	3,810,590	4,871,892	8,682,482

* Budget accounts.

(a) Revenue

(¥)

	1933-34 (Settled)	1934-35 (Settled)	1935-36 (Settled)	1936-37 (Budget)	1937-38 (Budget)
Ordinary:					
Poll Tax	78,705	72,006	84,921	100,197	97,397
Port Clearance dues	3,037,228	2,691,536	4,052,013	3,718,070	5,633,125
Custom duties	36,179	35,189	53,328	37,265	89,875
Mining Tax	143	1,005	574	2,141	6,647
Income from Government undertakings and property	1,756,786	2,272,539	2,321,616	2,513,838	1,405,140
Stamp receipts	26,565	22,891	21,544	46,352	23,666
Miscellaneous receipts	75,675	23,301	21,759	229,960	26,974
Total	5,011,282	5,118,467	6,555,755	6,647,823	7,282,724

(Continued)	1933-34 (Settled)	1934-35 (Settled)	1935-36 (Settled)	1936-37 (Budget)	1937-38 (Budget)
Extraordinary:					
Sales of Government property	17,244	13,555	15,827	51,544	23,711
Surplus brought over from previous year	3,220,243	2,966,274	2,704,533	688,691	1,376,047
Total	3,237,488	2,979,829	2,720,360	740,235	1,399,758
Total Revenue	8,248,769	8,098,295	9,276,115	7,388,058	8,682,482

(b) Expenditure

(¥)

	1933-34 (Settled)	1934-35 (Settled)	1935-36 (Settled)	1936-37 (Budget)	1937-38 (Budget)
Ordinary:					
Salaries	836,757	875,195	927,852	1,003,144	1,168,944
Office expenses	1,085,234	1,157,224	1,227,411	1,451,306	1,773,408
Expenses for improvement	702,815	728,173	748,313	808,874	603,214
Education	61,727	66,020	69,779	80,050	84,303
Sanitation	7,271	10,065	10,567	11,073	12,092
Police and prison	10,285	11,621	10,744	8,039	10,892
Other expenses	27,641	26,375	33,929	40,950	31,834
National debt sinking fund & share in pensions	23,442	40,163	54,153	69,159	75,902
Reserves				50,000	50,000
Total	2,755,171	2,914,837	3,082,749	3,522,595	3,810,590
Extraordinary:					
Public and Repair Works	707,604	639,989	632,133	623,937	766,444
Encouragements & Subsidies	1,185,401	1,204,123	1,321,699	971,395	1,196,895
Land surveying	44,482	47,088	46,225	47,905	47,950
Expense for Census of 1935	——	3,392	26,301	21,005	——
Investigation expense for taxsystem, etc.	——	——	——	25,021	26,555
Development expense of South Sea Islands	——	——	——	1,036,296	1,734,043
Transfer for general account	——	——	——	450,000	1,100,000
Enforcement of ordinance of the State Property	——	——	——	8,594	——
Total	2,527,324	2,478,925	2,742,902	3,865,463	4,871,892
Total expenditures	5,282,495	5,393,762	5,825,650	7,388,058	8,682,482

RELIGION

In the mandated territory the propagation of and belief in any religion is entirely free, and no restriction whatever is placed thereon, no matter whether the persons concerned are Japanese, foreigners or natives, as long as it does not prejudice the public peace or good morals. As a matter of fact, since the inauguration of the mandatory administration no instance of any prohibition or restriction on account of prejudice to the public peace or good morals has occurred in the territory.

During the Spanish and German regimes, owing to the zealous evangelistic work carried on by Christian missionaries, many natives embraced Chiristianity, with the result that it is no exaggeration to say that to-day the religion of the natives is exclusively Christianity. The effects of the propagation of Chirstianity are so remarkable that the fact of the islanders being generally genial in disposition is said to be due chiefly to Christian influence. The East Hongwanji of Kyoto established a mission station in Saipan in 1919 and another in Palau in 1926 for the benefit of Japanese believers. Then Tenri-kyo, a denomination of Shinto, established a church at Palau and commenced the propagation of its creed in 1929. At the end of April, 1936, churches numbered 34 (composed of Christianity 25, Buddhist 7, and Tenri-kyo 2), preaching stations 116, missionaries 47, believers 66,249 composed of 39,569 Christians, 26,561 Buddhist and 119 Shintoists (Tenri-kyo). In the same period Christian schools numbered 13 , staff 37, pupils 1,493 including 811 females.

EDUCATION

In December, 1915, the Regulations for Primary Schools in the South Sea Islands were promulgated and primary schools were established in Saipan and five other places, to commence the education of native children. In July, 1918, the Regulations for Native Schools in the South Sea Islands were enacted and the primary schools were thereafter re-named native schools. The teaching staff was also augmented in force and additional schools were established.

In April, 1919 the Regulations for Primary Schools in the South Sea Islands were enacted for the education of Japanese children, and primary schools were established in Saipan and Truk, and later in Palau, Yap and Ponape.

On the establishment of the South Seas Office, the Regulations for the Organization of the South Seas Primary Schools and the Regulations for the Organization of the South Seas Office Public Schools were promulgated, defining the organization and sphere of these schools. The native schools were thereby re-named public schools, and the regulations governing primary and public schools were revised.

Further, for the vocational education of natives the Apprentice Woodworkers Training School was established in April, 1926, attached to the Korror Public School under the jurisdiction of the Palau Branch Office.

To this school are admitted boys from all districts selected from among those who have completed the course of instruction at public schools and have gone through the supplementary course, and there they are given instruction in building and carpentry.

Primary Schools.—The primary school is principally intended for the primary education of Japanese children and is divided into two courses ordinary and higher. On the 30th of April, 1936 there were throughout the islands 20 primary schools, five of which were provided with higher courses. Teachers numbered 101 and pupils 5,706.

Public Schools.—At the same date or the end of April, 1936 there were 24 public schools with 82 teachers and 3,011 pupils. As a rule, children eligible to attend a public school are those of natives, who are above eight years of age. The institution gives primary education to native children, its fundamental object being the imparting of moral senses as well as of such knowledge and capacity as are indispensable to advancement of the living of the native population, with due regard at the same time, to their physical development.

Private Educational Institutions.—The educational institutions established by private bodies were formerly confined to mission schools belonging to Christian churches. In 1927, however, two kindergartens and one private public school were established. At the end of April 1935 there existed nine private schools (consisting of one public school and eight kindergartens) with 22 teachers and 475 pupils.

JUSTICE AND POLICE

Judicature

Simultaneously with the establishment of the South Seas Office in 1922, the Courts of Justice therefore forming part of the machinery of the Civil Administration Department were abolished, and Local Courts and a Higher Court were established in their place, judicial officials independent of the executive being appointed thereto deal with civil and criminal cases. All judicial affairs in the mandated territory are to be dealt with at those courts, except in such a place where there are no courts of justice, and the head of the branch bureau is authorized to deal with certain civil cases and also to render summary judgment in criminal cases of comparatively minor gravity.

Courts of Justice.—The Courts of Justice are organized on a double instance system. A court of first instance is called Local Court, and a single judge system is adopted in such courts. A court of second instance is called Higher Court, and a bench system is here adopted, three judges constituting the bench.

The Local Court gives decisions in the first instance in civil and criminal cases, besides dealing with non-contentious cases. It also has jurisdiction over judicial reconciliation, summary procedure, compulsory execution against immovable property and vessels, the procedure for public summers, bankruptcy proceedings, reconciliation proceedings, summary proceedings for taking up entrusted criminal cases, etc.

The Judge of a Local Court deals with the drawing up of notarial deeds, the authentification of private documents and other matters included in the functions of notary in Japan, and the clerks of a Local Court deal with the delivery of documents, notifications, summons, compulsory execution against movable property and voluntary sales by auction of movable property, the drawing up of protests for non-acceptance, the collection of fines, the disposal of confiscated articles, the execution of warrants and other matters constituting the functions of a bailiff in Japan.

The Higher Court review cases on appeal from the judgments of the Local Courts, the decisions given being in the second instance and final.

A Public Procurator's Office is attached to each of the Courts of Justice, its sphere of jurisdiction being the same as that of the Court

to which it belongs.

The Public Procurator directs and superintends the judicial police in the detection of the offenders, bring judicial proceedings, before the Court of Justice and directs and superintends the execution of judgments rendered.

One Public Procurator in regular employment is appointed for all the Public Procurator's Offices and it stationed ordinarily in Palau Island. The function of the Public Procurator is entrusted to Police Inspectors at the Public Procurator's Office attached to the Local Courts at Ponape and at Saipan but grave cases are usually reserved for the direct action of the Public Procurator. The Public Procurator is the central organ of detective service, and Police Inspectors and Police Sergeants, who are administrative police officers, assist the Public Procurator and engage in detective service under his direction in the capacity of judicial police officers. The head of a branch bureau and the Police Superintendent in the capacity of judicial police officers have the same competence as the Public Procurator in regard to detective service.

The Local Courts are established in three places, namely, Palau, Saipan and Ponape, and the Higher Court in Palau.

In 1935 the number of criminal cases tried at the courts of justice was 325, persons found guilty numbered 653 including 311 Japanese.

POLICE

After the complete withdrawal of the naval forces from the Islands in April, 1922, the maintenance of peace and order in the territory was placed exclusively in the hands of the police.

This necessitated an augmentation of the police force. Accordingly, for the management of affairs concerning police, sanitation and the execution of sentences, a police superintendent, police inspectors, police sergeants and policemen have been appointed to the South Seas Office, and police inspectors, police sergeants, policemen and native policemen to each branch bureau. The number of police offices including branches and the personnel of the police at the end of August 1935 were as follows:—

Table 9. Number of Police Offices and of Police
(At the end of Aug., 1936)

	No. of police offices incl. branches	Police superintendents	Police inspectors	Police sergeants	Chief policemen	Policemen	Native policemen
South Seas Office	—	1	2	3	2	4	—
Saipan Branch Bureau	12	—	2	3	4	41	12
Yap " "	3	—	1	—	1	7	6
Palau " "	8	—	1	1	2	16	11
Truk " "	5	—	1	—	1	9	7
Ponape " "	7	—	1	1	2	11	8
Jaluit " "	3	—	1	—	1	6	6
Total	38	1	9	8	13	94	50

AGRICULTURE

The agricultural industry carried on by natives is in a very primitive state. They have no system of cultivation, growing extensively only a few crops such as tapioca, taro potatoes and yam potatoes by rotation. Though the most part of the best situated and really fertile tracts of land belong to natives, the greater portion of such land still remains undeveloped. If they were more enlightened in agricultural knowledge and taught advanced methods of cultivation, their prosperity would be remarkably advanced. With this in view, since the Islands came under Japanese administration, the authorities have been endeavouring in various ways to instruct and lead them in this respect, but their efforts so far have been rewarded with lamentably poor success. This is due to the bounty of nature, which frees them from the necessity of making any great efforts to obtain a livelihood, as well as to the traditional idea prevailing among them that indolent and indifferent towards agriculture. At the end of 1935, the total area under cultivation approximated 54,307 hectares of which 1,389 hectares were paddy, 19,249 hectares upland, 33,669 cocoa plantations. The area, the number of farming households and of population at the end of December, 1935 are as follows:—

Table 10. Area under Cultivation in 1935 (hectares)
(At the end of Dec., 1935)

Branch bureau	Paddy	Upland	Total
Saipan	1	16,424	16,425
Yap	938	582	1,520
Palau	229	545	774
Truk	118	221	339
Ponape	101	1,144	1,245
Jaluit	2	333	335
Total	1,389	19,249	20,638
Total for 1934	1,389	16,362	17,750
Total for 1933	1,389	13,613	15,002

Table 11. Number of Farming Households and Population
(At the end of Dec., 1935)

		No. of farming households	Farming population Male	Female	Total
Saipan	Japanese	3,513	6,857	3,125	9,982
	Natives	314	555	243	798
Yap	Japanese	51	52	—	52
	Natives	1,624	1,162	—	1,162
Palau	Japanese	136	189	142	331
	Natives	740	2,035	1,701	3,736
Truk	Japanese	5	8	4	12
	Natives	2,513	4,268	3,395	7,663
Ponape	Japanese	165	230	94	324
	Natives	1,501	2,320	1,876	4,196
Jaluit	Japanese	—	—	—	—
	Natives	1,704	2,552	1,135	3,687
Total	Japanese	3,870	7,336	3,365	10,701
	Natives	8,396	12,892	8,350	21,242
Total for 1934	Japanese	2,958	4,906	3,094	8,000
	Natives	8,667	14,054	9,662	23,716
Total for 1933	Japanese	3,075	4,179	2,183	6,362
	Natives	7,900	12,787	7,745	20,532

Principal production for 1934-35 and 1935-36 was as follows:—

Table 12. Principal Farm Products

	1934-35 Kilograms	1934-35 Yen	1935-36 Kilograms	1935-36 Yen
Maize	109,842	11,633	188,679	19,034
Beans and peas	27,760	4,485	23,449	3,362
Sweet potato	1,600,451	77,916	1,313,710	69,275
Yam potato	2,237,818	160,310	935,117	66,341
Taro	2,982,852	126,974	3,448,547	150,102
Tapioca	8,769,327	172,152	24,814,877	356,665
Water melon	415,242	44,277	152,435	20,764
Pumpkin	1,368,020	28,159	1,074,189	34,466
Sugar cane	389,414,529	1,636,868	542,718,908	2,339,123
Banana	2,049,590	112,600	1,784,881	99,169
Coffee	303,770	20,663	232,520	15,818
Satoimo	826,419	48,146	347,365	22,480
Wheat vermicelli	18,835,729	704,176	17,800,247	666,980
Total incl. others	428,942,349	3,307,204	596,762,837	4,065,089

Sugar.—At present the sugar industry is carried on in Saipan and Tinian, and the cultivation of sugar cane is mostly confined to those two islands, the production of the other islands being small and almost entirely consumed locally. The total area of sugar plantation in 1916-17 was 20 hectares, but it was increased to 455 hectares in 1933-34.

Table 13. Area Under Sugar Cane and Production

Year	Total area (Cho)	Production (Kin)	Year	Total area (Cho)	Production (Kin)
1919-20	459.00	755,599	1931-32	6,641.89	69,557,200
1922-23	1,676.50	2,131,100	1932-33	6,192.00	72,980,800
1925-26	2,766.96	15,267,600	1933-34	5,967.00	75,030,200
1928-29	3,317.13	16,423,400	1934-35	8,102.57	113,534,500
1929-30	4,590.33	34,590,700	1935-36	9,795.00	81,916,700
1930-31	6,144.49	64,278,900	1936-37	11,567.00	...

Coffee.—Coffee suits the climate and soil of the Islands and it has long been grown there. But the production was not large in quantity and was chiefly consumed at home. Recently many Japanese have started its cultivation in Saipan with good prospects of making a fair profit if the work be afforded encouragement. Accordingly the Government since 1927, has made grants-in-aid to cultivators of coffee.

FORESTRY

As the Islands are small in area, there are no forestry enterprises systematically undertaken, and no regulations have as yet been enacted concerning forestry, which is carried on in conformity with usage.

Timber trees in the Islands are sonneratia acida, calophyllum inophyllum, terminalia catappa, Pterocarpus indicus, intsia bijuga, serianthes grandiflora, kurogaki and elacocarpus sq.

As regards fruit trees, artocarpus incisa, cocos nucifera, cocoa edulis, anona muricata, pangium edule and mangifera indica may be mentioned, while fibre-yielding trees are pandanus sq., cocos nucifera, artocarpus incisa and hibiscus tiliaceus. Except cocos nucifera, however, these trees are not found in such large numbers as to merit mention.

Coco-nut palms have been planted throughout the Islands for many years. They grow very well and the copra obtained from them is not only the chief forest product and one of the most important articles of export, but constitutes an indespensable item of the daily diet of the natives. The area of palm forests and the production of copra obtained from them in 1935 are tabulated as follows, classified according to branch bureau:—

Table 14. Area Under Palm and Copra Production

(1935)

Branch bureau	Area under Palm trees (Hectares)	Production of coco-nats (Pieces)	Production of copra (Ton)	Production of copra (Yen)
Saipan	4,516	11,966,529	1,037	94,088
Yap	3,350	10,438,756	733	76,843
Palau	1,760	3,453,400	493	51,645
Truk	4,377	27,053,514	2,768	292,871
Ponape	7,560	23,940,137	3,206	285,408
Jaluit	12,106	61,487,520	5,336	451,319
Total	33,669	138,339,865	13,573	1,252,174
Total for 1934	33,572	123,582,503	12,276	577,043
Total for 1933	33,176	122,247,072	10,722	858,680

The production of timber, fagots and charcoal in 1935 are as follow:—

Table 15. Production of Timber, Fagots and Charcoal (1935)

(¥)

	Saipan	Yap	Palau	Truk	Ponape	Jaluit	Total
Timber	6,462	7,178	872	1,216	624	966	17,318
Fagots	5,065	85	829	358	323	4,550	11,210
Charcoal	1,818	5,069	14,712	6,552	3,637	4,965	66,753
Total incl. others	3,345	13,104	16,413	101,211	4,682	10,482	189,236
Total for 1934	4,762	6,753	14,213	64,575	6,563	12,116	138,982
Total for 1933	5,839	7,092	10,479	53,129	4,392	10,202	111,133

FISHERIES

The noteworthy branches of fishery have hitherto been confined to the collection of sea-slugs, nilotic-top shells and tortoise shells, and in recent years bonito and tunny fishing has been started. Some native and Japanese catch other fish and collect other shells for their own consumption, but these are scarcely worth mentioning.

Nilotic-top shells are collected chiefly in Palau and Yap, and tortoise shells, chiefly in Palau, Yap, Trul and Ponape, but sea slugs are collected in every island. The fishing of bonito and tunny is carried on in the seas of Palau, Saipan and Trup.

In Palau and Ponape, some have been carrying on the culture of the pearl oyster. In Ponape the enterprise has, however, ended in failure owing to a lack of technical skill, but in Palau the industry has made very satisfactory progress.

In 1916 the "Regulations for the Fishing Industry in the South Seas Island" were promulgated. In these regulations it is provided that as a rule persons desiring to engage in the industry shall obtain permission from the authorities, but fisheries recognized by local usage are allowed to continue without going through such a procedure. It is also provided, for the purpose of assuring the proper multiplication of nilotic-top shells, pearl oysters and tortoises, that they shall not be taken at other times than the specified periods. With regard to the acquisition of the fishery rights, no discrimination is made between natives, Japanese and foreigners, any and all persons who have obtained permission being free to engage in that occupation. At present 63 fishing vessels with engines are engaged in fishery (17 in Saipan, 18 in Palau, 16 in Truk, 9 in Ponape and 3 in Jaluit).

The total value of catches of fish, shell-fish and others for 1935 was ¥1,641,357. Of this amount, ¥1,317,919 was accounted for by bonito, ¥105,501 by tunny, ¥80,472 by shell-fish, of which ¥80,379 was represented by nilotic-top shells. Manufactured marine products for the year under review were ¥2,238,858. The following figures show the value of catches and manufactured marine products in the last few years:—

Table 16. Value of Catches of Fish, etc.

Year	Total catches (Yen)	Manufactured marine products (Yen)
1931	871,490	1,064,341
1932	1,266,378	981,634
1933	1,790,372	1,747,595
1934	2,644,803	1,810,838
1935	1,641,357	2,238,858

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

Commerce.—In sympathy with the opening of the archipelago and a growing number of Japanese immigrants, commerce is making swift developments. As at the end of 1935 there were 1,373 merchantile houses throughout the islands. Principal among them were dealers in sundry goods. Business quarters in such leading islands as Saipan, Tinin and Parao are showing considerable prosperity, thought not comparable to similar quarters in Japan. Many of the traders in other islands are broking in copras in addition to the sale of miscellaneous articles.

Industry.—The most important industry is the manufacture of sugar and its by-products, i.e. alcohol and alcoholic drinks in Saipan. Recently a certain number of persons have started the manufacture of refreshing beverages and canned fruits, but the amount of production is still quite small. The only handircaft of the natives is weaving fabrics from the leaves of palm and breadfruit trees, there existing no other worth mentioning. The following table shows the value and quantity of the principal goods manufactured in the Islands for the few years ending 1935:—

Table 17. Principal Manufactured Goods

Items		1932	1933	1934	1935
Sugar	Value (yen)	7,317,199	10,223,420	10,244,879	15,526,770
	Quantity (kgs.)	677,529*	44,383,010	45,086,902	1,132,216*
Refreshing beverage	Value (yen)	3,445	8,351	13,581	6,249
	Quantity (bottles)	18,237	37,955*	86,547	36,541
Alcoholic liquor	Value (yen)	212,010	279,451	232,280	332,408
	Quantity (litres)	516,208	716,587	641,127	855,203
Alcohol	Value (yen)	333,825	437,877	431,447	515,521
	Quantity (litres)	1,204,374	1,671,944	1,761,689	1,825,655
Molasses	Value (yen)	218,283	222,734	179,466	168,750
	Quantity (kgs.)	13,096,960	13,101,980	10,556,832	9,273,467
Bean paste	Value (yen)	10,047	26,791	29,332	17,139
	Quantity (kgs.)	68,565	166,672	175,797	111,473
Soy	Value (yen)	8,100	21,657	26,026	20,861
	Quantity (litres)	32,465	80,224	98,333	84,133
Total incl. others	Value (yen)	8,312,841	11,432,544	11,492,926	17,163,552

Note:—* in piculs.

MINING INDUSTRY

The principal mineral products obtainable in the Islands and worthy of mention is phosphate. Sulphur and manganese are also found but only in small quantities, and are scarcely worth mentioning. The mining industry in the Islands is to be undertaken in accordance with the "South Sea Islands Mining Regulations" promulgated in 1916. The Regulations provide that persons

desiring to undertake mining enterprises are to apply to and obtain permission from the Director of the South Seas Office, and that any persons irrespective of nationality may obtain mining rights. A person intending to undertake mining operations may enter on land, the property of other persons, and make surveys or investigations thereof or make use of it after obtaining permission from the head of the competent branch bureau. In that case he must pay rent to the owner of the land and pay compensation for all damages sustained.

The head of the competent branch bureau may, with the permission of the Director of the South Seas Office, issue the necessary rule for the safeguarding of public welfare and deposits of minerals.

In case a miner is injured, fallen ill or killed while working, otherwise than by his own negligence, the person undertaking the mining operations is under the obligation to support him or his bereaved family. He is also under the obligation to pay a certain mining tax.

Phosphate is mostly found in the Augaur Islands, which were formerly managed by a German company called the South Seas Phosphate Mining Company, Ltd. but are now placed under the management of the South Seas Office. The annual production of the mine is estimated at 60,000 tons. The quantity of refined phosphate exported in the last few years is shown below:—

Table 18. Export of Refined Phosphate

Year	Quantity (Ton)	Value (Yen)
1931–32	59,251	1,125,769
1932–33	64,573	1,205,172
1933–34	65,442	1,308,840
1934–35	81,008	1,778,750
1935–36	69,355	1,762,310

The Products Museums

A new Products Museum was established in 1929 in Korror Island in the Palau Group, which is also the site of the head office of the South Seas Office. In this museum are exhibited specimens of various products of the Islands and materials of geographical, historical and scientific value, collected from various places in the territory. The museum is also intended to function as an organ for finding markets for local products as well as for assisting in transactions in them, with a view to contributing to the industrial development of the Islands and the advancement of local culture.

FOREIGN TRADE

Trade carried on in the mandated territory may be classified as trade between the territory and Japan and dependencies and that between the territory and foreign countries. Most of the trade is conducted between the territory and Japan and the dependencies.

Exports and imports between the Islands and Japan and the dependencies are carried on at nine ports namely, Saipan, Tinian, Yap, Palau, Augaur, Truk, Ponape, Kusaie and Jaluit.

No duties are imposed on such imports and exports, in principle, but as an exception there is the institution of port clearance dues. Trade with foreign countries is carried on at Saipan, Palau, Augaur, Truk and Jaluit. No duties are imposed on exports, but customs duties are collected on imports.

Chief exports are phosphate, copra, sugar, and alcohol, their combined value constituting 9 per cent. of the total value of exports. Nilotic-top shells and sea-slugs are gathered, as a rule, every other year out of regard for their replenishment, so that the value of those articles exported differs from year to year. Nearly all the exports go to Japan, the exports to foreign countries being very small quantities of miscellaneous articles going to Guam from Saipan and to the Gilbert Islands from Jaluit.

Chief imports are rice and other foodstuffs and drinks, cloth and articles made of cloth, wearing apparel and trinkets, articles made of metal, timber and articles made of wood, oil and wax and fat and articles made thereof, minerals and manufactures thereof. The combined value of those articles constitutes about 75 per cent. of the total value of the imports. Below are given the data of staple articles of export and import in the last few years:—

Table 19. Staple Exports

(In yen)

Items	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Vegetables and fruits	13,264	16,310	15,331	19,562	26,781
Sugar	9,237,201	9,605,252	12,913,101	12,381,224	18,133,871
Dried bonito	701,180	905,967	1,512,171	1,811,510	2,215,827
Alcoholic liquor	43,401	96,767	120,926	55,130	68,973
Nilotic-top shells	58,198	77,000	88,900	107,170	87,430
Alcohol	295,344	388,055	391,019	464,613	595,110
Phosphate	864,738	1,080,984	1,361,878	1,391,449	2,166,236
Copra	1,126,783	1,173,258	1,509,385	1,076,916	1,745,573
Total incl. others	12,800,217	13,898,188	18,739,675	18,424,369	26,374,195

Table 20. Staple Imports

(In yen)

Items	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Rice and paddies	756,617	1,053,839	1,245,402	1,525,209	2,117,595
Sugar	59,790	53,945	60,346	58,087	66,050
Alcoholic liquor	256,827	310,911	413,610	473,531	633,989
Cigarettes	296,325	313,290	404,821	467,834	591,841
Oil, wax and manufactures thereof	377,553	496,010	646,894	851,531	1,246,690
Cloth and manufactures thereof	562,160	660,778	818,468	906,276	1,343,728
Copra	23,068	84,038	202,864	98,928	148,005
Wood and manufactures thereof	499,423	352,989	638,949	957,787	1,048,068
Total incl. others	5,958,766	6,588,177	8,989,740	12,970,101	15,221,411

COMMUNICATIONS

Postal Business.—As the post-offices are located in the islands scattered over a great expanse of water and are widely separated from one another, communications are entirely dependent on ships, and all mail matters are despatched and received when vessels on regular services call at the respective islands. The occasions on which postal matters are despatched and received in a year number 25 at the Saipan post-office, 13 at the Yap post-office, 18 at the Palau and Angaur post-offices, and 11 each at the Truk, Ponape and Jaluit post-offices. When casual vessels call, advantage is taken of it to make an extraordinary despatch, so as to secure early delivery. Among the foreign mails, those destined for the Dutch East Indies have been allotted an exchange office, viz., the Palau post-office and they are sent thence to the post-office at Menado in the Celebes by vessels regularly plying between the two places. Also on August 1, 1927, the Jaluit post-office was made an exchange office for the British Gilbert Islands, and the despatch was commenced of postal matters to the Btaritary post-office.

Telegraphic Business.—Telegrams and wireless telegrams in Japanese or European languages, destined to or coming from Japan proper or foreign countries, are dealt with, delivered, and transmitted.

Telegraphic communication is accomplished by means of submarine cables, one being the Yap-Nawa line and the other the Yap-Guam line. The former is used for sending and receiving telegrams to and from Japan proper and foreign countries, and the latter for telegrams to and from the United States and the Philippines.

There is a wireless installation at every post-office, and the business of the coast stations and the fixed stations is dealt with there. The wireless in Palau is in direct communication with Japan proper, and, besides connecting the Islands with Japan proper, controls the connections between the post-offices in the Islands. The wireless in Truk chiefly functions as an intermediary between Palau and the Islands in the east, and being in direct communication with Rabaul (Bismarck Group), deals with messages between the Islands and other places in the Southern Pacific. The wireless installations of other post-offices connect with each other.

Telephone Service.—In July, 1927, the "Rules for the Telephone Service in the South Sea Islands" were issued by the South Seas Office and subsequently the Palau post-office opened the service on September 1 of the same year and the Saipan post-office on July 21, 1928.

Postal Money Order and Savings Bank Business.—Postal Money Orders for Japan proper and foreign countries and the deposit and payment of postal savings are dealt with. The method of handling these branches of postal business is the same as in Japan proper. Statistics on the abovementioned business are tabulated as follows—

Table 21. Mail Matters

		1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36
Ordinary	Received	939,143	1,047,933	1,472,360	1,542,129	1,856,228
	Delivered	1,334,487	1,686,323	1,994,746	2,402,228	2,861,540
Parcel	Received	8,525	10,035	10,758	13,216	14,452
	Delivered	30,628	36,727	43,740	50,683	58,130
Total	Received	947,668	1,057,968	1,483,118	1,555,345	1,870,680
	Delivered	1,365,115	1,723,050	2,038,486	2,452,811	2,919,670

Table 22. No. of Telegrams Dealt with

		1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36
Domestic	Despatched	108,365	126,029	171,807	214,454	251,648
	Transmitted	111,441	140,567	193,836	267,098	321,734
	Received	105,445	111,572	151,082	184,269	217,652
Foreign	Despatched	1,570	1,751	1,788	1,773	2,061
	Transmitted	619	642	1,156	561	852
	Received	447	446	463	425	730
Total number		327,887	381,007	519,632	668,580	794,677
Total charges (yen)		61,620	60,490	80,859	99,332	118,523

Table 23. Postal Money Orders and Postal Savings

	Postal Money Orders				Postal Savings		
	Domestic		Foreign				
Year	Issued (Yen)	Paid (Yen)	Issued (Yen)	Paid (Yen)	Amount of deposits (Yen)	Amount of refundment (Yen)	No. of depositors
1930-31	4,201,040	3,533,871	4,661	1,143	1,305,129	1,044,107	2,787
1931-32	4,661,741	3,758,687	2,693	3,130	1,386,646	1,231,786	2,752
1932-33	4,718,200	4,060,611	5,708	6,584	1,506,641	1,310,752	3,160
1933-34	5,834,020	5,385,546	4,058	4,349	2,131,898	1,685,623	4,276
1934-35	6,784,830	5,890,727	2,198	2,779	2,009,704	1,816,408	4,816
1935-36	7,719,698	6,786,771	3,457	5,554	2,521,967	2,198,401	5,237

RAILWAYS

There is no railway in the Islands for the public. The only railway existing are a light railway, 11 miles in length, in Angaur, for the carriage of phosphate, and another 67 miles in length, in Saipan constructed by the Nanyo Kohatsu Kaisha for the benefit of its sugar industry. Of the latter railway, the section between Garaphan and Charankanoa, about 4 miles, is open to traffic for the convenience of the public. Vehicles, classified according to kinds, are; automobiles 183, motorcycles 32, bicycles 10,288, wagons 170, cars 3,093 and others 11, the total being 13,778 at the end of December, 1935.

South Seas Colonization Company, Limited

The South Seas Colonization Company was established on November 27, 1936 in accordance with the South Seas Colonization Company Act promulgated on July 27 of the same year by an Imperial Ordinance. The Company is to the South Seas under Japanese mandate what the Formosa Development Company is to Formosa. The authorized capital of the Company is ¥20,000,000 in 400,000 shares of ¥50.00 each. Of that amount of capital, ¥10,546,000 is put up by the Government in the shape of the right of mining phosphatic ores in Angaur and other islands and the property connected therewith. Of the ¥20,000,000 capital, ¥12,909,500 is paid up. The Company has its Head Office in Korror Island (Palau Group) and a branch office in Tokyo.

The particulars of the business of the Company are as follows:—

(1) Agriculture, fisheries, mining and shipping which are necessary for colonization.
(2) Emigration which is necessary for colonization.
(3) Aquisition, management and disposal of land (inclusive of lease and other rights in connection with land) which are necessary for colonization.
(4) Management and supervision of land on trust.
(5) Supply of goods necessary for colonization to farmers, fishermen and immigrants, purchase or sale of their products, or improving on them.
(6) Supply of funds necessary for colonization.
(7) Enterprises incidental to the businesses mentioned above.
(8) Other businesses than those itemized above, which are necessary for colonization.

References: Tables 1-7, 9-12, 14-18 & 21-23—Nanyo Gunto Yoran (Outline of the Japanese Mandated Islands in the South Seas), 1936. Table 8—Research of the Finance Department. Table 13—Research of the South Seas Development Company. Tables 19 & 20—Monthly Return of the Foreign Trade of South Sea Islands.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

SIX PREMIER CITIES

THE CITY PLANNING LAW

The rapid expansion of cities and towns in recent years has been such that their complete reconstruction is considered to be necessary as they hardly meet the radically changed requirements of modern traffic, sanitation, etc. The City Planning Law, first adopted in 1919, provides for the organization of the Central and Provincial City Planning Committees to deliberate on all important measures for preserving and promoting in and outside the city limits, matters of public welfare and benefit.

The expenditure involved are met either by the Government or by the communal bodies according as one or the other conducts the work. Private individuals materially benefited by the new plans and arrangements may be caused to bear the whole or part of the expenses within a certain limit. For raising the necessary fund, the municipality, with the approval of the Government, may levy upon the citizens special burdens not exceeding 12½% of land tax, 40% of prefectural taxes, etc. The law came into force in January, 1920, for the six premier cities of Tokyo, Kyoto, Osaka, Kobe, Nagoya and Yokohama, the same law being extended later to over forty smaller cities throughout the country including Sapporo, Otaru, Hokodate, Sakai, Amagasaki, Nagasaki, Niigata, Hiroshima, Okayama, Shimonoseki, etc., and is expected to do much for improving them as to street plan, sanitation, sewage system, etc., in harmony with the City Building Law passed by the Imperial Diet in April, 1919.

It may be noted that in September, 1922 Dr. Charles A. Beard, a noted American expert in municipal administration, arrived in Tokyo in response to the invitation of the Tokyo Municipal Research Board presided over by the then Mayor Viscount (afterward Count) Goto. Before he went home in March, 1923 he handed to the Mayor a report embodying the results of his six months' study of the important problem of Greater Tokyo. It has made a profound impression on the public.

Building Regulations.—The City Building Law came into operation on December 1, 1920, when the Rules for Operation were enforced. They specify the kind of building not allowable in the residential, industrial, or commercial quarters. A building in the residential quarters must not exceed, as a rule, 65 feet in height and in the other quarters 100 feet, though some allowance is made for those with spacious surrounding, such as a park, a road, etc.; in particular the height of a brick or stone building must not exceed 65 feet and that for a wooden one 50 feet.

Area and Population

Of the six premier cities, Tokyo now occupies the foremost place as to area and population in consequence of the expansion of the municipal district effected on October 1, 1932, as a preliminary to the realization of the Greater Tokyo plan. The following comparative table is based on the census taken.

Table 1. Area and Population of Six Cities

(Oct., 1936)

	Population	Area (Sq. kms.)	Pop. per Sq. km.
Tokyo	6,085,800	578	10,906
Osaka	3,101,900	187	16,587
Nagoya	1,119,500	151	7,413
Kyoto	1,107,400	289	3,832
Kobe	938,200	83	11,303
Yokohama	738,400	134	5,509

For references' sake, below is given the comparative statistics as to the area and population of Tokyo, Osaka, London and other large cities of the world.

Table 2. Area and Population of Tokyo and Osaka Compared With Foreign Cities

Cities	Area (Sq. kms.)	Population (1,000)
New York	774.4 (1933)	7,295 (1935)
Tokyo	577.9 (1936)	6,086 (1936)
Osaka	187.4 1936)	3,102 (1936)
London	303.0 (1932)	4,230 (1934)
Berlin	883.6 (1934)	4,189 (1935)
Chicago	541.2 (1933)	3,589 (1935)
Paris	104.0 (1931)	2,891 (1935)

Table 3. Tax Burdens in 1934

(In yen)

	National tax	Prefectural tax	Municipal tax	"Ku" tax	Total
Tokyo	97,125,564	22,454,120	36,400,561	7,710,174	163,690,419
Osaka	47,535,834	13,515,465	21,777,540	183,924	83,042,763
Kyoto	9,137,519	5,765,375	5,807,707	1,805,038	22,515,639
Kobe	9,903,625	.....	11,130,082	.....	21,033,707
Yokohoma	6,239,749	3,657,379	4,718,012	.....	14,615,140
Nagoya	10,260,621	4,084,546	6,853,335	.....	21,198,502

Table 4. Tax Burdens per Capita and per Household in 1934

(In yen)

	National tax		Prefectural tax		Municipal tax		"Ku" tax		Total	
	per household	per capita	per household	per capita	per household	per capita	per household	per capita	per household	per capita
Tokyo	79.87	17.15	18.46	3.97	29.93	6.42	6.34	1.36	134.60	28.90
Osaka	78.88	17.46	22.48	4.98	36.14	8.00	0.31	0.07	137.81	30.50
Kyoto	40.77	8.68	25.72	5.48	25.91	5.52	8.05	1.71	100.46	21.39
Kobe	50.01	10.86	.....	.....	56.21	12.20	.....	.....	106.22	23.06
Yokohama	40.47	8.87	23.72	5.20	30.60	6.70	.....	.....	94.79	20.77
Nagoya	47.59	10.08	18.95	4.14	31.79	6.73	.....	.....	98.33	20.95

Municipal Budgets

The revenue and expenditure of the six premier cities are shown below (in unit of 1,000 yen):—

Table 5. Revenue in Ordinary Account

(Budget for 1937; ¥1,000)

	Tokyo	Osaka	Kyoto	Kobe	Yokohama	Nagoya
Revenue from taxes	60,074	21,978	5,719	10,753	5,974	7,693
Fees & charges	8,134				1,192	.....
Subsidies	8,161				1,435	.....
Loans	34,596	45,526	8,811	15,341	4,482	.....
Amount brought forward	.....				.....	.....
Receipts from sale of property	924				1,579	.....
Total incl. others	125,701	67,505	14,530	26,094	17,106	19,435

Table 6. Expenditure in Ordinary Account

(Budget for 1937; ¥1,000)

	Tokyo	Osaka	Kyoto	Kobe	Yokohama	Nagoya
Education	33,683	26,670	5,832	6,225	3,617	.....
Public works	8,177	7,252	2,530	4,932	2,134	.....
Sanitation	15,582	6,681	1,293	1,684	643	.....
Industry	387	1,372	469	89	247	.....
Social works	25,276	3,647	660	559	467	.....
Office	13,198	3,698	1,902	1,992	1,112	.....
Total incl. others	125,701	67,505	14,531	26,094	17,106	19,435

Municipal Liabilities

The amount of outstanding liability as existing on April 1, 1936, is as follows (in unit of yen):—

Table 7. Municipal Liabilities (1936)

(In Yen)

	Total	Per household	Per capita		Total	Per household	Per capita
Tokyo	817,648,000	134	660	Kobe	107,273,938	118	542
Osaka	485,779,000	162	742	Yokohama	170,386,000	242	1,147
Kyoto	56,866,000	53	253	Nagoya	107,327,000	87	464

SOCIAL WORKS

With the growing importance of social problems in general, the municipal authorities are attending to various social and relief works, though financial considerations are hampering their activities in this direction.

Among the various social undertakings calculated to give relief to the increasing pressure on living, there are two that deserve mention, as they have been taken up in recent years by various municipal authorities especially in the six premier cities. These are (1) the "public markets" and (2) the "common dining halls."

The Public Market.—The first markets of the kind was established in Osaka in 1918, soon after the "Rice Riots" which broke out in many parts of the country. At first rice was the sole article offered for sale, but subsequently the list has been very much enlarged and at present it covers most articles of food and other commodities of daily necessity. Exempt from tax, supplied direct by producers and enjoying other advantage that tend to reduce the cost, articles on sale at the public markets are reputed cheaper though considered a trifle poorer in quality than those brought by errand boys of retail-merchants to their regular customers. Those who patronize the public markets are people of middle and lower classes, and it is believed that the habit of buying direct at shops will grow, our people now being so dependent on their regular retailers as to leave them free to such articles. The example set by Osaka has spread to other cities, and at the end of 1936 there were in Tokyo as many as 45 such markets, in Osaka 53, in Kobe 12, in Kyoto 13 (end of 1935), in Nagoya 14, in Yokohama 6 and a number in other cities. The public markets were at first temporary barrack sheds, but many have since been rebuilt in permanent style. At first no fee was charged on retailers using the stalls at a public market, but at present in most places the stall-keepers are charged a certain rate. Rates in Tokyo range from ¥10 to ¥2 per tsubo per month according to the location.

The Common Dining Halls.—Interesting to note the first common dining hall in Japan, that in Tokyo, owes its existence to a philanthropist, who with the idea of supplying cheap and wholesome food to poorer people started in 1918 the "Domestic dining hall" on the modest scale of serving 60 sitters at a time. Then appeared similar establishments in Osaka, Nagoya and other cities, most of them run by religious and other charity bodies, and a few as municipal undertakings. At first the charges were 8 sen for breakfast and 10 sen for either dinner or supper, but the tariff has been somewhat advanced lately owing to a rise of prices. At a model municipal hall in Tokyo 8 sen for breakfast and 10 sen for either dinner or supper is a rule, while in a corresponding establishment in Osaka the tariff is uniform, 12 sen.

THE RECONSTRUCTION OF TOKYO AND YOKOHAMA

Thanks to the indefatigable efforts made by both the authorities and citizens, this stupendous work of reconstructing the devastated area of Tokyo and Yokohama, covering no less than 8,783.333 acres and expending a sum of about 750 million yen, was thoroughly completed in March, 1930, when the Reconstruction Bureau of the Home Office which was created soon after the occurrence of the great disaster of 1923 to supervise the execution of the gigantic task was discontinued, some items of minor importance, that unfinished, being taken over by the reconstruction of the respective municipalities. In Tokyo, the memorable accomplishment of the great work was celebrated with appropriate ceremonies on March 26, 1930. A brief survey of some of the important items of the complicated reconstruction planning and its progress follows.

Street Adjustment

The main idea underlying this principal work of city planning in Tokyo was to increase the percentage of roads to the total area of the urban districts from only 12% before the disaster to 25%, nearly equal to the figures in Paris and Berlin. To enter into some details, the present street system consists of two principal main thoroughfares traversing the city, one running from south to north with a breadth of 33 to 44 metres and the other east to west with the breadth of 33 to 36 metres, these being crossed by 52 lines of secondary main thoroughfares, each with a breadth of 22 metres or over, and 112 lines of auxiliary roads, each 11 to 22 metres wide. The spaces thus divided are again crossed by a number of small streets each 6 to 11 metres wide. In the uptown sections outside the burnt area and the suburban districts, the cob-web pattern consisting of mixed radiating and circular lines has been adopted for remodelling the street lines according to the main road net plan mapped out in the summer of 1927. By the end of 1929 the whole of the 52 secondary main thoroughfares was com-

pleted and the auxiliary roads nearly completed in the summer of 1930.

Adjustment of Building Lots

What complicated the work of Reconstruction is that a new comprehensive city planning according to the approved principle of modern times is to be carried out without affecting the private interest of the citizens concerned. The long established system of purchasing or expropriating land necessary for the improvement of roads or canals or the erection of public schools, parks, etc., does not answer the purpose for the present reconstruction work which requires a vast area of land, approximately 700,000 tsubo (571.82 acres) being required for effecting the projected city planning. If steps were taken to purchase or expropriate such extensive area of lots and drive out the dwellers from the land thus purchased or expropriated some 200,000 citizens would be rendered homeless. For carrying out the dual work the burnt area was cut up into 65 re-plotting divisions, and in each a re-plotting committee of 16 to 25 members was elected by the landowners and tenants of the division with full authority to decide upon all matters regarding the auxiliary streets, the cutting up of blocks within its division into lots and distributing the new lots among the old owners. All the land taken for streets, parks and other public purposes in excess of 10 per cent. was paid for by the city or by the State according to the location and uses of the land condemned.

Of the 65 re-plotting divisions or sections into which the burnt area had been divided, the work in 15 divisions was taken up by the State as State undertaking and that in the remaining 50 divisions by the Municipality as municipal undertaking. The re-plotting in the entire area was completed by the end of 1929. The number of buildings removed in the re-plotting zone aggreated 203,461, and the removal of these buildings was completed early in 1930.

Bridges

Most of the wooden bridges in Tokyo and Yokohama having been destroyed or badly damaged by the 1923 disaster over 500 bridges (over 400 in Tokyo and about 100 in Yokohama) in important places were reconstructed quake-proof and fire-proof. Among the newly built bridges in the city of Tokyo, special attention is drawn to the six larger bridges on the Sumida River which were completed by February, 1928 at the cost of ¥13,000,000.

Parks

The reconstruction programme for Tokyo provided for the establishment of 3 large parks with an aggregate area of over 67,000 tsubo and 51 smaller parks with a total area of over 47,000 tsubo, the aggregate area thus coming to over 114,000 tsubo. The per capita area of parks has thus been increased from 37/100 tsubo before the disaster to 54/100.

The Fire Zones

The Zones specified in 1922 for the two cities of Tokyo and Yokohama had to undergo more or less modification in the following year. One of the most important legislations newly adopted since then as regards the fire zones was the enactment in 1924 of the Building Aid Regulation. The Treasury set apart in the Reconstruction Budget a sum of ¥20,000,000 with the object of allowing aid at the rate of ¥20-50 per tsubo to those who construct approved permanent buildings in the fire zones. This aid spread over five years ending 1928-29. The fund has so far been left practically untouched, only about 13% being disbursed. The explanation is that the period of overhauling the temporary buildings in the fire zones has been prolonged till 1938 and also chiefly because, as is generally thought, the calamity has too seriously crippled the citizens financially to enable them to start the construction of costly fire-proof houses. It should be remembered that the building area in the zone of Tokyo and Yokohama as converted to one-storey level area totals 1,352,000 tsubo (1,104.333 acres), but the permanent buildings sanctioned covered only 190,844 tsubo in both cities. In other words, the permanent buildings sanctioned did not exceed 14% of the total building area.

THE SIX PREMIER CITIES

TOKYO

Greater Tokyo

By absorbing the outlying districts comprising five towns and eighty-two villages Greater Tokyo was realized on October 1, 1932, the city being divided into thirty-five sections, and rising to the position of the largest city of Japan. In respect of area, the Greater Tokyo ranks fifth among the large cities of the world, covering an area of 577.9 as in 1936 square kilometres, and in respect of population Greater Tokyo with 6,086 inhabitants leads all large cities of the world, being second only to New York. Below is given statistics of the area and population of old Tokyo and new Tokyo:—

Table 8.- **New Tokyo Compared With Old Tokyo**

	Area (Sq. kms.)	No. of households	Population
Old Tokyo (1930).....	83.6	414,710	2,070,913
New Tokyo (1936) ...	577.9	1,236,500	6,085,800

Finance of Greater Tokyo

The finance of the city is divided into two kinds, namely, ordinary and special finances. The ordinary finance covers general revenue and expenditure such as office maintenance, education, public works, sanitation, maintenance of parks, cemeteries, etc., social works, city planning and reconstruction or rehabitation undertakings, while other items are grouped under the head of special finance. Principal items of the special finance are civic electric railways, electric power supply, motor-houses, harbour works and water-works, etc.

The amount of net expenditure of both ordinary and special finances for 1937-38 recorded an increase of more than a hundred times compared with that of 1898 (¥3,355,3450) when Tokyo became an independent self-governing city. The munipical revenue principally consists of fees and charges, municipal loans, city taxes, government subsidy, payment on transfer, property account, treasury payment, compensation, prefectural subsidy, special assessment, proceeds of sale of property, indemnity, contribution, etc.

Below are given the statistics of the revenue and expenditure of Tokyo for the past five years (the figures covering both general and special accounts):—

Table 9. **Revenue and Expenditure of Tokyo**

(¥)

Year	Revenue	Expenditure	Per capita Revenue	Per capita Expenditure
1932-33.....	152,850,000	164,345,000	28.78	30.94
1933-34.....	165,727,000	173,489,000	30.21	31.62
1934-35.....	191,205,000	495,829,000	37.28	34.58
1935-36.....	96,193,000	179,774,000	33.39	30.60
1936-37.....	224,760,000	225,873,000	36.93	37.11
1937-38.....	239,728,000	238,455,000	39.39	39.18

N.B.1—The figures for 1936-37 & 1937-38—are budgets, others being settled accounts.

The details of net revenue and expenditure for 1936-37 are as follows (in unit of ¥1,000):—

Table 10. **Details of Actual Revenue and Expenditure**

(Budget for 1937-38; ¥1,000)

	Revenue	Expenditure
City (General).....	124,658	97,942
Waterworks	45,289	31,480
Sinking fund for public loans ...	41	63,330
Mutual relief against fires	317	463
City poor-house	221	599
Electric Tramway	29,394	13,512
Electric supply.....	14,151	9,015
Motor bus service.....	8,332	7,549
Total incl. others	239,728	238,455

Sewage System.—The comprehensive sewage system first adopted in 1908 and revised in 1924 is based on this datum; population to be served 3,000,000 in old Tokyo; one half of the daily wasted matter to be discharged in 8 hours, supposing the per capita diem waste to be 0.167 sq. metres; maximum rainfall per hour estimated at 60 mm. The whole city is subdivided into three drainage sections in old districts and into four sections in new districts and the sewer-conduits measure 1,721,000 metres in old districts and 112,570 metres in new districts. The area to be drained totals 6,992 hectares in old districts and 14,219 hectares in new districts. Started in 1911 the work was partially completed before the seismic disaster of September 1923, which has very much dislocated the prescribed arrangement. At present the work is included partly in the Government rehabilitation and partly in the municipal improvement programme. The former has set apart ¥43,580,000 for the purpose, the work extending from the 1923 fiscal year to 1928. For completing the remaining sewage work and repairing the earthquake damage something like ¥76,000,000 was necessary, a sum which the city could ill afford to meet. The municipal authorities, therefore, decided to change it to the 1919-36 period work. Meanwhile for 20 places mostly situated in the saved area of the city, which from their natural formation have frequently been flooded on occasions of heavy rain, the authorities began improvement work at the estimate of ¥4,580,000, spread over from 1925 to 1929. With the commencement of the municipal sewage work the suburban towns have, at the instance of the city, also started their own sewage improvement.

The sewage works already completed and under construction as classified according to kind of works are shown below, with the amount of outlay and the period:—

Table 11. Sewage Works Already Completed

(1936)

	Outlay: Estimate (Yen)	Outlay: Net (Yen)	Measures completed (meters)	Time
Old city:				
1st-term work	15,000,000	14,618,123	105,030	1911-1918
1st-term urgent work	2,520,000	2,497,989	14,832	1916-1920
2nd-term work	20,000,000	4,311,293	24,052	1920-1923
Construction work	40,211,321	39,603,453	283,080	1923-1931
Sewer-conduits removal work	2,454,911	2,310,518	(102,577)	1923-1931
Temporary repair work	1,600,000	948,402	30,407	1926-1929
Unemployment relief work	3,7490,00	3 397,000	44,279	1927-1930
City planning work (urgent)	3,000,000	2,674,000	39,615	1930-1782
2nd continuing city planning work(urgent)	8,250,000	7,561,000	120,635	1930-1933
Continuing city planning work (urgent)	5,740,000	5,600,000	33,576	1925-1934
New city:				
Already completed before amalgamation	6,390,000	6,390,000	200,241	1 21-1932
Senju-cho sewage work (extraordinary)	27,000	19,000	703	1932

Table 12. Sewage Work Under Construction

	Outlay: Estimate (Yen)	Outlay: Net (Yen)	Measures completed (meters)	Time
Continuing city planning construction work	38,500,000	9,139,000	175,691	1932-1942
Continuing suburbs sewage improvement work	14,910,000	7,676,000	174,827	1932-1939

Road-making and Improvement.—The road-making and improvement programme of the prefecture and the city of Tokyo has undergone radical change since the earthquake disaster of 1923. There were, however, several items for which the design remained unaltered, except for the extension of the period of completion, including one to construct around the city a "circular" 12-ken road extending 19 m. 26 ch. 6 yd., besides the urban terminal of a little under 3 m. The whole is estimated to demand ¥25,000,000 approximately. The other is called the "radical" road, comprising the four national highways existing from olden time. The total length is 19 m. 16 ch. 5 yd., besides about half a mile terminal in the city. The effective width will be 48 to 72 feet and the expense is estimated at ¥18,750,000. The two road-makings were originally designed for completion in nine years beginning 1921, but the period has been extended five years more.

Pavement Work.—The pavement work was started by the city in the 1921 fiscal year as a six-year programme for principal thoroughfares of 36 feet or over in width, but it was later transferred to the control of the Reconstruction Bureau for the most part. At the same time the city took up on its own account the paving of part of the saved area as a four-year work for completion in the spring of 1926. The area to be treated totals 348,000 tsubo with the cost estimated coming up to ¥3 millions. The area of pavement work completed by the spring of 1926, was, however, only about 190,000 tsubo or 239,000 metres in length, the average cost involved being ¥45 per tsubo. The materials used are wood-blocks, asphalt, concrete and cut stones. Some parts are to be macadamized.

The length and area of roads at the end of 1935 are shown below including those in new districts:—

Table 13. Length and Area of Road By Width at the end of 1935

Width	Length (Metres)	Area (Sq. m.)
Over 72 metres	1,540	121,498
,, 43 ,,	11,028	544,988
,, 36 ,,	18,370	691,116
,, 27 ,,	75,921	2,374,114
,, 21 ,,	178,184	4,134,177
,, 18 ,,	41,682	767,068
,, 14 ,,	147,534	2,316,079
,, 10 ,,	330,268	3,724,691
,, 7 ,,	805,725	6,489,182
,, 5.5 ,,	1,098,502	6,683,680
,, 4.5 ,,	963,016	4,924,176
,, 2.7 ,,	3,212,983	10,691,929
Below 2.7 ,,	967,078	1,820,335
Total	7,851,533	45,283,009

Table 14. Area of Pavement

(March, 1936)

	Total area of road (Sq. meters)	Area of pavement (Sq. m.)
Old districts	15,035,324	13,907,665
New districts	32,524,892	10,998,045
Total	47,560,216	24,905,710

Bridges.—The bridges now number more than they were before the earthquake disaster, as those burnt have been either reconstructed or repaired while several have been newly constructed. The River Sumida is now spanned by ten large bridges of which four are new. Many more were constructed in other parts of the city. Taught by the tragic experience of the 1923 disaster they have been constructed quake-proof and fire-proof. At the end of December 1935 the bridges numbered 4,701, the total length extending 42,702 metres and the area amounting to 401,886 square metres.

Waterworks.—The water supply arrangements in Tokyo date back more than 350 years to the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate, when the primitive mode of conducting water by wooden pipes was adopted. This device was continued well into the Meiji era. In 1892-98 the work of renovation was carried out at an estimated outlay of ¥9,189,000 met by means of foreign loans. The work was based on the plan of providing for 1,500,000 people at the rate of 4 cubic feet per head. To meet the demand of the fast growing population a further expansion was decided upon in 1912 at an outlay of ¥20,720,000 on a 7-year programme, further to be increased in 1920 to ¥47,600,000 in anticipation of the probable rise of prices by 1928. The seismic disaster of 1923 retarded the expansion work intended to supply 17,280,000 cubic feet a day on an average for 3,000,000 people. In 1924, the construction of part of the second period work requiring speedy execution was started with an outlay of ¥4,700,00 as a work spread over 3 years, and in 1926 the construction of two new additional reservoirs for completion by 1933 at an estimated cost of ¥22,360,000 was taken up. At the end of March, 1937 the area supplied totalled 554 square kilometres, houses supplied 830,153 and people supplied 4,762,632. The condition of water supply in the last few years is as follows:—

Table 15. Total Length of Service Pipes

(Meters)

Year	Main	Branch	Total
1931	160,622	1,594,751	1,755,374
1932	229,552	3,348,313	3,577,864
1933	235,975	3,414,462	3,650,438
1934	285,343	4,007,058	4,292,401
1935	289,573	4,190,978	4,480,551

Table 16. Volume of Water Supplied

(1,000 cubic meters)

Year	Total	Average par day	Per day per capita
1931	153,634	420	— —
1932	186,911	512	——
1933	241,816	663	0.174
1934	258,682	709	0.175
1935	306,932	839	0.178

Electric Tramways.—The municipalization of street tramways was realized in 1911. The purchase of the three tramways was effected at the cost of ¥63,915,000. At the end of March, 1936 there were 3,600 conductors and 2,100 drivers. The results of the municipal tramways in recent years are tabulated below:—

Table 17. Result of Municipal Tramways

Year	Working mileage (km.)	No. of cars: 4-wheels	No. of cars: Bogies	No. of cars: Total	No. of passenger carried (¥1,000)	Receipts (¥1,000)	Index: Passenger	Index: Receipts
1930-31	345,318	297	1,237	1,594	369,738	23,799	77	75
1931-32	345,283	294	1,181	1,475	335,439	21,562	70	68
1932-33	345,210	227	1,112	1,339	300,782	19,198	63	60
1933-34	346,779	227	1,131	1,358	295,686	18,853	61	59
1934-35	346,647	198	1,129	1,327	287,461	18,025	60	57
1935-36	346,539	190	1,127	1,317	294,189	18,475	61	57

Motor Bus Service.—As an auxiliary traffic organ, the Municipality runs the auto bus service in various parts or sections of the city with a number of cars amounting to 935 and the total extension of the lines under operation being 168.503 kilometres at the end of March, 1936. In contrast to the decline shown in the tramway business, the municipal authorities have met with marked success in their bus service. The results of the motor service in recent years are shown below:—

Table 18. Results of Motor Service

Year	Working mileage (kms)	No. of Cars: Total	No. of Cars: Per day	Average daily car (kilometer)	No. of Passengers: Total (1,000)	No. of Passengers: Per day	Receipts: Total (¥1,000)	Receipts: Per day (Yen)
1930-31	122,874	652	490	58,190	39,621	141,005	3,476	9,417
1931-32	135,494	658	502	59,803	39,081	106,779	3,277	8,963
1932-33	144,558	662	508	59,498	41,233	112,968	3,096	8,481
1933-34	148,564	809	571	70,963	48,589	133,116	3,527	9,662
1934-35	158,278	935	694	93,461	71,998	197,256	4,953	13,569
1935-36	160,503	936	784	106,629	79,192	216,372	5,555	15,179

Subways.—The first subway line in Japan extending 1.27 miles between Asakusa and Ueno was constructed by the Tokyo Subway Co., and opened to traffic in December, 1927. As at the end of March, 1936 the total length of the lines operated was 8.0 kilometres. The number of

passengers for 1935-36 was 28,956,000 approximately (daily average being 79,,000). The terminals of the subway line in 1937 were Asakusa and Shimbashi. An extension to Shibuya from Shimbashi is under construction.

Electric Lighting.—The Municipality also operates the electric lighting business which it took over from the Tokyo Street Tramway Co., when the electric tramways were municipalized. The intrusion of the Municipality in this field has proved an occasion for breaking down the monopoly so far held by the private electric companies, and in lowering the tariff. At the end of March, 1936 the total lamps installed number 1,443,624, electric power supplied amounting to 62,809 k.w.

Municipal Assets and Liabilities

At the end of October, 1936 the total assets of the Tokyo municipality amounted to ¥904,-174,330. It showed an increase of ¥22,990,599 over the like date of the previous year. The details are as follows:—

Table 19. Municipal Assets as at the End of Oct., 1936
(In 1,000 yen)

Land	379,346
Buildings	56,111
Structures	235,066
Electric tramways	49,903
Electric wires and routes	50,600
Vehicles	37,270
Electric machine and tools	20,970
Ships	4,748
Securities	662
Deposits and cash	11,867
Loans	39,600
Total including others	904,174

The outstanding issue of the municipal loans as at the end of December, 1936 stood at ¥817,-648,801. It is 417 times the corresponding figure as at the end of 1891 or soon after the municipalization of the city. This amount of loans works out at ¥134.00 per capita.

OSAKA

By the absorption of the outlying district in 1926 the industrial city of Osaka outstripped Tokyo (old Tokyo before its expansion in Oct., 1932) in area and population, the ambitious programme for realizing the Greater Osaka plan having been effected by 1928 with a fund of ¥200 millions. To mention the principal features of improvement, the main thoroughfares have been widened; all wooden bridges replaced by new structures of fire and earthquake-proof materials, the plan also providing for the construction or extension of subways, elevated street car lines, and surface electric railways. A central city market with a site of about 30 acres was estabished in 1928, and water supply capacity is to be increased to 128,000,000 gallons a day from 84,000,000. With the completion of the consolidation of the two adjacent countries (Higashinari and Nishinari) with the city, it must be added, the industrial capacity has been augumented by about 150 per cent., the value of industrial production for 1935 amounting to ¥1,503,339,937.

Finance

The municipal account for 1933-34 as settled on May 31, 1935 amounted to ¥173,867,551, in net revenue and ¥152,538,919 in expenditure. Contrasted with 1898 when Osaka became an autonomic city, revenue shows a fifty-five-fold increase and expenditure a forty-nine-fold increase. Net revenue and expenditure specified by accounts follow:—

Table 20. Revenue and Expenditure of 1935
(Settled Account)

	Net Revenue		Net Expenditure	
	Amount (¥1,000)	%	Amount (¥1,000)	%
Total	173,868	100.00	152,539	100.00
General account	39,023	22.00	35,376	23.00
Special account	134,845	78.00	117,163	77.00
Municipal undertakings	64,072	37.00	61,425	40.00
Others	70,773	41.00	55,738	37.00

To make a survey of the details of Net Revenue, commission and charges (charges for electric light and power, for the use of waterworks, the central market and bays and harbours, and car and bus fares) account for ¥66,-332,579 (38.2%), municipal loans for ¥57,071,-900 (32.8%), municipal taxes for ¥24,385,326 (14.0%), appropriations from the exchequer, state subsidies, etc., for ¥4,249,635 (2.4%), and "others" for ¥21,828,111 (12.6%). It will thus be seen that receipts from taxation are 14.0% as against 86.0% claimed by other resources.

As for Net Expenditure, municipal loans account for ¥37,216,510 (24.4%), the electric industry for ¥46,409,313 (30.4%), engineering works for ¥22,571,775 (14.8%), education for ¥15,778,186 (10.3%), waterworks for 15,016,-161 (9.9%), health preservation for ¥4,148,-754 (27%), office expense for ¥3,031,188 (2.0%), social affairs for ¥2,031,055 (1.7%), industries for ¥878,431 (0.6%) and "others" for ¥4,857,545 (3.2%).

The total net revenue and expenditure for the last few years are as follows:—

Table 21. Revenue and Expenditure of Osaka Municipality

Year	Total Revenue (¥1,000)	Total Expenditure (¥1,000)	Of which General Account Revenue (¥1,000)	Of which General Account Expenditure (¥1,000)	Expenditure per capita (yen)
1930-31	134,584	133,473	31,857	29,723	54.40
1931-32	125,737	124,989	29,818	26,685	49.61
1932-33	154,394	155,860	31,081	29,795	60.26
1933-34	140,757	141,693	32,635	31,242	53.39
1934-35	155,220	168,580	—	39,222	61.92
1935-36	173,868	152,539	39,023	35,376	51.02

Principal Municipal Undertakings

1. **Waterworks.**—The genesis of the Osaka waterworks dates back to 1895 when the River Yodo that runs through the city was utilized for supplying water to 610,000 persons. This was next extended so as to provide for 800,000 and further for supplying a million more. The last work was the 4th waterwork programme commenced in 1925 and finished in February 1930, at the cost of ¥7,710,000. By the completion of this work the supplying capacity per day increased to 230 million koku, the total outlay amounting to over ¥930,000 including another construction work of water pumps and faucets commenced in 1929 to be completed by 1931. The total area supplied reached upward of 83,000 tsubo and the number of persons provided totalled 300,000. In 1933 the municipal authorities undertook the fifth expansion work in view of the fast increasing demand in recent years, as a 5-year programme with an outlay amounting to ¥17,000,000 to provide for 3,300,-000 presons and to increase the daily supply capacity to 862,000 cubic metres.

At the end of 1935-36 the number of houses supplied totalled 536,404 and the total volume of water supplied in the fiscal year amounted to 129,150,172 cubic metres, the average daily volume of water supplied for the total population in Osaka city amounting to 353,836 cubic metres.

Table 22. Statistics of Water Works

Year	*No. of houses supplied	Volume of water supplied (1,000 cubic meters)	Average daily volume of water supplied (1,000 cubic meters)	Volume of water supplied per household (cubic meters)
1929-30	454,345	96,719	262	211
1930-31	463,663	100,809	276	217
1931-32	478,093	105,009	287	222
1932-33	471,049	107,938	296	229
1933-34	500,435	116,688	320	233
1934-35	522,781	122,910	337	235
1935-36	536,404	129,150	354	241

N.B.:—* At the end of December.

2. **Electric Tramways.**—From the very outset the Street Electric Tramway within the city limits was a municipal undertaking, and at the end of December, 1936, 106.5 kilometres were open to traffic and the number of passenger cars totalled 765. Data on traffic service for the last few years are as follows:—

Table 23. Results of Tramways

Year	Mileage (kms.)	No. of passengers carried (1,000)	Receipts (¥1,000)
1930	102.81	285,568	16,086
1931	103.93	257,747	14,170
1932	103.93	232,804	13,135
1933	103.93	238,432	13,456
1934	103.93	250,078	14,064
1935	104.00	260,705	14,623
1936	106.50	263,031	14,729

Since January, 1930 the Municipality has been constructing a high speed railway partly for the purpose of relieving unemployment. On May 20, 1933 a section of the railway was opened to traffic.

The working length of the railway at the end of December, 1936 was 4.1 kilometres and the number of cars in operation 2.3. The number of passengers for the year under review was 17,624,237 and receipts from fares ¥480,000.

The electric tramway service in the suburban districts is maintained by over nine lines conducted by seven private concerns, all connecting with the city lines at important points. The extension of the lines under operation totalled 839.4 kilometres as at the end of March, 1936. The results of those private lines are returned as follows:—

Table 24. Results of Private Lines
(End of Mar., 1936)

	Mileage (kms.)	*Passengers (1,000) Total	Per day
Nankai.....	150.7	107,031	292
Hanshin	72.9	72,364	198
Hankyu	74.7	58,957	161
Keihan.....	136.4	61,321	168
Osaka Electric ...	137.9	46,622	127
Sangu Express ...	136.1	4,819	13,167
Osaka Railway ...	54.1	16,504	45,094
Hanwa.....	62.8	17,008	46,471
Hankai.....	13.8	3,070	8,389
Total.....	839.4	387,696	1,059,280

*—At the end of Dec., 1935.

As an auxiliary transport organ in the city the Municipality is running the auto service in different sections, the total length of lines being 175.5 kilometres (at the end of 1936) and the service being maintained with 839 cars. The results of the service for the past few years are shown below:—

Table 25. Results of Bus Service

Year	Working mileage (kms)	No. of passengers carried (1,000)	Receipts (¥1,000)	No. of passengers per day (1,000)
1931.....	143.3	34,559	2,256	94
1932.....	146.1	44,256	2,684	121
1933.....	152.2	48,631	2,890	133
1934.....	164.4	56,456	3,368	155
1935.....	173.4	68,288	4,018	187
1936.....	175.5	81,081	4,722	222

In 1924 the Osaka Bus Service was inaugurated. As at the end of November, 1936 the working lines were 173 kilometres, the number of vehicles in operation 659. Earnings for the year ending November 30, 1936 totalled ¥5,721,000.

3. Harbour Works.—The harbour works first started in 1897 on an 8-year programme at the estimated cost of ¥22,570,400, of which ¥4,680,000 and a portion of land valued at ¥1,900,000 came from the State treasury was followed by an extension work involving ¥2,200,000 on a 10 year programme in 1906. The whole work was completed in April 1929 after a period extending 33 years from the start, the total cost involved being ¥45 millions. The harbour covering 1,980,000 tsubo waterfront embraced by two breakwaters (54 cho and 28 cho in length respectively) and a reclamation covering 1,300,000 tsubo is capable of taking in 41 steamers of 5,000 tons capacity or 8 steamers of 10,000 ton capacity at one time. As the port suddenly gained in importance with regard to the import trade after the World War, further expansion work was planned and started in 1929 to be completed by 1936 at the cost of ¥9,160,000 of which ¥3,840,000 is supplied by the State treasury. In 1933 another reclamation work covering 920,000 square metres was started with a fund amounting to ¥5,220,000 on a ten-year programme, the land to be utilized for an aerodrome and a harbour. But, this programme had to be changed by a severe rain-storm which swept through Western Japan doing serious damage. An extensive programme was drawn up anew for the reconstruction and improvement of the harbour of not a temporary but permanent nature spreading over six years beginning 1934 and involving an expenditure of ¥23,800,000. The work is progressing steadily.

4. Sewage Works—Warned by the outbreak of virulent epidemics in 1886 and 1890 the city undertook the improvement of sewage work in 1894-99 as regards the old city. In 1911 a further improvement was planned on a 10-year programme at an estimated outlay of ¥4,500,000, one-third of which was supplied from the State treasury. The work was started in 1909 and completed. In September 1928 further improvement work was planned on a 10-year programme at an estimated cost of ¥17,500,000. Another improvement work is in course of construction to be finished by 1941 as a continuing work from 1931 with a fund amounting to ¥17,000,000.

KYOTO

Municipal Finance

Classified according to items the net revenue and expenditure of the city in the last few fiscal years are tabulated as follows:

Table 26. Revenue and Expenditure of Kyoto
(In Yen)

Year	General Account Revenue	General Account Expenditure	Special Account Revenue	Special Account Expenditure	Total Revenue	Total Expenditure
1931-32.....	9,150,208	12,592,105	31,397,730	27,452,065	40,547,938	40,444,170
1932-33.....	8,972,736	11,662,589	28,543,977	25,339,083	37,516,713	37,001,672
1933-34.....	14,804,000	12,021,000	40,490,000	34,057,000	55,296,000	46,078,000
1934-35	11,937,125	11,937,125	44,797,292	44,691,792	56,734,416	56,628,917
1935-36.....	15,433,000	15,433,000	46,861,000	46,861,000	62,295,000	62,295,000
1936-37.....	13,726,734	13,726,734	46,776,665	46,776,665	60,503,399	60,503,399
*1937-38	14 534,000	14,534,000	55,030,000	55,030,000	69,564,000	69 564,000

Note:—* Budget.

Municipal Undertakings

The three leading municipal undertakings, i.e. Canal and Water-power works, Waterworks, and Electric tramway, are briefly described below:—

1. Canal & Water-power Works.—The first Biwa Canal, completed in 1895 at the cost of ¥1,838,317 was designed for the conveyance of passengers and goods and also for the supply of waterpower, while the second canal, completed lately at the cost of ¥4,477,805 supplies water for drinking, fire brigade and for purposes of hydro-electricity, etc.

2. Waterworks.—The waterworks started in 1908 were completed in March 1912, at the cost of ¥3,000,000 of which ¥750,000 came from the State treasury. The water is drawn from Lake Biwa by means of the second canal and was designed as the first term work to provide for 500,000 people and the second work for 200,000 people. At the end of March 1936, the condition of water supply stood as follows:—

Length of water pipes 675,474 metres; No. of houses supplied 147,114 (67.4% of the total number of houses); No. of population supplied 707,228 (65.4% of the whole population); Volume of water supplied 42,917,300 cubic metres; Daily average of water supply 117,260 cubic metres; Receipts ¥1,727,732.84.

3. Electric Tramways.—The municipal street tramways service commenced in 1908 now extends for 66.39 kilometres.

The results of the municipal tramways in the last few years are as follows:—

Table 27. Results of Tramways

Year	Open mileage (kms.)	No. of cars	passengers carried	Passenger receipts
1930-31.....	56.1	417	102,978,000	¥5,914,000
1931-32.....	59.5	421	98,079,736	5,626,959
1932-33.....	59.5	421	93,323,574	5,400,500
1933-34.....	60.0	409	95,112,075	5,481,689
1934-35.....	62.7	410	97,275,703	5,601,309
1935-36.....	66.4	411	101,441,478	5,830,071
1936-37.....	67.2	...	104,524,000	5,980,000

At the end of 1935-36 the municipal auto bus service involved 140 cars and the operating length of lines of 43.062 kilometres. The number of passengers carried during 1935-36 was 10,675,571 and the fare receipts amounted to ¥931,711.16.

YOKOHAMA

In April, 1927, the Greater Yokohama plan was put into effect by absorbing the outlying districts comprising two towns of Tsurumi and Hodogaya and seven villages, all these embracing 22,922 households with 109,193 inhabitants. By the absorption the city has had its area trebled and its population increased over 100,000 as shown in the following table:—

Table 28. Yokohama Old and New

	Area (Sq. kms.)	No. of household	Population
Old Yokohama (1911)..	24,800	59,377	405,888
New Yokohama (1934)	52,129	82,229	515,081
Present Yokohama			
(1934).....	133,875	154.181	703,900
(1935).....	135,635	148,545	704,290
(1936).....	.....	.....	738,400

Tsurumi being a promising thriving industrial town lying between Yokohama and Tokyo, its annexation is judged as an important addition to the prosperity of the city, which being hilly in the rear and rather narrow in extent is unfit for industrial activity. Tsurumi and adjacent district, while facing the water front of the harbour have sufficient level space in the rear to enable the new Yokohama to grow as an industrial city. Following this absorption the new city was divided into the following five sections:—

Table 29. No. of Households & Population
(1935 Census)

	No. of household	Population	Pop. per household
Tsurumi-ku.....	23,357	113,963	4.88
Kanagawa-ku.....	32,024	155,908	4.87
Naka-ku	75,372	348,941	4.63
Hodogaya-ku	9,578	47,642	4.97
Isogo-ku	8,214	37,836	4.61
Total	148,545	704,290	4.74
Do for 1934	154,181	703,900	4.57

The annual revenue and expenditure, both general and special of Yokohama follow:—

Special account of the Municipality consists of 13 items including Reconstruction work, Waterworks, Electric business, Gas works, Hospital, former Concession account, Cemetery and Crematory, etc.

Table 30. Net Revenue and Expenditure of Yokohama
(In Yen)

	Net revenue General account	Net revenue Special account	Net revenue Total	Net expenditure General account	Net expenditure Special account	Net expenditure Total
1933-34.....	20,025,159	11,649,410	31,647,569	16,613,875	11,453,938	27,962,442
1934-35.....	13,281,806	10,687,715	24,239,521	15,200,874	10,554,896	25,755,770
1935-36.....	15,241,966	18,574,824	33,816,790	15,131,298	18,282,969	33,414,266
1936-37.....	14,986,733	13,981,694	28,878,427	15,360,696	14,290,647	29,651,333
1937-38.....	16,390,679	14,143,873	30,534,552	16,985,676	14,075,084	31,060,760

Note:—Figures for 1936-37 & 1937-38 are budgets, others being settled accounts.

Municipal Undertakings

Electric Tramways.—As at the end of March, 1936 the working mileage of the municipal tramways was 46.43 kilometres and the number of cars 200. The number of passengers carried during 1935-36 was 43,543,948, or the daily average of 119,298. Fare receipts were ¥2,789,-261 which works out at ¥7,642 a day. At the end of March, 1936 the municipal motor bus service was conducted with 112 cars, the total working mileage being 71.39 kilometres. The number of passengers for 1935-36 was 12,256,-708, or 336,622 a day on the average. Fare receipts were ¥776,668, the daily average being ¥21,729.

Gas Works.—The business was first started as a private enterprise but was municipalized in 1892. The estimated account for 1936-37 put revenue and expenditure at ¥1,870,169. The pipes laid measure about 731.75 miles and about 53,372 households have connection as at the end of 1935.

Waterworks.—The Yokohama waterworks enjoy the honour of being the pioneer in Japan and the estimated account of 1936-37 is ¥3,913,-765 both for revenue and expenditure.

Harbour Works.—The harbour works, originally started in 1900 and practically finished in 1917, sustained an extensive damage in the great earthquake disaster of 1923, and the 3rd period work which had been going on since 1921 had to be temporarily suspended. The repair of the work damaged in the disaster was mostly finished in February, 1925 and the remaining work completed in 1930 at the cost of ¥22,000,-000.

The Municipality obtained in June, 1928 an approval for a railway loan of ¥16,477,000 to be appropriated for the refilling-in work of the water fronts of 641,438 tsubo at Tsurumi and Koyasu in order to establish an industrial belt there on a grand scale. The work was started in 1933 by the Government and a part of the piers was opened in the spring of the same year.

KOBE

Finance

The annual finance of Kobe City has snown an expansion since 1934 as shown below (figre including special accounts):—

Table 31. Revenue and Expenditure of Kobe

	Revenue (¥1,000)	Expenditure (¥1,000)	Per capita (Yen)
1931-32	101,852	93,364	116.15
1932-33	87,553	79,830	110.84
1933-34	43,023	43,023	51.41
1934-35	52,967	52,967	58.06
1935-36	58,724	58,724	63.78
1936-37	60,817	60,817	64.82
1978-38	64,140	64,140	.....

N.B.—The figures for 1935-36, 1936-37 & 1937-38 are budgets, others being settled accounts.

The municipal liabilities outstanding at the end of March, 1935 totalled ¥107,777,000.

Municipal Undertakings

Water supply is the only undertaking Kobe conducts on its own resources, electric lighting, urban tramways, and gas works being all left to private enterprise while the reconstruction of the harbour is a State undertaking to which the city has been obliged to contribute about ¥3,000,000. Kobe is, however, free from foreign encumbrances, all the loans being domestic.

Waterworks.—The waterworks were at first designed in 1909 to supply 3 cubic feet per capita a day to 250,000 inhabitants, but the plan was later altered in scope and made to provide for 100,000 families, 25 cubic ft. a day. The work extended till 1923 and required the expenditure of ¥12,858,720 of which the State grants amounted to ¥3,403,000. In 1926 the Municipality carried out an expansion work of the water supply for the city by laying pipes in the eastern suburbs to draw more water from the Chikari pond behind Mt. Rokko. The work has already been finished.

Electric Tramways.—The tramway system within the city limits is operated by the Municipality. There are five private tramway companies attending to the suburban service, these being the Shinyu Railway (operating Kobe-Arima line), the Sanyo Electric Railway (operating Hyogo-Himeji line), the Hanshin Electric Railway (operating Kobe-Osaka line), the Hanshin Express Electric Railway (operating Kobe-Osaka line), and the Hanshin Kokudo Electric Railway (operating the line laid in 1927 along the national road between Osaka and Kobe and forming a parallel line to the State railway).

The number of passengers carried by the municipal tramways during 1935-36 was 88,824,009 and earnings ¥4,879,85.

Besides the electric tramway service, the Municipality runs an auto bus service, the number of cars in operation at the end of 1935-36 being 203 and the length of routes under operation 69.77 kilometres. The number of passengers carried during 1935-36 was 15,001,785 and earnings ¥1,301,698 or ¥3,566 a day on an average.

Harbour Works—The first term work extending over 16 years, started in 1907 at the total cost of ¥15,090,000 of which ¥3,660,000 was borne by the Municipality, was completed in March, 1922. The harbour now has four quays (1,592 ken long) with berth for 19 boats of 3 to 20 thousand tons (about 400,000 tons) at the same time. The second term work which was taken in hand in 1919 as a 15-year programme with a view to reclaming a water-front of about 91,600 tsubo at the estimated cost of ¥50,320,-000, is now nearing completion. Upon its completion the harbour will have capacity for 15 more steamers of large type.

NAGOYA

Finance.—Annual account of revenue and expenditure (settled account), both general and special, of Nagoya for the last few fiscal years is shown below (in unit of yen):—

Table 32. Revenue and Expenditure of Nagoya

(In Yen)

	General Account		Special Account	
Year	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure
1929-30	25,390,085	25,254,185	22,430,115	18,388,394
1930-31	31,477,355	30,424,634	21,253,898	19,115,791
1931-32	37,963,010	36,073,557	20,992,182	20,259,983
1932-33	45,421,218	43,807,068	12,596,672	12,082,007
1933-34	84,689,082	84,089,785	10,667,774	10,418,829
1934-35	37,887,000	33,132,000	13,456,000	12,259,000
1935-36	77,693,000	72,798,000	19,494,000	17,999,000
1936-37	25,639,000	25,639,000	41,094,000	41,094,000
1937-38	19,434,975	19,434,975	40,007,034	40,007,034

N.B.:—The figures for 1936-37 and 1937-38 are budget, others being settled accounts.

Municipal Undertakings.—Nagoya manages on its own resources its waterworks, sewage, street tramways, slaughter-houses, public cemetery, and the disposal of garbage, etc. The waterworks, first completed in 1918 at the cost of ¥5,279,882, provided for supplying 4 cubic ft. per day per capita to a million people, but owing to the fast increasing consumption and the expansion of the city limits in 1921 the 2nd-term extension work was started in 1923 with an outlay amounting to ¥346,048 and the 3rd-term extension work was taken in hand in 1926 to supply 3,88,000 cubic ft. a day to 970,000 more people at the cost of over ¥6,996,603 spread over 6 years. The work was partially finished in 1928 and supplied 47,021 cubic ft. a day to 83,837 households as at the end of September, 1929. In 1929 the 4th-term work extending to 1932 was started at a cost of ¥3,750,000. This being completed in March, 1933, another extension work was taken in hand in 1933 at a cost of ¥2,485,000 the total outlay from the beginning amounting to ¥18,857,533.

The results of waterworks in the last few years are shown in the following table:—

Table 33. Results of Water Works

Year	Volume of water filtered (cubic meters)	Volume of water supplied (cubic meters)	No. of houses supplied	Total No. of pipes incl. fire hoses	Receipts (yen)
1924.....	16,098,095	14,519 260	61,364	46,181	716,079
1925.....	16,439,648	15,106,604	66,177	51,156	1,090,218
1926	16,213,943	14,867,941	71,112	55,249	1,211,485
1927.....	17,254,526	15,940,678	77,343	59,265	1,234,495
1928.....	18,356,278	17,716,565	85,816	66,407	1,255,333
1929.....	21,081,780	19,206,493	98,947	75,898	1,315,745
1930.....	21,297,948	19,701,709	106,396	81,303	1,325,622
1931	25,548,244	25,191,755	122,324	94,913	1,508,878
1932	28,853,673	28,578,712	134,137	104,807	1,624,190
1933	34,433,159	34,333,350	135,436	112,051	1,697,905
1934.....	.....	38,986,890	145,165	.....	.....
1935.....	44,404,110	40,479,680	163,737	126,548	.....
1936.....	50,167,550	47,653,710	172,211	132,841	.....

Street Tramways.—The street tramways formerly conducted by a private concern was municipalized in 1922 at the cost of ¥11,927,364. The lines, which extended for 51.16 miles and numbered 15, increased to 22 lines in 1930-31. The 1st-term improvement work was started in 1922 as a 5-year programme with an outlay of about ¥10,040,000 of which ¥6,460,000 was raised by loans. In 1926 the 2nd-term improvement work was taken up as a 9-year work with a fund amounting to ¥24,200,000, which was completed in 1930, and in 1931 the authorities

undertook another extension work spreading over 3 years with a fund amounting to ¥2,960,000. The business results in recent years are shown below:—

Table 34. Results of Tramways

Year	Working kilometers	No. of cars	No. of passengers (1,000)	Train-kilometers (1,000)	Total receipts (¥1,000)	Total expenses (¥1,000)
1930-31	53.5306	328	67,917	15,580	3,715	2,217
1931-32	53.5306	328	62,516	15,379	3,411	2,155
1932-33	54.1750	328	60,399	15,693	3,286	2,101
1933-34	54.6070	328	62,755	16,237	3,370	2836
1934-35	55.0190	328	62,924	16,671	3,351	2,193
1935-36	55.0190	323	66,761	.....	3,543	.....

Motor-bus.—Started in February, 1930, the monthly receipts averaged ¥27,933.50, the number of cars was 40 in the initial year. Receipts for 1935-36 totalled ¥1,564,742.43 and the number of cars at the end of March, 1936 was 346. The results of the business in the last few years are shown below:—

Table 35. Results of Motor-bus Service

Year	Working mileage (kms.)	No. of cars	No. of passengers (1,000)	Train kilometers (1,000)	Total receipts (Yen)	Total expenses (¥1,000)
1930-31	54,612	124	10,358	6,495	613,540	506,801
1931-32	67,347	141	13,802	8,413	817,037	716,036
1932-33	69,847	147	16,266	9,266	963,708	770,453
1933-34	101,047	174	19,172	.....	1,097,201	933,636
1934-35	102,047	174	21,392	.....	1,212,188	909,098
1935-36	113,847	346	27,525	.....	1,564,742	.....

Harbour Works.—The first work was started in October, 1907. At present the harbour has a capacity for 10,000 tons of steamers. The 4th period expansion work is in course of construction at the cost of ¥2,120,000.

Annual liabilities stand as follows:—

Table 36. Liabilities of Nagoya

(In unit of yen)

Fiscal year	Total	Rate per household	Rate per capita	Fiscal year	Total	Rate per household	Rate per capita
1929-30	62,179,042.49	290.31	62.06	1933-34	83,602,977.00	398.67	84.48
1930-31	67,324,014.31	304.50	64.86	1934-35	92,411,423.00	428.62	90.80
1931-32	74,259,306.48	328.64	69.95	1935-36	99,696,359.29	453.25	91.98
1932-33	79,684,354.27	352.68	74.69	1936-37	107,327,155.08	464.22	96.87

FOREIGN TRADE OF YOKOHAMA AND OTHER PORT CITIES

The following tables will serve to show the general situation of the foreign trade of Yokohama, Osaka, Kobe and Nagoya in recent years:—

Table 37. Trade of Yokohama

(¥1,000)

(a)

Year	Exports	Imports	Total	Exports Raw Silk
1930	449,838	392,838	842,676	290,794
1931	370,662	305,637	678,299	250,694
1932	400,658	355,357	756,015	261,252
1933	500,888	456,354	957,242	274,691
1934	490,201	537,316	1,027,517	204,641
1935	626,016	616,588	1,242,604	283,771
1936	678,323	687,021	1,242,305	296,601

(b)

Continents	Exports (1936)	Imports (1936)
Asia	183,988	174,148
Europe	94,784	128,336
North America	340,110	278,803
South America	9,913	14,891
Central America	12,098	6,169
Africa	16,165	25,089
Others	21,320	59,626

Osaka.—Exports and imports classified according to countries, were returned as follows (figure being in ¥1,000):—

Table 38. Trade of Osaka (1936)

(¥1,000)

(a)

Year	Exports	Imports	Index Exports	Index Imports
1931	218,914	215,836	100	100
1932	334,212	267,987	153	124
1933	463,529	441,692	212	205
1934	586,180	523,290	268	242
1935	620,143	546,750	283	253
1936	672,233	593,264	307	275

(b)

Continents	Exports	Imports	% Exports	% Imports
Asia	550,890	185,677	82.0	31.3
Africa	53,185	88,277	7.9	6.5
Europe	25,517	55,937	3.8	9.4
North America	14,340	238,601	2.1	40.2
South America.	12,534	34,871	1.9	5.9
Oceania	10,390	34,060	1.5	5.7
Central America	5,378	5,840	0 8	1.0
Total	672,233	593,264	100.0	100.0

Table 39. Trade of Kobe

(¥1,000)

(a)

Year	Exports	Imports	Excess of Imports
1932	499,302	535,647	36,345
1933	650,539	641,121	9,418
1934	790,601	791,544	943
1935	810,899	821,641	10,742
1936	970,784	958,220	12,564*

Note:—* Excess of exports.

(b)

Country	Exports	Imports
U.S.A.	199,040	294,651
British India	97,882	252,205
Manchoukuo & Kwantung.	96,529	40,475
Australia	36,636	24,165
Dutch East Indies	42,836	37,449
Great Britain	53,498	22,508
China	33,487	42,241
Germany	16,983	45,164
Egypt	22,811	7,347
Philippines	28,238	13,896
Total incl. others	970,784	958,220

Table 40. Trade of Nagoya

(¥1,000)

	1933	1934	1935	1936
Exports	89,420	115,515	129,478	131,501
Imports	91,178	88,526	95,528	108,777
Total	180,598	204,041	225,006	240,278

References: Tables 1-7—Shisei Gaiyo (Outline of Municipal Administration), published by the Municipal Offices of each cities. Tables 8-19—Tokyo Shisei Gaiyo (Outline of Tokyo Municipal Administration), 1937. Tables 20-25 & 38—Osaka Shisei Gaiyo (Outline of Osaka Municipal Administration), 1937. Tables 28-30 & 37—Yokohama Tokei-sho (Statistical Annual of Yokohama), 1937. Tables 32-36 & 40—Nagoya Shisei Gaiyo (Outline of Nagoya Municipal Administration), 1937. Tables 31 & 39—Kobe Shisei Gaiyo (Outline of Kobe Municipal Administration), 1937.

CHAPTER XXXIX

SPORTS

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Virtually every known sport is played in Japan. The principal machinery that controls sports in the Empire consists of the Japan Amateur Athletic Association, to which matters concerning international competition are generally referred to, the Nippon Rikujo Kyogi Renmei (Japan Amateur Track and Field Federation), the Nippon Suijo Renmei (Japan Swimming Federation), and the Japan Student League of Track and Field Sports. Headquarters of these organizations are located in Tokyo.

SWIMMING

The Japanese have shown ability particnlarly in swimming, and in this sport the country has enjoyed world-wide fame. Among the recent aquatic achievements of Japan may be mentioned the championship she won at the 10th and 11th Olympic Games at Los Angeles in 1932 and at Berlin in 1936. There are swimming meets, well organized in every detail neccessary, for students from the grammer schools up to the universities. Thus is seen the reason why talent is discovered and then developed.

The aquatic callendar of Japan was brightened in 1937 by the visit of a squad of noted American swimmers who arrived at Yokohama in July. The American swimming team was composed of the following: Jack Medica, Adolf Kiefer, John Higgins, Elbert Root and Miss Katherine Rawls. All of the American stars performed well, but Miss Rawls shown out particularly in all of the events in which she participated. Among the outstanding performances in the events at Tokyo were world's record for the 200 metres breaststroke hung up by Hamuro; the 100 metre backstroke won by Adolf Kiefer, women's 100 metre backstroke won by Miss Rawls and the 400 metre free-style won by Makino who defeated Jack Medica by a touch.

Performances at recent aquatic meets are shown below:—

Table 1. All-Japan Men's Championships and Preliminaries of 1936 Olympic

May 29—31 at Meiji Shrine Pool

Event	Winner	Time
100 meters freestyle	Yusa	57.8 secs.
200 meters freestyle	Taguchi	2:148
400 meters freestyle	Udo	4:544
1,500 meters freestyle	"	19:45.6
100 meters backstroke	Kojima	1:102
200 meters breaststroke	Hamuro	2:43.4

Table 2. All-Japan Women's Championships and Preliminaries of 1936 Olympic

May 29—31 at Meiji Shrine Pool

100 meters freestyle	Miss Furuta	1:14.2 (New Japanese record)
400 meters freestyle	Miss Morioka	5:58.4
100 meters backstroke	Miss Izumi	1:29.8
200 meters breaststroke	Miss Mayehata	3:05.4

Table 3. Men's Japanese Swimming Records

50 meters freestyle	N. Takahashi	25.8 secs.	1934
100 meters freestyle	M. Yusa	57.2 secs.	1935
200 meters freestyle	M. Yusa	2:11.2	1935
300 meters freestyle	H. Negami	3:32.0	1935
400 meters freestyle	H. Negami	4:45.2	1936
500 meters freestyle	S. Makino	6:09.8	1936
800 meters freestyle	S. Makino	9:55.8	1935
1,000 meters freestyle	H. Negami	12:41.8	1934

1,500 meters freestyle	K. Kitamura	19:08.0	1933
50 meters backstroke	S. Kiyokawa	30.8	1933
100 meters backstroke	S. Kiyokawa	1:07.2	1936
200 meters backstroke	K. Yoshida	2:35.2	1935
100 meters breaststroke	R. Koike	1:13.0	1935
200 meters breaststroke	R. Koike	2:41.2	1935
400 meters breaststroke	Y. Tsuruta	6:24.4	1928
500 meters breaststroke	Y. Tsuruta	8:30.8	1926
300 meters medley relay	Yoshida, Koike, Yusa	3:20.8	1935
200 meters relay	Takemura, Shimura, Sakagami, Takahashi	1:46.0	1935
400 meters relay	Arai, Shimura, Hirono, Yusa	3:55.6	1935
800 meters relay	Yusa, Sugiura, Taguchi, Arai	8:51.5	1936

Table 4. Women's Japanese Swimming Records

50 meters freestyle	Miss H. Matsuzawa	31.6 secs.	1933
100 meters freestyle	Miss K. Kojima	1:11.0	1936
200 meters freestyle	Miss K. Kojima	2:45.0	1933
400 meters freestyle	Miss K. Kojima	5:43.1	1936
50 meters backstroke	Miss M. Yokota	39.4 secs.	1933
100 meters backstroke	Miss M. Yokota	1:25.1	1932
100 meters breaststroke	Miss H. Mayehata	1:25.7	1935
200 meters breaststroke	Miss H. Mayehata	3:01.9	1936
400 meters relay	Nihon (K. Kojima, M. Yokota, H. Morioka, Y. Arata)	6:06.7	1932
300 meters medley relay	Chubu (Kitajima, Mayehata, Kojima)	4:13.4	1935

BASEBALL

Baseball is without question the most popular sports in Japan, being a favorite game among all classes of boys, from primary school children to college students. It is played during the greater part of the year on every available park in the country. It was first introduced by the American professors who were engaged in 1876 for the newly created Sapporo Agricultural College (now Hokkaido University). In reviewing the history of the sport, we may note that in 1905, the Waseda University team made the first expedition to the United States and in 1907, Keio University invited the St. Louis team of Honolulu, Hawaii. Since then, Japanese teams and those of American universities have frequently exchanged visits. Baseball has progressed to such a state in this country that it can be safely said that the leading university teams of Japan today are stronger than most of the collegiate teams of the United States.

The creation of the Tokyo Six University Baseball League (Keio, Meiji, Rikkyo, Hosei, Tokyo Imperial and Waseda) in 1925 placed the sport on a firm basis. Games of this league are played during the spring and fall and comprise the greatest event of the nation's annual sports program. The Keio-Waseda series are synonymical of the world series of the American major leagues with crowds of more than 50,000 seeing each game.

The standing of the universities in the series is given below:—

Table 5. Baseball Standing

(Autumn, 1937)

	Won	Lost	Tied	Pct.
Meiji	8	1	1	.850
Waseda	5	4	1	.550
Rikkyo	5	4	1	.550
Hosei	5	4	1	.550
Keio	4	6	0	.400
Teidai	1	9	0	.100

GOLF

Golfing in Japan dates back to 1907 when the first All-Japan amateur championship was played and won by a Mr. Lawson. While the game has been played chiefly by the moneyed classes, there in no doubt that it is growing in popularity. Waseda, Meiji and Keio universities, for instance, have organized a Kanto Students Golf Federation and its first championship tournament was played in August, 1935. At present there are no fewer than 13 clubs in the country and some of the course compare favorably with the best in the world.

Winners in the All-Japan Open Chammpionship since 1927 are given below:—

Table 6. Open Championship

Year	Winner	Location
1927 (first)	Akaboshi	Hodogaya
1928 (second)	Asami	Komazawa
1929 (third)	Miyamoto	Ibaraki
1930 (fourth)	Miyamoto	Ibaraki

Year	Winners	Location
1931 (fifth)	Asami	Hodogaya
1932 (sixth)	Miyamoto	Ibaraki
1933 (seventh)	Nakamura	Fujisawa
1934 (Cancelled because of rain.)		
1935 (nineth)	Miyamoto	Ibaraki
1936 (tenth)	Miyamoto	Ibaraki

Table 7. Amateur Championship

1919	Kawasaki	Yokahama
1920	Malcolm	Kobe
1921	Tanaka	Tokyo
1922	Otani	Kobe
1923 (not held because of great Kanto earthquake)		
1924	Kawasaki	Tokyo
1925	Kawasaki	Tokyo
1926	Akaboshi	Hodogaya
1927	Nomura	Komazawa
1928	Akaboshi	Ibaraki
1929	Brown	Mutsumi
1930	Akaboshi	Komazawa
1931	Nitta	Musashino
1932	Narumiya	Fujisawa
1933	Nabeshima	Tokyo
1934	Nabeshima	Tokyo
1935	Nabeshima	Tokyo
1936	Sato	Hirono
1937	Sato	Hirono

Past title-holders of the All-Japan amteur crown since the year 1919 are as follows:—

Table 8. Professional Championship

Year	Holders
1931	Rokuzo Asami
1932	Larry Montes
1933	Larry Montes
1934	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1935	Toichiro Tada
1936	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1937	Imaichi Uekata

Past winners in the Inter-sectional Kanto-Kansai championship are as follows:—

Table 9. Inter-sectional Amateur Championship

Year	Men's Division	Women's Division
1927	Kanto	
1928	No return	
1929	Kanto	Kansai
1930	Kanto	Kanto
1931	Kanto	Kanto
1932	Kanto	Kanto
1933	Kanto	Kansai
1934	Kanto	Kanto
1935	Kansai	Kanto
1936	Kanto	Cancelled
1937	Kansai	Draw

Leading golf links in and about Tokyo, Yokohama and other places are as follows:—

Table 10. Leading Golf Links

Name	No. of holes	Length (yards)	Area (tsubo)	Location
Kawana Golf Link	18	7,084	...	Ito, Shizuoka Prefecture
Tokyo Golf Club (Asaka Course)	18	...	220,000	Tokyo
Kobe Golf Club	18	5,000	...	Mt. Rokko, near Kobe
Hodogaya Country Club	18	6,105	...	Hodogaya, Yokohama
Yokohama Golf Club	9	2,312	...	Negishi, Yokohama
Maiko Country Club	9	2,482	...	Tarumi, Hyogo Prefecture
Naruo Golf Club	9	3,300	...	Naruo, Hyogo Prefecture
Inagawa Golf Course	18	6,557	160,000	Inagawa, near Naruo, Hyogo Prefecture
Ibaraki Country Club	18	6,300	...	Ibaraki, Osaka Prefecture
Musashino Country Club	18	6,475	...	Kazama-mura, Chiba Prefecture
Nagoya Golf Club	18	6,063	...	Aichi Prefecture
Kasumigaseki Golf Club	18	6,600	...	Kasumigaseki, Saitama Prefecture
Fujisawa Golf Club	18	6,350	180,000	Fujisawa, Kanagawa Prefecture
Hirono Golf Club	18	—	250,000	Mino-gun, Hyogo Prefecture
Fujigaya Link	18	6,750	...	Fujigaya, Higashi Katsushika-gun, Chiba Prefecture
Takanodai Golf Club	18	6,720	200,000	Koushibashi-mura, Chiba-gun, Chiba Prefecture
Sagami Country Club	18	6,535	...	Yamato-mura, Koza-gun, Kanagawa Prefecture
Abiko Golf Club	18	6,374	...	Abiko, Chiba Prefecture

BOXING

For boxing, Japan is much indebted to Captain Warren J. Clear formerly of the American Embassy, who at the invitation of General Ugaki, then Minister of War, began instruction in 1924 of a class of 45 officers and non-commissioned officers in the art of self-defense. To the 9th Olympic Games at Amsterdam in 1928, Japan sent two champions, Usuda and Okamoto. The former had had experience and fought his way to the semi-finals in his division. In 1932, five men were sent to the Olympic Games in Los Angeles.

Through the organization of the All-Japan Professional Boxing Federation in the fall of 1935, professional boxing took a great spurt. For the first time, champions for the respective divisions were decided after an elimination tournament between November 5 and December 26, 1934, the finals being held at the Kokugikan wrestling arena of Tokyo.

Amateur boxing is an important sports event in the country's inter-collegiate circles and is gaining in poularity.

BASKETBALL

Basketball had a hard struggle to get a start in Japan, and it was not until the fall of 1921 that a tournament was run off in connection with the annual track and field championships, four teams responding, all from the Y.M.C.A.'s of Tokyo, Yokohama and Osaka. Eager to master this sport, the Japanese have been practising conscientiously and have developed players to such a stage that a representative all-star Japanese team is able today to provide interesting competition for the best clubs in the world.

The visit of an American team, comprised of collegiate stars in May, 1935, was a highlight in the basketball program during the past year. While the visitors won all 10 games played, they were impressed with the development shown by the Japanese in this sport.

In the 14th All-Japan championships played at the outer court of the Meiji Shrine grounds in January, 1935, the Tokyo Imperial University five won the title by defeating the All-Keijo team from Korea, 54 to 36 in the finals. The same Tokyo Imperial university quintet won the Kanto Students' championship for the year 1934 with 10 straight victories.

In the women's division, the Kisarazu team emerged champions by defeating the Kyoto Prefectural second school team by the score of 32 to 28.

TRACK AND FIELD ATHLETICS

Much headway in track and field athletics has been shown by Japan in recent years. In certain of the events, including the Hop, Step and Jump the Japanese athletes have hung up world records. The participation of Japan at the various Olympic games as well as the visits of foreign athletes to Japan have no doubt been beneficial factors in improving the performances of our participants.

In 1937 Japan was visited by a distinguished group of American track and field stars. Headed by Mr. Charles Hunter, of the San Francisco Olympic Club fifteen American athletes arrived in Japan in the middle of August and for several weeks toured Japan where they displayed their prowess in the respective events. The members of the team were: Jack Weierschauser, sprinter; Bob Young, 400 meters; Charles Fenske, 1,500 metres; Allan Tolmich, dashes and hurdles; Tom Moore, 400 meter hurdles; James Reynolds, shot put and discuss threw, Floyd Lochner, 5,000 meters; Bill Sefton and Earl Meadows, pole vault; Dave Albritton, high jump; William Reitz, javelin throw; Irving Folwartshny, hammer throw and shot put; Kermit King, broad jump; Richard Gansley, hop-step and jump.

Japanese track and field records of past years are given below:

Table 11. Japan Track and Field Records

(a) Men's Japanese Records

Event	Holder	Time Distance or Height		Year
100 meters dash	R. Yoshioka	10.3	Secs.	1935
200 meters dash	R. Yoshioka	21.2	Secs.	1933
400 meters run	I. Nakashima	49.0	Secs.	1932
800 meters run	K. Aoji	1:54.0		1934
110 meters hurdle	T. Murakami	14.6	Secs.	1934
200 meters hurdle	Y. Fukui	24.3	Secs.	1926
400 meters relay	(K. Sasaki, B. Suzuki, M. Taniguchi, R. Yoshioka)	41.4	Secs.	1936
800 meters relay	(T. Takano, B. Konoe, M. Taniguchi, B. Suzuki)	1:28.0		1934
Runing High jump	K. Tanaka	2.01	meters	1935
Runing Broad jump	C. Nambu	7.97	meters	1931
Hop, Step and jump	N. Tajima	16.00	meters	1936
Pole-jump	S. Oye	4.34	meters	1936
Shot Put	S. Takata	14.13	meters	1934
Discus throw	K. Kikumoto	44.76	meters	1935
Javelin throw	S. Nagano	68.59	meters	1934
Pentathlon	T. Yoshizumi	3,710	Points	1933

(b) Women's Japanese Records

50 meters dash	Miss K. Hitomi	6.4	Secs.	1927
100 meters dash	Miss K. Hitomi	12.2	Secs.	1928
200 meters dash	Miss K. Hitomi	24.7	Secs.	1929
400 meters run	Miss K. Idota	1:1.6	Secs.	1935
800 meters run	Miss K. Idota	2:28.6	Secs.	1934

Event	Holder	Time, Distance or Height	Year
80 meters hurdle	Miss M. Nakanishi	12.2 Secs.	1932
400 meters relay	(Y. Muraoka, T. Shibata, A. Tsuchikuro, S. Watanabe)	50.2 Secs.	1932
800 meters relay	(K. Kato, Y. Nakajima, K. Manabe, K. Idota)	1: 49.2 Secs.	1936
Runing High jump	Miss. R. Yamanouchi	1.55 meters	1936
Runing Broad jump	Miss K. Hitomi	5.98 meters	1928
Hop, Step and jump	Miss S. Watanabe	11.43 meters	1932
Shot Put	Miss F. Kojima	12.25 meters	1936
Discus throw	Miss H. Minejima	39.75 meters	1936
Javelin throw	Miss S. Yamamoto	44.51 meters	1936
Penrathlon	Miss H. Tanaka	220 Points	1935

VOLLEY-BALL

Volley-Ball was introduced to Japan hand in hand with basketball, and is now quite popular among school girls. The National Championship games are held annually. At present the Kobe Higher Commercial School holds the honor. Girls' championship games also take place every year.

SOCCER AND RUGBY

Perhaps as a result of the presence of the then British Ambassador Sir Conyngham Greene at the Kanto matches, a silver cup was presented in March, 1919 by the Football Association in England to the Japan Football Association, which latter, however, did not come into existence until October, 1921, when it was organized in Tokyo with Mr. J. Imamura as president and Prince I. Tokugawa and the British Ambassador as honorary presidents. With the formation of the Association the National Championship game was started.

Soccer.—In January, 1932, the Japan Football Association invited a Canadian rugby team, the first foreign team that has ever made a trip to Japan to play the game, and Japanese made a fair showing against them. Soccer is less popular than Rugby but it is contested every year at the Meiji Shrine Stadium among the leading Universities and Colleges. At the 1937 contest of Kwanto vs. Kwansai University league held at the Meiji Shrine stadium, the Keio University got the championship beating the Kobe University of Commerce with a score of 3—0. The annual record is as follows:—

Table 12. All-Japan Students Soccer Championship

1929	Tokyo Imperial University	8—2	Kwansei Gakuin
1930	" " "	2—1	Kyoto Imperial University
1931	" " "	2—2	Kwansei Gakuin
1932	Keio University	2—2	Kyoto Imperial University
1933	Waseda University	5—2	" " "
1934	" "	6—0	" " "
1935	" "	12—2	Kwansei Gakuin
1936	" "	3—2	Kobe Univ. of Commerce
1937	Keio University	3—0	" " "

Rugby.—First introduced by Mr. G. Tanaka who studied at Cambridge the sport is now as well developed in the Kwansai district as in the Kanto district.

In January and February, 1934, a series of international football tournaments was held between various Japanese teams and the visiting students rugby team from Australia, the matches being held in Tokyo and Kobe.

At the Kwanto vs. Kwansai 10th contest for 1937 the Kwanto team won with a score of 48—11. Past winners are given below:

Table 13. Rugby Results

1928	Kwanto	9— 6	Kwansai
1929	"	17— 6	"
1930	"	35— 7	"
1931	"	13— 8	"
1932	"	33—22	"
1933	"	54—16	"
1934	"	40— 3	"
1935	"	8— 6	"
1936	"	56—11	"
1937	"	48—11	"

The first full-fledged American style football game in Japan was played on Thanksgiving Day, November 29, 1934 at the Meiji Shrine grounds between an all-collegiate team against the Yokohama Country and Athletic Club eleven. Though outweighted heavily, experience was a stronger factor and the students won by a 26 to 0 score.

With the view to educating the public on American football, the Asahi Shimbun of Tokyo invited a group of 35 American collegiate football stars, comprising blue and red teams under the management of Albert Maloney, former star player of the University of Southern California, to Japan in early spring of 1935. They played exhibition games in Tokyo and in the Kwansai. Needless to say, the visitors had no trouble winning from Japan in the first dual competition held in this sport.

HOCKEY AND CRICKET

Hockey.—This Western game is of the latest introduction in Japan, and it was only in November, 1926, that the first national championship tournament was held, when the Waseda team came out first in the final. This same team with the strong addition from other colleges made up a newly combined Japanese team and participated in the 10th Olympic Games at Los Angeles and acquired a second position beating the United States team by 9—2, and trailing the British-Indian team with 10—1. It was rather a remarkable achievement for any hockey team to score even a single point against the strong and well-balanced team such as Indian. In the All-Japan Championship contest held at Toyama School grounds (Tokyo) in the autumn of 1935, the Tokyo University of Commerce won the championship beating the Kyoto Imperial University with a score of 4—1. The annual record is as follow:—

Table 14. Hockey Championship

1923	Keio Univ.
1924	Toyama School
1925	Meiji Univ.
1926	Waseda Univ.
1927	Meiji Univ.
1928	Keio Univ.
1929	Waseda Univ.
1930	Tokyo Univ. of Com.
1931	Waseda Univ.
1932	Keio Univ.
1933	Keio Univ.
1934	Tokyo Univ. of Com.
1935	Tokyo Univ. of Com.
1936	Waseda Univ.

An event of international importance was the visit in March, 1930 of the Battlesford Millers ice hockey team of Saskatchewan, Western Canada, which won all seven matches played against the best talent available in the Empire. The Canadians displayed excellent teamwork in their passing attack and the handling of their sticks was superb. Though they won with one-sided scores, the Japanese team seemed to improve with each game and clearly demonstrated they were learning much from the performance of the visitors.

LAWN TENNIS

Lawn tennis has the distinction of being the first Japanese sport that has laid a claim to international notice and gained for Japan entrance into the international Davis Cup tournament. It was Kumagai, Shimizu and Kashio, who for the first time in 1921 played for Japan. In the 1929 competition Japan, represented by Harada, Ohta and Toba in the American zone tournaments, defeated Mexico, then Canada, but in the final contest was beaten by the French team. Since then the Japanese team has been fighting its way through the European zone instead of the American zone where repeatedly Japanese were repulsed by the team from the United States and never has it been fortunate enough to reach the final of Inter-zone matches. In 1933, Japan went to the second round without having the first matches, beat the Greek team five to nothing, Denmark five to nothing, but in the semi-final challenge round was beaten by the strong team of Italy by three matches to two. Kuwahara, Satoh and Miki were Japanese representatives. Later in the same season J. Satoh and Miki went to England and showed their skill and stamina in the Wimbledon Tournament, though beaten by Austin of England in the semi-final of men's single.

In the 1937 Olympic Games Japan was represented by three players, Jiro Yamagishi, Fumiteru Nakano and Hideo Nishimura. They chose to contest the preliminaries in the American Zone and faced the American stars composed of Donald Budge, Gene Mako and Frank Parker at San Francisco on April 30, May 1 and May 2. The Japanese trio forfeited any chance of winning the Davis Cup by being completely vanquished by the Americans. The scores are as follows: April 30: Parker beats Yamagishi 6—3, 2—6, 8—6. Budge beats Nakano 6—1, 6—1, 6—0. May 1: Budge and Mako beat Yamagishi and Nakano 6—0, 6—1, 6—4. May 2: Budge beats Yamagishi 6—2, 6—2, 6—4. Parker beats Nakano 6—0, 6—3, 6—2.

The same Japanese team although playing courageously at Wimbledon failed to win, but Yamagishi's match against Von Cramm, of Germany, was highly commendable.

In October, 1937 Japan was visited by Germany's two ranking players, Von Cramm and Henckel who played in exhibition matches in the Kansai and Kanto.

ROWING

This sport was originated by the Tokyo Imperial University about the year 1880, and fostered by the young Englishman, Prof. Strange. The Sumida River in Tokyo, the Seta River and Lake Biwa, both near Kyoto, are regular scenes of contest for the championship in spring or autumn every year. The adoption in 1920 of the international standard boat with eight outrigged sliding seats at the instance of Dr. S. Kishi (late Chairman of Japan Athletic Association) revived this sport which had lost much of its interest. In that year the Japan Amateur Rowing Association with Dr. S. Kishi as chairman was organized by all the collegiate institutions of the country.

In the 1932 Olympics, Waseda represented Japan in eight oar boat and Keio in four oars in the water contest. Both of them did not come through in the first preliminary heats.

In the All-Japan Championship contest for 1934 the Keio University took the honor in eight oars and the Nihon Medical University in four oars.

In the 1936 Olympics Japan was represented by the Tokyo Imperial University eight which performed creditably.

WRESTLING

Though a national game of Japan of ancient origin and still popular among all classes of people, this manly sport suffered decadence after the overthrow of feudalism, but it soon recovered popularity with the rise of militarism.

The Tokyo Professional Wrestlers' Association possesses an amphitheatre at Ryogoku, Tokyo, capable of accommodating 13,000 persons. Tokyo and Osaka are two headquarters of the game where there are some 200 professional wrestlers who are classified into nine grades of which only those of the first two or three, numbering in all ten, occupy the front rank. Grand matches are held twice a year, January and May, ten days on each occasion. For convenience of public display, the wrestlers are divided into two opposing "camps," eastern and western, and each wrestler is pitted with one on the opposite side, till the whole ten in the rival camps have gone through the matches in the prescribed ten days. There are two grades of champions, namely the Yokozuna (who alone is entitled to hang round his waist the honoured straw festoon) and next the Sanyaku (or three services which are the Ozeki, Sekiwaki and Komusubi). The Association is composed of retired champion wrestlers, limited to 80 in number, wrestlers on active service and umpire. Regular income of wrestlers is very small, and it is on account of the share they are allowed in the profit of the Association and especially of the gifts they receive from their regular patrons that the wrestlers are able to maintain themselves. Wrestlers indeed are considered from former times as pets of society, from their simplicity and disinterestedness as compared with more artful and worldly actors. The traditional tricks and dodges of wrestlers number forty-eight based on the fundamental "hand," viz., "nage" (to throw), "kake" (feet entangling), "hineri" (to twist) and "sori" (to uplift). In practice, however, tricks as used on the ring number some two hundreds.

Wrestling is also popular among college boys and several times a year they hold matches at either Tokyo or Osaka to contest the championship.

On July 12, 1937 an American amateur wrestling team visited Japan for a series of bouts with the leading Japanese collegiate wrestlers. The team was composed of: Frank Ota and Harold Kightlinger (bantamweights); Roy Moore Jr. and Fortune Masdeo (featherweights); Emilio Bruno (lightweight); Willis Jackson (featherweight); Lyun Madray (middleweight. The visitors put up a fine performance and won the majority of the contests in which they participated.

WINTER SPORTS

SKATING AND SKIING

Skating is an ancient pastime in north-eastern Japan but regular skating dates some thirty years back and was introduced by foreigners. As a sport for general public a performance was first given about 1907 on Lake Suwa (in Nagano prefecture), about 40 miles north-west from Tokyo, and with the shores abounding in hot springs. Lake Matsubara, also in Nagano, is another popular skating rink. Several lakes at the north-eastern foot of Mt. Fuji are also visited by skaters. The Ice Sports League now exists as rival to the Japan Skating Association.

The 8th All-Japan championship contest for speed skating was held at the Hosoo link, Nikko, in January, 1937, the winners for the contest being as follows:—

Table 15. Skating Championship

Figure (Men):

5 points..... School ... 188.76 / Free..... 144.17 — Katayama (Osaka)

Figure (Women):

5 points..... School... 204.44 / Free..... 151.62 — Miss Inada (Osaka)

Speed (Men):

500 m.	46.8″	R. Sai (Kwanto)
1,500 m.	2′ 29.7″	R. Sai (Kwanto)
5,000 m.	9′ 10.4″	S. Kin (Kwanto)
10,000 m.	19′ 26.0″	R. Sai (Kwanto)

Speed (Women):

500 m.	54.8″	Miss Eshima (Manchoukuo)
1,000 m.	1′ 52.2″	,, ,, ,,
3,000 m.	6′ 29.8″	,, ,, ,,
5,000 m.	10′ 39.1″	,, ,, ,,

Hockey:

Rikkyo Univ. 7—1 Meiji Univ.

Miss Fritzi Burger, Austrian queen on the ice, who placed second in the women's figure skating competition at the last Olympics in 1932 was in Japan early in 1935 through an invitation extended by the Asahi Shimbun. Her exhibitions at the Shibaura rink of Tokyo and at Osaka, without a doubt, contributed greatly to the development of this sport in Japan. She took particular pains to coach Japanese talent while on her visit.

Skiing was introduced about 1910 by an Austrian officer attached to a Japanese regiment in Takata, Niigata-ken, one of the most snowy districts in Japan. The favourite skiing slopes as they exist at present are Seki, Taguchi and Akakura on the slope of Mt. Kyoko, about 10 hrs. from Tokyo; Numajiri at the foot of Mt. Bandai (about 8 hrs. from Tokyo) which was chosen by the Waseda Ski Club in 1923 as its training ground; Goshiki about 2 m. up Mt. Azuma, situated close by Itaya station on the O-u Railway Line, about 10 hrs. from Tokyo. Owani in Aomori-ken, Takata in Niigata-ken, Sapporo and other slopes in Hokkaido are also good skiing grounds. Skiers in the Kyoto-Osaka district enjoy the sport on Mount Ibuki standing near the shore of Lake Biwa.

Hannes Schneider, noted Austrian skier, came to Japan in the spring of 1930 and made a lecture on skiing in Tokyo. He visited leading skiing grounds in Northern Japan and Hokkaido, where he gave lectures or coached the Japanese skiers.

The 15th All-Japan Ski championship contest was held February 11-13, 1937 at Akita, the winners of the 1st honor being as follow:—

Table 16. Japanese Skiing Records of 15th All Japan Championship Series

(Feb. 11th-13th, 1937 at Akita)

Events	Records	Holders
(a) Records for Young Men:		
40 kms. relay	3′19.27″	Aomori Rinyu Team (Aomori)
50 kms.	4′20.18″	Tajino (Sapporo Ry. Region)
18 kms.	1′44.47″	Masuda (Niigata Kamikochi)
Doubles	424.5 points	Kiju (Waseda University)
Jumping	233.5 points	Iguro (Sapporo Ry. Region)
(b) Records for Adults:		
18 kms.	2′ 0.34″	Yamada (Aomori)
(c) Records for Boys:		
18 kms.	1′46.20″	Yamada (Hirosaki Middle Sch.)
Doubles	365.5 points	Okabe (Sapporo 1st Middle Sch.)
Jumping	219.5 points	Ito (Karafuto)

HORSE RIDING AND RACES

Horse racing has revived prosperity with the permission of pari mutuel tickets under strict restriction in 1923. The Government is encouraging racing by granting aids. Eleven race clubs exist, as Hanshin at Naruo, Tokyo at Fuchu and Nippon at Yokohama, etc. There are 7 others in the provinces, races being held semi-annually, namely in spring and autumn.

In the spring races of 1933 there were altogether 507,445 admissions, prizes awarded amounting to ¥1,700,982, tickets sold ¥37,342,000 and amount distributed ¥31,501,000.

The fastest records published in 1937 are as follows:—

Table 17. Highest Japanese Record

Gallop

Distance	Name	Age	Record	Club	Year
1,600 metres	Yae-hikari	4	1′42.0″	Hanshin	1934 (Spring)
1,800 ,,	King II	7	1′52.4″	Fukushima	1932 (Spring)
2,000 ,,	Yamayasu	5	2′05.3″	Niigata	1932 (Spring)
2,000 ,,	Efford	5	2′05.3″	Hanshin	1934 (Spring)
2,200 ,,	General	4	2′18.2″	Hanshin	1937 (Spring)
2,300 ,,	Happy-mite	4	2′26.2″	Tokyo	1937 (Spring)
2,400 ,,	Banryu	5	2′32.0″	Fukushima	1934 (Spring)
2,600 ,,	Asahagi	6	2′45.3″	Hanshin	1934 (Spring)
2,700 ,,	Saranack	6	2′54.4″	Hanshin	1937 (Spring)
2,800 ,,	Marie-utopia	4	3′04.0″	Nippon	1937 (Spring)
3,200 ,,	Hakuko	5	3′26.0″	Nakayama	1933 (Autumn)
3,400 ,,	Tokumasa	5	3′40.2″	Hanshin	1937 (Spring)
4,000 ,,	Hakuryu	5	4′23.4″	Nakayama	1932 (Spring)

Trot

3,200 metres	Tsurushima	7	5′26.2″	Kokura	1934 (Spring)
3,200 ,,	Mama	8	5′26.2″	Sapporo	1936 (Autumn)
3,400 ,,	Riyo	4	5′11.1″	Hanshin	1934 (Spring)
3,600 ,,	King-sport	4	5′31.4″	Hanshin	1934 (Spring)
3,800 ,,	King-sport	7	5′58.0″	Nakayama	1934 (Spring)
4,000 ,,	Clean-hit	4	6′19.1″	Kyoto	1934 (Autumn)
4,200 ,,	My-father	4	6′31.4″	Hanshin	1936 (Spring)
4,300 ,,	Tokachi-aisei	7	7′06.4″	Nakayama	1937 (Spring)
4,400 ,,	Ontario	4	6′53.4″	Tokyo	1935 (Spring)
4,500 ,,	Ehime	4	7′04.0″	Tokyo	1937 (Spring)
4,600 ,,	Zenryo	4	7′13.2″	Nakayama	1937 (Spring)
4,800 ,,	King-sport	4	7′20.3″	Hanshin	1934 (Spring)
5,000 ,,	Best-neck	4	7′44.0″	Hanshin	1935 (Spring)
5,200 ,,	Idaho	4	8′11.1″	Hanshin	1935 (Spring)
6,000 ,,	Ontario	4	9′35.1″	Hanshin	1935 (Autumn)

Table 18. Foreign Bred

Gallop

	12 miles			1 mile		
Year	Place	Name	Speed	Place	Name	Speed
1926	Tokyo	Sonohana	2′ 45.59″	Tokyo	Sonohana	1′ 47.00″
1927	,,	Asbel	2′ 44.00″	Yokohama	Shirano	1′ 46.40″
1928	,,	Chishima	2′ 40.55″	Tokyo	Bisk	1′ 47.85″
1929	,,	Virginia	2′ 51.78″	,,	Rina	1′ 48.70″
1930	,,	,,	2′ 51.90″	,,	Chishima	1′ 48.10″

Leading horserace clubs are as follows:—

Table 19. Horse Race Clubs

	Established		Location
Tokyo Race Club	May,	1919	Fuchu-machi, near Tokyo
Nippon Race Club	December,	1905	Negishi, Yokohama
Hanshin Race Club	March,	1907	Naruo-machi, Hyogo Prefecture
Kyoto Race Club	March,	1907	Mukojima-machi, Fushimi-ku, Kyoto
Kokura Race Club	July,	1910	Kokura, Kyushu
Niigata Race Club	December,	1907	Sekiya-machi, Niigata City
Nakayama Race Club	July,	1907	Katsushika-machi, Chiba Prefecture
Hakodate Race Club	May,	1900	Yukawa-machi, near Hakodate, Hokkaido
Sapporo Race Club	April,	1907	Sapporo, Hokkaido
Fukushima Race Club	April,	1908	Fukushima City, Fukushima Prefecture
Miyazaki Race Club	September,	1907	Miyazaki City, Kyushu

Horsemanship has also gained some popularity among college students and even women. There are at present about 15 equestrian clubs in larger cities while many universities and collegiate schools have their students' horse-riding societies.

MOUNTAINEERING

Mountaineering as a pious act of religious people is an ancient custom among the Japanese, but it is only about fifteen years ago or so that the practice began to appeal to the sporting sentiment of those who are inclined to test their sturdy legs and power of endurance by mountain climbing. The example was first set by foreigners.

Sacred peaks visited by mountain pilgrims are found almost everywhere in Japan, but of these the most popular are Fuji, Ontake, Tateyama, etc.

Fuji (12,387 ft.)—Fuji, though the highest in Japan proper, is the easiest of ascent, and also in the season best provided with accommodations and facilities. Even a post office is opened then. There are five regular paths leading to the summit, viz., Omiyaguchi (about 20 m. to top), Gotemba-guchi (20 m.), Subashiri-guchi (13 m.), Suyama-guchi (18 m.) and Yoshida-guchi (18 m.). The first four lie along the Tokaido railway while the last is approached from the opposite side.

"Japanese Alps."—It is generally believed that this name was first given by an English mountaineer to the mountain ranges extending from the Pacific to the Japan Sea, the broadest region of Honshu, and lying approximately between 35°–37° N. and 137°–139° E. The Japanese Alps are commonly divided into three groups, viz., Northern Alps, Central Alps, and Southern Alps, with peaks standing 10,000 ft. or thereabout as follows:—

Table 20. Peaks

Northern Alps:—	Tsubakurodake
Ontake	Tsurugidake
Norikuradake	Central Alps:—
Yakedake	Kiso-Komagatake
Hodake	Enadake
Yarigatake	Southern Alps:—
Tateyama	Kai-Komagatake
Shirouma	Jizodake
Jonendake	Senjogatake
Dai-tenjodake	Akaishidake
Arakawadake	Shirane-Kitadake

N.B.:—The Japanese words "dake," "take," "yama," or "san" signify "mount" or "peak."

Of the three groups the northern one is most popular, on account of comparatively easy access, presence of several thermal springs existing in the valley, as Kamikochi (5,000 ft.), Shirahone (4,000 ft.) and Hirayu (4,000 ft.), and richness of flora. The Southern Alps are deep and their peaks are difficult to ascend owing to the presence of foothills and primeval forest; also wild beasts are still met with now and then.

Hodaka, consisting of three peaks, is noted for rock-climbing, for which fact the chain is compared with the European Alpine peaks, and as the three Hodaka stand lofty, steep, liable to crumble, and therefore require help of roping, appeal strongly to the adventurous spirit of bold climbers. It was probably on that account that Prince Chichibu (Hon. Mem. of the Alpine Club), climbed Hodaka in 1928 with Mr. Maki, a mountaineer of international fame who scaled Mt. Alberta of the Canadian Rockies in July, 1925, and with some other mountain climbers of note.

Mountaineering and Exploration

Peak-hunting is no longer the main object of mountaineering in Japan as no peak worthy of the name is left unexplored. The attention of a mountaineer of any pretension is now chiefly directed to exploring little known valleys and river sources, or primeval forest districts as in the so-called "Kishu Apls." By calling in the help of ski, the explorers have in the winter season extensively covered Shirouma, the Tateyama range and other peaks.

PREPARATIONS FOR THE 1940 OLYMPIC GAMES IN TOKYO

Tokyo was chosen as the site for the 12th International Olympic Games by the International Olympic Committee on July 31, 1936 at Berlin. Japan was given the further honor of holding the Winter Olympic Games in 1940 as a result of a decision reached by the International Olympic Committee on June 9, 1937 at Warsaw. The committee also decided that the summer competitions shall be held in August.

Japan's right to organize both sections of the 1940 Games was upheld by the Committee despite Norway's contention that the length of the journey make it difficult for Western countries to send two athletic delegations in one year.

Count Michimasa Soyejima, the Japanese representative, announced that he was authorized to accept the committee's conditions for the organization of the 1940 Games and declared that Japan does not seek or expect to derive any profits from the competition. On the contrary, he pointed out that Japan will bear a considerable loss since it is prepared to spend an estimated sum of ¥15,000,000 on facilities for the Games while the sale of tickets is not expected to exceed ¥3,000,000. He added that Japanese Olympic officials hope about one-third of the seats will be purchased by foreigners.

Preparations in Tokyo

The track and the pool in the Meiji Shrine grounds were decided to be the site for the 1940 Olympic Games by the Tokyo Olympic Organizing Committee at a meeting held at the official residence of the Education Minister on February 23, 1927 in the presence of Chairman Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, Vice-Chairman Mayor Ushizuka, Lt. General Oshima and sixteen other committee members. At this meeting called to discuss the selection of the site, Prince Tokugawa submitted to the assembly the plan formulated by the subcommittee. This plan was adopted unanimously with reservations attached so as to allow some slight modifications in case of necessity.

Following the decision, the following announcement was made by the committee:

Position of the Site.—The present Outer Garden of the Meiji Shrine is to be enlarged in the direction of Sendagaya. The present track and field stadium is to be enlarged into the principal stadium. A ball games stadium is to be constructed at the site of the former rifle range. The first plan for the swimming pool is to enlarge the present pool in the Meiji Shrine. The reply made by the Subcommittee included the following items:—

Principal Stadium.—The present stadium in the Outer Garden of the Meiji Shrine is to be enlarged on the west side (toward Sendagaya) to hold some 100,000 spectators. For this purpose, however, no houses privately owned are to be purchased. The total cost involved in this project is to be ¥2,500,000.

Provisional Track and Field Grounds.—The athletic grounds owned by the Army and others are to be temporarily borrowed to serve as the substitute for the present Meiji Shrine Stadium during the time the reconstruction work is in progress. The cost is to be about ¥150,000.

Swimming Pool.—The first plan calls for radical alteration of the present pool in the Meiji Shirine Outer Garden to hold some 25,000 spectators. The second plan calls for construction of a new pool in Shiba Park to hold some 30,000 spectators, changing the present athletic track in the park into the pool. Each plan is to cost ¥1,000,000.

Ball Games Stadium.—Ball Games Stadium (for football, hockey, etc.) is to be built on the site of the former Army's rifle range in Aoyama (ground now possessed by the Finance Ministry and the Communications Ministry) to hold some 50,000 spectators. The cost is to be ¥2,270,000.

Bicycle Race Grounds.—The Bicycle Race Grounds are to be constructed at Shibaura to hold 15,000 spectators. This is to be a temporary structure. The cost is to be ¥150,00, excepting the expenditure for the purchase of ground.

Other Sports Establishments.—Other sports establishments needed are two indoor sports stadiums, substitute track, equestrian grounds, yacht racing and regatta sites, winter games ground, etc., the total expenditure involved in these being ¥2,050,000. In addition to these ¥500,000 is to be set aside for construction of the Nippon Military Gymnastics Hall to be dedicated to the Outer Garden of the Meiji Shrine.

Olympic Village.—The Olympic Village is to be constructed either at Kinuta Mura or Todoroki Mura. A site of some 60,000 tsubo is to be purchased and the necessary buildings to be established there. The cost involved in this connection is to be about ¥1,150,000.

References: Table 1-4, 10-16 & 20—Undo Nenkan (Sports Year Book), 1937 published by the Osaka Asahi shimbun-sha. Table 5—Research of the Tokyo Baseball Union. Tables 6-9—Researches of the Tokyo Golf Club. Tables 17, 18 & 19—Keiba Seiseki-sho (Report on Japan Horse Race), 1937, published by the Nippon Keiba-kai.

Supplement I

JAPAN'S INDUSTRIAL OUTLOOK IN NORTH CHINA

JAPAN'S INDUSTRIAL POSITION IN NORTH CHINA

The undeclared war in progress at this writing in all parts of China, especially the origin of the same conflict in North China, will not be understood without knowledge of the situation developed in the latter part of China in the years following the establishment of the new Empire of Manchuria. Japan rose to arms when her rights and interests in Manchuria were jeopardized by an aggressive Chinese policy. Japan had been given two alternatives; namely, to abandon all her interests in Manchuria and withdraw from the continent, or to defend them at all costs. The first course, if actually advocated at a time by some public leaders in Japan, was obviously out of the question.

When Manchoukuo was brought into being and her territory bordering on Chinese territory across the Great Wall became a source of political and military disturbance, Japan, charged with the maintenance of peace in Manchoukuo, not unnaturally began to be seriously concerned with what was going on in North China. Manchoukuo was exposed to constant and by no means small menaces from the same direction. The need of a more peaceful and less hostile neighbor was patent.

At the same time there sprang up at this time a movement, mainly agrarian in character, for an autonomous rule in North China. Of the political factors at play next to nothing was disclosed at the time. In course of time a new political entity was brought forth in the form of the Autonomous State of East Hopei, asserting its administrative power over the eastern part of Hopei, of which the ancient town of Tungchow became the seat of government. This was followed ere long by the establishment of the Chahar-Hopei Political Council, which assumed responsibility for government of the remaining part of North China. If this institution gave but little promise of friendly cooperation with Japan, it evidently pursued a policy of compromise, avoiding friction with the Japanese on major issues. Further developments were next seen in the attempt made by Nanking to extend and intensify its influence over North China through the same Political Council. This movement was accompanied by the growing insolence of the Chinese armies stationed in all parts of North China. It became increasingly evident that they were being carried away by their rising anti-Japanese sentiment. The temper of the time clearly presaged the clash that was to follow. One night in July, 1937 a detachment from the Japanese garrison was out for military exercise near Lukowchiao—the Marco Polo Bridge of historic fame—when it was suddenly fired upon by the Chinese, although there had been no provocation whatever. This incident set a spark to the surcharged atmosphere, causing the undeclared war on all fronts. What followed in North China and around Shanghai and elsewhere in Central and South China may be left to the province of military history.

Peaceful North China

Where the Chinese line withdrew and the Japanese front was advanced there followed Peace Preservation Association to assume responsibility for the maintenance of peace and for administration of local affairs, the most conspicuos instances being the Associations for Peking and Tientsin. While it is still premature to say what part these organizations will play in the administrative system to be worked out for all North China, it is remarkable that peace has been kept in good order wherever the native military forces have evacuated. How the native population had suffered through the presence of the military troops was shown by the enthusiasm with which the advancing Japanese forces were met wherever they went. The Japanese flags were hoisted at every door and seen in the hands of almost every Chinese who came forth to meet the Japanese army.

A Central Organ for Development of North China

The Japanese Government lost little time to take up the matter of working out plans for political and economic cooperation with the Chinese in North China. Before the front had been advanced to Chengting, Paoting, Techow, and Suiyuan, Mr. Hachiro Arita, former Foreign Minister, Mr. Yosuke Matsuoka, President of the South Manchuria Railway Company, and others were asked to go over the field to look into the possibilities of North China industrial development. Most of these men, it is learned,

Preparations in Tokyo

The track and the pool in the Meiji Shrine grounds were decided to be the site for the 1940 Olympic Games by the Tokyo Olympic Organizing Committee at a meeting held at the official residence of the Education Minister on February 23, 1927 in the presence of Chairman Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, Vice-Chairman Mayor Ushizuka, Lt. General Oshima and sixteen other committee members. At this meeting called to discuss the selection of the site, Prince Tokugawa submitted to the assembly the plan formulated by the subcommittee. This plan was adopted unanimously with reservations attached so as to allow some slight modifications in case of necessity.

Following the decision, the following announcement was made by the committee:

Position of the Site.—The present Outer Garden of the Meiji Shrine is to be enlarged in the direction of Sendagaya. The present track and field stadium is to be enlarged into the principal stadium. A ball games stadium is to be constructed at the site of the former rifle range. The first plan for the swimming pool is to enlarge the present pool in the Meiji Shrine. The reply made by the Subcommittee included the following items:—

Principal Stadium.—The present stadium in the Outer Garden of the Meiji Shrine is to be enlarged on the west side (toward Sendagaya) to hold some 100,000 spectators. For this purpose, however, no houses privately owned are to be purchased. The total cost involved in this project is to be ¥2,500,000.

Provisional Track and Field Grounds.—The athletic grounds owned by the Army and others are to be temporarily borrowed to serve as the substitute for the present Meiji Shrine Stadium during the time the reconstruction work is in progress. The cost is to be about ¥150,000.

Swimming Pool.—The first plan calls for radical alteration of the present pool in the Meiji Shrine Outer Garden to hold some 25,000 spectators. The second plan calls for construction of a new pool in Shiba Park to hold some 30,000 spectators, changing the present athletic track in the park into the pool. Each plan is to cost ¥1,000,000.

Ball Games Stadium.—Ball Games Stadium (for football, hockey, etc.) is to be built on the site of the former Army's rifle range in Aoyama (ground now possessed by the Finance Ministry and the Communications Ministry) to hold some 50,000 spectators. The cost is to be ¥2,270,000.

Bicycle Race Grounds.—The Bicycle Race Grounds are to be constructed at Shibaura to hold 15,000 spectators. This is to be a temporary structure. The cost is to be ¥150,00, excepting the expenditure for the purchase of ground.

Other Sports Establishments.—Other sports establishments needed are two indoor sports stadiums, substitute track, equestrian grounds, yacht racing and regatta sites, winter games ground, etc., the total expenditure involved in these being ¥2,050,000. In addition to these ¥500,000 is to be set aside for construction of the Nippon Military Gymnastics Hall to be dedicated to the Outer Garden of the Meiji Shrine.

Olympic Village.—The Olympic Village is to be constructed either at Kinuta Mura or Todoroki Mura. A site of some 60,000 tsubo is to be purchased and the necessary buildings to be established there. The cost involved in this connection is to be about ¥1,150,000.

References: Table 1-4, 10-16 & 20—Undo Nenkan (Sports Year Book), 1937 published by the Osaka Asahi Shimbunsha. Table 5—Research of the Tokyo Baseball Union. Tables 6-9—Researches of the Tokyo Golf Club. Tables 17, 18 & 19—Keiba Seiseki-sho (Report on Japan Horse Race), 1937, published by the Nippon Keiba-kai.

Supplement I

JAPAN'S INDUSTRIAL OUTLOOK IN NORTH CHINA

JAPAN'S INDUSTRIAL POSITION IN NORTH CHINA

The undeclared war in progress at this writing in all parts of China, especially the origin of the same conflict in North China, will not be understood without knowledge of the situation developed in the latter part of China in the years following the establishment of the new Empire of Manchuria. Japan rose to arms when her rights and interests in Manchuria were jeopardized by an aggressive Chinese policy. Japan had been given two alternatives; namely, to abandon all her interests in Manchuria and withdraw from the continent, or to defend them at all costs. The first course, if actually advocated at a time by some public leaders in Japan, was obviously out of the question.

When Manchoukuo was brought into being and her territory bordering on Chinese territory across the Great Wall became a source of political and military disturbance, Japan, charged with the maintenance of peace in Manchoukuo, not unnaturally began to be seriously concerned with what was going on in North China. Manchoukuo was exposed to constant and by no means small menaces from the same direction. The need of a more peaceful and less hostile neighbor was patent.

At the same time there sprang up at this time a movement, mainly agrarian in character, for an autonomous rule in North China. Of the political factors at play next to nothing was disclosed at the time. In course of time a new political entity was brought forth in the form of the Autonomous State of East Hopei, asserting its administrative power over the eastern part of Hopei, of which the ancient town of Tungchow became the seat of government. This was followed ere long by the establishment of the Chahar-Hopei Political Council, which assumed responsibility for government of the remaining part of North China. If this institution gave but little promise of friendly cooperation with Japan, it evidently pursued a policy of compromise, avoiding friction with the Japanese on major issues. Further developments were next seen in the attempt made by Nanking to extend and intensify its influence over North China through the same Political Council. This movement was accompanied by the growing insolence of the Chinese armies stationed in all parts of North China. It became increasingly evident that they were being carried away by their rising anti-Japanese sentiment. The temper of the time clearly presaged the clash that was to follow. One night in July, 1937 a detachment from the Japanese garrison was out for military exercise near Lukowchiao—the Marco Polo Bridge of historic fame—when it was suddenly fired upon by the Chinese, although there had been no provocation whatever. This incident set a spark to the surcharged atmosphere, causing the undeclared war on all fronts. What followed in North China and around Shanghai and elsewhere in Central and South China may be left to the province of military history.

Peaceful North China

Where the Chinese line withdrew and the Japanese front was advanced there followed Peace Preservation Association to assume responsibility for the maintenance of peace and for administration of local affairs, the most conspicuos instances being the Associations for Peking and Tientsin. While it is still premature to say what part these organizations will play in the administrative system to be worked out for all North China, it is remarkable that peace has been kept in good order wherever the native military forces have evacuated. How the native population had suffered through the presence of the military troops was shown by the enthusiasm with which the advancing Japanese forces were met wherever they went. The Japanese flags were hoisted at every door and seen in the hands of almost every Chinese who came forth to meet the Japanese army.

A Central Organ for Development of North China

The Japanese Government lost little time to take up the matter of working out plans for political and economic cooperation with the Chinese in North China. Before the front had been advanced to Chengting, Paoting, Techow, and Suiyuan, Mr. Hachiro Arita, former Foreign Minister, Mr. Yosuke Matsuoka, President of the South Manchuria Railway Company, and others were asked to go over the field to look into the possibilities of North China industrial development. Most of these men, it is learned,

agreed in recommending the establishment of a central organ invested with broad powers to give proper direction to the economic development of North China. Plans along the same line were taken up by the Foreign Office, with the collaboration of the Ministries of War, Navy and Finance. It is now indicated that the first step will be taken in the same direction by establishing a commission composed of leading men in the four provinces of Hopei, Suiyuan, Shansi, Chahar, where the sphere of Japanese influence have been established. This organ is to extend its work as the centre of Japanese cooperation with Chinese interests in the field of political and economic activities, the goal being the establishment of a special zone forming a part of the tripartite combination of Japan, Manchoukuo and China in economies and industries.

Economic Position of North China

The proposed plan for Sino-Japanese economic collaboration will take into consideration the five provinces, sooner or later, of Hopei, Shantung, Shansi, Chahar and Suiyuan. These provinces, combined, represent a total area of approximately 1 million square kilometres, or 300,000 square kilometres less than that of Manchoukuo. Their aggregate population, however, reaches 83 millions, approximately 50 millions more than that of Manchoukuo. Of these provinces there is none but produces coal, Shansi being first in importance in this regard. The gross deposits of coal in these five provinces are estimated at upwards of 130,000 million tons or 54% of China's total deposits. These huge resources of fuel, however, remain undeveloped because of lack of capital, technological inability, primitive system of transportation, political unrest, etc.

From these facts it is to be assumed at least that North China will become a market of no small importance for Japanese manufactures, especially cotton textiles, no matter whether North China be developed as a field for investment or for its commercial possibilities. It may also be safely assumed that the abundance of coal, together with rich iron mines in Chahar, will give rise to activities in the field of heavy industry.

Fundamental Plans

Whatever plans may be worked out for the economic and industrial development of North China two inescapable facts seem certain to be taken into consideration; the one, improvement of the economic condition of agriculture, since most of the population are engaged in agricultural pursuits; the other provision of facilities for development of natural resources such as coal, iron, electricity, salt. The latter consideration will naturally call for railway construction, port works, equipment for mining, iron works, chemical industry, textile manufacture.

The revival of agricultural activities will in all probability be made through the existent cooperatives, He Tsuo Sheh. These institutions have proved effective in improving the economic conditions of the agricultural workers to a considerable extent in the past. However, controlled by the commercial banks, these cooperatives have served mostly in the interest of the richer section of agricultural workers. Capital is provided at a usurious rate of interest. The Japanese who have looked into the matter advocate the supply of cheaper money to benefit the smaller farmers through channels other than banks. It seems also certain that encouragement will be given to the cultivation of cotton for which the country's conditions are favorable. Cotton will be exported to Japan and Manchoukuo, while soya beans and other foodstuffs will be imported from Manchuria.

What, however, will perforce claim the attention of the administration is the improvement of the agricultural population. They are sunk in extreme conditions of poverty through extortion of the military regime under which they have remained for years. What is more, there have been unusually heavy rains this year, causing disastrous floods in many directions. To make things worse, the Chinese soldiers before their retreat had demolished river and canal banks and dykes at many places. Vast areas still remain submerged. It will be some time before the farmers will be working on their dry land. The economic development of North China is thought extremely hampered as long as the agricultural people, making up the majority of the population, are not aided to recover from the present state of depression and even of misery.

North China as a Market

Apart from the low purchasing power of the inhabitants who are reduced to such extreme circumstances, as mentioned above, Japanese trade in North China is in less favorable conditions than in Manchuria. In the latter country Japan had in the form of the railway zone a base for commercial extension. Besides, there were import associations, cereal inspection offices, cereal exchanges and other institutions to facilitate transaction. North China, however, has no medium of the kind. Japanese merchandise has hitherto been handled, especially in the interior, by European and other foreign traders who sold it as of origin other than Japanese. The Japanese will be called upon to organize their own systems for transaction of business. While the Japanese traders, up to the present incident, had mostly confined their activity along the seaboard area, they are now required to extend their commercial front as far as Tsinan, Suchow, Chengchow, Taiyuan, Changkiaokow (Kalgan), Peking.

Customs Tariff and Special Trade

It seems certain that the matter of changing the customs tariff will be taken up for the adjustment of trade between Japan and North China. The expansion of the so-called special trade of East Hopei is pointed out as indicative of the unreasonable character of the tariff enforced by the Nanking Government. It is evident that as long as the present rates remain in force, some of the Japanese manufactures will never find their way to the North China market, no matter what improvement may be worked out in political lines. It is already suggested that if the customs tariff is lowered to more reasonable levels through arrangements with the new regime to come, the foreign trade of East Hopei may be suffered to follows its own course to decay. It is not improbable that the first step in customs tariff change will be made only with regard to those items for which Nanking raised the rates with the obvious object of expelling Japanese competition from the North China market. It is also probable that the new regime to be brought forth in North China, through certain turns of political affairs in Central and South China, may be called upon to enter into new customs arrangements with that part of China.

Field for Japanese Investment

It is easy to surmise that North China will now be carefully considered as the field for Japanese investment, and that such investment will be directed chiefly with a view to the development of heavy industries. However, no plan has so far assumed form. The South Manchuria Railway Company, operating in North China through the firm of Hsing Chung Kung Ssu, is likely to play the most important part in this point. This is but to be expected that the development of North China will be made under a plan to be coordinated with the industrial development of Manchoukuo, the fundamental principle on which the military and the industrialists are in agreement.

In this connection it is of interest to note what Mr. Sogo, Chief Director of the above Hsing Chung Kung Ssu, had to say in his speech made before Japanese industrialists and business men in Osaka on October 15, 1937. The points of more importance may in brief be summarised as follows.

Enterprises were under way for development of water power. The river Yungting would be capable of developing 100,000 units of power. Small scale enterprises scattered about in East Hopei would be consolidated under a joint Sino-Japanese enterprise. The league of the "big fives" electric companies of Japan was launching a scheme for power development of the river Luanho, the estimated capacity being 200,000 units.

North China would play an important part in the industrial development of Japan through its supply of abundant salt. The so-called Chang Lu salt, reputed to be the best salt made from sea water in the world, would now be free from Chinese official restriction. The exports to Japan in the past had been restricted to 230,000 tons a year. The Hsing Chung Kung Ssu had advanced capital for a substantial increase of production.

In the field of cotton growing the province of Hopei alone was capable of turning out 2 to 10 million piculs a year. With the settlement of political affairs, the Japanese cotton interests would jointly work out schemes. Cotton warehouses and pressing mills were already under construction at Tientsin. Work had already been begun for the development of the iron mines of Lungyen. The German interests in the well-known coal mines of Ichei had been taken over by the Hsing Chung.

North China's important resources and productions to be taken into consideration are iron ores, coal, salt, cotton and wool.

GEOGRAPHIC DEFINITION

North China which has since of old constituted one of the the three main geographic divisions of China comprises, roughly speaking, the extensive basin of the Huang Ho or the Yellow River, which runs west to east between the Yinshan Mountains on the north and the Peilingshan range on the south. The former range, running in a northeasterly direction, crosses the border of Manchuria to be known from that point on as the Great Hsingan mountains. The latter mountainous range rises far out in the west as a branch of the Kuen Lun Mountains and runs eastwards, forming the natural boundary of North China. Numberless streams rising in these mountains flow together to form the Yellow River.

Politically speaking, North China consists of five provinces, namely, Shansi, Hopei, Shantung, Suiyuan, Chahar, not including Honan, Shensi and Kansu. Geographically, North China comprises the region of loess, the plains of Hopei, and the mountainous area of Shantung. The regions of loess, lying to the west of Hopei, includes the whole of Shansi, Shensi, Kansu, and a major portion of Honan, Ninghsia, Suiyuan, Chahar, and a part of Hopei. From the point of view of administration, North China is formed of the six provinces of Kansu, Shensi, Shansi, Hopei, Honan, Shantung. The same geographic area also includes the special cities of Peiping, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Siking (former Changan), all of which are under the direct administration of the National Government.

Area and Population

The above six provinces of North China have an area of 1,204,173 square kilometres or slightly less than twice the total territory of Japan. The aggregate population of these provinces is estimated to be twenty millions less than that of the Japanese Empire.

The plains of Hopei which constitutes the economic and cultural centre of North China is an extensive stretch of level land bounded on the north by the Great Wall, on the west by the peaks of the Taihsingshan and on the east by those of the Huishan. This level land has an area of 125,078 square miles (324,036 square kilometres) and a population of 80,979,025 or an average of 547 for every square mile or 250 for very square kilometre. The density of population in this part of North China is brought out in clear relief when it is seen that the area under cultivation is 82,812 square miles or 66% of the total. The remaining area represents either land unfit for cultivation, being used as villages, roads, graveyards, and pastures, or "sand soil" or soil highly saturated with alkali. The population of 80 millions mostly of agrarian workers live within an area of some 80,000 square miles with positively no hope of extending the tillable acreage.

Table 1. (A) Area and Population of North China By Provinces and Special Municipalities at the End of 1936

	Area (sq. kms.)	Population			Average population per sq. km.
		Japanese	Chinese	Total encl. others	
Hopei Province	153,682	4,766	28,359,359	28,364,370	184.56
Shantun ,,	179,269	4,353	37,031,269	37,037,581	206.61
Shansi ,,	155,935	3	11,669,270	11,669,274	74.83
Chahar ,,	278,959	766	2,099,161	2,100,205	7.56
Suiyuan ,,	291,432	10	2,321,594	2,321,604	7.96
Peiping Special Municipalities	708	4,478	1,550,561	1,556,634	2,108.35
Tientsin ,, ,, ...	50	11,289	1,233,984	1,253,899	21,077.98
Tsingtao ,, ,, ...	552	16,549	552,733	570,607	1,033.71
Weihaiwei ,, ,, ...	738	.....	.....	214,113	290.13

(B) Japanese Residents at Principal Cities in North China

(End of 1936)

	Japanese	Koreans	Formosans
Tientsin	8,573	2,660	66
Peiping	1,824	2,593	61
Tungchow	109	181	—
Fengtai	78	56	—
Kupeikow	177	54	—
Tangku	—	—	—
Shanhaikwan	—	—	—
Chinwangtao	—	—	—
Changli	147	239	—
Tangshan	471	870	—
Luanchow	129	202	10
Tsingtao	15,205	1,420	11
Fangtzu	121	1	—
Chihfu	291	278	—
Lungkow	104	24	—
Weihaiwei	12	93	—
Tsinan	1,868	141	3
Chousun	131	—	—
Changtien	268	9	—
Nanting	49	—	—
Tzuchuan	348	—	—
Peshan	168	4	—
Heishan	70	—	—
Tsingchow	57	—	—

North China's Position in China's National Finance

The importance of North China in the national financial structure of China largely derives from its position as a sources of maritime customs revenue. In 1934, the total national revenue from this sources amounted to $315,500,000 of which the maritime customs in North China accounted for approximately $68,477,000 or 22% of the total. The figures for the respective customs offices were as follows.

Table 2. Revenue from Customs Houses

(Unit: $1,000)

	1931	1932	1933	1934
Chinwantao	2,151	1,946	1,463	1,759
Tientsin	36,505	39,100	43,416	41,155
Lungkow	343	576	1,264	1,823
Yentai	3,489	1,531	2,388	3,575
Weihaiwei	401	359	500	516
Tsingtao	17,875	24,247	22,590	20,149
Total	60,764	67,796	71,621	68,477

The port of Tientsin, with a gross revenue of over 41 million dollars, stood second only to Shanghai.

In the field of salt revenue North China occupies a position of scarcely less importance, especially the salt district in Hopei being credited with a figure higher than any other individual salt administrative unit in the whole country. The gross National revenue from this source amounted in 1934 approximately for something like $42,900,000 or more than 23% of the total. In the revenue from the consolidated taxes, another of the three major sources of revenue, North China accounted in the same year for 13% of the total.

Industry

North China, on the whole, is very backward from the economic point of view. It lingers under feudalistic systems little changed since the centre of political life like was transferred to the south in 1911, reducing the region to a position of secondary political importance scarcely above border provinces. In the field of financial and commercial activities, it lags far behind the central part of the country. Naturally, industry in this part of the country has made not little development. The only exceptional place is Tsingtao, where under German administration some foundation was laid for industrial activity, giving impetus, if to a limited extent, to local capital. Tsingtao also owes its growth to its geographic conditions favourable to industrial activity.

Far less favoured is the region of which Tientsin is the centre. While the seat of the national government was in Peiping the port of Tientsin formed a veritable gateway to the political and financial centre of the country; it was the main channel through which foreign capital found its way into the interior. The whole situation changed when the seat of the Government was transferred to Nanking. The situation, however, might have remained far better but for the geographic conditions of Tientsin and neighbourhood. Mention must be made, first of all, of the river Paiho, which has considerably hampered the growth of Tientsin as an open port. The river, silted with mud, is navigable only by vessels of light draught. Ocean-borne freight has often to be trans-shipped from Japan, Dairen, or Shanghai. Under these circumstances, the possiblity of Tientsin as a commercial port is necessarily limited. What is more, the provinces forming the hinterland of Tientsin, viz., Szechuan, Tsinhai, Kansu, Shensi, Ninghaia, and the area even stretching out to Chinese Turkestan and Outer Mongolia, though extensive enough in area, are decidedly backward as compared with other provinces, and offer but limited possibility as markets for general merchandise.

Local Native Industry

Industrial development in this part of the country is more or less notable in those few lines which are locally provided with raw material, such as manufacturing of cement, soda, and carpets and rugs. The manufacture of cement is represented only by factories under native enterprise. The soda manufactories are mostly under Chinese enterprise, though some are being run by British interests. The carpet and rug manufacturing industry in which some American and Japanese capital has been invested is in large part carried on in the form of handicraft by Chinese. The cotton textile industry, though well distributed in North China, is still little developed beyond the stage of handicraft. Its importance is diminishing, if anything, through the steady inroad of manufactures produced under capitalistic systems.

Cotton Textile Industry

There are two distinct features of the industry; one is the rapid and steady expansion of Japan, chiefly based at Tsingtao; and the other, the tendency of Chinese industrialists to withdraw into the interior in the face of the growing competition of Japanese capital. The urban and suburban markets are being steadily encroached on by Japanese products. Additional handicaps are seen in high costs of transportation and distribution because of lack of facilities of transportation and manifold taxes adding to the costs. As these conditions serve the same purpose as tariff barriers against these in-coming goods, so they serve as effectively as protection for goods produced well back in the interior. For this reason, the native textile industry developed with a view, not to the urban, but to the provincial markets, or close to the sources of the raw material generally. The Hsian factories, in the province of Shensi, the municipal factory in Peiping and the Huifeng mill at Paoting, both in the province of Hopei, the cotton mills at Changte in the province of Honan, the Limin mill at Nansheng, Chiafeng mill at Chiating, both in the province of Kiangsu all may be regarded as notable instances, in contrast with the Toyoda mills in Tsingtao and Japanese factories at Shanghai and Tunghsing.

The native industrialists have also been experiencing considerable difficulty on account of the rising price of silver. Increased exports of the metal resulted in low supply of credit facilities and higher rates of money in the country. In addition to these financial conditions, the

enhanced value of silver was also reflected in heavier imports of foreign manufactures and proportionate contraction in exports of native produce, resulting in steep falls in the market. Under these circumstances, mills at Tientsin as well as elsewhere in some instances, found it impossible to cope with this financial situation, or in others, found it expedient to turn over their management to foreign interests.

The cotton mills in Tientsin are placed under conditions such as are seen nowhere alse in the country. In addition to the adverse factors mentioned above, the loss of the Manchurian market, the unsuitableness of Hopei cotton for fabrication, and the heavy debts by which the industrialists are mostly weighed down, must be mentioned as factors of no small significance. The Hengyuan mill had to be liquidated in 1934 on account of financial difficulty, and the Yu-yuan concern, operating three mills, was closed down in 1935 for kindred reasons.

Though in the same province of Hopei, the Huahsing mill at Tangshan, and the Tahsing mill at Shihkiachuan, thanks to their locations closer to the consuming markets and to the sources of the raw material, are found in better financial conditions.

The industry in the province of Shantung is divided between Tsinan and Tsingtao. The former is represented by four mills of which the Lufeng mill, equipped with 28,000 spindles, is the largest. Comparatively free from political or military disturbance, the mills in this part of the country have enjoyed unbroken prosperity. The production of these mills is approximately 53,600 bales per year, the same being consumed by the hand loom industry in the same locality as well as in the region of Hsuchou. The textile industry in Tsingtao is for the most part under Japanese enterprise. The only mill under Chinese enterprise is the Huahsing which was set up in 1922 with a capital stock of $2,700,000 and an annual capacity of 23,000 bales of yarn. The six mills under Japanese enterprise have an aggregate spindle number or 377,000 and an annual production of 192,500 bales of yarn and 2,922,000 pieces of cotton tissue.

In the interior, the industry has chiefly been developed in the two provinces of Shansi and Honan. In the former, there are three mills with an aggregate capital stock of ¥6,210,000 and 77,700 spindles. Under the official policy pursued to attain a self-sustaining position in clothing, the industry is expected further to develop in this part of the country. The province of Honan is credited with four mills with capital stock of approximately ¥5,760,000 and 107,280 spindles.

Table 3. Spinning and Weaving Cos. Under Japanese Capitalization in Tsingtao

(End of 1936)

	No. of factories	No. of spindles	No. of throwing spindles	No. of weaving machines
Naigai Cotton Spinning Co.	3	90,400	8,000	....
Dai-Nippon Spinning Co.	3	201,192	14,136	2,160
Shanghai Silk Reeling	6	107,152	9,240	3,218
Shanghai Spinning & Weaving Co.	1	40,448	....	720
Toyoda Spinning & Weaving Co.	1	35,640	....	500
Fuji Gas Spinning Co.	2	31,360	1,600	480
Nagasaki Spinning & Weaving Co.	1	43,652	2,040	....
Nisshin Spinning Co.	1	42,660	3,746	510
Dong Shing Spinning & Weaving Co.	1	30,710	....	1,151
Total	19	523,214	38,762	8,739

Table 4. Spinning & Weaving Companies in China

(March, 1936)

	No. of spinning machines	No. of throwing machines	No. of weaving machines
Japanese	1,828,824(37.6%)	338,256(67.4%)	24,358(47.7%)
Chinese	2,809,561(57.7%)	156,846(31.3%)	22,627(44.4%)
British	227,148(4.7%)	6,360(1.3%)	4,021(7.9%)
Total	4,865,533(100.0%)	501,462(100.0%)	51,004(100.0%)

Wool Yarn and Carpets

The wool yarn and carpet industry of China is practically concentrated in the region of Tientsin. The total production of wool in China is estimated to be in the neighborhood of 540,000 piculs, of which Tsinhai accounts for 163,000 piculs and Kansu for 80,000, the other wool producing provinces being Ninghsia, Chahar, and Shansi. Peiping and Tientsin are logical outlets for the product.

"Tientsin carpets" are produced in and about the city of Tientsin. There are two mills under

American enterprise and five under native enterprise. In the boom period around 1923 there were in the region of Peiping and Tientsin as many as 600 wool and carpets factories, the latter city alone accounting for 530. In consequence of foreign competition, the above number has been reduced to 90 at Tientsin and 30 at Peiping. The exports of carpets from Tientsin are now estimated at less than $4,000,000 a year.

Recent declines in exports of Chinese wool have given rise to the tendency to turn the material to the manufacture in the interior of crude fabrics for daily use. Such an instance is the wool factory in Suiyuan, which has been under the management of the provincial government since December 1934. A similar official undertaking has also been set up in Ninghsia. The woolen mill at Hsipei in the province of Shansi, in operation since 1934 under official direction, is said to be one of the most successful among the industrial lines newly undertaken in the same province.

Flour Industry

The consumption of flour in China is almost entirely confined to North China. The production of wheat is also confined to the same part, the provinces of Honan, Shantung and Shansi being chief producers. The manufacture of flour in North China is concentrated in Tientsin and Tsinan.

In Tientsin the industry originated in 1915 when a company was organized under joint enterprise of Japanese and Chinese capital. During the war period there were added as many as 10 new factories. Most of these establishments were later forced out of business as a consequence of foreign competition, internal disorder, and financial difficulty. At present four mills remain in business. These mills are supplied with wheat mostly from Shantung, Hopei, Honan, some quantities also being taken from Shanghai and other places in Central China as well as from foreign sources. The total production of wheat is estimated at approximately 8,000,000 bags of which 60% is consumed in Tientsin and 20% at Peiping, the remainder at places along the Tientsin-Pukow and Tientsin-Tangshan railway lines.

The milling industry in Tsinan dates from 1913 when a factory was set up with a modest capital of $50,000. The field became overcrowded around 1921, generally bad business prevailing since. There are at present six mills in operation. The raw material is mainly supplied from Shantung, Honan, and Hopei.

In addition to the output by these native mills considerable foreign and internal sources are made to meet the requirements of the North China population. In 1929 the imports at Tientsin alone amounted to 5 million piculs. Increasing imports from Shanghai and corresponding declines in foreign flour are recent features of the trade.

Table 5. North China's Imports of Flour

(In piculs)

	Imports from Chinese sources		Imports from foreign countries	
	1932	1933	1932	1933
Tsinhuangtao	494,894	429,585	26,678	5,166
Tientsin	4,263,645	5,300,264	1,134,367	1,618,302
Lungkou	177,607	376,584	—	1,255
Yentai	392,353	438,799	31,341	31,266
Weihaiwei	41,560	91,260	2,960	2,094
Tsingtao	306,646	247,415	434,635	237,370

Chemical Industry

The chemical industry has been developed in North China with Tientsin and the region to the east as its centre. The salt supply of the Changlu district has formed a basis for the soda industry of considerable importance. Paints and cement are being produced on a fairly large scale. Paper manufacturing, extraction of oil, making of matches are other industrial lines of more or less importance.

In the field of the soda industry the factories in Tangku are most important with production of 350,000 metric tons of soda ash, 1,500 tons of caustic soda, 1,300 barrels of sodium silicate, 6,000 bags of dry soda.

Soda Exports of Tientsin

China exports soda to the amount of approximately $600,000 a year, most of which is accounted for by the port of Tientsin. The total exports for 1932 reached $280,000, of which Tientsin accounted for $270,000; of the total export value of $550,000 for 1933 $540,000 was credited to Tientsin. As shown in the accompanying table, Japan is the best customer. Tientsin also has a growing import trade in soda and

soda products, revealing trade conditions common to all lines of Chinese industry. In 1933 the total imports of soda ash reached 80,000 piculs, valued at ¥380,000, caustic soda 10,000 piculs, valued at $70,000. In 1934 the former imports moved up to 84,000 quintals valued at $620,000 and the latter to 9,000 quintals valued at $120,000.

Table 6. Soda Exports of Tientsin

	1933		1934	
	Quantity Piculs	Value $	Quantity Quintals	Value $
French Indo-China	——	——	193	1,447
Hongkong	12,471	56,413	4,056	31,210
Japan	94,555	538,847	37,051	279,500
Straits Settlements	4,200	19,630	3,981	29,500
Kwantung Province	1,131	8,686	1,302	13,016
Great Britain	——	4	——	——
U. S. A.	2,520	11,778	——	——
Total	114,888	538,847	46,520	354,397

Sulphuric Acid Industry

The Lichung Sulphuric Factory, in operation since 1934, is the only industrial undertaking in this line. On the strength of tariff protection, the factory has been enjoying fairly good business, having practically put an end to imports through Tientsin.

Cement Industry

Of the seven cement factories now in operation in China, with a total production of some 4,200,000 barrels, two are found in North China, one of them being the largest undertaking in the whole country. The Chee Hsin Cement Works, placed at Tangshan in the province of Hopei, dates from the close of the last century, being originated under the enterprise of the Kaiping Mining Administration. After an unsuccessful career the company was turned over to a private Chinese interest in 1907. The company in 1914 took over the management of the Huachi factory with a rated capacity of 300,000 barrels, at Tayeh in the province of Hupei. The present factory at Tongshan, capitalized at $8,800,000, is the largest in the country, with an annual production of 1,600,000 barrels. The factory is locally supplied with raw materials.

The Chih Ching Cement Company at Tsinan, capitalized at $200,000, has an annual output of 90,000 barrels, which are locally consumed. In the province of Shansi a cement factory has been in operation under official enterprise since 1935, with a daily output of 400 barrels (each of 140 pounds). The same factory plans to increase its capacity to supply the product to the region of Peiping and Tientsin as well as in the direction of Hankow. The raw material is supplied from Chuyang within the province.

Match Industry

The match factories in North China number 160 in all. What with tariff protection and occasional dumpings of Russian produce, and expanding activity of foreign manufacturers within this part of the country, imports have been reduced to next to nothing. The industry is mainly concentrated at Tientsin, Tsinan and Tsingtao.

Japanese capital operates two factories at Tientsin with a combined daily output of 50 to 60 cases. Of a number of Chinese undertakings, formerly in existence, there now remains only the Tanhua company, capitalized at $1,000,000, operating a factory in Tientsin and another in Peiping. The former factory has a daily capacity of 60 cases (each of 1440 packages).

The match factories in Tsinan, Tsingtao and other places in the interior are estimated to be about 30 in number with a rated aggregate capacity of 200,000 tons a year. In Shansi 6 factories are in operation, though no detail is available. The largest undertaking in the province is the Hsipei Match Company which was set up in 1934 with a capital stock of $130,000 and a daily capacity of 20 cases. The company is to expand its production to 60 cases per day, by increasing its capital to $400,000, with the object of placing the province in a self-sufficient position. In the province of Honan there are some 10 factories with Kaifeng and Loyang as centres. Shensi and Kansu have also match factories of more or less importance, though no detail is known.

The growing match industry of North China is being reflected in increasing imports of the raw materials, which consist for the most part of timber from Japan, Russia and Manchuria, and some quantities of red and other phosphorus as well as other chemicals, which are chiefly supplied by Germany.

Paints and Coatings

The industry is confined to only sulphur black, paints and enamel. The black which is indispensable for dying Chinese tunics is in universal demand in the country. Despite the recessive

trends of recent years, Tientsin alone imports the dyestuff to the amount of $800,000. Two factories are in operation under Japanese enterprise in Tientsin and one in Tsingtao. Indigo which is also in country-wide demand is sought entirely from foreign sources, Germany and Japan being chief suppliers.

The most important producer of enamel and paints is the Chung Kuo Yu Chi under purely native enterprise, with a nominal capital of $200,000. The list of products consists of 30 kinds, including paints and enamel. The Tung Fang Yu Chi, capitalized $5,000, is credited with annual output of some $40,000. The raw material used are sesame, nut and other oils all of native origin.

Japanese Industrial Activity

While Tsingtao is the scene of Japanese industrial activity, there being a number of factories on a large scale, there is hardly a Japanese industrial undertaking of importance in any other part of North China. This situation is due to the unsettled political conditions of the region and also to the highly alkaline quality of water locally available for industrial purposes. The factories under Japanese enterprise, equally on a modest scale, are engaged in the manufacture of dyestuffs, nails, rubber goods, and matches. The association of Japanese manufacturers, formed in August, 1934, consisted of 31 member companies.

MINERAL RESOURCES

Coal

The coal deposits of China are variously estimated at anything between a minimum of 21,200,000,000 tons and a maximum of 996,610,000,000 tons. Of the actual production the provinces of Hopei, Shansi, Honan, and Shantung are responsible for a major proportion. The miners engaged at the mines in operation number approximately 175,000, of which as many as 160,000 are found in these four provinces.

Table 7. (a) Coal Deposits in North China

(1,000 metric tons)

Hopei	3,071,000
Shantung	1,639,000
Shansi	127,127,000
Suiyuan	417,000
Chahar	504,000

(b) Coal Production in North China

(In tons)

	1927	1931	1933	1934
Hopei	5,182,379	7,660,025	6,959,481	7,350,025
Shantung	1,634,015	2,093,772	3,195,095	2,300,772
Shansi	1,777,766	2,266,334	2,300,000	2,600,334
Suiyuan	200,000	91,200	83,300	90,200
Chahar	130,000	114,500	346,967	100,500

Coal in Hopei

The province of Hopei, with estimated deposits of 3,000 million tons, ranks 8th in the country in point of coal reserve. Mining is conducted on quite a large scale at Kailan and Chinghsing. The province produced in 1931 a total of 7,660,000 tons or approximately 40% of the total national production, exclusive of Manchuria.

There are registered 19 mining companies of which 9 are not operating. Among the operating organizations the Kailan Mining Administration in which British capital holds a controlling share is the largest, with a capital stock of £2,000,000 and an annual production of 5,205,000 tons. The second largest is the Chinghsing Mining Administration which is under joint enterprise of German capital and the provincial government, the latter holding shares to the amount of $3,750,000 or three-fourths of the total. The output for 1934 reached 753,444 tons.

The largest concern under native enterprise is the Spinning Feng Mining Company, capitalized at ¥6,600,000, which operates a mining area at Chinghsing with an annual production of 220,000 tons.

Japanese capital is only interested in the joint undertaking which owns the mine at Yangkiato, though the mine has suspended work some years since.

Coal in Shansi

The coal reserves of Shansi are estimated at 127,100,000,000 tons or 51% of the total deposits of China, though the actual production in 1933 was 3,745,000 tons, being far less than that of Hopei. The mining is for the most part carried on in primitive ways. The Pao Chin Mining Company, operating four mining districts within the province, is by far the largest undertaking, having been capitalized at $2,863,000. The company produces 5 to 6 hundred thousand tons of coal a year or about 60% of the total output in the province. In consequence of the bad market condition, the company has suspended payment of interest on stock since some years ago. The First Northwestern Mining institution

which was organized in 1933 as part of the local government's 10-year plan with a capital stock of $360,000, is at present producing 200 tons per day.

Coal in Shantung

The coal deposits in Shantung province are estimated at 3,071,000,000 tons. The companies capitalized above $100,000 number 9, of which four are in operation. The largest organization is the Chung Hsing Kung Ssu, with a capital stock of $10,000,000 and an annual output of 762,681 tons. The mining companies under joint enterprise of Japanese and Chinese capital number three of which one is out of operation. The two operating companies, both working at Liuchuan, have a combined capital stock of $4,000,000 and had an annual output of 629,500 tons in 1931.

In the districts of Liuchuan, Changluan, and Poshan the small-scale mines producing anything between 100 and 200 tons per day number 20 in all.

Coal in Honan

The coal deposits in the province are estimated at 6,624,000,000 tons. The Fu Kung Ssu under British enterprise is the largest organization, having a capital stock of £1,243,000 and an annual output of 700,000 tons. The Chung Yuan Mining Company, capitalized at $4,000,000, is the largest native undertaking, having an annual production of 525,607 tons in 1930. The second largest undertaking is the Lu Chuan Kou Mining Company, capitalized at $3,000,000 and producing something over 500,000 tons a year.

Coal in Other Provinces

In the provinces of Suiyuan and Chahar, credited with coal deposits of respectively 400 million and 500 million tons, the mining work is carried on only in small ways. In Shensi, with a deposit of 70,000 million tons, the industry remains unorganized, there being a negligible output of only 230,000 tons.

Iron in North China

No reliable information is available as to the iron deposits in China. The estimated reserves in the North China provinces are as shown in the accompanying table.

Table 8. Iron Ore Deposits in North China
(Unit: 1,000 metric tons; End of Mar., 1936)

	Deposits	% to total deposits throughout China
Hopei	32,424	13.69
Shantung	13,700	5.78
Shansi	30,000	12.73
Chahar	91,645	38.69
Suiyuan	10,700	4.50
Total	178,469	75.39

Table 9. Deposits and Production of Iron Ore By Mines in North China

Name of Mines or Companies	Localities		Deposits (1,000 Metric tons)	Iron Contents %	Annual Average Out put	Investors	Capital (1,000 silver $)
Feihsien Mine	Shantung	Prov.	600	....	....	....	....
Luta Mining Co.	"	"	13,700	55%	Closed	Japan and China	10,000
Chungyen Mining Co.	Chahar	"	70,978	57%	....	Chinese Govt. and People	5,000
Mines of Lungkwan & Suanhua Sheng	"	"	12,900	51%	Closed	....	....
Yungping Mine	Hopei	"	32,424	27%	——	Private Management	....
Chimingshan Mine	"	"	72	....	——	....	....
Tsing-ching Mine	"	"	50,000	....	——	....	....
I-hsien Mine	"	"	1,500	....	....	....	....
Pingmang Mine	Shansi	"	....	*58%	75,600	....	....
Tsincheng-hsien Mine	"	"	....	*50%	6,000	....	....
Paotsin Mine	"	"	....	†40–50%	12,226	Paotsin & Co.	700
Yinchengchen Mine	"	"	30,000	**51–52%	2,600	....	....
Kaoping-hsien Mine	"	"	....	**45–51%	48,000	....	....
Si-hsien Mine	"	"	....	†50%	10,000	....	....
Yangchu Sishan Mine	"	"	....	*65%	2,500	....	....
Lin-hsien Mine	"	"	....	....	5,200	....	....
Kuyang Mine	Suiyuan	"	700	....	....	....	....
Peyunshan Mine	"	"	10,000	....	....	....	....
Total			178,522	——	....	....	....

Note:—* Hematite.
** Limonite.
† Hematite & Limonite.

In the province of Hopei the deposits at Ssukiaying, Changkiachuang, and vicinity are estimated to be some 32,000,000 tons, though in no instance has mining been undertaken as yet. In the province of Shantung the iron reserves at Shinlingchen near the boundary of the country of Hsincheng are owned by the Lu Ta Kung Ssu under joint enterprise of Chinese and Japanese capital, though work has been suspended for some time. In Honan haematite ,containing a high percentage of iron is known to occur, though work has been suspended all along the line. In Shansi the Pao Chin Kung Ssu in the country of pingting, capitalized at $700,000, produced for 1931, 12,226 tons of ore and 5,560 tons of pig iron. The mines at Chincheng, Changchin, Kaoping, Hsihsien, Chuyang, Linhsien and others are equally operated in a primitive way.

The iron mines in Chahar are in large part owned by the Lung Yen Works which is under joint enterprise of official and private capital, with some Japanese capital also interested. The company, capitalized at $5,000,000, was placed in operation in 1918, though the work had to be suspended three months later for political and other reasons. In the province of Suiyuan no industrial undertaking has been attempted, though the ore occurs in the regions of Kuyang and Wuchuan.

Other Minerals

Gold, limestone, clay, manganese, all of unimportant quantities, are found in the province of Hopei. The only mineral of any importance is asbestos which is produced to the amount of 300,000 tons per year. Close to the boundary between Hopei and Shansi provinces manganese is said to occur, though no detail is known. In Shantung gold is being mined under the enterprise of the provincial government, though no information has been given out as to the results of operation.

Oil in Shensi

The only items of importance in this field is petroleum in occurrence in the province of Shensi. The reserves, according to some American engineers, are so enormous as to meet the needs of the whole world for 300 years. The veins are said to run in a straight line northward from Tungkuan to Yenan. The oil field now in operation at Yenchang is said to be only a small portion outlying in the northern portion close to the border of the province of Shansi. In 1934 the Ministry of Communications took active interest in operating these fields. The official undertaking was reported to have been rewarded with success, though nothing more has been heard of since. When it is recalled, however, that the Standard Oil Company, under its contract with the Chinese Government, went over the field in 1914 and met with unencouraging results, the oil proposition of Shensi for the most part still remains problematical.

The oil concern now in operation at Yenchang under official enterprise is capitalized at 200,000 taels. It produced in 1929 1,127 barrels (each of 42 gallons), in 1930 1,094 barrels and in 1931 552 barrels. Because of relatively high transportation and other costs, the product is in little demand in other parts of the country.

Cotton Industry in North China

The annual production of cotton in China is on an average 9,000,000 piculs, of which 4,000,000 is consumed on the spot, and 1,000,000 exported. The requirements of the domestic mills amount to approximately 9 million piculs. Supply falls short of demand. Reduced production in the United States and higher tariffs have also served to stimulate native agriculture to give increasing attention to cotton cultivation. Another fact in the line of agriculture is that when the prices of farm produce fell below costs some years ago, cotton became one of the few profitable products, and as such has been attracting Chinese agriculturists, the growing of American species being found especially profitable. According to returns for the year 1933, while millet and wheat resulted in actual loss, and soya beans in a modest profit of $1.90 per unit of tillage, the native cotton netted a profit of $3.08 per unit and American species a profit of $7.90.

Cotton Production in North China

The latest available statistical data for cotton cultivation in North China are as in the table below:

Table 10. Cotton Cultivation and Production in North China

	Closing estimates for 1931		Closing estimates for 1936	
	Acreage under cultivation (Mu)	Production of ginned cotton (1,000 piculs)	Acreage under cultivation (Mu)	Production of ginned cotton (1,000 piculs)
Hopei	7,807	2,836	10,431	2,590
Shantung	5,493	1,334	6,111	1,790
Shansi	1,796	601	2,075	496
Honan	4,091	1,022	6,068	1,367
Shensi	3,710	1,004	4,255	940

Note:—"Mu"=1 sq. meter.

Principal collecting and distributing markets for cotton in North China are Tientsin, Tsinan, and Chengchou. The first named city is at present a market almost exclusively for the cotton of Hopei, although formerly produce in Shensi and Shansi used also to find its way here. The product directed to the Tientsin market is mostly of coarse fibre which is in the main exported abroad, the finer fibre suitable for spinning being shipped out to Shanghai. Tsinan is an outlet for the product of Honan, Shantung, and Hopei. While a portion of such produce is consumed locally and at Tsingtao, no small part is shipped to Shanghai through Tsingtao. To Chengchou is shipped cotton from Honan, Shensi, and Shansi, and most of these shipments are again sent to the mills in Shanghai.

Native and American Species

In Shantung the native and American species are grown at the rate of respectively 40 and 60%, and in Hopei the former species at 70% and the latter 30%. The native cotton, because of its coarse fibre, is in little demand for spinning purposes. Japan's decreasing takings of ginned cotton in recent years have had serious effects on the market. The official policy pursued to encourage cotton cultivation as a means of effecting economic regeneration of rural communities entirely discards the native species.

Export of Hopei Product

From a tradal point of view, the cotton of Hopei province occupies a peculiar position. Unlike the product of Shantung and some other provinces, which is either consumed on the spot or sent out to the mills at Shanghai, the cotton of Hopei which consists for the most part of the native species, though consumed on the spot to a degree, is exported in greater quantities, constituting in fact a major proportion of China's cotton exports. The cottons brought to the Tientsin market fall into the two brands of Hsi Chuan Mien (West River Cotton) and Yu Chuan Mien (Imperial River Cotton). The former is produced in the basin of the five rivers which join at Tientsin to form the river Paiho, and make up the bulk of the Hopei production. This fibre, coarse and unfit for spinning, is used in mixed weaving with wool, and for making explosives, and in some instances, for yarns of medium counts. Japan and the United States are the best customers. The Yu Chuan Mien is produced mostly in Shantung and in some part in Honan along the canal region. Pure white like the other species, this fibre is softer, being from ½ to ⅝ of an inch and usable in mixed weaving and for making of coarser counts. The American cotton raised in Hopei is known as Tung Chuan Mien (East River Cotton) which is used for the making of counts from 32 to 42.

Tientsin has a progressively growing trade in raw cotton with other parts of China, as shown in the table below, Shanghai occupying a position of preeminence in this point. This situation strikingly contrasts with China's cotton export which, on the whole, is on the decline. The consumption in Tientsin reaches some 560,000 piculs, there being recessive trends due to the closing down of mills and reduced production. Under these circumstances, the cotton of Hopei must seek greater outlets in the south promoting the tradal dependence of the north on the south.

Table 11. Cotton Shipments from Tientsin to Other Chinese Ports

	Volume Piculs	Value $
1930	115,370	5,751,187
1931	162,672	8,870,504
1932	221,735	6,688,396
1933	293,262	12,447,367
1934	281,180	12,449,341

The declining export trade of cotton is due to excessive amounts of moisture and impurities contained in Chinese cotton and also to Japan's expanding use of Indian cotton as a substitute. More recently, the high exchange of silver has also had visible effects on the outgoing trade.

Table 12. Tientsin's Cotton Exports

	Volume Piculs	Value $
1930	715,653	35,679,895
1931	706,089	37,752,829
1932	619,298	30,126,407
1933	456,956	19,801,947
1934	268,519	12,033,839

Tientsin's foreign trade in cotton, classified by countries, as indicated in the undergiven table, shows that the great bulk of the trade is with Japan. In 1919 Japanese purchases made up 98.8% of the total of 340,000 piculs, in 1924 84.5% of 280,000 piculs, and in 1926 78.5% of 610,000 piculs. The undergiven table, presenting the return of cotton exports by countries in more recent years, shows that Tientsin's outgoing trade is steadily falling off in all directions except Germany. This situation, due to the reasons such as mentioned above, will necessarily be met by an increased production of finer fibre at the cost of coarse native fibres which are falling in disfavour for the making of even medium counts.

It must also be noted that even in the case of finer fibres China's position is anything but secure or reassuring, so long as China's market is subject to the movement of prices in the United States, and to serious effects of the fluctuating exchanges of silver. The outcome of the official plan now pursued for the economic revival of the countryside through encouragement of cotton cultivation must be said to be uncertain as long as the product is exposed to hazards of an international character.

Table 13. Tientsin's Cotton Exports

By Countries

(In piculs)

	1933	1934		1933	1934
Japan	305,781	213,268	France	3,979	2,098
U. S. A.	125,373	31,668	Others	13,480	10,518
Germany	7,049	10,225	Total	456,956	268,519
Britain	1,294	742			

WHEAT AND OTHER AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS

Wheat

The production of wheat in China, according to official returns, is approximately 400,000,000 piculs the bulk of which is grown in Shantung, Honan, Hopei, Shansi. In Chahar and northwestern provinces wheat is in the main consumed on the spot. In Shansi and in the provinces to the east and the south the product above domestic requirements is offered on the market. In practice, however, the surplus grain is generally suffered to lie in storage in the interior on account of high costs of transportation, distribution and internal taxes on movement of merchandise. Foreign produce, coming into the country in increasing quantities under these circumstances, has been continually forcing down the price of native wheat. In North China the average price of $11.10 in 1930 dropped to $9.72, $9.01, and farther to $7.45 in the successive three years until in 1933 it registered a record low of $6.74. It is a feature of the trade in this part of the country that bad crops boost up the price temporarily, only quickly to be forced down by the imported grain. Such being the state of trade, the price of wheat lingers at low points despite reduced production.

Table 14. Wheat Production in North China

(In 1,000 piculs)

	1931	1932	1933	1934
Shansi	16,540	20,110	23,230	17,323
Hopei	31,460	29,950	35,990	42,108
Shantung	68,450	67,390	68,320	76,470
Charhar	1,630	2,160	1,250	2,835
Suiyuan	2,790	4,050	2,310	1,987

Other Cereals

North China is also a chief producer of such cereals as kaoliang, Indian corn, and millet. These products, being staple articles of daily food in the agricultural communities, seldom find their way abroad save under exceptional conditions. For instance, in the period 1934-35 millet and kaoliang were exported in fairly large quantities as chicken feed, the reason being the failure of crops in Manchuria. Excepting such uncommon development, the prices of wheat as well as other kinds of cereals as a rule are tending downwards.

Tobacco

Tobacco is produced in China to the amount of 5,400,000 piculs, of which a major portion is grown in Honan and Shantung. Shansi also grows tobacco, though its output is not above the point of self-sufficiency.

Beans

In consequence of the closing of the national market to Manchurian beans, there is growing production of soya beans in China, especially in North China provinces. The gross output of beans in China was 146,000,000 piculs in 1932, 160,000,000 piculs in 1933, and 129,900,000 piculs in 1934. If the present trend in northwestern provinces continues the beans of Manchuria are expected to be materially affected. At present the five provinces of North China, exclusive of Chahar, produce soya beans approximately to 45% of the total output of 145,346,000 piculs.

Linseed and Ground Nut

Of the seed group linseed is the most important product in North China. It is in demand as raw material for making linoleum and other industrial purposes. The provinces of Shansi, Suiyuan, Chahar and Ninghsia, the chief producing areas in the country, are credited with an annual production of 300,000 piculs.

While there is an output of walnuts of more or less importance in North China, the ground nut is the most important of this group from the commercial point of view. The province of Shantung dominates the field as producer, as shown in the table below:

Table 15. (a) Principal Agricultural Products in 1935

(In 1,000 piculs)

	Soya beans	Rapeseed	Groundnuts	Flaxseed	Sesameseed	Leaf tobacco
Chahar	763	198	——	1,928	8	28
Suiyuan	369	697	——	2,319	16	74
Shansi	1,610	1,192	195	4,895	381	312
Hopei	5,556	452	7,339	4,593	1,849	346
Shantung	26,996	453	11,070	4,727	11,070	1,155
Total	35,294	2,992	18,604	18,462	13,324	1,915

(b) Area Under Cultivation in North China in 1935

(In 1,000 mu)

	Soya beans	Rapeseed	Groundnuts	Flaxseed	Sesameseed	Leaf tobacco
Chahar	839	401	44	1,585	4	14
Suiyuan	445	1,271	——	1,979	46	82
Shansi	1,557	1,841	83	4,249	557	420
Hopei	4,973	1,072	3,147	4,311	2,474	317
Shantung	20,609	406	4,297	2,900	4,297	823
Total	28,423	4,991	7,371	15,023	7,378	1,656

Note:—"mu"=1 sq. meter.

PASTORAL AND OTHER PRODUCTS

Hides & Skins

In the foreign trade of North China in general, and of Tientsin in particular, pastoral products constitutes the most important individual group of exports. In wool Tientsin's outgoing trade comprises a major proportion of China's whole trade in the same line. The principal products that pass through Tientsin for export are shown in the table below in relations to their respective totals for the whole country.

Table 16. Tientsin's Export Position in Pastoral Products, 1934

	Whole China	Tientsin
Goat hair	$ 649,580	$ 507,687
Camel hair	1,374,032	1,093,570
Sheep wool	12,263,904	10,930,939
Pigs bristles	15,127,155	6,985,668
Dog skins	901,560	831,381
Lamb furs	6,985,060	6,159,742
Marmot furs	223,811	194,477
Sheepskins	309,244	197,377
Other furs	939,139	374,322
Horse hides	429,146	413,443

Wool

Of the production of sheep's wool in China no accurate information is available. According to the returns of the Ministry of Commerce, the gross output for 1934 was 540,000 piculs, which was distributed as shown in the table below.

Table 17. Distribution of Sheep's Wool Production, 1934

	Piculs
Hopei	38,000
Szechuan	33,000
Shansi & Shensi	26,000
Shantung	20,000
Jehol	27,000
Ninghsia	20,000
Chinghai	166,000
Kansu	80,000
Suiyuan & Chahar	64,000
Outer Mongolia	52,000
Others	24,000
Total	540,000

According to the figures given out by the South Manchuria Railway Company, the total output of wool is estimated at 601,880 piculs, inclusive of 16,000 piculs for Manchuria, 15,000 piculs for Holumbuir, and 45,750 piculs for East Inner Mongolia. In the same estimate Chinghai is credited with 71,500 piculs, Sinkiang, Kansu and Shensi, combined, with 160,260 piculs, and the three provinces of Hopei, Shantung and Shansi with 55,320 piculs.

Chinese wool is as a rule coarse and of low commercial value. It is in demand for the making of carpets and cashmere. Tientsin is the most important collecting and distributing point in North China.

Table 18. Geographic Distribution of Tientsin's Wool Exports

	1933 Volume Piculs	1933 Value $	1934 Volume Quintals	1934 Value $
Belgium	40	2,478	551	54,511
France	85	7,851	22	2,672
Germany	1,661	98,902	4,004	319,199
Britain	976	55,764	1,097	98,351
Hongkong	9	594	——	——
Netherlands	——	——	3,954	262,179
Italy	74	9,240	93	9,182
Japan	850	51,205	2,267	214,464
U. S. A.	182,433	9,968,597	112,358	9,979,381
Total	186,134	10,194,631	125,346	10,939,939

Note:—1 quintal=1,654 piculs.

Camel's Hair

Tientsin is the most important collecting and distributing centre of camel's hair in the whole China. The product is brought to the port by two routes, eastern and western. The former route is followed by the product collected at Changchiakou from places in Inner Mongolia, while the latter is taken by the wool collected at Kueihua and Paotou. In addition, the product in the region of Yulin is first collected at Yutzu in the province of Shansi whence it is transported to Tientsin by the Peiping-Hankow line.

Table 19. Geographic Distribution of Tientsin's Exports of Camel's Hair

	1933 Volume Piculs	1933 Value $	1934 Volume Quintals	1934 Value $
Belgium	689	110,076	30	4,989
France	37	6,321	——	——
Germany	462	40,727	559	69,905
Britain	11,947	1,437,799	6,155	825,911
Hongkong	8	1,131	1	238
Italy	——	——	2	407
Japan	140	20,226	532	85,443
Netherlands	——	——	657	95,513
U. S. A.	399	24,719	657	95,513
Kwantung	6	912	11	2,166
Total	13,688	1,641,911	8,026	1,093,570

SALT INDUSTRY

Production in North China

There are four salt manufacturing plants in North China, all of which follow a new process of manufacturing from sea water. These companies, placed in Hopei and Shantung, have an aggregate capital stock of $6,220,000 and an annual production of 1,210,000 piculs.

The export of salt had always been prohibited in China until the time of the retrocession of Shantung to China by Japan, when a special arrangement was made to the effect that China may export salt to Japan between a maximum of 300,005,000 pounds and a minimum of 300 million pounds per year. In view of the rapid growth of her chemical industry, Japan will have to seek increasing supplies of salt from abroad. The province of Hopei, where natural conditions are most favourable for the manufacture of salt, will naturally receive attention as a source of salt to meet Japan's expanding demand.

FOREIGN TRADE OF NORTH CHINA

The value of exports and imports in 1936 from the main ports of North China amounted to $332,014,000, of which exports accounted for $191,111,000. Tientsin has been for years the most important center of foreign trade.

Table 20. Imports and Exports of North China By Ports

(Unit: 1,000 silver yuan)

	Exports				Imports			
	1933	1934	1935	1936	1933	1934	1935	1936
Tientsin	88,472	81,051	91,202	117,827	120,778	96,670	85,160	72,647
Tsingtao	41,608	35,285	48,555	51,533	70,846	48,485	51,236	54,752
Chihfu	10,339	7,855	7,852	9,738	7,565	9,654	6,678	6,817
Chinwangtao	5,103	6 117	5,857	7,066	2,569	2,827	2,048	3,462
Lungkow	3,634	3,188	3,264	2,599	8,755	2,326	2,799	2,013
Weihaiwei	7,116	2,292	2,915	2,349	1,163	1,884	2,212	1,212
Total	152,271	135,781	159,644	191,111	204,676	161,776	150,133	140,903

Table 21. Imports and Exports of Tientsin By Countries

(Unit: silver yuan)

	Imports		Exports	
	1934	1935	1934	1935
Japan	16,653,148 (34%)	17,777,539 (38%)	18,901,023 (24%)	17,3'0,582 (19%)
U. S. A.	8,315,991 (17%)	6,566,409 (14%)	31,947,020 (39%)	35,426,781 (39%)
Germany	4,643,120 (10%)	5,820,251 (13%)	4,468,679 (6%)	8,009,819 (9%)
Gt. Britain	4,746,323 (10%)	3,871,216 (8%)	9,141,945 (11%)	9,395,294 (10%)
Others	13,868,9?6 (29%)	12,5?4,723 (27%)	16,581,111 (20%)	21,059,474 (23%)
Total	49,209,584 (100%)	46,220,137 (100%)	81,050,678 (100%)	91,201,950 (100%)

Table 22. Entrance and Clearance of Vessels at Tientsin Port By Nationality

	1935		1936	
	No.	Tonnage	No.	Tonnage
Japan	645	760,229	694	719,923
China	964	661,685	899	638,388
Great Britain	425	877,697	442	859,776
U.S.A.	24	135,747	20	78,641
Germany	48	227,821	53	233,464
Norway	19	76,922	23	73,886
Sweden	12	46,919	11	39,792
Total incl. others	2,158	2,802,172	2,059	2,657,760

Table 23. Quantity of Exports to and Imports from Japan of the Port of Tientsin

(In metric tons)

	Imports	Exports
1932	172,249	172,586
1933	164,661	169,790
1934	179,706	194,025
1935	180,860	208,499
1936	189,452	304,981

JAPAN'S RIGHTS AND INTERESTS IN NORTH CHINA

Japan's industrial, commercial and financial career in China entered on a new era after her war with Russia in 1904-5 when she established her foothold in Manchuria. Japan entered on the second era during the period of the World War, when she shared the markets not only of China but the whole Far East with only the United States. As a consequence, Japan's total investment in China advanced from some 400 million yen in 1915 to more than 1,100 million yen in 1919. At the same time her loans to China gained the same levels as those of other countries. Under these circumstances, Japan offered increasing advances to finance the mining, railway and other projects with the result of stimulating the movement of industrial enterprise among the Chinese people; and Japanese merchandise followed in steady streams to win growing markets on the continent.

Japan's Investment

While no detail is available as to Japan's total investment in North China, it is commonly estimated to be something like 1,000 million yen. The Economist, (Osaka), in its issue of July 21, 1935, classifies the total sum under the three general heads as shown below.

Table 24. Japan's Investments in North China

(1) Loans

Financial loans	¥142,000,000
Communication loans	76,000,000
Railway loans	164,000,000
Military loans	103,000,000
Commercial loans	245,000,000
Total	730,000,000

(2) Investment in Native Enterprises

Shantung Province	¥140,000,000
Hopei "	43,000,000
Total	183,000,000

(3) Investment under Japanese Enterprise

Cotton textile industry in Tsingtao	¥ 50,000,000
Match, flour, warehouses, oil extraction, canning, etc., in Shantung	150,000,000
Investment at Tientsin by Oriental Development Co., tobacco, bone powder, refrigeration, match, fertilizer, leather	35,000,000
Yokohama Specie Bank, Toa Industrial, Industrial Bank, Furukawa Co., Mitsui Co., Mitsubishi Co., Okura Co., Chujitsu Jitsu-Gyo Co., in Peiping	7,000,000
Total	¥ 242,000,000
Grand Total	¥1,155,000,000

Concessions

In a broader sense, Japan holds concessions in North China at the three cities of Tientsin, Chefoo, and Tsinan, but, in a narrower sense, only at the first named city, since the concessions at the other places are shared with other powers. From the administrative point of view, the 1 Legation quarter in Peiping may be considered as a form of concession. Japan also holds commercial concessions, or the treaty rights to reside and carry on business, in the four places of Choutsun, Weihsien, Tsingtao, Chengchou.

Non-cession Territory

By virtue of the diplomatic correspondence exchanged between the Japanese Minister in Peking and the Chinese Foreign Minister in May, 1930, China is under no circumstance to "lease or cede" to a third party any place within the province of Shantung, or its coastal region, or islands in its neighbourhood. While this arrangement failed to win international recognition at the Washington Conference in 1923, the agreement nevertheless remains in force between the contracting countries.

Consulates & Consular Jurisdiction

Japan maintains in North China Consulates-General at Tientsin, Tsinan, Tsingtao; Consulates at Chefoo, Changchiakou; and consular branches at Fangtzu, Chantien, Poshan. The consulate in Tientsin was opened in 1875. By virtue of the treaty of commerce and navigation concluded in 1896 Japan instituted the consular police. By the same treaty and also by the treaty of peace concluded at Shimonoseki in the previous year, Japan acquired the right of consular jurisdiction in China.

Japanese Garrison in North China

The Japanese garrison in this part of China dates from 1901 when in accordance with the final protocol relating to the Boxer uprising, Japan, in common with other powers, acquired the right to maintain bodies of troops in Tientsin, with small detachments on the various stations, between Peking and Shanhaikwan on those sectors of the Peking-Mukden Railway which provide direct communication between Peking and the sea, and also at the places necessary to guard the legation, consulates and Japanese residents. The garrison stationed at the time was some 2,600 strong.

The staff and equipment of the garrison before it was reenforced in 1935 was composed as follows:

Commander; officers, 100; non-commissioned officers, 1,889; machine-guns, light 153 and heavy 62; artillery, chase-guns 6; trench motors 12; mountain guns 8; field-guns 6; armoured cars, 2.

References: Table 1—Manshukoku Oyobi Chukaminkoku Ni Okeru Hompojin Oyobi Gaikokujin Jinko Tokei-hyo (Statistical Annual on Japanese and Other Residents in Manchoukuo and China), 1937, published by the Foreign Department. Tables 2, 5-7, 11-14, 16-18 & 24—S. M. R. Co. Tables 3, 4 & 8—Nippon Kogyo Shimbun. Table 9—Tientsin Office, S. M. R. Co. Tables 10 & 20-23—Hokushi Keizai Kiho (Statistical Quarterly on Economics of North China), published by Tientsin Office, S. M. R. Co. Table 15—Shen Pao Year Book, 1936.

Supplement II

Text of Addresses, Statements, Etc.

ADDRESSES BY STATE MINISTERS ON THE SINO-JAPANESE IMBROGLIO DELIVERED AT THE 72ND SESSION OF THE DIET ON SEPTEMBER 5, 1937

Address of Premier Fumimaro Konoye

I am profoundly moved to say that His Imperial Majesty's most gracious message regarding the China affair was granted us at the opening of the Imperial Diet yesterday.

It is my humble desire that we shall be able to set His Majesty's heart at rest by our loyal and devoted service to the Throne in accordance with the august will of our Sovereign.

Since the outbreak of the affair in North China on July 7, the fundamental policy of the Japanese Government toward China has been simply and purely to seek the reconsideration of the Chinese Government and the abandonment of its erroneous anti-Japanese policies, with the view of making a basic readjustment in the relations between Japan and China. This policy has never undergone a change; even today it remains the same. The Japanese Government has endeavored to save the situation by preventing aggravation of the incident and by limiting its scope.

This has been repeatedly enunciated; I trust that it is fully understood by you gentlemen.

The Chinese, however, not only fail to understand the true motives of the Japanese Government, but have increasingly aroused a spirit of contempt and have offered resistance toward Japan, taking advantage of the patience of our Government. Thus, by the outbreak of uncontrolled national sentiment, the situation has fast been aggravated, spreading to central and South China. And now, our Government, which has been patient to the utmost, has acknowledged the impossibility of settling the incident passively and locally, and has been forced to deal a firm and decisive blow against the Chinese Government in an active and comprehensive manner.

Concerned for Peace

In point of fact, for one country to adopt as its national policy the antagonizing of and the showing of contempt for some particular country, and to make these the underlying principles of national education by implanting such ideas in the minds of the young, is unprecedented in the history of the world. Thus, when we consider the outcome of such policies on the part of China, we feel grave concern not only for the future of Sino-Japanese relations, but for the peace of the Orient and consequently for the peace of the entire world.

The Japanese Government, therefore, has repeatedly requested the Chinese Government to reconsider and to change its attitude, but all in vain. This failure of the Chinese Government has finally caused the present affair. We firmly believe that it is in accordance with the right of self-defense as well as with the cause of righteousness and humanity that our country has determined to give a decisive blow to such a country, so that it may reflect upon the errors of its ways.

For the peoples of East Asia, there can be no happiness without a just peace in this part of the world. The Chinese people themselves are by no means the objective of our actions. Our objective is the Chinese Government and its army, who are carrying out such erroneous, anti-foreign policies. If, therefore, the Chinese Government truly and fully re-examines its attitude and in real sincerity makes endeavors for the establishment of peace and for the development of culture in the Orient in collaboration with our country, our Empire intends to press no further.

At the present moment, however, the sole measure for the Japanese Empire to adopt is to administer a thorough blow to the Chinese Army so that it may lose completely its will to fight. And if, at the same time, China fails to realize its mistakes and persists in its stubborn resistance, our Empire is fully prepared for protracted hostilities. Until we accomplish our mission of establishing peace in the Orient, we must face many serious difficulties, and, in order to overcome them, we must proceed steadily with our task, adhering to the spirit of perseverance and fortitude in one united body.

Now that our Imperial Army and Navy, with their loyal officers and men, are advancing with all dignity in the cause of righteousness, exalting its might far and wide, we are filled with grateful emotion. Simultaneously, we feel highly encouraged to witness the sincere support displayed throughout the length and breadth of the Empire. Let us, however, be on our guard against intoxication over victories already won and maintain an unrelaxed vigil toward achieving our final purpose.

The Government is hereby introducing to the Imperial Diet urgent budgetary and legislative measures. In these measures the Government seeks to adopt a financial and economic structure for coping with the present extraordinary situation. We are ready, however, to take all possible precautions to avoid unnecessary shock to financial circles. As for developments in the incident, foreign affairs and financial plans, they will be stated by the Ministers in charge.

The Government feels greatly honored to assist, together with you gentlemen, in the administration of affairs of the State, and at the same time feels increasingly the graveness of its responsibility. We earnestly beseech you gentlemen, to give approval after mature deliberations to the measures the Government will introduce.

Address of Mr. Koki Hirota, Minister of Foreign Affairs

As I had occasion a short while ago at the 71st session of the Diet to speak on Japan's foreign relations in general, I shall confine myself today to a review of the developments since then of the China incident."

Ever since the beginning of the present affair, the Japanese Government, in pursuance of its policy of local settlement and non-aggravation, has extended every effort to effect a speedy solution. The Nanking Government, whose prompt reconsideration was invited, failed to manifest a grain of sincerity, but concentrated its armies in North China to challenge Japan, while in the Yangtze Valley and elsewhere in South and Central China it embarked upon an anti-Japanese campaign of the most vicious kind, which not only prevented our nationals in that region from engaging in their peaceful pursuits, but also jeopardized their very existence.

In these circumstances, the Japanese Government, still desiring to avoid the disturbance of peace as far as possible, ordered the evacuation of all Japanese residents in Hankow and other points along the Yangtze River. Shortly after that, on August 9, at Shanghai, Sub-lieutenant Oyama and Seaman Saito of the landing party were murdered at the hands of the Chinese Peace Preservation Corps. Even then, Japan, adhering to a peaceful course, sought to settle the affair through the withdrawal of the Peace Preservation Corps and the removal of all military works that had been erected in violation of the 1932 truce agreement. China refused to comply with our demands under one pretext or another, and proceeded instead, to increase its troops and multiply its military works in the prohibited zone, and finally launched an unwarranted attack upon the Japanese. Thereupon, as a matter of duty, our Government dispatched a small naval re-enforcement to Shanghai as an emergency measure to insure the protection of our nationals in that city.

Joint Request Received

In view of these disquieting developments in Shanghai, the Ambassadors at Nanking of the five Powers—Great Britain, the United States, France, Germany, and Italy—sent a joint request on August 11 both to Japan and China that the two countries do all in their power to carry out effectively a plan to exclude Shanghai from the scope of any possible hostilities so as to safeguard the lives and property of foreigners. Our Government replied, through Ambassador Kawagoe, to the effect that, while Japan was most solicitously concerned over the safety of the lives and property of all foreigners, as well as of the Japanese in Shanghai, China should, as the first prerequisite, withdraw outside striking distance its regular troops and the Peace Preservation Corps that were advancing on the settlement and menacing the Japanese, and remove the military works in the vicinity of the International Settlement, and that Japan would be prepared to restore its forces to their original positions provided China agreed to take the above steps.

The Ambassador was also instructed to request the Powers concerned to exert their influence toward inducing China to execute those urgent and appropriate measures, which, however, were flatly rejected by China. On August 13, the consuls-general at Shanghai of Great Britain, the United States and France submitted a certain concrete plan, proposing that Japan and China enter into direct negotiations for the purpose of averting the impending crisis. The text of the proposal was received in Tokyo at midnight, August 13. But in the afternoon of that very day, the Chinese armies that had been pouring into the Shanghai area took the offensive, and, on August 14, their warplanes dropped bombs, not only on the headquarters of our landing party, our warship and our consulate-general, but also in many parts of the International Settlement.

No longer could we do anything but abandon all hopes for a peaceful settlement and fight for the protection of our 30,000 nationals in Shanghai. I regret to say that the earnest efforts of the Powers concerned were thus nullified by Chinese outrages.

Grave Worry Shown

Shanghai, having been converted into a theater of hostilities, grave concern was naturally shown by the Powers who had vast amounts of capital invested and large numbers of their nationals residing in the city.

Great Britain notified both Japan and China, under date of August 18, that if the Government of the two countries agreed to withdraw their forces mutually and to entrust to foreign authorities the protection of Japanese subjects residing in the International Settlement and on the extra-settlement roads, the British Government would be prepared to undertake the responsibility provided that either Powers would co-operate. On the next day, August 19, we were informed by the French Government of its readiness to support the British proposal. The American Government also had previously expressed its hope for the suspension of hostilities in the Shanghai area.

Japan, having as great interests in Shanghai as these Powers, is equally solicitous for the peace of the city. But, as stated before, the actions taken by the Chinese in and near Shanghai are plainly in violation of the truce agreement of 1933, in that they illegitimately moved their regular troops into the zone prescribed by the agreement and increased both the number and armaments of the Peace Preservation Corps and in that, relying upon their numerical superiority, they challenged the landing party and the civilian population of our country.

Reply Sent

Therefore, in its reply to the British proposal, our Government explained in detail Japan's successive efforts toward a peaceful solution, as well as the truth regarding the lawless Chinese attacks, and stated that the hostilities at Shanghai could not be brought to an end except through the withdrawal of the Chinese regular troops from the prohibited zone and of the Peace Preservation Corps from the front lines. At the same time, our sincere hope was expressed that Great Britain, as one of the parties to the truce agreement, would use its good offices to bring about the withdrawal of the Chinese troops outside the prescribed zone. Similar replies were sent to France and to the United States.

As for North China, in wilful disregard of the various pledges and agreements, Chinese Central Armies were moved northward to indulge in a series of provocative actions, and large forces began to

pour into the Province of Chahar. Our Government, therefore, has had to take determined steps to meet the situation.

Thus hostilities have now spread from North to Central China and Japan finds itself engaged in a major conflict with China on extended fields.

I am deeply pained to say that some 50,000 Japanese residents in various parts of China have been forced to evacuate, leaving behind them their huge investments, their business interests acquired through years of arduous toil and other rights and interests, while not a few of them have been made victims of hostilities. It is also to be regretted that nationals of third countries in China are being subjected to similar trials and tribulations.

Nanking Blamed

All this is due to no other cause than that the Nanking Government and also the local militarist regimes in China have for many years past deliberately undertaken to incite public opinion against Japan as a means of strengthening their own political power and, in collusion with Communist elements, have still further impaired Sino-Japanese relations. Now our loyal and valiant soldiers, with the united support of the nation behind them, are engaged in a strenuous campaign night and day amid indescribable hardships and privations. We cannot but be moved to hear of their heroic sacrifices, as well as of their brilliant achievements.

It is hardly necessary to say that the basic policy of the Japanese Government aims at the stabilization of East Asia through conciliation and cooperation between Japan, Manchoukuo and China for their common prosperity and well-being. Since China, ignoring our true motive, has mobilized its vast armies against us, we can do no other than counter by force of arms. The urgent need at this moment is that we take a resolute attitude and compel China to mend its ways. Japan has no other objective than to see a happy and tranquil North China and all China freed from the danger of a recurrence of such calamitous hostilities as the present, and Sino-Japanese relations so adjusted as will enable us to put into practice our abovementioned policy. Let us hope that the statesmen of China will be brought to take a broad view of East Asia; that they will speedily realize their mistakes, and that, turning over a new leaf, they will act in unison with the high aim and aspirations of Japan.

Address of General Hajime Sugiyama, Minister of the Army

I am going to explain the general developments in the Chinese Incident since the conclusion of the 71st session of the Imperial Diet.

The Japanese garrison in North China, after punishing the Chinese 29th Army forces in the Peiping-Tientsin area, made a portion of its forces occupy the vicinity of Changsintien on the right bank of the Yungting River about 10 miles southwest of Peiping.

A separate party of the Japanese garrison forces was commissioned to wipe out the remnants of the defeated Chinese army in the Peiping-Tientsin area. By so doing, the Japanese authorities desired to accelerate restoration of peace and order in the districts effected and looked forward to the reflection on their attitude by the Chinese in the interest of a possible peaceful settlement of the incident in cooperation with the Japanese, who continued their policy of non-aggravation of the situation.

For all the efforts on the part of the Japanese, the Chinese flagrantly violated the Umezu-Ho agreement and moved the Central Army forces northward in the zones of the Peiping-Hankow and the Tientsin-Pukow railways, which was inspired to provoke the Japanese army. In the district of Kalgan, some 80 miles northwest of Peiping and in the areas of Suiyuan and Chahar, the Chinese ignored the Doihara-Chin Teh-chun agreement and sent forth large military forces. The invading Chinese forces have thus come to menace seriously the Peiping-Tientsin area and threaten to disturb the frontier of Manchukuo. In the area of Shanghai, the Chinese concentrated large military forces in disregard of the Shanghai Truce Agreement and challenged the Japanese naval forces.

Peace Efforts Futile

Such being the case, the Chinese not only failed to understand at all the true intentions of the Imperial Government, but also their treacherous outrages assumed graver proportions and their provocative acts presented violent aspects, with the result that all the efforts made by the Japanese authorities for a peaceful settlement of the situation proved futile.

On August 15, the Imperial Japanese Government was finally obliged to abandon its policy of non-enlargement of the situation to resort to independent and drastic measures so as to punish the other party in a thoroughgoing manner and to extirpate anti-Japanese sentiment in China.

The enemy forces, which had been driven from the Peiping-Tientsin area some time before, joined the Central Army forces in the Peiping-Hankow Railway zone in a sector north of Paoting, more than 60 miles southwest of Peiping, and in the Tientsin-Pukow Railway zone in the vicinity of Machang, some 30 miles southwest of Tientsin. In these sectors, the Chinese forces steadily conducted warlike preparations, including concentration of armed forces, construction of fortifications and massing of strategic materials. The Chinese troops concentrated in those areas were finally estimated at 300,000 to 400,000 strong, and their encampments were steadily extended from the east to the west over a distance of no less than 80 miles.

In the vicinity of Paoting, the Chinese military works were arranged from the steep mountain ranges about 10 miles northwest of Paoting through the sector north of Paoting to Paiyangting Lake about 20 miles east of Paoting and the front line extended over some 26 miles. In the sector east of Paiyangting Lake, the Chinese prepared strong fortifications running from the point northeast of the lake through the damp grounds and marshes to the east of the lake, all the way to the east of Machang, which extended over some 40 miles.

Chinese Attacks Repulsed

Behind the first lines, the Chinese established manifold lines of resistance. The Chinese also took up their positions near the first lines of the Japanese forces on the Peiping-Hankow Railway, which started from the mountains northwest of Liuliho, some 20 miles southwest of Peiping and ran through the northern side of Liuliho to the vicinity of Kuyuan, some 10 miles east of Liuliho on the right bank of the Yungting River.

Separate forces of the Chinese army, ablaze with martial sentiment, moved forward from their positions at various points on the Peiping-Hankow and the Tientsin-Pukow railways and descended upon the Japanese forces. In every case, the Japanese repulsed the enemy forces and steadily advanced toward the southern sectors.

In the Peiping-Hankow Railway zone, the Japanese forces occupied Liangsiang, some 10 miles southwest of Changsintien, on August 2, while on August 30 they took the heights at Wanshoulpo, some 10 miles northwest of Liangsiang. In the Tientsin-Pukow Railway zone, the Japanese forces captured Chinghai, some 16 miles southwest of Tientsin, on August 24 and Tangkuantun, some 12 miles south of Chinghai, on September 4.

In the zone of the Peiping-Suiyuan Railway, the enemy forces took up their positions in the Nankow area, availing themselves of the natural fastnesses, while the Chinese 13th and 12th divisions were sent to the districts of Yenching, Hwailai and Kalgan, northwest of Nankow, from Shensi and Shansi.

The Japanese garrison forces in North China made up their minds to wipe out the enemy forces in the Peiping-Suiyuan area, and a portion of the Japanese army, after concluding its action in the vicinity of Peiping, moved toward Nankow and, on August 11, attacked the strong fortifications in the hilly districts around Nankow.

The enemy, taking advantage of the strong fortifications emplaced on manifold lines, offered stout resistance repeatedly, but the Japanese army, encouraged by the arrival of re-enforcements, continued to attack the enemy positions resolutely, and on August 24 succeeded in occupying Chuyungkuan, the most important Chinese fortification on the Great Wall. The Japanese, immediately after capturing the Chuyung Pass, outflanked the enemy and finally climbed over Patai Pass, the key enemy position at the northern entrance of the Nankow Mountains. The Japanese then set to pursuing the defeated Chinese forces.

Two Divisions Retreat

On the other hand, a portion of the Kwantung Army pushed from the district of Dolonor far into the Kalgan district and, frustrating stiff resistance finally occupied Kalgan on August 27. The Japanese forces which advanced from the district of Nankow and its western sector, attacked the enemy both in front and rear; and under the close co-operation of the land and air forces, the Japanese forces inflicted severe blows. As a result of the vigorous attacks, the 4th and 5th divisions of the Chinese concentrated in the northwestern area were virtually annihilated.

The enemy forces which were defeated in the fighting around Nankow retired all the way to Tatung, strategic town on the northern border of Shansi, and they are at present reported to be preparing fortifications on the lines passing Yangkou, some 20 miles northest of Tatung, through Yangyuan toward Weihsien, southeast of Tatung.

"While the Japanese forces were thus engaging the enemy forces at different points, efforts have also been made to contribute toward the promotion of peace and order, communications and correspondence in the Peiping-Tientsin area for the benefit of prospective development.

Strong forces of the Japanese army have been sent to the Shanghai area, the advance forces, closely cooperating with the Japanese naval forces, destroyed the enemy forces occupying positions on the bank of the Yangtze, near Woosung and daringly disembarked in front of the enemy positions at dawn on August 23. The Japanese forces which landed in front of the enemy are at present advancing on the Chinese troops which were attacking the Japanese naval landing forces in the sectors around Shanghai.

Lotien Occupied

With the arrival of more troops, the Japanese army forces were steadily increasing in strength and, in close co-operation with the Japanese warships and air forces, occupied Lotien, some eight miles northwest of Shanghai, on August 28, Woosung on August 31 and the Shihtzelin fort on September 1. The Japanese army forces in the area are certain to establish direct communication with the Japanese naval landing forces in the Shanghai area before long.

Such are roughly the proceedings in the China incident during the past days. But the situation still warrants few definite predictions about its future developments. The Japanese Army, in pursuance of the gracious wishes of His Majesty, are firmly determined to meet all difficulties on their way and by courageously fulfilling their duties to punish the outrageous Chinese army and thus to strive for a prompt realization of the Government's undertakings.

Even if the Chinese attempt to protract the military actions to resist the Japanese, the Japanese army will not stop its actions before it punishes the enemy in a thoroughgoing manner and, by crushing the anti-Japanese sentiment among the Chinese, nullify their bellicose sentiment. It will not stop until it thus finally attains the aims of the Imperial Government.

We hereby earnestly appeal for your firm support and co-operation so that the loyal wishes of the entire nation may be met with ever increasing glory and that all developments may combine to lead to the final victory.

By maintaining a patient and indefatigable attitude, let us do our utmost to promote the glories of our nationality at once at home and on the front to the fullest extent and, by overcoming the situation promptly, come up to the Imperial expectations.

Address of Mr. Okinori Kaya, Minister of Finance

I wish to speak on the outlines of the budget for extraordinary military and naval expenditures, as well as of the supplementary budget for the 12th year of Showa (1937), which have been submitted to the Diet and on the financial and economic policy of the Government with regard to the China Incident.

As to the expenditures connected with the present situation, your approval was previously given to the

necessary outlay at the 71st Session of the Diet. However, in view of the subsequent developments, the appropriations required to cover the expenditures on the necessary measures now are as follows:

Extraordinary military and naval expenditures—approximately ¥2,022,000,000.

In the General Accounts for various Ministries—approximately ¥42,000,000.

Of the above mentioned items, the extraordinary military and naval expenditures are those required for the conduct of hostilities. Not only because they involve large sums, but also because it is deemed necessary to treat them specially as required by their very nature, apart from the general budgetary items, and to deal with the entire period in which they are expended from now until the termination of the incident as a single fiscal year, it has been decided to submit a bill relative to the establishment of a Special Account for the Extraordinary Military and Naval Expenditures.

General Accounts

As regards the general accounts for other ministries, such appropriations are submitted for necessary expenditures in consideration of the present situation, as expenditures required for foreign affairs, an increase of the fund for the relief of soldiers and their families, encouragement of the activities for the assistance of soldiers, general mobilization of the national spirit, enforcement of the law on air defense, emergency measures for rural and fishing villages and compensation for the loss in importation of ammonium sulphate.

As for the sources of revenue for the above mentioned expenditures, it is our plan to employ funds raised by loans for all extraordinary military and naval expenditures and, for the items in the general accounts, the unused portion of this year's authorized appropriations, as well as the increased amount of ordinary annual revenue resulting from the expenditures.

Aside from these, supplementary appropriations have been provided in each special account in the overseas possessions for necessary expenditures in respect to the present situation.

Furthermore, it has been decided to present a bill for the purpose of affording the officers and men on the front in the China Incident exemption or reduction of taxes and postponement of their collection.

Need Explained

As it has been explained, the expenditures pertaining to the incident amount to a large sum; but they are deemed essential for the purpose of chastising the outrageous Chinese forces and to cause a prompt reconsideration on the part of the Chinese Government. And in order to fully accomplish these purposes, I believe it necessary to readjust our financial and economic structures so as to meet this emergency; that is to say, various measures must be taken primarily with a view to supplying as plentifully as possible necessary materials, capital, and labor to essential industries, such as those connected with national defense. While a liberal flow of capital must be positively promoted so as to cause a concentration of materials and labor in these directions the limited supply of capital, materials and labor necessitates the discouragement for the time being, of inaugurating or expanding enterprises for which there is no pressing necessity at this time, limit the exportation of materials required and simultaneously to restrict the importation of materials that are relatively unessential, thereby augmenting the capacity to import essential materials and taking measures to meet the deficiency in the commodity supply at home arising from such import restriction. In conformity with these aims, therefore, it is necessary to make suitable adjustments in finance, industries, trade, capital and foreign exchange.

Bill Submitted

The Government, therefore, has submitted a bill purported to effect a proper adjustment of capital according to the above mentioned aims with reference to the establishment or capital increases of corporations, as well as the underwriting of corporate debentures by financial institutions and also loans for financing the establishment or expansion of industrial facilities. The bill is also designed to enable the Industrial Bank of Japan to raise the issue limit of the industrial debentures or to take other measures in order to supply necessary capital for enterprises demanded by the present exigencies.

For similar purposes, the Government, in order to insure an ample supply of materials, which will be particularly necessary on account of the present situation, has decided to present a bill to forestall all impediments to proper functioning of national economy with a view to restricting the import and export of certain materials and regulating the demand and supply of goods manufactured from them. As for the regulation of such capital and materials, it is the policy of the Government to leave the matter to the voluntary adjustment of the business interests concerned.

As I have stated already, the Government will endeavor as far as possible to bring about the adjustment of demand and supply relating to goods and capital. Especially as regards the adjustment between demand and supply of articles manufactured from imported raw materials, the success of our efforts depends largely upon the curtailment of consumption by the people, and I earnestly hope that this curtailment will be practiced widely so that through the voluntary cooperation of the people, the needs of the nation, as a whole, will be satisfied. Then, as it is possible that the sudden increase of demands caused by the incident may bring about an exhorbitant rise in prices, the Government will take appropriate steps to meet adequately such a situation through proper enforcement of the anti-profiteering ordinance. Again, as to the adjustment between goods and capital, the Government is carefully watching the field of finance and has adopted a policy of omitting as much as possible from the 1938 budget appropriations items other than those connected with the incident and this same policy of retrenchment is being pursued with regard to the disbursements for 1937. Local governments will be instructed to administer their finances in accordance with the same policy.

With an increase in the amount of the Government's bond issue, greater care is required in the execution of the bond policy. The Government is planning to devise measures suited to the circumstances by means of the above mentioned adjustment of capital by law, the utilization of funds of the deposits bureau and the other Government funds and the sale of Government bonds through the post-office.

But, after all, what is most needed is that the general public, to say nothing of the financial organs, shall extend both cooperation and support from the national standpoint in the matter of bond assimilation. Of course, the assimilation of bonds has much to do with the actual condition of the financial world. The Government will see to it that the supply of capital is ample and financial channels are kept clear and unobstructed. The interest rate for Government bonds will be maintained at the present level and the exchange rate will also be kept at the level of one shilling two pence on London as firm maintenance of this level is believed essential for insuring the sufficiency of military supplies and the stability of the nation's standard of living.

I am greatly encouraged by the demonstrations of national unity in all quarters of society shown consistently since the beginning of the incident. The Government will, on its part, do its best to deal with the current situation and expects to carry out all the necessary measures. However, the desired end cannot be achieved without the united efforts of both the Government and the people, and I appeal to you for the whole-hearted support and cooperation of the entire nation. In conclusion, let me hope that you will give speedy approval to the budget which is being submitted to you.

REPLY OF THE JAPANESE GOVERNMENT TO THE BELGIAN GOVERNMENT, DECLINING THE INVITATION TO THE NINE-POWERS CONFERENCE AT BRUSSELS TO DISCUSS THE SINO-JAPANESE DISPUTE

October 27, 1937

The Japanese Government have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of the note verbale under the date of the 20th instant, by which the Royal Government, in accordance with the request of the Government of Great Britain, and with the approbation of the Government of the United States of America, propose to the Powers signatory to the treaty of February 6, 1922, to meet at Brussels on the 30th of this month in order to examine, in conformity with Article VII of the said treaty, the situation in the Far East and to study amicable means of hastening the end of the regrettable conflict which is taking place there.

Self-Defense Action

The League of Nations, in the report adopted on the 6th of the month, has declared on the basis of the two parties that the military operations carried on by Japan in China are in violation of the nine-Power treaty. The action of Japan in China is a measure of self-defense which she has been compelled to take in the face of China's violent anti-Japanese policy and practice, especially by her provocative acts appealing to force of arms; and consequently, it lies, as has been declared already by the Imperial Government, outside the purview of the nine-Power treaty.

The Assembly of the League of Nations has even gone the length of assuring China of its moral support and of recommending to its members to abstain from any action that might weaken that country's power of resistance and add to its difficulties in the present conflict, and also to study how they might individually give aid to China. This is to take no account of the just intention of the Imperial Government who propose to bring about a sincere cooperation between Japan and China, to assure enduring peace in East Asia and to contribute thereby to the peace of the world. This is to take sides with one of the parties and to encourage its hostile disposition, but in no way to contribute to an early settlement.

The Royal Government make in their invitation mention of the connection between the proposed conference and the League of Nations. However, in view of the fact that in its resolution the League of Nations has suggested a meeting of those of its members who are party to the nine-Power treaty, and that the Government of the United States, who have acquiesced in the request of the Government of Great Britain for the convocation of the conference, have declared on October 6 their approval of the resolution, the Imperial Government cannot but conclude that the convocation of the conference is linked to the resolution of the League of Nations. Now the League of Nations, as mentioned above, has expressed its views casting reflection upon the honor of Japan, and it has adopted a resolution which is incontestably unfriendly toward her. In these circumstances, the Imperial Government are constrained to believe that frank and full discussion to bring about a just, equitable and realistic solution of the conflict between Japan and China cannot be expected at the proposed conference.

Outsiders Can't Help

Moreover, the present Sino-Japanese conflict arising from the special situation of East Asia has a vital bearing upon the very existence of the two countries. The Imperial Government are firmly convinced that an attempt to seek a solution at a gathering of so many Powers whose interests in East Asia are of varying degrees, or who have practically no interests there at all, will only serve to complicate the situation still further and to put serious obstacles in the path of a just and proper solution.

For these reasons explained above, the Imperial Government regret their inability to accept the invitation of the Royal Government.

The present conflict has been caused by none other than the Chinese Government who for these many years have been engaged as a matter of national policy in disseminating anti-Japanese sentiment and encouraging anti-Japanese movements in China and who, in collusion with the Communist elements, have menaced the peace of East Asia by their virulent agitations against Japan. Consequently, what is most urgently needed for a solution of the conflict is a realization on the part of the Chinese Government of the common responsibility of Japan and China respecting the stability of East Asia, a revision of their attitude and a change of their policy to that of cooperation between the two countries. What Japan asks of the Powers is that they comprehend fully this need. Their cooperation based upon such comprehension can alone, she believes, contribute effectively toward the stabilization of East Asia.

SECOND REPLY OF JAPAN TO THE BELGIAN GOVERNMENT

November 12, 1937

Japan's reply to the nine-Power conference's second invitation, again rejecting participation in the international effort to halt the Sino-Japanese fighting, was handed by Foreign Minister Koki Hirota on Nov. 12, 1937 to the Belgian Ambassador, Baron A. de Bassompierre, and simultaneously the text was cabled to the Japanese Ambassador in Brussels, Mr. Saburo Kurusu.

The reply reiterates the Government's position mentioned in its answer to the original invitation, stating that Japan is acting in self-defense in a struggle outside the scope of the nine-Power treaty; suggests direct negotiations with China as the best channel toward a settlement; hopes that the conference will contribute toward a solution in a manner consonant with realities, and concludes with an assurance that the Government is doing everything in its power to restore peace with due respect to foreign rights and interests in China.

The final text of the reply was approved without amendment at the regular Cabinet meeting on Nov. 12 after which Foreign Minister Hirota visited the Imperial Palace at 1:30 o'clock in the afternoon and received the Emperor's sanction to the text. The Belgian Ambassador called at the Foreign Ministry at 4 o'clock and received the note.

Text of Reply

The text of the reply, released by the Foreign Office Nov. 12, follows:

The Imperial Government has the honor to acknowledge the receipt of the note verbale, dated November 7, concerning the Brussels conference.

While they are pleased to take cognizance of the fact that the opinion of the participating Powers set forth in the said note is the result of careful consideration, the Imperial Government regrets that this opinion is not sufficient to persuade them to modify the views and policy clearly expressed in their last answer, dated October 27, and in their public statement of the same date. It is stated by the participating Powers that they would be prepared to designate representatives of a small number of Powers for an exchange of views with one or several representatives of Japan within the scope of the nine-Power treaty and in conformity with its provisions.

However, the Imperial Government adheres firmly to the view that their present action, being one of self-defense forced upon Japan by the challenge of China, lies outside the scope of the nine-Power treaty and that there is no room for any discussion of the question of its application. It is certainly impossible for them to accept an invitation to a conference convened in accordance with the stipulations of that treaty after Japan has been accused of having violated its terms.

Since the present affair has its origin in the special conditions of East Asia, the most just and equitable solution can be reached through direct negotiations between the two parties who are directly and immediately interested. It is the firm conviction of the Imperial Government that an attempt to negotiate within the framework of a collective organ such as the present conference, would only arouse popular feelings in both countries and hinder a satisfactory solution of the affair.

The Imperial Government would be glad if the Powers, appreciating fully the above-mentioned view, should contribute to the stabilization of East Asia in a manner consonant with the realities of the situation.

The participating Powers state that all the Powers having interests in the Far East are affected by the present hostilities and that the whole world views with apprehension the repercussions of these hostilities on peace and on the security of the members of the family of nations. As regards this consideration, the Imperial Government desires to point out that, as has been made clear in Japan's successive declarations, they are doing everything in their power to respect the rights and interests of foreign Powers in China, and that they have the deepest concern for the firm establishment of peace in East Asia through a satisfactory conclusion of the present affair.

Statement of the Japanese Government With Regard to The Sino-Japanese Hostilities

October 27, 1937

The Japanese Government, having replied to the invitation of the Belgian Government to the conference of the signatories of the nine-Power treaty of 1922, take this opportunity of making public at home and abroad a statement of their views.

1. China has witnessed the rise and fall of countless regimes since the revolution of 1912, but her foreign policy has been consistently one of anti-foreignism. Especially since 1924, when the Kuomintang set up the Nationalist Government in Canton and entered into alliance with the Communists as a means of winning control of the central administration, the anti-foreign policy began to be pursued with unprecedented vigor and ruthlessness, and anti-foreign sentiments were kindled ablaze among the populace. The memory is still fresh of the way in which foreign Powers, one after another, were victimized and deprived of their vested rights and interests. It happens that Japan has been made for the past 10 years the principal target of this anti-foreign policy of China.

Japan has always striven to promote friendship and cooperation among the nations of East Asia, in the firm conviction that therein lies the key to the stability of that region. Japan welcomed the deepening of Chinese national consciousness which followed upon the revolution, believing that it would conduce to intimate Sino-Japanese collaboration, and she adopted the policy of meeting the legitimate national aspirations of China to the utmost possible extent. For instance, in 1926 Japan took the lead in assisting China to recover her customs autonomy, and took a firm stand in favor of China on the question of the abolition of extra-territoriality. Japan, so cultivating China's goodwill, looked patiently and eagerly forward to a favorable response that would

consort with her ideal of friendship and cooperation. However, China showed no signs of appreciation of this sympathetic attitude on the part of Japan. On the contrary, she hoisted still higher the banner of anti-Japanism and seemed resolved to annihilate all Japanese rights and interests in China.

Anti-Japanism Utilized

The Nanking Government employed anti-Japanism as a convenient tool in domestic politics for the mobilisation of public opinion in support of their regime and resorted to the unheard-of tactics of making it the foundation of moral education in the army and in the schools, so that even innocent children and youths were taught to look upon their friendly neighbor country as an enemy! As a result not only were the peaceful trade and economic activities of Japan interrupted, but even the very lives of Japanese nationals were jeopardized. This anti-Japanese campaign finally took the form of organized terrorism, as in the cases of the killing of a Japanese blue-jacket at Shanghai in November, 1935 and of the subsequent murderous attacks upon Japanese subjects at Swatow, Chengtu, Pakhoi, Hankow and Shanghai, and the bombing of Japanese residences at Shanghai and Swatow. In the face of the alarming situation, the Japanese Government remained calm and forbearing. Urgent demands were repeatedly made upon the Nanking Government for the reversal of their disastrous policy, but to no avail.

Then toward the end of last year there occurred the Sian incident, in which Chiang Kai-shek was held captive for some days. Though the exact circumstances surrounding that sensational incident remain a mystery, it is an indisputable fact that shortly afterward Communist elements, gaining the ascendency in the Nanking Government, began to conduct campaigns of disturbance in North China and Manchoukuo under the banner of the 'Anti-Japanese People's Front,' which finally led to the Lukouchiao incident of July 7 of this year, in which Japanese soldiers were unlawfully fired upon by Chinese troops in the outskirts of Peiping.

2. Upon the occurrence of the Lukouchiao incident, the Japanese Government, desirous of averting a possible Sino-Japanese crisis, immediately formulated a policy of non-aggravation and local settlement and devoted their best efforts toward bringing about an amicable solution, despite the intolerable situations that were created, one after another, by the Chinese on the spot. On the other hand, the Nanking Government, in violation of the Umezu-Ho agreement, moved north the vast forces under their direct command to threaten the Japanese garrisons and also instigated local Chinese armies against Japan. The situation was thus aggravated until a general clash between the two countries became inevitable.

It should be recalled that the Nanking Government, which employs anti-Japanism as an instrument of internal unification, had been conducting for some years militaristic propaganda aimed at Japan, and that at the same time, by importing vast quantities of munitions, constructing fortifications, and giving intensive training to the troops, they had succeeded in building up strong armaments, so that their military men grew over-confident of their own strength and the people themselves were deluded into putting an exaggerated estimate upon their country's fighting power. A belligerent spirit toward Japan came to prevail throughout the land. Long before the present outbreak, Chinese newspapers and magazines were accustomed to call Japan the 'enemy country' and Japanese their enemies. At the time of the Lukouchiao Incident, the Nanking Government being driven to action against Japan by the internal situation they themselves had created, Japan's cautious attitude and her policy of local settlement were both doomed to utter failure.

With the aggravation of the situation, all Japanese residents not only in North China but also in Central and South China became exposed to imminent danger and were compelled to evacuate en masse, abandoning the enterprises that they had toilsomely built up during long years in the past. At the same time, the Chinese in Shanghai, in contravention of the 1932 truce agreement, secretly set out to construct military works in the demilitarized zone and to perfect their war preparations. Accordingly in June last, the Japanese Government made a request for a special conference of the Powers concerned and called the attention of the Chinese Government to the matter. The Chinese refused to alter their attitude, but upon the outbreak of the armed conflict in North China, they moved troops into the prohibited zone in flagrant violation of the truce agreement and finally, following upon the murder of an officer and a man belonging to the Japanese landing party on August 9, they launched an attack upon the International Settlement. While the Japanese authorities were still engaged in negotiations with the representatives of the Powers concerned, in a desperate attempt to prevent hostilities with extreme patience and forebearance and bearing serious strategical disadvantages, the Chinese began to shell and bomb the Japanese quarters of the Settlement, as well as the Japanese garrison defending it, with a view to annihilating the 30,000 Japanese residents, as well as the Japanese forces, who were hopelessly outnumbered by the Chinese armies. Thereupon Japan was compelled to take counter-measures in self-defense.

Nanking Must Change

As is clear from the foregoing account, the fundamental cause of the aggravation of the present affair is to be found in the policy of the Nanking Government, who moved large, threatening forces into North China in contravention of the Umezu-Ho agreement and also tore up the truce agreement by marching troops on the International Settlement. Japan was compelled to take up arms in self-defense, and she has chosen this opportunity to make the Nanking Government revise their attitude for the sake of the permanent peace of East Asia. Therefore, the present affair can never be settled until the Nanking Government mend their ways, abandon once for all their anti-Japanese policy and accept Japan's policy of coperation and collaboration between the two countries.

3. It should be remembered that one of the important factors underlying Nanking's feverish agitations of more recent years against Japan is the action taken by the League of Nations at the time of the Manchurian incident. That body then adopted a resolution framed in utter disregard of the realities of the situation in East Asia, which strongly stimulated China in her anti-Japanese policy. Now the League has once more taken up the appeal of the Nanking Government. Without going fully into the real causes of the present affair, it has concluded on the basis of false reports that the bombing of the military works in strongly fortified Nanking and

Canton was an attack upon defenseless cities, and adopted the resolution of September 27 condemning Japan. Again, on October 6, the Assembly of the League not only concluded that Japan's action constituted a violation of the anti-war pact and the nine-Power treaty but also adopted a resolution which openly calls for assistance to China.

Such proceedings on the part of the League only fall in with the cunning scheme of the Nanking Government to exert pressure upon Japan by inviting the intervention of third Powers and serve no useful end but to encourage China in her resolve to oppose Japan to the last and to render a settlement of the affair more difficult than ever. It must be said that the League of Nations is repeating the error that it committed but a few years ago.

Violation Out of Question

Japan's action is a measure of self-defense taken in the face of Chinese challenge, and obviously there can be no question of violation of the nine-Power treaty. Moreover, as compared with the time when that treaty was concluded, the situation of East Asia today has been rendered totally different owing to the infiltration of Communist influence and the changes of internal conditions prevailing in China. In any case, as regards the conference that has been convened of the signatories to the nine-Power treaty, it is a foregone conclusion that a majority of the participants will hold themselves bound by the above-mentioned resolutions of the League of Nations, and even if Japan took part in its deliberations, no fair and just results could ever be expected therefrom, as in the case of the League meeting at the time of the Manchurian incident. Especially as this conference is to be attended by Powers which are not directly interested in East Asia, it is calculated to arouse popular feeling both in Japan and China, thereby complicating the situation still further but contributing nothing toward a solution. The Japanese Government have, therefore, decided to decline the invitation.

The Japanese nation, rising as one man, is united in the determination to surmount all obstacles for the purpose of effecting a speedy settlement. Japan is by no means indifferent toward international co-operation. But the Sino-Japanese difficulties can be solved only through direct negotiations between the two Powers on whom falls the common burden of responsibility for the stability of East Asia. What is needed is the elimination of Nanking's anti-Japanese policy and the Communist elements which are identified with it, so that there may be established an enduring peace based upon Sino-Japanese unity and cooperation. Japan never looks upon the Chinese people as an enemy, nor does she harbor any territorial designs. It is rather her sincere wish to witness the material and spiritual advancement of the Chinese nation. And it is her desire to promote cultural and economic cooperation with foreign Powers regarding China, while at the same time she will respect fully their rights and interests there. Accordingly, so soon as the Powers understand the true intentions of Japan, and take suitable steps to make the Nanking Government reconsider their attitude and policy, then and only then a way will have been paved for their cooperation with Japan respecting the settlement of the present conflict.

ITALO-GERMAN-JAPANESE PACT AGAINST COMMUNISM

(By The Domei Tsushin Sha)

ROME, Nov. 6, 1937—The long anticipated Italo-German-Japanese pact against the Communist International, in which Italy promises to adhere to the German-Japanese agreement and its supplementary protocol of November 25, 1936, as an original signatory, was formally signed at the Chigi Palace here at 10:57 A.M. today. The present protocol, it is announced, will be considered an integral part of the Anti-Comintern agreement which was signed at Berlin last year.

Affixing the signature for Italy was Foreign Minister Count Galeazzo Ciano, while Colonel Joachim von Ribbentrop, Reichsfuehrer Adolf Hitler's chief diplomatic envoy, and the Japanese Ambassador here Mr. Masaaki Hotta, signed respectively for Germany and Japan.

TEXT OF ITALO-GERMAN-JAPANESE PACT AGAINST COMMUNISM

An unofficial translation of the protocol of the trilateral anti-Comintern agreement signed by Italy, Germany, and Japan at Rome on Saturday follows:

"The Imperial Government of Japan,

"The Government of Italy and

"The Government of Germany,

"Considering that the Communist International is constantly endangering the civilized world in the Orient and the Occident, and disturbing and destroying its peace and order,

"Convinced that only a close collaborating between all the Powers interested in the maintenance of peace and order can check and eliminate that danger,

"Considering that Italy, a state which, since the establishment of the Fascist Regime has combated that danger with inflexible determination and which has expelled the Communist International from its territory, has decided to range herself against that common enemy along with Japan and Germany, states which on their part are animated by the same spirit of defense against the Communist International,—Have, in conformity with Article 2 of the Agreement against the Communist International concluded at Berlin on the 25th November, 1936 between Japan and Germany, agreed as follows:

Article 1

"Italy participates in the Agreement against the Communist International and to the Supplementary Protocol concluded on the 25th November, 1936, between Japan and Germany, texts of which are attached to the present Protocol as an annex thereto.

Article 2

"The three Powers Signatory to the present Protocol agree that Italy is to be considered as an original signatory of the Agreement and the Supplementary Protocol mentioned in the preceding Article, the signature of the present Protocol being equivalent to signature of the original texts of the Agreement and the Supplementary Protocol.

Article 3

"The present Protocol shall form an integral part of the Agreement and the Supplementary Protocol above mentioned.

Article 4

"The present Protocol is drawn up in Japanese, Italian, and German, each text being considered as authentic. It shall come into effect as from the date of its signature.

"In witness whereof the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective Governments, have signed the present Protocol and have affixed thereto their respective seals.

"Done in triplicate in Rome on the Sixth day of November, of the 12th year of Showa, corresponding to the Sixth day of November, 1937 A.D.,—the 16th year of the Fascist Era."

Supplement III

DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SERVICE

(FOREIGN AND JAPANESE)

(September 1937)

FOREIGN EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS IN TOKYO

EMBASSIES:

Belgium—33, Shimo-niban-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel Kudan 3556).
Ambassador—Baron de Bassompierre.
1st Secretary—Pierre Attilio Forthomme.
Secretary-Interpreter -Ferdinand Buckens.

Brazil—2, 3-chome, Omote-cho, Akasaka-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 3448).
Ambassador—Leao Velloso.
1st Secretary—Ruy Pinheiro Guimaraes.
2nd Secretary—C. Buarque de Macedo.

China—14, 6-chome, Iigura-machi, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 81 & 82).
Ambassador Hsu Shih-Ying.
Counsellor—Y. C. Yang.
Military Attache -Major-General H. C. Chang.
Commercial Counsellor—S. H. Chang (absent).
Naval Attache—Captain Liu Ten-Fu (absent).
Assist. Military Attache—Lt. Colonel H. P. Chow.
2nd Secretaries—C. Sun, Dr. T. T. Mar, Y. C. Liu, H. S. Huan.
3rd Secretaries—She Zaubeh, Hu Mai, Chu Ying Shih, Cheo Ih-Kwei, H. C. Wang, Chang Hung-Pin, Y. S. Li.

France—33, Fujimi-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Takanawa 90 & 2541).
Ambassador Charles Arsene-Henry.
Counsellor Jean Baptiste Barbier.
Military Attache Col. Charles Emmanuel Mast.
Naval Attache—Captain Joseph Rosati.
Air Attache—Wing-Commander Max Bruyere.
Commercial Attache—Comte de Tascher.
3rd Secretary—Arnaud d'Andurain de Maytie; 1st Secretary-Interpreter—Georges Bonmarchand; Secretary Archivist—Francois Guezennec; 2nd Secretary-Interpreter D. Joly; Commercial Attache—Rorert Douteau.

Germany—14, 1-chome, Nagata-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 2317, 2318, 3033).
Ambassador—Dr. Herbert von Dirksen.
Counsellor—Dr. W. Noebel.
Counsellor (of Legation) Dr. H. Kolb.
Military Attache—Colonel E. Ott.
Naval Attache—Captain Vaisseau Lietzmann.
Chancellor—H. Schultze.

Great Britain—1, Goban-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Kudan 2706 & 2707).
Ambassador—Sir Robert Craigie.
Counsellors—J. L. Dodds, W. B. Cunningham.
Military Attache—Major-General F. S. G. Piggott.
Naval Attache—Captain H. B. Rawlings.
Air Attache—Wing-Commander R. W. Chappell.
Commercial Counsellor—G. B. Sansom.
Commercial Secretary—H. A. Macrae.
Financial Counsellor—E. L. Hall-Patch. (absent)
Asst. Commercial Secretary—F. S. Tomlinson.
1st Secretary—H. Ashley Clarke.
2nd Secretary—H. R. Sawbridge; 3rd Secretary—A. A. F. Haigh; Asst. Naval Attache—Commdr. A. D. Merriman; Student Interpreter—A. J. de la Mare: Archivist—J. M. Tabor: Assistant Archivist—J. M. Clague: Military Attache's Office—H. T. Langstone: Air Attache's Office—G. H. D. Bell.

Italy—28, 1-chome, Mita, Shiba-ku. (Tel. Mita 1580 & 4060).
Ambassador—Giacinto Auriti.
Counsellor—Baron Michele Scammacca.
Military & Air Attache—Lt.-Colonel Guglielmo Scalise.
Naval Attache—Captain Alberto Ghe.
1st Secretary—Pio Macchi des Comtes de c'Cellere.
Interpreter—Almo G. Melkay.

Manchoukuo—50, Sakurada-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 4066—69).
Ambassador—Yuan Chen-Tuo.
Counsellors—Yeh Yao-kung; Takeshi Hara.
Military Attache—Major-Gen. Li Wen-Lung.
Commercial Secretaries—Kanichi Utsumi; Hsueh Yung-K'uei; Tadashi Nakao. Assistant Military Attache—Colonel Yu Chung.
Secretaries—(2nd) Mutsumi Koinuma; Mitsusato Fujimori; Hajime Kii; (3rd) Ting Wen-Yu.
Chancellors—Masuo Maeyama; Soji Yamamoto; Masatoki Oshima; Yu Tsung-Han; Shiro Yonezawa; Mrs. Hsia Shao-Kuang.

Holland—9, Tsuna-machi, Mita, Shiba-ku. (Tel. Mita 1055).
Ambassador—Thaddee de Romer.
Military & Naval Attache—Commandant Brevete Adam Przybylski.
1st Secretary—Jacek Trawinski.

Turkey—483, Yoyogi Sanya, Shibuya-ku. (Tel. Yotsuya 3901 & 1224).
Ambassador—R. Husrev Gerede.
Commercial Counsellor—Resat Kerimol.
Military Attache—Major Rustu Erdelhun.
2nd Secretary—Dr. Nureddin Naci Akinci; H. Nizamedin Erenel.

The United States of America—1, Enokizaka-machi, Akasaka-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 421-2-3 4, 525, 1409).
Ambassador—Joseph Clark Grew.
Counsellor—Eugene H. Dooman.
Military Attache—Lieut.-Col. William C. Crane.
Naval Attache—Captain Harold Bemis.
Commercial Attache—Frank S. William.
1st Secretary—Joseph F. McGurk; 2nd Secretaries—Edward S. Crocker, Cabot Coville, George D. Andrews, Jr.; Assist.-Military Attache—Captain John Weckerling. Assistant Naval Attache—Lieut.-Commdr. Ralph Andrew Ofstie. Attaches—Gerald Warner & David Caldwell. Honorary Attache—David McAlpin Pyle.

U.S.S.R.—1, Mamiana-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 138 & 139).
Ambassador—Mikhail Slavoutski.
Commercial Counsellor—Vladimir Kotchetoff (absent).
Counsellor—Nicolas Ruyvid.
Military Attache—Commandant Jean Rink.
Naval Attache—Captain Alexandre Kovaleff.
1st Secretary—Isaac Deitchman; 2nd Secretaries—Jean Jourba & Jean Beloff. Attache—Ivan Volkov & Boris Rodoff & Guerasime Bouchinski (absent).

LEGATIONS:

Afganistan—7, Aoba-cho, Shibuya-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 5790).
Minister—Habibullah Khan Tarzi.
1st Secretary—Abdul Rauf Khan.

Argentina—2, Goban-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Kudan 2065).
Minister—Eduardo Racedo.
Secretary—Arturo Alvarez Montenegro (absent).

Bolivia—7, Aoba-cho, Shibuya-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 7557).
Charge d'Affaires—J. E. Guerra Ballivian.

Canada—16, 3-chome, Omote-cho, Akasaka-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 3107).
Minister—R. Randolph Bruce (absent).
2nd Secretary (Charge d'Affaires)—E. D. McGreer.
Commercial Secretary—C. M. Croft.
2nd Secretary—Kenneth P. Kirkwood; Assist. Commercial Attache—A. Keith Doull, Theodor J. Monty.

Chile—7, 1-chome, Shirokane-Daimachi, Shiba-ku. (Tel. Takanawa 2141).
Minister—Martin Figueroa.
Commercial Counsellor—Carlos de la Barra.
Commercial Attache—Arturo Rose-Innes, Manuel Cuadros.

Colombia—108, Kobinata Suido-cho, Koishikawa-ku.
Charge d'Affaires—Leopoldo Borda Roldan

Cuba—11, Shinryudo-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 4501.
1st Secretary (Charge d'Affaires)—Dr. Florencio Guerra.

Czechoslovakia—67, Tansu machi, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 183).
Minister—Frantisek Havlicek.
Counsellor—Dr. Jan I. Havelka.

Denmark—8, Naka-dori, Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Marunouchi 967).
Minister—Baron Rudolph Bertouch-Lehn.
Assist. Commercial Attache—Aage Henriksen.

Finland—62, Tansu-machi, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 205).
Minister—Hugo Valvanne.
Secretary Archivist—Toivo Ilmari Kala.

Iran—55, Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 30 0).
Counsellor (Charge d'Affaires a.i.)—Ali Mohammad Sheybany.

Mexico—21, 2-chome, Nagata cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 4494, 4495).
Minister—General Francisco J. Aguilar (absent).
1st Secretary (Charge d'Affaires)—Juan Manuel Alcaraz Tornel.
Military Attache—Colonel Pilote Aviateur Roberto Fierro (absent).

Netherlands—1, Sakae-cho, Shiba-ku. (Tel. Shiba 3045).
Minister—General J. C. Pabst (absent).
1st Secretary (Charge d'Affaires a.i.)—Dr. J. H. van Roijen.
Secretary-Interpreter—J. B. Snellin; Assist. Interpreter—Dr. R. H. van Gulik; Attache—Lieutenant S. d n Boeft

Norway—17, Aoyama Takagi-cho, Akasaka-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 1455).

Minister—Finn Koren (absent).
1st Secretary (Charge d'Affaires a.i.)—Leif B. Buch.

Peru—2, Hiroo-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Mita 2640).
Minister—Dr. Ricardo Rivera Schreiber.
Commercial Counsellor—Jorge Baily Lembcke.
Military Attache—Commander Juan Mendoza.

Portugal—1, Sannen-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 1048).
Minister—Dr. Thomaz Ribeiro de Mello. (absent)
Secretary, Charge d'Affaires a.i.—Dr. A. Carreiro de Freitas.

Rumania—55, Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 5061).
Minister—Georges G. Stoicesco.
Military, Naval & Air Attache—Lieut.-Colonel G. Bagulesco.
1st Secretary—Radu Flondor.

Siam—2, Dai-machi, Akasaka-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 4337).
Minister—Phra Mitrakarm Raksha.
Military Attache—Lieut.-Colonel Luang Viravodha.
3rd ecretary—Luang Ratanadeb; Attache—Arun Vichitrapanda.

Spain—2, 1-chome, Ichibei-cho, Azabu-ku.
1st Secretary, Charge d'Affaires a.i.—Jose Luis Alvarez.

Sweden—22. Nishi-machi, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Mita 3420).
Minister—Widar Bagge.
1st Secretary—T. Hugo Wistrand

Switzerland—1, Shimoniban-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Kudan 2302)
Minister—Walter Thurnheer. (absent).
2nd Secretary, Charge d'Affaires a.i.—Julien Rossat.

FOREIGN CONSULATES IN JAPAN

(June 1, 1937)

*Consulate-General; C.G. = Consul-General; C. = Consul; H.C. = Honorary Consul
V.C. = Vice-Consul; H.V.C. = Honorary Vice-Consul; Aux. C. = Auxiliary Consul.

Argentina:
Kobe — Francisco Ortiz (C.G.); Enrique Moss (Aux. C.)
Nagoya — Mampei Abe (H.V.G.)
Osaka — Eizo Nakamura
Tokyo — Ikuro Atsumi (H.C.)
Yokohama — Ricardo H. Aramburu (C.)

Austria:
Tokyo — Ernst Stoeri (H.C.G.); Dr. Otto Kresta (H.V.C.)

Belgium:
Dairen (Kwantung) — Josaku Furusawa (H.V.C.)
Keijo (Chosen) — Jiro Iwaya (H.C.)
Kobe — Henri Melchior (H.C.)
Osaka — Katsutaro Inabata (H.C.)
Yokohama — Adhemar Ronvaux (H.C.)

Bolivia:
Kobe — Gisaku Takikawa (H.C.)
Osaka — Katsutaro Inabata (H.C.)
*Yokohama — Tetsuro Ono (H.C.G.)
*Tokyo — Dr. Juan Salinas de Lozada (C.G.)

Brazil
*Kobe — Oscar Correia (C.G.); Renato Carneiro da Cunha (V.C.); Egydio da Camara Souza (C.); Pedro Vicente Couto (H.V.C.); Ryuzo Tawara (Consular Agent)
Nagasaki — Yutaka Ota (H.C.)
Yokohama — Raul Bopp (C.); Shozo Ishii (H.V.C.)

Chile:
Kobe — Albert Meinhold (H.C.)
*Tokyo — Carlos de la Barra (C.G.)

China:
Fusan (Chosen) — Chen Tsu Kan (C.); S. Y. Chen (V.C.); Tsen Ting Kuin (Eleve C.)
Gensan (Chosen) — Ma Yon Fa (V.C.); Hu Chi Chuan (V.C.); W. Y. Miao (Eleve C.)
*Keijo (Chosen) — H. S. Fan (C.G.); Y. C. Su (V.C.); R. C. Tseng (Eleve C.); Y. S. Chang (Eleve C.); J. C. Yeh (Chancellor); T. K. Yeh (Chancellor)
*Kobe — S. S. Wan (C.G.); H. L. Yang (C. in charge of Osaka Bureau); H. K. Wei (C.); K. S. Ying (V.C. in charge of Nagoya Bureau); K. Y. Pang (V.C.); K. S. Sung (V.C.); M. Y. Chen (Eleve C.); Y. S. Ma. (Chancellor)
Nagasaki — J. K. Fong (C.); T. M. Chow (V.C. in charge of Moji Bureau); T. C. Wang (Eleve C.); R. Y. Ruo (Chancellor)

Shingishu (Chosen) — C. W. King (C.); H. Chang (V.C.); N. S. Chang (Chancellor)
*Taihoku (Taiwan) — Y. M. Kuo (C.G.); W. C. Wang (V.C.); T. H. Chang (V.C.); K. K. Lin (V.C.); M. K. Su (Eleve C.); W. T. Weng (Chancellor)
*Yokohama — L. C. Shao (C.G.); S. Y. Cheng (C.); C. I. La (V.C. in charge of Hakodate Bureau); K. Y. Liu (V.C.); T. S. Choo (Eleve C.); S. C. Chen (Chancellor)

Colombia:
*Yokohama — Gregorio Armenta (C.G.)

Cuba:
*Kobe
Tokyo — (in charge of Cuba Legation at Tokyo)

Czechoslovakia:
Kobe — Milos Jiri Stejskal (H.C.)
*Osaka — John Waelchli (H.C.G.)
Tokyo — Antonin Raymond (H.C.)
Yokohama — Sigmund Isaacs (H.C.)

Denmark:
Kobe — R. W. Pearce (H.C.)
Nagasaki — E. S. Maney (H.C.)
Osaka — R. W. Pearce (H.C.)
Tokyo — Aage Helborn Hansen (H.C.)
Yokohama — A. L. F. Jordan (H.C.)

Dominique:
Kobe — Ryutaro Takeda (H.C.)
*Yokohama

Egypt:
Kobe — Dr. H. Chawky (C.); Ahmed M. Farrgg (Chancellor); M. K. Salah (Eleve C.)

Ecuador:
*Yokohama — (in charge of Brazil Consulate at Yokohama)

Esthonia:
Dairen (Kwantung) — Alfred E. Ruthe (H.C.)

Finland:
Dairen (Kwantung) — Paul Pansing (H.V.C.)
Osaka & Kobe — Henrik Wilhelm Arvid Ouchterlony (H.C.)
Yokohama — Bertram Robert Berrick (H.C.)

France:
Dairen (Kwantung) — Pierre Crepin (C.); Felix Bryner (Consular Agent)
Keijo (Chosen) — Raoul Tulasne (C.)
Kobe — Pierre Marcel Depeyre (C.); Camaly (V.C.)
Nagasaki — Vachiar (Consular Agent)
Tansui — (in charge of British Consulate at Tansui)
Yokohama — Edme Gallois (C.); Robert de Franqueville (V.C.)

Germany:
Dairen (Kwantung) — Dr. E. Bischoff (C.); Huebner (Chancellor)
*Osaka — Dr. W. Wagner (C.G.); W. Schmaltz (V.C.); R. Kruger (Chancellor); B. Schrobits (Secretary); K. Schäfer (,,)
Yokohama — Dr. Crull (C.G.); D. Christians (Chancellor); F. Bohm (Secretary)

Great Britain:
Dairen (Kwantung) — L. H. Foulds (C.); G. J. Edmondson (Clerical Officer)
Hakodate — Alfred George Denbigh (Consular Agent)
Jinsen (Chosen) — W. G. Bennett (Consular Agent)
*Keijo (Chosen) — G. H. Phipps (C.G.); J. R. Donaldson (Pro. C.)
Kobe — A. R. Ovens (C. in charge); H. A. Graves (C.); W. W. McVittie (Acting C.); J.S. Waddell (Shipping Clerk)
Nagasaki — F. C. Greatrex (C.); S. A. Ringer (H.V.C.)
*Osaka — Oswald White (C.G.); L. H. Whitall (Acting C.G.); H. H. Thomas (C.); J. A. Pilcher (Acting C.); A. W. Taylor (Pro. C.)
Otaru — Stanley Howard Dawes (Consular Agent)
Shimonoseki — W. H. Sainton (Consular Agent)
Tansui (Taiwan) — C. H. Archer (C.)
Tokyo — W. J. Davies (C.); R. L Cowley (C.)
*Yokohama — R. McP. Austin (C.G.); D. W. Kermode (Acting C.G.); D. J. Cheke (Acting C.); W. J. Ham (Shipping Clerk)

Greece:
Kobe — Hamish Colin Macnaughton (H.C.); Douglas M. Young (H.V.C.)
Osaka — T. Yamada (H.C.); Antoine Pappadopoulo (C.)
Yokohama — John Harold Nancollis (H.C.)

Guatemala:
Kobe — J. Mustaros (H.C.)
Tokyo — Bunshiro Hattori (H.C.)
Yokohama — Tetsutaro Ono (H.C.)

Haiti:
Kobe — Friedrich Cords (H.C.); B. J. Lender (H.C.)

Honduras:
- *Kobe — Francisco Aleman (C.G.)
- Tokyo — Kei-ichi Ito (H. C. G.) (absent)
- Yokohama — Tokugoro Tanabe (H.C.)

Italy:
- Kobe — Marco di Renzo (V.C.)
- Nagasaki — F. C. Greatrex (Consular Agent)
- Taihoku (Taiwan). — Arundel del Re (Consular Agent)
- Yakohama — A. de Prospero (C.)

Jugoslavia:
- Osaka — Ei-ichiro Ueyama (H.C.); Kantaro Ueyama (H.V.C.)

Latvia:
- Tokyo — Hans Hunter (H.C.)

Lithania:
- Tokyo — Masaji Yasaka (H.C.)

Luxembourg:
- *Tokyo — Kaichiro Imaizumi (H.C.G.)

Manchoukuo:
- Keijo (Chosen) — Boku Ei Tetsu (H.C.G.)
- Moji — Sazo Idemitsu (H.C.)
- Shingishu (Chosen) — Yuan Tao (C.); I. Miyoshi (Chancellor); Wu Tso-Chin (Chancellor); Ma Hsueh-Yuan (Chancellor)

Mexico:
- Kobe — David Latuf (H.C.)
- Yokohama — Santiago Suarez (C.)

Nicaragua:
- *Tokyo — Edgar Torres Leal (C.G.); Fumihisa Sewaki (C.G.)

Norway:
- Dairen (Kwantung) — G. I. Larkins (H.C.)
- Kobe & Osaka — T. B. Gansmoe (H. C.)
- Nagasaki — S. A. Ringer (H.C.)
- Shimonoseki — W. H. Sainton (H.V.C.)
- Tansui (Taiwan) — (in charge of the British Consul at Tansui)
- Tokyo — C. N. B. Aall (H.C.)
- Yokohama — H. E. Standage (H.C.)

Netherlands:
- Dairen (Kwantung) — W. H. Winning (H.V.C.)
- Keijo (Chosen) — P. A. Plaisant (H.V.C.)
- *Kobe — W. H. de Roos (in charge)
- Nagasaki — C. F. Greatrex (H.V.C.)
- Shimonoseki — W. H. Sainton (H.V.C.)
- Taihoku (Taiwan) — D. Lysons (H.C.)
- Tokyo — G. J. Mulder (H.V.C.)
- Yokohama — M. S. Wiersum (H.C.)

Panama:
- Osaka & Kobe — Ernesto Bellino (H.C.)
- Yokohama — Julio E. Briceno (C.)

Paraguay:
- *Kobe — Kazuo Fujimura (H.C.G).
- Tokyo — Robert Faulkner Moss (H.C.)

Peru:
- Kobe — J. Jose Salas (C.)
- Yokohama — Dr. Humberto Fernandez (C.)

Poland:
- Osaka — Junkichi Matsuoka (H.C.)
- Tokyo — (in charge of Polish Legation at Tokyo)
- Yokohama — Toshijiro Watanabe (H.C.)

Portugal:
- Kyoto — Katsutaro Inabata (H.V.C.)
- Kobe — Francisco X. da Silva e Sousa (H.C.)
- Moji — Horace Nutter (H.V.C.)
- Nagasaki — S. A. Ringer (H.V.C.)
- Nagoya — Jirozaemon Ito (H.V.C.)
- Osaka — Taro Inabata (H.V.C.)
- Shimonoseki — Horace Nutter (H.V.C.)
- Tokyo — J. Abranches Pinto (H.C.)

Rumania:
- *Osaka — Katsutaro Inabata (H.C.G.)

Salvador:
- *Tokyo — Leon Siguenza (C.G.); Hachiro Asano (Consular Agent)

Siam:
- Kobe — Mitsuzo Enami (H.C.)
- Nagoya — Katsutaro Kato (H. C.)
- Osaka — Isaburo Azumi (H. C.); Etsutaro Azumi (H. C.)
- Yokohama — Takeo Kurata (H.C.); Shogo Nakagawa (H.V.C.)

Spain:
- Kobe —
- Yokohama — Salvador Perez (H.V.C.)

Sweden:
- Dairen (Kwantung) — W. H. Winning (C.G.)
- Kobe — Ernest William James (H. C.G.)
- Moji — W. N. Sainton (H.V.C.)
- Nagasaki — F. E. E. Ringer (H.V.C.)
- Osaka — Ernest William James (H.C. G.)
- Shimonoseki — W. H. Sainton (H.V.C.)
- Yokohama — G. B. T. Guston (H.C.)

Switzerland: (Consular affairs in charge of the Legation in Tokyo)

Turkey:
- Tokyo — (Consular affairs in charge of the Turkish Embassy in Tokyo)
- Osaka — Heibei Mori (H.C.)

- Yokohama — Zen-ichiro Hara (H.C.)

U. S. A.:
- Dairen (Kwantung) — Stuart E. Grummon (C.); Maurice Pasquet (V.C.)
- *Tokyo — Arthur Garrels (C.G.); Arthur F. Tower (C.); Stanley G. Slavens (V.C); Charles A. Cooper (V.C.)
- Kobe — Winthrop R. Scott (C.); Kenneth C. Krentz (C.); Walter P. McConaughy (C.); Frank A. Schuler (V.C.); Leslie Gordon Mayer (V.C.); E. Paul Tenney (V.C.); Otis W. Rhoades (V.C.)
- Nagasaki — Edward S. Maney (C.); Glen W. Bruner (V.C.)
- Nagoya — Charles H. Stephan (V.C.)
- Keijo (Chosen) — O. Gaylord Marsh C.G.); Ralph Cory (V.C.)
- Taihoku (Taiwan). — Alvin T. Rowe, Jr. (V.C.)
- Osaka — Charles R. Cameron (C.G.); Kenneth C. Krentz (C.)
- Yokohama — Richard F. Boyce (C.); Gregor C. Merrill (V.C.); Ivan B. White (V.C.)

U. S. S. R.:
- Dairen (Kwantung) — Israil Karas (C.)
- Hakodate — Alexandre Itkine (C.)
- *Keijo — Leonide Aisine (C.G.)
- *Kobe — Peter Krauze (C.G.)
- Otaru —
- Tsuruga —

Uruguay:
- Kobe — Alberto Borques
- Yokohama — Hiromu Yamanoi (H.C.); Toshio Yamakawa (H.C.)

Venezuela:
- Kobe — Genji Kato (H.C Agent)
- *Tokyo — Dr. Carlos Rodriguez Jimenez (C.G.); Takemaro Kobayashi (H.C.)
- Yokohama — Takemaro Kobayashi (H.C. Agent)

JAPANESE EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ABROAD

(October 1937)

EMBASSIES:

Belgium (1, Boulevard General Jacques, Ixelles Bruxelles, Belgique)
Ambassador—Saburo Kurusu (also Minister to Luxemburg)
Counsellor—Ryuki Sakamoto
Military Attache—Colonel Y. Tsuchihashi
Secretary (2nd)—M. Yoshitomi

Brazil (75, Rua dos Voluntarios da Patria, Botafogo, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil)
Ambassador—Setsuzo Sawada
Counsellor—Tokuji Amagi
Naval Attache—Commander Y. Hanada
Secretaries (2nd)—S. Shibusawa, (3rd) F. Miura, K. Tazuki, S. Komine

France (24, Rue Greuze, Paris, France)
Ambassador—Dr. Yotaro Sugimura
Counsellor—Iwataro Uchiyama
Military Attache—Colonel Y. Tsuchihashi
Naval Attache—Captain S. Yamada
Secretaries—1st) S, Sato (absent); (2nd) F. Minoda, K. Saito

Germany (Berlin W. 62, Ahornst. I, Deutschland)
Ambassador—Viscount Kimitomo Mushakoji
Counsellor—Tsuneo Yanai
Military Attache—Major-General Hiroshi Oshima
Naval Attache—Commander H. Kojima
Secretaries—(2nd) T. Masatani, J. Kanda T. Takatsu; (3rd) H. Furuuchi
Commercial Secretary—Y. Sudo, Alexander Nagai

Great Britain (37, Portman Sq., London, W. I., England)
Ambassador—Shigeru Yoshida
Counsellor—Baron Shu Tomii
Military Attache—Lieut.-Colonel E. Tatsumi
Naval Attache—Captain H. Yano
Secretaries—(1st) T. Hachiya, T. Sato; (3rd) M. Hasegawa
Commercial Counsellor—S. Moto, Shinjiro Matsuyama (also Consul-General)

China (Peking, China)
Ambassador—Shigeru Kawagoe
Counsellor—Suemasa Okamoto (also Shanghai Consul-General), Morindo Morishima, Shinrokuro Hidaka
Military Attache—Major-Gen. Kumakichi Harada
Naval Attache—Rear-Adm. Tadao Honda
Secretaries—(1st) I. Tajiri (also Shanghai Consul), (2nd) J. Fukui (also Nanking Consul), N. Yoshioka (also Shanghai Consul); (3rd) M. Sone (also Shanghai Consul), K. Okumura (also Nanking Consul), H. Shimazu (also Vice-Consul), S. Shima.
Commercial Counsellor—Mitsujiro Iwai (also Shanghai Consul)

Italy (Viale Regina Magherita 260, Rome, Italie)
Ambassador—Masaaki Hotta
Counsellor—Jun Matsumiya
Secretaries—(1st) K. Yanagizawa; (2nd) T Terazaki; (3rd) K. Ono
Military Attache—Lieut.-Colonel S. Arima

Naval Attache—Commander H. Hiraide

Manchoukuo (Hsinking, Kirin Province, Manchoukuo)
Ambassador—Gen. Kenkichi Ueda
Counsellor—Renzo Sawada
Military Attache—Major-Gen. S. Kasahara
Naval Attache—Captain Y. Suzuki
Secretaries—(1st) K. Yamamoto, T. Miura, K. Hayashide; (2nd) S. Ogata; (3rd) S. Yuki, T. Sakuma.

Turkey (Ayaz Pacha 77 Pera, Stamboul, Turquie)
Ambassador—Toshihiko Taketomi
Counsellor—Katsutaro Miyazaki
Military Attache—Major T. Isomura
1st Secretary—K. Kano

United States of America (2514 Massachusetts Ave., N. W., Washington, D.C., U.S.A.)
Ambassador—Hiroshi Saito
Counsellor—Yakichiro Suma
Military Attache—Colonel M. Hirata
Naval Attache—Captain K. Kobayashi
Secretaries—(2nd) K. Okazaki; (3rd) T. Hayama
Commercial Secretaries—Y. Shuto (absent), (Central & South America), T. Inouye (also Consul)

U. S. S. R. (Malaya Nikitskaya 13, Moscow, U. S. S. R.)
Ambassador—Mamoru, Shigemitsu
Counsellor—Haruhiko, Nishi
Military Attache—Lieut.-Colonel O. Kawamata
Naval Attache—Lieut.-Commander M. Kawabata
Secretaries—(1st) K. Sasaki, M. Shichida, M. Miyakawa; (2nd) I. Kameyama; (3rd) K. Kubota, R. Takeuchi
Commercial Secretary—K. Tanaka

LEGATIONS:

Afghanistan (Kaboul, Afghanistan)
Minister—Masamoto Kitada; (3rd) Secretaries—Kaku Kuwahara, Shintaro Iwasaki

Argentina, Paraguay & Uruguay (Calle Reconquista 336, Buenos Aires, La Argentina)
Minister
1st Secretaries—Hirobumi Terajima (also Consul)
Naval Attache—Commander Y. Hanada
Commercial Secretary—Yoshio Nakamura

Austria & Hungary (Wien III, Kölblgasse 1, Ostreich)
Minister—Masayuki Tani
Military Attache—Lieut.-Colonel T. Wakamatsu
1st Secretary—Tsutomu Suwa; (3rd) Senpachi Tanaka

Canada (Victoria Bldg., 140 Wellington St., Ottawa, Ontario)
Minister—Sotomatsu Kato
Naval Attache—Commander Kaoru Takeuchi
2nd Secretary—Takeo Kinoshita

Chile (Avenida Pedro de Valdivia 522, Santiago, Chili)
Minister—Tetsuichiro Miyake
Naval Attache—Commander Y. Hanada
2nd Interpreter—E. Kawasaki

Colombia (Edificio de Banco de la Repubrica, 520-522, Bogota.)
Minister—Yoshio Iwate
1st Secretary—Fujio Minoda

Cuba (Ad. de Belgica entre Av. de los Aliados Y. Victoria, Altura de Almendares Havana, Cuba)
Minister—Hiroshi Saito (Ambassador in Washington)
3rd Secretary—H. Terasaki (also Consul)

Czechoslovakia (Palace "Fenix" C. 60-62, Vaclavaske Namesti, Praha-11 Techecoslovaiequ)
Minister—Keinosuke Fujii
Secretaries—(1st) Noboru Ogawa (absent); (2nd) Teiichiro Takaoka; (3rd) Keizo Izumi

Egypt (No. 6 Rue Hadika, Garden City, Le Cairo, Egypte)
Minister—Masayuki Yokoyama
2nd Secretary—Otoji Saito

Finland (11, B. Parkgatan, Helsingfors, Finlande)
Minister—
Military Attache—Major Y. Kato

Iran (Av. Pahlavi, Teheran, Iran)
Minister—Yoichi Nakayama
Military Attache—Major H. Fukuchi

Latvia (Jura Alunana iela 2, dz 2. Riga, Latvija)
Minister—Shin Sakuma
Military Attache—Major M. Onodera

Mexico (also **Salvador, Guatemala, Honduias, Nicaiagua & Costalica**) (Avenida de Los Insurgentes 190, Colonia, Roma, Mexico)
Minister—Saichiro Koshida
Naval Attache—Commander K. Hamanaka
2nd Secretaries—Shunichiro Kawara, Yashichi Otani (also Consul)
2nd Interpreter—M. Izawa

Netherlands (I, Guliana Van Stolberglaan, Den Haag, Pays-Bas)
Minister—Kazue Kuwajima
2nd Secretary—I. Yamaguchi

Peru (also **Ecuador & Bolivia**) (Av. Arequipa 610, Lima, Peru)
Minister—
2nd Secretary—N. Fujimura (also Consul)
2nd Interpreter—M. Fukushima

Portugal (Praca do Rio de Janeiro 14, Lisboa, Portugal)

Minister—
1st Secretary—Motoichiro Omori

Rumania (also **Jugo-Slavia**) (Strada G. Gogu Constacuzino 33, Bucaresti, Roumanie)
Minister—Tadashi Kurihara
Military Attache—Major-Gen. S. Sawada
1st Secretary—Jiro Kurosawa
2nd Secretary—Rokuro Suzuki

Siam (545, Raja Prarob Road, Makasan, Bangkok)
Minister—Kuramatsu Murai
1st Secretaries—Takashi Mori (also Consul General), Ryuji Ito
3rd Secretary—T. Kasahara.
2nd Interpreter—R. Amada

Spain (Caille de Alcala 87, Madrid, Espana)
Minister—Makoto Yano
2nd Interpreter—Minoru Takada

Sweden (also **Norway** and **Denmark**) (Strandvagen 25, Stockholm, Suede)
Minister—Shigeru Kuriyama
Secretaries (2nd) Baron Keizo Fujii; Yayoi Iwanaga; (3rd) H. Yamaguchi

Switzerland (95, Thunstrasse, Berne, Suisse)
Minister—Eiji Amau.
2nd Secretary—T. Inoue

Japanese Office for International Conferences (Geneve, Switzerland)
Director—Eiji Amau
Deputy Director—Uzuhiko Usami
Commissioners—Y. Kiuchi, M. Yukawa, M. Kanayama

JAPANESE CONSULATE-GENERALS ABROAD

(September, 1937)

(Some of the Japanese Diplomats stationed in China have been recalled during Sino-Japanese Hostilities)

London (1, Broad Street Place, Finsbury Circus, London, E. C. 2, England)
Consul-General—Shinjiro Matsuyama

Hamburg (Hamburg, Alsterdamm 39, Europahaus. Deutschland)
Consul-General—Sentaro Yedo
Vice-Consul—Shigeo Imai

Geneva (Switzerland)
Consul-General—Uzuhiko Usami

U. S. S. R. (Asiatic Russia)

Vladivostok (24, Pekinskaya Ulitsa, Vladivostok)
Consul-General—Yujiro Sugishita
Vice-Consul—N. Hirooka

Alexandrovsk (3, Ulitsa Imeni Dzerzinskavo, Alexandrovsk, Sakhalin)
Consul-General—Bunichiro Tanaka

Habarovsk (54, Komsomolskaya Ulitsa, Habarovsk)
Consul-General—Masayasu Shimada; Shigeru Shimada

MANCHOUKUO:

Harbin:
Consul-General—Ken Tsurumi
Consuls—Kaneyuki Akiyama, Hanroku Nagaoka
Vice-Consuls—T. Taniguchi; N. Arihisa

Tsitsihar:
Consul-General—Sotaro Tanaka

Chientao:
Consul-General—Hiroshi Kawamura
Consul—Masao Masui
Vice-Consul—Kazuo Ikuta

Mukden:
Consul-General—Shohei Morioka
Consul—Toshiji Koizumi
Vice-Consuls—O. Yoshimura, T. Sai, Hisayoshi Matsubara; S. Kobayashi

CHINA:

Tientsin:
Consul-General—Kanjo Horiuchi
Consuls—Koichi Hori, Shigeyuki Murakami, Iichi Kishi, Toru Hagiwara, Akira Oye
Vice-Consuls—H. Tanaka, H. Shimazu, J. Nagai, N. Teraoka, N. Kiuchi, N. Nishida

Tsingtao:
Consul-General—Shojiro Otaka
Consuls — Suemitsu Kadowaki, Nagatoshi Osawa
Vice-Consuls—T. Michiaki, S. Yoshitake

Tsinan:
Consul-General—Manabu Arino
Vice-Consul—Shizuka Mochizuki

Shanghai:
Consul-General—Suemasa Okamoto
Consuls—H. Kitamura, S. Kato, M. Iwai (absent), I. Tajiri, T. Tajima, N. Yoshioka I. Aoyagi, M. Sone, Y. Akiba, E. Wajima
Vice-Consuls—T. Saeki, J. Ikejiri, H. Kawaguchi, N. Tabata, S. Shimada, I. Kakegawa,

Nanking:
Consul-General—

Consul—Jun Fukui
Vice-Consul—T. Nakata

Hankow:
Consul-Generals—Yoshiaki Miura, Denjiro Kato

Chengtu:
Consul-General—

Fuchow:
Consul-General—Goro Uchida

Amoy:
Consul-General—
Vice-Consuls—T. Mizumoto, S. Takahashi

Canton:
Consul-General—Toyoichi Nakamura
Vice-Consul—Shinichi Hayasaki

Hongkong:
Consul-General—Kosaku Mizusawa (absent)
Vice-Consul—Hisakichi Okamoto

Hanoi (76, Boulevard Carnot, Hanoi, Tonkin, Indo-china)
Consul-General—Ushio Munemura

Singapore (Union Bldg., Collyer Quay, Singapore, Straits-Settlements)
Consul-General—Ki-ichi Gunji
Consul—Sachio Sugita

Bangkok (545 Raja-Prarob Road, Makasan, Bang-kok, Siam)
Consul-General—Takashi Mori, Ryuji Ito, Rokuro Amada

Manila (G. de Las Reyes Bldg., Plaza Cervantes, Manila, P.I.)
Consul-General—Kiyoshi Uchiyama
Vice-Consul—Jitaro Kihara

Batavia (3, Gang Scott, Batavia, Java)
Consul General—Yutaka Ishizawa (absent)
Vice-Consul—T. Odani

Calcutta (Royal Insurance Bldg., Dalhousie Sq., Calcutta, India)
Consul-General—Kikuji Yonezawa (absent)
Vice-Consuls—Masaji Nonomura, Isoshi Asahi (absent)

Sydney (17, Castlereagh St., Sydney, New South Wales, Australia)
Consul-General—Torao Wakamatsu

Honolulu (1742, Nauuanu Av., Honolulu, Hawaii)
Consul-General—Teijiro Tamura (absent), Toyo-kichi Fukuma
Vice-Consul—T. Yamazaki

San Francisco (Postal Telegraph Bldg., Battery St., San Francisco, Cal., U. S. A.)
Consul-General—Kanzo Shiozaki
Consuls—K. Umase, Y. Hirota (absent)
Vice-Consul—Tetsujiro Kuwaori

New York (500 Fifth Av., New York City, N. Y., U. S. A.)
Consul-General—Kaname Wakasugi
Consuls—Masutaro Inouye, Toyoji Inouye
Vice-Consul—S. Fukushima

Mexico (c/o Japanese Legation, Mexico City)
Consul-General—Shunichiro Kawara

San Paulo (83, Av. Bringadeiro Luiz Antonio, San Paulo, Brazil)
Consul-General—Junzo Sakane, Kozo Ichige (absent)
Consul—Masaki Yodokawa
Vice-Consul—Keizo Hishikawa
Ribeirao Preto Branch (Rua General Osorio 112, Ribeirao Preto, Brazil)
Vice-Consul—Takeo Saito

JAPANESE CONSULATES ABROAD

(September, 1937)

(V.C.)—Vice-Consul

(Some of the Japanese Diplomats stationed in China have been recalled during Sino-Japanese Hostilities

Belgium:
Anvers—T. Tamaki

England:
Liverpool—S. Takase

France:
Marseilles—Y. Yamashita (V. C.)

Sweden:
Stockholm—Chancellor Y. Ozaki (in charge) (absent)

U. S. S. R.:
Odessa—
Blagovestchensk—S. Shimomura (V. C.)

Manchoukuo:
Suifenho—Y. Okitsu (V. C.)
Manchouli—Y. Goto (V. C.)
Hailar—T. Yonaiyama (absent), R. Goto, T. Miura (V. C.)
Antung—Y. Takiyama, M. Nakatsu (V. C.)
Chinchow—T. Kawanishi, M. Kubota (V. C.)
Chihfeng—T. Kudo (V. C.)
Chengteh—O. Matsuura (V. C.)

China:
Chefoo—S. Tanaka (V.C.)

Hangchow—Y. Matsumura (V.C.)
Kiukiang—Y. Shirai
Chenchow—T. Sasaki (V.C.)
Ichang—S. Tanaka
Changsha—S. Takai (V.C.)
Chungkiang—R. Kasuya
Shashi—K. Komori (in charge)
Swatow—S. Yamazaki
Yunnan—S. Kawanami

Philippines:
Davao—I. Shibata

Java:
Sourabaya—J. Aneha, N. Mizuta (V.C.) (absent)

Sumatra:
Medan—C. Harada, K. Yonegaki

French Indo-China:
Saigon—S. Takasawa (absent)
Rangoon—T. Kaneko (V.C.)

India:
Bombay—M. Ishikawa, K. Yutani (absent)
Colombo—S. Kuga

Egypt:
Port Said—M. Ohno (V.C.)
Alexandria—T. Kuroki

Morocco:
Casablanca—N. Katsuda

Arabia:
Beyrout—S. Obase

Ethiopia:
Addis-Ababa—J. Noda

East Africa:
Mombassa—C. Mogaki

British South Africa:
Cape Town—T. Ota

U. S. A.:
Los Angeles—I. Ohta
Portland—H. Yoshida
Seattle—I. Okamoto
Chicago—H. Masutani
New Orleans—Y. Sato

Canada:
Vancouver H. Nemichi, S. Shirokura (V.C.) (absent)
Ottawa—Chancellor Kobayashi (in charge)

Cuba:
Havana—H. Terasaki

Salvador:
San Salvador—Y. Ohtani

Panama:
Panama—Tetsuo Umimoto

Peru:
Lima—N. Fujimura

Argentina:
Buenos Aires—H. Terajima

Brazil:
Rio de Janeiro—Shunichi Komine (V.C.)
Bauru—Hayao Suetake
Belem—Eizo Iwasaki (absent), Tomiya Kozeki (V.C.)
Santos—Sakae Nanjo (V.C.)

JAPANESE HONORARY CONSULS ABROAD

(September, 1937)

(*Consulate-General)

Albania:
Tirana—Alexandre Hobdari

Austria:
Vienna—Hans Carl Zimmermann

Belgium:
Liege—Armand Faar Magis

Bolivia:
Labas*—Victor Munoz Reyes (C G.)
Trinidad—Samuel Avila Alvarado

Brazil:
Manaos—Aluysio de Araujo

Chile:
Iquique—Don Haracio Mujica

Colombia:
Bogota—Don Luis Carlos Corral

Denmark:
Copenhagen*—{ Henrik Gether (C.G.)
Robert Berner

Dominica:
Santo Domingo—Esteban Prieto Pena

Ecuador:
Guayaquil—Pedro V. Miller

France:
Algier—Pierre Marie Auguste Ferrat
le Havre—Charles Francis Langstaff
Tunis—Jules Charles Prat
Dankirk—Jean Philippe Marie Sebaux
Casa Blanca (Morocco)—Albert Emile Henri Croze

Germany:
Bremen—F. H. Noltenius
Leipzig—Alfred Selter
Munchen*—Eduard Schussel (C.G.)
Stettin*—Arthur Kunstmann (C.G.)

Great Britain:
Adelaide (Australia)—Frank Lancelot Parsons

Brisbane (,,)—Frederick Ewen Loxton
Broome (Australia)—Arthur Male
Cardiff Ronald Howard Evans
Dublin—James Bell Hollwey
Durban - William Robert Wright
Gibralter—W. H. Smith
Glasgow—Urquhart F. Burrell
Manchester—William Peer Groves
Melbourne (Australia)—David York Syme, P. J. Black (V.C.)
Middlesborough—Alfred William Bulmar
Valetta—Robert Howard
Oakland—Eliot Rypinski Davis
Wellington (New Zealand)—Norris Stephen Falla

Greece:
Salonika - Edwin N. Saltiel

Hungary:
Budapest - Hollos Odön

Italy:
Genoa—Lionel Canali
Livorno - Comte Giorgio do Chayes
Naples—Marquis de Compolattro, Charles Emile Capomazza
Palermo - Giuseppe Pater nostro
Venice—Giuseppe Fujinato

Jugoslavia:
Belgrade—Milutin Stanojevitch

Luxembourg:
Lexemberg* - Jean Pierre Arendt (C.G.), Casimir Theisen (V.C.)

Netherlands:
Rotterdam* - Hendrik Pieter Van Vliet (C.G.)
Amsterdam—William Rehbock

Norway:
Oslo* Arthur Hervich Mathiesen (C.G.)

Peru:
Trujillo - Carlos Larco Herrera
Arequipa Francisco Gomez dé la Torre

Poland:
Gdynia Feliks Collat

Portugal:
Oporto—Ricardo Spratley

Spain:
Barcelona—Georges Delgado Lauger

Sweden:
Gothenburg—Tor Erland Johnson Broström

Switzerland:
Basel—Edouard Zellweger

U. S. A.:
Boston—Richard Ely Danielson
Philadelphia - Edward Shippen Morris
Galveston—J. H. Langben
Mobile—Henry H. Clarke
San Juan—Asisclo Marxuach

Venezuela:
Caracas—Julio de Armas

Occupants of Leading Manchoukuo Government Posts, 1937

Minister of the Imperial Household ..... Hsi Chia (熙洽)
Vice-Minister of the Imperial Household ..... Kan-ichi Iriye (入江貫一)
Lead Keeper of Privy Seal ..... Yuan Chin-kai (袁金鎧)
Chief Aide de-Camp ..... General Chang Hai-peng (張海鵬)
President, Privy Council ..... Tsang Shih-i (臧式毅)
Vice-President, Privy Council ..... Harumichi Tanabe (田邊治通)
Member, Privy Council ..... Toranosuke Hashimoto (橋本虎之助)
Member, ,, ,, ... Shichitaro Yada (矢田七太郎)
Member, ,, ,, ... Hu Ssu-yuan (胡嗣瑗)
Member, ,, ,, ... Shen Soue-ling (沈瑞麟)
Member, ,, ,, ... Jung Hou (榮厚)

State Council
Prime Minister ..... General Chang Ching-hui (張景惠)
Minister of Public Peace Dept. ..... General Yu Chi-shan (于芷山)
Minister of Peoples' Welfare Dept. ..... Sun Chih-chang (孫其昌)
Minister of Industry Dept. ..... Lu Jung-huan (呂榮寰)
Minister of Economics Dept. ..... Han Yun-chieh (韓雲階)
Minister of Communications Dept. ..... Li Shao keng (李紹庚)
Minister of Justice Dept. ..... Chang Huan-siang (張煥相)
Dir.-Gen., Gen. Affairs Board ..... Naoki Hoshino (星野直樹)
Vice-Dir.-Gen., Gen. Affairs Board ..... Sho-ichi Kanki (神吉正一)
,, ,, ,, ,, ... Jikyo Tani (谷次亨)
Dir.-Gen., Home Affairs Office ..... Toshio Otsu (大津敏男)
Dir.-Gen., Foreign Affairs Office ..... Chuichi Ohashi (大橋忠一)
Dir.-Gen., Audit Board ..... Hideo Terasaki (寺崎英雄)
Dir.-Decoration Board ..... Shou Yu-peng (壽毓彭)
Gov.-Gen., Hsingan Affairs Office ..... Cha-ko-erh (札嘎爾)
Chief, Metropolitan Police Board ..... Yu Ching-tao (于鏡濤)
President, Tatung Academy ..... Tadaya Inouye (井上忠也)
President, Continental Inst. of Science ..... Umetaro Suzuki (鈴木梅太郎)

Diplomatic and Consular Service
Envoy to Japan ..... Yuan Chen-tse, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary (阮振鐸)
Consul at Blagovestchensk ..... Kuei Hung-chih (貴鴻智)
Consul at Chita ..... Li Huan (李垣)
Consul at Shingishu ..... Yuan Tao (袁濤)
Honorary Consul General at Keijo (Seoul) ..... Boku Ei-tetsu (朴榮喆)
Honorary Consul at Moji ..... Sazo Idemitsu (出光佐三)
Honorary Consul at Osaka ..... Ri-ichi Ezaki (江崎利一)
Trade Commissioner in Germany ..... Hiyoshi Kato (加藤日吉)
Counsellor, Dept. of Foreign Affairs in England ..... Arthur H. F. Edwards

Governors of Provinces
Kirin Province ..... Yen Chuan-fu (閻傳紱)
Fengtien Province ..... Pao Kang (袁康)
Antung Province ..... Huang Fu-tsun (黃富俊)
Chientao Province ..... Shoji Kanai (金井章次)
Tunghua Province ..... Lu Suan-wen (呂宣文)*
Mutankiang Province ..... Rikutaro Oshima (大島陸太郎)
Sankiang Province ..... Yu Sheng-chang (于琛澂)*
Pinkiang Province ..... Shih Li-peng (施履本)
Heiho Province ..... Hsu Kuei-huan (許桂桓)
Lungkiang Province ..... Chao Peng-ti (趙鵬第)
Jehol Province ..... Chin Ming-shih (金名世)
Chinchow Province ..... Wang I-tung (王荩棟)
Hsingan East Province ..... Eh Le-chun (鄂勒春)
Hsingan West Province ..... Ne-la-ko-erh-cha-pu (訥拉嘎爾札布)
Hsingan South Province ..... Shou Ming-a (壽明阿)
Hsingan North Province ..... Eh-lu-chin-ba-tuh (鄂爾欽巴圖)

Commanders of Army Districts
1st (Mukden), General Wang Ching-hsiu (王靜修); 2nd (Kirin), General Ki Hsing (吉興); 3rd (Tsitsihar), Lieutenant General Chang Wen-chu (張文鑄); 4th (Harbin), General Yu Sheng-chang (于琛澂); 5th (Chengteh), Lieutenant-General Hsing Shih-lien (刑士廉); 6th (Mutankiang), General Wang Tien-chung (王殿忠)

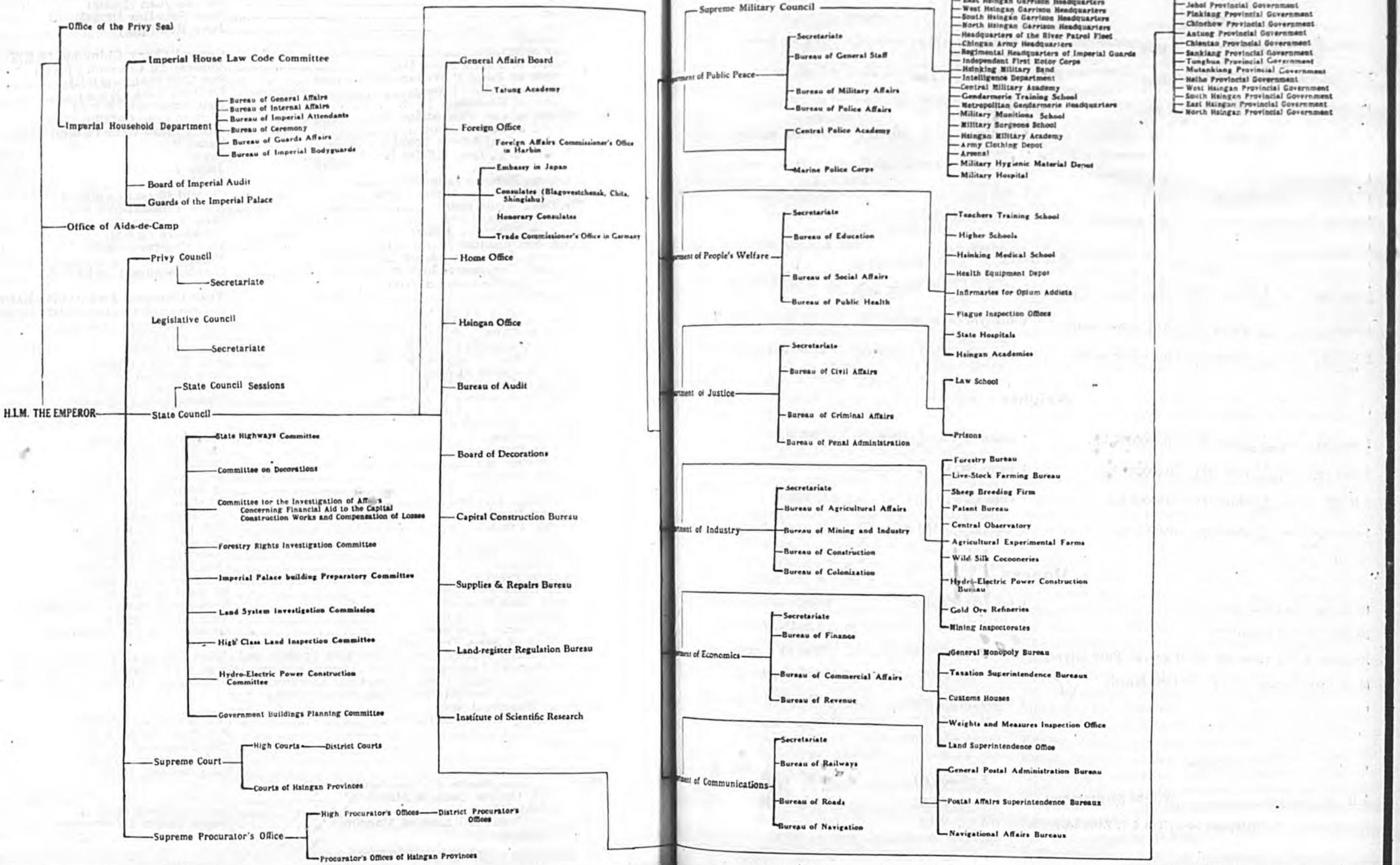
Mayors of Municipalities
Hsinking Special Municipality ..... Hsu Shao-ching (徐紹卿)
Harbin ..... Wei Huan-chang (韋煥章)
Mukden ..... Chin Jung-kuei (金榮桂)
Kirin ..... Pe Huan-hsing (白恒興)
Tsitsihar ..... Yang Nai shih (楊乃時)

Officials of State Banks of Manchoukuo
President, Central Bank of Manchou ..... Tetsusaburo Tanaka (田中鐵三郎)
Vice-President, ,, ,, ,, ... Tsai Yun-sheng (蔡運升)
President, Industrial Bank of Manchou ..... Yutaro Tomita (富田勇太郎)
Vice-President, ,, ,, ,, ... Jun-ichi Matsubara (松原純一)

* Those holding two or more posts concurrently.

DIAGRAMMATIC CHART OF ORGANIZATION OF MANCHOUKUO GOVERNMENT

STANDING: NOVEMBER, 1937



Weights, Measures and Moneys

(MANCHOUKUO)

Measures

Length

1 hao (毫)	$=\frac{1}{10,000}$ chih (尺)	$=\frac{1}{30,000}$ meter
1 li (釐)	$=\frac{1}{1,000}$ chih (尺)	$=\frac{1}{3,000}$ meter
1 fen (分)	$=\frac{1}{100}$ chih (尺)	$=\frac{1}{300}$ meter
1 tsun (寸)	$=\frac{1}{10}$ chih (尺)	$=\frac{1}{30}$ meter
1 chih (尺)		$=1/3$ meter
1 chang (丈)	=10 chih (尺)	$=3\frac{1}{3}$ meters
1 pi (引)	=100 chih (尺)	$=33\frac{1}{3}$ meters
1 li (里)	=1,500 chih (尺)	=500 meters

Area

1 kung (弓)	=25 sq. chih (尺)	$=2\frac{7}{9}$ sq. meters
1 hao (毫	$=\frac{1}{1,000}$ mu (畝)	=1 sq. meter
1 li (釐)	$=\frac{1}{100}$ mu (畝)	=10 sq. meters
1 fen (分)	$=\frac{1}{10}$ mu (畝)	=100 sq. meters
1 mu (畝)	=9,000 sq. chih (尺)	=1,000 sq. meters
1 tien (天)	=10 mu (畝)	=10,000 sq. meters
1 ching (頃)	=100 mu (畝)	=100,000 sq. meters

Quantity

1 tso (撮)	$=\frac{1}{1,000}$ sheng (升)	=0.001 cubic meter
1 shao (勺)	$=\frac{1}{100}$ sheng (升)	=0.01 cubic meter
1 ho (合)	$=\frac{1}{10}$ sheng (升)	=0.1 cubic meter
1 sheng (升)	=27 cubic chih (尺)	=1 cubic meter
1 tou (斗)	=10 sheng (升)	=10 cubic meters
1 tang (石)	=100 sheng (升)	=100 cubic meters

Weights

1 ssu (絲)	$=\frac{1}{1,000,000}$ chin (斤)	=0.0000005 kg.
1 hao (毫)	$=\frac{1}{100,000}$ chin (斤)	=0.000005 kg.
1 li (釐)	$=\frac{1}{10,000}$ chin (斤)	=0.00005 kg.
1 fen (分)	$=\frac{1}{1,000}$ chin (斤)	=0.0005 kg.
1 chien (錢)	$=\frac{1}{100}$ chin (斤)	=0.005 kg.
1 liang (兩)	$=\frac{1}{10}$ chin (斤)	=0.05 kg.
1 chin (斤)		$=\frac{1}{2}$ kg.
1 tan (擔)	=100 chin (斤)	=50 kgs.

Moneys

10 li (厘) =1 fen (分)

10 fen (分) =1 chiao (角)

10 chiao (角) =1 yuan (圓) (23.91 grs. of Pure Silver)

M. ¥ 1.00 (1 yuan) =1 G. ¥ 1.00 (Japan)

Coins

5 li (厘) (Copper) ..... Weight 2.5 grammes
(Copper 95%, Tin 4%, Zinc 1%)

1 fen (分) (Copper) ..... Weight 3.5 grammes
(Copper 95%, Tin 4%, Zinc 1%)

5 fen (分) (Nickel) ..... Weight 2 grammes
(Nickel 25%, Copper 75%)

1 chiao (角) (Nickel) ..... Weight 3 grammes
(Nickel 25%, Copper 75%)

Notes

5 chiao (角)
1 M. ¥ (圓)
5 M. ¥ (圓)
10 M. ¥ (圓)
100 M. ¥ (圓)

CHAPTER I

GEOGRAPHY & GEOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

The Empire of Manchoukuo, roughly speaking, is a country forming the northeastern littorals of the Asiatic continent, running from the Gulf of Pohai in the south to the more or less mountainous region in the north marked off by the long stream of the Amur. In the west, beyond the long sweeping range of the Greater Hsingans the country trails off into the sands of Mongolia, and in the east, is walled in by the Changpaishan range which runs along the Korean border, reaching far up behind the Maritime Province. It is a country somewhat larger than twice the area of Dutch Borneo and about equal to those of New South Wales and New Zealand, combined, inhabited by a population estimated at roughly 34 millions.

The Hsingan mountain range forms a natural boundary on the western side. Between this range and the Changpaishan range in the southeast, one running in parallel to the other, there lie extensive plains under tillage or forests. This level land is crossed by a number of streams navigable to great distances.

Manchoukuo, except in the limited parts which were early opened to outside intercourse, still remains unexplored or unsurveyed. Facts and figures are often found wanting at this stage. No little part of information available at present as to the geography of the new empire will undoubtedly have to be later corrected or revised in the light of progress which is being made in all phases of her national life. However, in so far as possible, the official and other authentic information and figures have been taken as a basis for the present chapter.

PHYSIOGRAPHIC DIVISION

Manchoukuo falls into the following phsiographic divisions:—

1. **The Great Central Plain of North & South Manchuria.**—An extensive level land forming the basin of Manchuria. It extends from the shore of the Gulf of Liaotung in the south to the regions bordering on the rivers Nonni and Sungari in the north. To these regions the Japanese have given the nomenclatures of North and South Manchuria, though such division has been a matter of more or less conjecture in some points. The line of demarcation, according to the Japanese geographers, is a mountain range which rises between Hsinking (Changchun), the Capital of the Empire, and Kungchuling in the south and runs westwards almost in a straight line somewhat beyond Taonan. This range, rising nowhere higher than 330 metres and scarcely perceptible to ordinary travellers on the railway, forms a climatic and faunal line of division. The rivers on its southern side flow southwards, contributing to the Liao river which eventually empties into the Gulf of Liaotung, while the streams on its northern side follow the opposite direction to flow into the Nonni and Sungari.

South Manchuria or the country lying south of the above line of division, quite open to the sea in the south, has heavier rainfall, rains being more abundant farther in the interior towards Hsinking. North Manchuria or the country on the northern side of the divisional line is much drier, except in small portions in the east and those close to the eastern side of the Hsingan mountains.

The plain of South Manchuria is traversed by the river Liao which has its origin in the mountains of Jehol. Where this river is joined by the streams of the west or Hsi Liao and Huangho on the west and by the east or Tung Liao on the other side there lie great fertile plains which, because of their agricultural possibilities and other favourable conditions, become the birthplace and centre of the earliest civilization of Manchuria, Liaoyang, the Capital of ancient Manchuria, being situated approximately at the centre. Yingkow at the mouth of the Liao had for many ages been the only and the most important commercial port of the country until its trade was diverted to Dairen. Tungliao or Chengchiatun, where, as its name indicates a Hun tribe obtained a concession about a century ago from the Mongol king, developed into the commercial centre of trade with eastern Mongolia and remained a brisk mart until the railway deprived it of its bean trade. The river Hunho which joins the Liao near Niuchuangcheng, because of its shipping facilities, gave birth to the industrial city of Mukden. Hsinking, an ancient city situated farther up the river, was chosen by the founder of the Manchu dynasty for the site of his government until it was transferred to Peking.

The extensive plain region formed by the main

and tributary streams of the Sungari and the Nonni, coming down, through the virgin country of north Manchuria, is marked by the city of Harbin, for many years the centre of commercial activity in this part of the country, and the growing cities of Tsitsihar in the north and that of Fuyu in the south. These regions have always been known as the granary of Manchuria.

2. Forest Zone of the Northeast and East.—A U-shaped stretch of wooded country which begins with the Hsiao or Little Hsingan range in the north and runs in a southeasterly direction along the Amur, taking in the major portions of Kirin Province and the eastern parts of Fengtien, finally joining the Changpaishan mountains of the Korean border. This wooded mountainous zone forms the watershed of the Sungari in the northeast and those of the rivers Tumen and Yalu in the southeast. The region along the converging streams of the Nonni which spring on the southern side of the Hsiao Hsingan mountains are notably marked with by the presence of soil containing abundant sodium, a condition which has prevented agricultural activity in these parts. The sections in the east and southeast, accessible to many streams, have since old days been the source of timber supplies to not only south Manchuria and north China but to Inner Mongolia as well.

3. Dry Area of the Northwest.—A far sweeping line of level country lying on the west side of the Ta or Great Hsingan mountains, taking in part of Jehol. The entire region forms a pasture land. The city of Hailar is the centre of cattle raising which is about the sole industrial activity of the whole land. Except the growing intimacy of its relations with North China, Chahar and Outer Mongolia, the importance of this part of Manchoukuo will chiefly be confined to certain lines of agricultural work which still remain to be developed.

4. Forest Zone of the North.—The wooded mountainous region which extends on the west from the northern parts of the Great Hsingan system to the Little Hsingans on the east, embracing extensive areas along the river Amur. Though unexplored for the most part, the timber resources of this region alone are said to surpass those of the islands of Saghalien and Hokkaido combined. The construction of the railway running through the country to Heiho, facing the Russian city of Blagoveschensk, will go a long way toward opening the virgin forests which are also said to guard rich gold veins at not a few places.

Boundaries

Manchoukuo is composed (1) of what were formerly known as the Three Eastern Provinces, i.e., Liaoning also knwon as Fengtien, Kirin and Heilungkiang, (2) of the province of Jehol which with Chahar formerly formed eastern Inner Mongolia, and also (3) of what was created in the earlier days of Manchoukuo as the province of Hsingan out of part of Liaoning and Heilungkiang and which has since the end of 1934 been divided into four administrative sections.

Position

The territory of the Empire of Manchoukuo extends from the Kwantung Leased Territory, which rises at the southern extremity in 38° 43', to the river Amur, reaching into 53° 30' North Latitude. The farthest point of Manchoukuo's western boundary lies in 115° 20' East Longitude while the eastern end runs to 135° 20' East Longitude, marked by the confluence of the Amur and Ussuri rivers.

Area

The area of Manchoukuo which had long been a matter of more or less conjecture, was officially announced on March 25, 1935, for the first time in the history of the country, though the figures in more than one case are given out in the form of advance estimates. The area of the Empire according to the different administrative districts, including the railway zone under Japanese jurisdiction, are as follows:—

Table 1. Area

Province	Sq. Kms.	Sq. Li
Kirin	89,910.352	359,641.408
Lungkiang	125,536.551	502,146.204
Heiho	109,813.005	439,252.020
Sankiang	107,544.608	430,178.432
Pinkiang / Mutankiang	143,425.363	573,701.852
Chientao	29,394.896	117,579.584
Antung / Tunghwa	48,225.735	192,902.940
Fengtien	85,546.224	342,184.896
Chinchow	39,461.643	157,846.572
Jehol	96,585.470	386,341.880
Hsinking Special City	191.000	764.000
Harbin Special City	929.500	3,718.000
West Hsingan	80,410.552	321,642.208
South Hsingan	79,021.515	316,086.060
East Hsingan	106,751.007	427,004.028
North Hsingan	160,396.731	641,582.924
Total	1,303,143.252	5,212,573.008

MOUNTAINS

The most prominent mountains are the Hsingan Mountains which are composed of the following three systems:—

Great Hsingan.—The Great Hsingan Mountains form a natural border of Inner Mongolia extending from the Wutaishan mountains bordering the northern side of the Yellow River to the western region of Heilungkiang, separated from the Yablonoi and Stanovoi mountains by the river Amur. These long mountainous ranges are for the most part gently rising ground, seldom rising higher than 2,000 metres, though 200 kilometres wide at some points.

Among the more prominent peaks are Soyuluchi, Boktokhol and Yaku, all of which, however, fall below the height of two thousand metres.

Ilihuli.—The Ilihuli Mountains begin where Mount Ilihuli forms a right angle with the northern extremities of the Great Hsingans, close to the northern border. Thence these mountains run down along the curving stream of the Amur losing themselves in the Little Hsingans. The higest peak, lying westwards of Heiho, is known as Erhkoshan, a volcano about 600 metres high. In the southeastern part of this system is the dormant volcano Uyunkholdongi, well known to geographers.

Little Hsingan.—The Little Hsingan Mountains begin in the neighbourhood of Uyunkholdongi and run in an eastern direction. This mountain range, nowhere rising above 1,200 metres, presents the general appearance of wooded plateaus, rising out of the marshy low plains. These mountains form the watershed of the branching streams of the rivers Amur and Sungari in these parts of North Manchuria.

Changpaishan.—The Changpaishan Mountains are a far stretching system running in parallel to the Great Hsingans, from the Korean border to the coast of Ussuri Province. The southern section branches off into another system forming the backbone of the Liaotung Peninsula. The middle section forms the watershed of the Tumen and Mutankiang, running northwards, and the Sungari and Yalu running westwards and southwards respectively. Except the highest peak, Peitushan, 2,744 metres high and lying in the middle part, the mountains are below two thousand metres in height, presenting rather features of extensive wooded plateaus. The northern portions branch off into the ranges known respectively by the names of Laoyehling, and Laochangkuangtsailing, which reach as far north as the mountains range of Huantashan. Among the more familiar peaks of those forming the ridge of the Liaotung peninsula are Fenghuangshan and Motienling of more or less historic interest, and Chienshan and Tahoshangshan often mentioned because of their scenic attraction.

The watershed of the Liaoho and Heilungkiang, forming a natural line of division between North and South Manchuria, is a line of gently sloping ground running from Mount Changpaishan in a northwesterly direction until it reaches the eastern slope of the Great Hsingans. The whole divide extends over a distance of more than 800 kilometres, though it seldom rises more than 250 metres in height.

Yinshan.—The Yinshan Mountains join the southwestern end of the Great Hsingans in the west and decline to the plains of the Liao river in the east. The peaks of this system are generally high and marked with sharp declivities and rocky features, forming defiles and glens at many places. The two ranges, branching off in a northeasterly direction, parallel to one another, are known respectively as the Lengyuan and Sungtsen ranges.

Volcanoes.—In addition to those already mentioned the following are recorded; Shater, 123° 37' E. L. and 49° 47' N. L.; "Kankui" named by Mr. Niiobi of the South Manchuria Railway, 124° 35' E. L. 49° 38' N. L.; Koronan 125° 14' E. L. 49 ° 14' N. L. These volcanoes, though prominent for topographical reasons, are not high, assuming in most cases the form of a cinder cone.

Plains and Steppes.—The plains of Manchuria roughly speaking, extends over the great basin formed by the mountain ranges on the east and the west sides. The plain of North Manchuria, lying north of the divide running from east to west below Hsinking (Changchun) and drained by both Nonni and Sungari, are generally formed of alluvial deposits, with grass-covered, sandy ground at places. The soil is suitable for growth of beans and wheat.

The plain south of the above divide is drained by the river Liaoho and its tributaries. This part of the country is somewhat lower in comparison with the area on the other side of the divide and is of diluvial formation with occasional occurrences of alluvial deposits mixed at places with loess. The southern portion of these central plains is suitable for cultivation of beans and kaoliang.

These eastern slopes of the Great Hsingan mountains, in which the Liao, Heilungkiang, Nonni and Sungari have each their origins, form extensive steppes good for cattle breeding.

RIVERS

The rivers of Manchoukuo fall into two systems, the one representing those streams which flow in northerly or northeasterly directions to empty into the Japan Sea; and the other those which run in a southwesterly direction to flow into either the Sea of Pohai or the Sea of Pechihli. Among the first group are to be noted Amur, Sungari, Nonni and Tumen. The second group includes Liaoho, Yalu and Talingho. What

may be noted as characteristic of all the Manchoukuo rivers is that their waters are turbid, containing a considerable amount of mud or sand, and that their lower courses are marked with many turns and bends.

Heilungkiang (Amur).—The Heilungkiang or black Dragon river in Chinese, better known abroad by the Russian name Amur, forms the northern boundary of Manchoukuo. This river, the upper reaches of which are known as the river Argun, has its origin on the western side of the northern extremities of the Great Hsingans. Later joined by the river Onon, the Amur runs in an easterly direction, forming gorges through the Hsingan mountains until it receives the waters of the Sungari and Ussuri rivers. At this point the Amur turns northwards and empties into the Sea of Tartary, north of Nikolaevsk. The total length of the Amur is roughly estimated at some 4,000 kilometres of which three-quarters drain Manchoukuo soil. The navigable distance is about 2,000 kilometres. The river begins to freeze up during the first three weeks of November, and the thawing sets in between the close of April and the early part of May, free navigation being possible for not more than 155 to 200 days in the year.

Sunghuakiang (Sungari).—The Sunghuakiang or more popularly known by the Russian name Sungari, forming the biggest tributary of the Amur, rises in the northeastern part of Mount Paitoushan and, passing by the city of Kirin in its northerly course, flows through the central plain until it is joined by the Nonni near Fuyu. Making a turn here in an easterly direction, it goes on to form the boundary between Heilungkiang and Kirin Provinces as far as Ilan or Sanhsing, where it receives the waters of the Mutankiang. Thence following a northerly course and passing by the city of Harbin, the Sungari joins the Amur at Tungkiang or Lahasusu. The total length is something more than 2,000 kilometres. The river drains for the most part what is known as the granary of North Manchuria.

The Sungari, from its natural features, may be divided into four sections; (1) from the upper reaches to the city of Kirin, 595 kilometres; (2) from Kirin to the Nonni, 392 kilometres; (3) from the Nonni to Harbin, 245 kilometres; (4) from Harbin to the Amur, 695 kilometres. The first course, because of many shoals and rapids, is negligible from the point of view of shipping, being open to navigation only by flat bottomed river boats. The section between Kirin, which is the terminal point for ordinary shipping, and the Nonni is navigable by streamers of light draught. The course between the confluence with the Nonni and Harbin is 250 to 850 metres broad and 7 feet deep, though there are frequent shoals where the depth is not more than 3 to 4 feet. The river extends near Harbin to a width of one kilometre, though it falls off to less than 500 metres broad in the low water season. The course between Harbin and the Mutankiang, though abounding in shoals alternating with deep pools, are quite possible for navigation by steamships of more than 1,000 tons. The deeper parts range from 7 to 14 feet, some places being even as many as 30 feet deep. The last course between the confluence with the Mutankiang and that with the Amur offer better conditions of navigation, the depth ranging from 5 to 20 feet. The watercourse in this part is from 200 to 300 metres broad. The Sungari is frozen for six months of winter, the section around Harbin freezing between the close of October and the middle of the next month. The thawing in this part begins on April 1st and lasts to the middle of the same month. The lower section around Lahasusu is seldom freed from ice before the end of April. The Sungari, generally speaking, is open to navigation for 200 to 210 days in the year.

Nenkiang (Nonni).—The Nonni originates in the Ilihulishan mountains and runs down southwards, draining the northwestern regions of North Manchuria. Receiving the waters of many tributaries on its course, it passes through the regions of Mokhen (Nenkiang) and Tsitsihar until it is farther on joined by the river Taorho, in the west. Thence the stream goes on in a southeastern direction and flows into the Sungari. The total length of the river is given as some 800 kilometres. Though shipping has seen but little development upon the Nonni or its tributaries, the course between Tsitsihar and the Sungari, a distance of 450 kilometres, offers good conditions of navigation, there being about 30 metres of water along the central water course. The section between Tsitsihar and Mokhen, though 150 to 420 metres broad and quite deep, is being availed of by sailing boats as present. The Nonni is closed to shipping by ice from the first week of November to the early part of April of the following year.

Tumenkiang.—The Tumenkiang or the river Tumen springs from the eastern side of Paitoushan and flows northwards, swelling on its way with the tributary waters of Korea and Kirin. Northeast of Yenki, of Chientao, the river makes a sharp turn in a southeasterly direction and flows into the Sea of Japan, south of Possiet Bay. The Tumen whose total length is estimated at something like 300 kilometres, forms for the most part the boundary between the Korean peninsula and the southeastern region of Manchoukuo, and that between Korea and Soviet Russia towards its end. Despite its length, the Tumen is navigable only a distance of 95 kilometres from its mouth up to the confluence with the river Hunchun. The river is frozen from the middle of November to the end of March.

Yalu.—The Yalu rises on the southern side of Mount Paitoushan and follows a northwesterly course as far as Linchiang where it turns southwards, forming the boundary between Korea and Manchuria. Joined by the Hunho and later by the Aiho, both coming down the Manchurian plain, the main stream empties below Antung into the Yellow Sea forming extensive deltas at its mouth. The total length is given as upwards of 790 kilometres. Though navigable up to Antung, a distance of 28 kilometres, the watercourse is narrow and featured by many bends making navigation both difficult and dangerous.

Liaoho.—The Liaoho is composed of two streams, the Hsiliaoho whose upper reaches are known as Shiramuren rising on the eastern slopes of the Hsingan range in Jehol, and the Tungliaoho originating on the western side of Mount Saghalyan of the Changpaishan system. The western stream, absorbing a number of tributaries of more or less size, flows in a northeastern direction until it is joined by the eastern stream near Sanchiangkou, or below Chengchiatun, to swell into a watercourse of considerable magnitude. From that point the river follows a southern course receiving the confluent streams of Tatzuho and Hunho, finally emptying below Yingkow into the Bay of Liaotung. The total length of the Liaoho, taking the longer course of the western Liaoho, is about 2,540 kilometres. The river is navigable by small boats up to Chengchiatun, a distance of about 880 kilometres. The presence of silting sand at its mouth considerably deprives it of its value as a watercourse. The river is frozen for four months of winter.

Talingho.—The Talingho rises in the Sungling mountains east of Chienping, Jehol, and joined by a number of tributaries on its southeastern course, flows into the Bay of Liaotung eastwards of Chinchow. The total length is about 500 kilometres.

Luanho.—The Luanho originates on the western side of the Yinshan range in Jehol and flowing in a southeasterly direction close by the city of Jehol, passes into Chinese territory eventually to empty into the Sea of Pohai. The length of the river is some 400 kilometres.

Mutankiang.—The Mutankiang, also known as Ningtaho, second in size only to the Nonni among the tributaries of the Sungari, rises on the northern slope of the Changpaishan range and flows northwards until it joins the Sungari near Sanhsing beyond the North Manchuria Railway line. The river forms on its way Lake Chingpo, also know as Lake Pirton. The length of the river is some 475 kilometres. While the stream is suitable for flowing down rafts, it is not navigable because of its swift currents and rocky bottom. The river is frozen from the close of November to the middle part of April.

Hulanho.—The Hulanho is a slow moving stream running down the southern slopes of the Folun mountains and joins the Sungari just below the city of Harbin. The length of the stream is about 375 kilometres. With 3 to 8 feet of water under ordinary conditions, the river is navigable up to Hulan by steamboats of 3 to 3.5 feet draught. It is closed to traffic by ice from November to April.

Ussuri.—The Ussulikiang or Ussuri river has its sources, on the Manchuria side, in the northern parts of the Changpaishan range. Joining the Mulingho, it flows into the confluent waters coming down northward by the town of Iman. From that point onward the Ussuri forms the boundary between Manchoukuo and the Maritime Province of Soviet Union, until it eventually flows into the Amur near Habarovsk. The total length of the river is estimated at 905 kilometres, including the longest tributary of Hula. With its water seldom falling below four feet and usually rising to 15 feet in the high water season, the river is navigable by ships of four feet draught. On its tributaries Mulingho and Naoli there is heavy traffic of small steam-boats and junks. The Ussulikiang is closed by ice from the middle of November to the middle of April.

Table 2. Ten Largest River Basins of Manchoukuo

	Total area of basin (Sq. Kms.)	Extension of basin (Kms.)	Average width of basin (Kms.)	Total area of basins within Manchoukuo (Sq. Kms.)
Liao-ho	224,658.05	1,312.50	171.17	224,658.05
Sungfwa-kiang (Sungari)	523,582.91	1,662.00	315.03	279,679.07
Heilung-kiang	1,960,650.00	4,053.50	483.69	861,696.50
Ehrkona-ho	263,840.00	1,423.50	185.35	152,201.83
Nun-ho	243,903.84	1,089.00	223.97	243,903.84
Wusuli-kiang	187,995.15	900.00	208.88	60,058.50
Tumen-kiang	58,564.37	944.50	120.09	33,982.26
Yalu-kiang	62,638.70	790.35	79.25	31,511.11
Taliao-ho	23,156.80	357.50	64.77	32,156.80
Luan-ho	44,639.50	884.40	50.47	35,028.00

LAKES

Two types of lakes occur in Manchuria; the one is an ordinary permanent lake of fresh or salt water; and the other, what is called a lake of playa type, which is dessicated in the dry season. Of the latter sort the most conspicuous instance is Tabusu-nor, a round shaped lake about 8 kilometres in diameter, lying 95 kilometres southeast of Taonan. When dry, the lake appears white with the heavy deposits of salt.

Among the permanent lakes the largest is Lake Hsingkai or Hanka the northern portion of which belongs to Manchoukuo and the southern portion to the Soviet Union. It measures about 90 kilometres from north to south and 50 kilometres from east to west.

Lake Tapaku or Lesser Hanka lies north of Hsingkai with which it is joined by a river. Its circumference is about 60 English miles.

Lake Chingpo or Pirton lies on the upper course of the Mutankiang, about 50 kilometres south of Ninguta, Kirin Province. It is about 40 kilometres from north to south and 8 kilometres from east to west. The northern part is called North Lake and the southern part South Lake.

Dalai-nor, also known as Lake Hulun, lies in the western part of Hsingan Province, south of Manchouli. It measures about 40 kilometres in length and 8 kilometres in width.

Lake Bail-nor (Buir-nor) is a salt water lake lying south of Dalai-nor and half as large in its water area. These two lakes are joined by the Urson river.

Yuehliangpao is a lake about five English miles in circumference, lying north of Talai and connected with the Nonni river. The lake abounds in fish.

COASTLINE

The coastline of Manchoukuo, extending from the mouth of the Yalu river to Shanhaikwan, where the Great Wall comes down to the sea, is marked with few harbours or bays. The total coastline is no more than 700 kilometres, slightly more than one eleventh of the total outline of the country. The coast of the Yellow Sea runs almost in a straight line from northeast to southwest. Because of the existence along the whole line of shoals from 2 to 6 kilometres broad, the waters are shallow and offer little shipping facilities. The coast line of the Pohai Sea, however, is longer and more irregular in its contour, providing harbours of more or less value, amongst which may be mentioned Yingkow on the Liaoho and Hulutao on Lienshan Bay.

HARBOURS

The most important is Dairen, known in the late nineteenth century as Victoria Bay and later as Dalny under Russian administration on the eastern side of the Liaotung peninsula, 20 miles northeast of Port Arthur. Protected by land on three sides, the harbour is open on the east, with the island Erhtaohsu lying off the entrance. The harbour is provided with breakwaters eight in number and extending in all over more than 4,000 metres, and the water within the breakwater covers an area of upwards of 3,100,000 square metres. The depth of the water within the harbour is 8 to 11 metres at the southern end of the Liaotung penisula berthing at a time 37 steamships of 5,000 tons. While the harbour is not free from ice between December and February, the sea routes are kept open by means of ice-breakers.

Port Arthur.—Port Arthur is a land-locked harbour situated at the southern end of the Liaotung peninsula and the only port in Manchoukuo that is free from ice all winter. As its Chinese name Liushun—available travel route—indicates, it was known from ancient times as the landing place for those proceeding into the interior of Manchuria. Fortified first under the Manchu dynasty, and later leased by Russia and next by Japan, it remained as a naval base under the administration of the Japanese navy until in 1927 it was made a commercial port in the full sense of the term.

The eastern section of the harbour, having a depth of 8 to 9 mertes, is taken as a naval base. The western portion, known as Western Harbour, is open to commercial shipping; but shoals are frequent in that part. The only anchorage available for steamers measures but 430 metres wide and 1,280 metres deep, though its water of 9 metres easily harbours steamships of 6,000 tons. The section used for junks is 2 to 4 metres deep.

Hulutao.—Hulutao is a piece of land projecting into the sea of Lienshan Bay, approachable by a railway, about 12 kilometres long, branching off at Lienshan station, 33 miles west of Chinchou. The water is deep and free from ice all the year round. The harbour construction scheme was originally conceived and undertaken by the Chinese authorities to provide a rival port of Dairen. After repeated abortive attempts to carry out the scheme, the Mukden authorities concluded in January, 1930 a construction contract with the Netherlands Harbour Construction Company for 6,400,000 gold dollars. The work was begun in July of the same year, but had to be stopped in September of the next on account of the Manchurian Incident. In 1936 the port had a capacity of handling 60,000 tons.

Yingkow.—Yingkow Harbour, situated at the mouth of the river Liaoho, was established in 1861 when the British Consulate was transferred here from the old port town of Neuchang, some 60 Chinese miles farther up the river, one of the first five ports opened by the Tientsin treaty concluded in 1858 between China and Great Britain. The harbour had grown since then to be the busiest port of South Manchuria until Dairen, under Japanese lease began to take away its trade through its better facilities and equipment as a commercial port. Although the section used for mooring steamships is about 13,500 metres in length, the quay for berthing ocean going craft is no more than 4,486 metres long. The section outside the harbour is used exclusively by junks.

The depth of the river Liaoho is constantly changing on account of the sand washed down by the stream. At the entrance to the harbour there are extensive sand bars where the water is no more than 8 to 9 feet deep at low tide. The river within the harbour is on an average 750 metres wide, though it narrows to about 560 metres around the wharf of the South Manchuria Railway. The depth within the harbour is from 20 to 33 feet at low tide, the deepest portions being as much as 50 to 70 feet deep. The harbour is practically closed by ice from the middle of December to the latter part of March.

Antung.—Antung, which is among all Manchurian harbours the most important as a shipping port for timber, is situated 25 miles above Hsintao at the mouth of the Yalu River. The water around Antung is 1,000 to 1,500 metres wide and 3.7 metres deep at low tide. The steamships entering Antung are limited to tonnages below 7 to 8 hundred. The lower reaches where the water is about 10 feet at low tide are used as the anchorage for vessels of 1,200 or more tons. Between Antung and Hsintao and Santaolang steam launches and lighters are operated. The port of Antung is closed to traffic by ice during the four months of winter.

GEOLOGY OF MANCHOUKUO

Although considerable light has been thrown upon the geology of Manchuria and Mongolia during the last century, the available information is still, for the most part, either fragmentary or local. In so far as this field of science is concerned, the whole country of Manchoukuo remains a matter of more or less conjecture. Generally speaking, the land of central Manchuria and Mongolia is marked by the presence of rocky formations of high antiquity and by the frequent occurrences of very recent rocks, lacking in strata of intervening periods. The strata of the former description are, for the most part, marine while those of the latter are terrestrial. What is more, the strata are generally found in horizontal lines, showing that the land, except the limited areas affected by greater warping movements, has been under relatively little pressure.

Manchuria.—A general idea of the geology of Manchuria, so far as has been investigated, may be had from the table below:

Table 3. Geologic Formation of Manchuria

Chiefly based on the report by Professor Murakami

Geological Period	Principal Rocks	Principal Fossils
Cainozoic Era:		
Quarternary Period	Sands, gravels, clays loess, basalts.	Mammoth, bison, deer, reindeer elks, rhinoceros.
Tertiary Period	Shales, sandstones, tuffs, basalts, trachyte, andesite.	Ferns, sago-palms, Glyptostrobus, Comtoriphyllum, Populus, insects, spiders, torstoise, freshwater fishes, etc.
Mesozoic Era:		
Cretaceous Period	Sandstones, shales.	Eggs of seaturtles, fresh water fishes, etc.
Jurassic Period	Sandstones, shales, marls, conglomerates, coals, granite-porphyry, quartz-porphyry, liparite.	Ferns, sago-palms, gingo-trees, conifers, bivalves, primordial mammals, etc.
Triassic Period	(Wanting).	

Geological Period	Principal Rocks	Principal Fossils
Palaeozoic Era: Permian Period	Limestone, sandstones, shales, coals.	Lepidodendron, Sphenopteris, cordaites, Fusulia japonica, crinoids, corals, etc.
Sub-carboniferous Period Silurian Period Devonian Period Ordovician Period	(Wanting).	
	Limestone, shales, clay-slates, marls, sandstones.	Cephalopods (orthoceras, etc.), gasteropods (maelurea, etc.), brachiopods (Obolus, etc.), trilobites (Ptychasyis), fucoids.
Cambrian Period	Limestone, marls, shales, clay-slates, sandstones, conglomerates, gabbro, Granites, porphyrites.	Brachiopods (obolus, obolleta, etc.), pteropods, lamelli'branchia, gasteropods (more than 70 species), trilobites, etc.
Protozoic Era	Crystalline schists, silica, clay-slates, Lydian stone, limestone, dolomite, ironstones, Granites, gabbro.	Fucoids.
Archaean Era	Gneisses, crystalline schists, silica, crystalline limestone, granites.	

Geological Characteristics.—The following may be enumerated as geological characteristics of Manchuria: (1) granite and other rocky strata of high antiquity are seen in well developed states: (2) conspicuous absence of Silurian, Devonian; Sub-carboniferous and Triassic rocks; (3) scarcity of volcanic action and earthquakes, showing relatively small areas of exposed recent volcanic rocks; (4) the long geological history of the land as shown by a wide distribution of granite areas and extensive exposure of rocky beds of high antiquity, a point also confirmed by the fact that the rock beds than of the middle of the Mesozoic era are invariably either terrigenous or lacustrine.

What stand out as notable characteristics from the tectonic point of view, are the Hsingan and the Changpaishan ranges, forming between them the extensive basin of south and central Manchuria. The former mountain range is formed by a long folding of rocks, the western side of which is covered by sand, presenting an appearance as of plateaus. The eastern side of the range is marked by precipitable declivities with an occasional presence of small faults. The latter range is the western ridge of the above central basin.

What is of considerable geological interest is the Sungling mountain range which forms the boundary between Jehol and Fengtien Provinces, close to the Pohai Sea. The northern section of the range follows a northeasterly course as far as Tiehling on the main line of the South Manchuria Railway, above Mukden, and then turns eastwards reaching as far as Paitoushan mountain close to the Korean border. The areas south of this range abounds in strata and beds of Cambrian, Ordovician and even earlier times, embracing extensive veins of fire proof clays, magnesite and haematite. The land north of the range is wanting in those ancient rocks or any of those valuable mineral deposits, the granite and gneiss beds being generally under the Mesozoic strata. Along the above mountain range are noted conspicuous overthrusts of Palaeozoic strata above more recent rocky formations. These overthrusts, not without association with the general warping of the Mongolian land, are attributed to the middle part of the Tertiary period. As a stratigraphic feature of more recent date may be noted the Sungling range passing almost east and west, south of Hsinking, forming the watershed of Heilungkiang and the Liaoho plains, which joins the above Sungling east of the South Manchuria Railway line. This elevated system in parts still continues its upheaval movements. The western sector, as shown by the evidence of recent volcanic action, must have ceased its movement only recently. The eastern extremities of this mountains range, close to the eastern coast of the Korean peninsula, still continue the perpendicular movements which commenced in the latter part of the Tertiary period.

Geology of Mongolia.—Of the geology of Mongolia, which remains for the most part to be investigated, a general idea may be had from the table below, largely based on the work of Berkey, Morris and Grabau:

Table 4. Geologic Formation of Mongolia

Geological Period	Principal Rocks	Thickness in meters	Principal Fossils
Cainozoic Era:			
Quarternary Period — Alluvium	Sands, Gravels, Clays, Lacustrine deposits, Loess.	1-30	
Quarternary Period — Diluvium	Sands, Clays, Gravels, Loess, Volcanic products.	30-300	Elephas antiquus, horses, rhinoceros, etc.
Tertiary Period	Clay, Silt, Sands, Gravels, Shales, Basalts.	1200	Elephas antiquus, rhinoceros, boars, hipparion, serridentius, boluchitherum, Menodus, Protitanotherium, Teilhardia, Eudinoceras, Schlosseaia, Paleostylops.
Mesozoic Era:			
Cretaceous Period	Granular red sandstone, Clays, Sands, Shales, Granites, Phorphyries, etc.	300-600	Protoceratops, Ignanodontia, Prodeinodon, Protiguanodon, fresh-water shells, etc.
Jurassic Period	Conglomerates, Sandstones, Shales, Marls, Coals, Eruptive blocks, granites, Porphyries, etc.	150-3,000	Small fragmentary botanical fossils.
Palaeozoic Era:			
Permian Period	Conglomerates, Sandstones, Shales, Limestones, Marls, Granites, etc.	15-600	Productus, Orthotychia, Martinia, Lyttonia, Spirifer, Spiriferella, Streptorhynchus, Camarophoria, Hemiptychina, Enteleles, Marginifera, etc.
Dinantian Period	Conglomerates, Sandstones, Clay-slates, Limestones, Dolomites, Batholites of Granite, Intrusive Rocks, etc.	15-300	?
Protozoic Era:			
Older (Huanhai System)	Grits, Clay-slates, Igneous Rocks, Veins & Stocks.	3,000-6,000	?
Newer (Wutai System)	Crystalline-schists, Phyllites, Limestones, Dolomites, Quartzite, Greenstones, Intrusive Igneous Rocks, etc.	?	
Archaean Era: (Taishan System)	Crystalline Limestone, Crystalline-schists, Gneisses, Intrusive Igneous Rocks, etc.	?	

Of the geological features of Mongolian land the following points may be noted, in addition to those which are common also to Manchuria: (1) the comparatively low areas are under desert sand, seldom exposing rocky beds; but the mountains regions as a rule consists of rocks of antiquity; (2) the Jurassic rocks are notably differentiated from the Cretaceous and later formation in the points mentioned below:—

(A) There occurs a great unconformability between the Jurassic and the Cretaceous rocks. The stratified formations of the former period are marked with frequent and complex plications and faults under the pressures of the movements of upheaval. The mountains bear marks of severe destructive work of magma and scarcely less destructive effects of weathering. The rocks of Cretaceous and later times as a rule exhibit perfect conformability, though they have evidently lain under warping movements on gigantic scales at one time or another. (B) The former rocks which A. W. Grabau has termed as Mongolian geosyncline are marine formations of the palaeozoic era, and widely distributed and of considerable thickness. The latter are without exception fresh water or wind-borne formations, being narrowly distributed and gnerally in thin layers. (C) The former have gone through heavy metamorphic processes in consequence of the intrusion of igneous rocks, while the latter exhibit little evidence of such phenomena. (D) After the Cretaceous era there were generally up and down warping movements on large scales; nor were block movements absent. However, the stratigraphic layers lie as a rule horizontally. As a consequence of the same warping movements what had been sea was turned into land and still later converted into quasi-plains by secular weathering. Upon the depressions caused by subsidence were laid

fragmentary deposits.

The deposits made under these conditions were invariably terrestrial. The altitude of the mountains existing about the country seems to have been determined sometimes around the Cretaceous or Tertiary period. The linear directions of these mountains ranges, therefore, run generally in conformity with those of the basins. On the same view it is explicable that the Hsingan mountains, among others, were upheaved by the subsidence of the Mongolian basins.

From the above it is to be concluded that the above line of distinction of geognostic and stratigraphic importance, drawn so clearly through the middle part of the Mesozoic era, is due to the heavy igneous eruptions of the period preceding it and the total subsidence of the same in the period following.

CLIMATE

Manchuria, Mongolia and the contiguous regions are important from the climatic point of view, chiefly because they are the areas of continental cyclones which frequently disturb monsoonal winds at certain seasons. Great diurnal as well as seasonal variation in the temperatures is another characteristic of the climate of Manchoukuo. The climate of North Manchuria is marked by continental features, while that of South Manchuria is considerably tempered under the influence of the sea.

Cyclones.—The cyclones that cross the eastern littoral regions of eastern Asia and appear on the China and Japan Seas generally originate in Mongolia and along the Yellow River. They as a rule follow a easterly course and, passing through or near Japan, proceed on the Pacific. While on the continent these cyclones are but lowly developed, their first effect is seen in the disturbed state of the monsoonal winds. This is specially notable in winter. The northerly or northwesterly winds, the prevailing winds of the season, suddenly drop when a cyclone rises in Mongolia or eastern Siberia, and this condition is followed by cloudy skies, or by more or less rain or snow where the cyclonic centre moves. Out upon the Japan Sea, the cyclone suddenly develops its strength, with the result that the prevailing north or northwestern wind gathers violent force for a certain length of time, accompanied by a sudden barometric fall. These continental cyclones in their passage over the Mongolian deserts take up sand at dry seasons to such degree that the sky is overcast as by heavy clouds. The wind-borne sand is sometimes carried even as far as the western shores of Japan.

Temperature.—Manchoukuo approximately lies in the same latitudes as southern Europe, but its temperature is continental, showing little oceanic influences. The highest temperature on record is 42°.6 centigrade at Chalantum (July 23rd, 1919), while the lowest record is 50°.1 at Mientuho (January 16th, 1922). The hottest month is July and the coldest January. Observations show that the mean temperatures falls as we move further inland in a northwesterly direction from Dairen to Manchouli.

The monthly average of maximum July temperature and minimum January temperature as observed at various, widely scattered points are shown in the table below:

Table 5. Monthly Temperature Averages

(1935-36)

	January			July		
	Average Maximum	Average Minimum	Variation	Average Maximum	Average Minimum	Variation
Yingkow	− 4.3	−15.8	11.5	26.4	16.2	10.2
Anshan	− 5.2	−15.7	10.5	28.3	16.5	11.8
Fengtien	− 6.4	−19.0	12.6	28.3	15.6	12.7
Kaiyuan	− 8.5	−22.4	13.9	27.9	15.0	12.9
Tunhua	− 9.3	−25.2	15.9	23.2	9.1	14.1
Hsinking	−10.7	−22.8	12.1	26.5	13.8	12.7
Taipingling	−14.1	−23.0	8.9	21.6	10.5	11.1
Mutankiang	−12.8	−27.6	14.8	24.5	11.1	13.4
Imienpo	−13.1	−25.3	12.2	24.6	12.2	12.4
Taonan	− 9.6	−23.2	13.6	26.6	13.8	12.8
Harbin	−12.4	−26.0	13.6	26.3	13.3	13.0
Anta	−15.5	−28.0	12.5	26.2	12.5	13.7
Angangki	−14.3	−26.6	12.3	25.9	12.8	13.1
Tsitsihar	−12.7	−26.8	14.1	24.8	13.1	11.7
Chalantun	−12.6	−24.2	11.6	25.1	11.2	13.9
Pukotu	−17.5	−25.3	7.8	21.0	7.6	13.4
Mientuho	−20.8	−34.1	13.3	22.5	7.3	15.2
Hailar	−22.2	−34.2	12.0	23.6	9.1	14.5
Manchouli	−20.3	−34.9	14.6	23.1	9.6	13.5

Note:—"−" Denotes below zero.

From the above it may be seen that the diurnal variation on an average is 10 to 13 degrees, the range being somewhat greater in winter than in summer.

Distribution of Temperature.—The distribution of the temperature over Manchoukuo may be seen from the following table, showing the mean temperatures of January, the coldest month, and of July, the hottest month, at various points of the country, in comparison with some towns in eastern Siberia and North China.

Table 6. Monthly Mean Temperature

(1935-36)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Yingkow	− 9.9	− 7.1	0.0	8.8	16.0	21.4	24.8	24.3	18.3	10.8	1.0	− 6.8	8.5
Anshan	−10.2	− 7.6	0.2	9.5	16.9	21.9	24.9	23.3	18.2	10.0	1.5	− 7.4	8.4
Fengtien	−13.0	− 9.4	− 1.1	8.6	15.9	21.7	24.8	26.3	16.9	9.0	− 1.1	−11.9	7.2
Kaiyuan	−15.0	−11.7	2.1	8.3	16.1	21.6	24.2	22.5	17.1	8.3	− 0.8	−10.7	6.5
Tunhua	−17.2	−14.8	− 6.7	3.8	10.9	15.5	19.3	19.4	13.1	5.2	− 6.0	−13.9	2.6
Hsinking	−16.9	−12.9	− 4.1	6.5	14.4	19.5	23.4	21.9	14.9	6.5	− 4.3	−13.8	4.6
Taipingling	−18.5	−14.8	− 7.5	3.3	10.6	15.9	19.8	19.1	12.2	4.3	− 6.8	−15.8	1.8
Mutankiang	−20.4	−16.2	− 6.4	5.1	12.5	18.1	21.9	20.7	13.2	4.8	− 6.8	−17.2	2.4
Imienpo	−18.7	−14.7	− 5.6	5.6	13.1	18.7	22.4	20.9	13.7	5.7	− 5.9	−15.7	3.3
Taonan	−16.5	−12.6	− 4.1	5.4	14.0	19.8	23.5	21.2	14.6	6.4	− 5.5	−13.5	4.3
Harbin	−20.2	−16.0	− 6.2	5.6	13.8	19.7	23.2	21.5	14.3	5.5	− 6.9	−17.1	3.1
Anta	−21.7	−17.2	− 6.5	5.1	13.4	20.0	23.6	21.2	13.9	4.8	− 8.5	−18.2	2.5
Angangki	−20.4	−15.9	− 6.7	5.0	13.6	19.6	23.4	21.3	13.8	4.6	− 8.2	−17.7	2.7
Tsitsihar	−20.5	−16.2	− 6.0	4.5	13.0	19.0	23.0	20.7	13.9	5.2	− 8.4	−16.7	2.7
Chalantun	−18.9	−14.6	− 6.7	4.2	12.6	18.2	21.7	19.4	12.2	3.7	− 8.5	−16.8	2.2
Pukotu	−22.1	−19.1	−10.7	0.3	9.2	15.2	18.9	16.2	9.2	0.8	−11.6	−19.8	−1.1
Mientuho	−27.8	−24.1	−15.3	−0.3	9.3	15.4	19.3	16.5	8.5	−0.7	−14.2	−24.7	−3.2
Hailar	−28.3	−24.8	−14.9	0.7	10.3	17.0	21.0	17.9	10.0	0.2	−14.0	−25.2	−2.5
Manchouli	−25.7	−22.6	−13.3	0.8	10.4	17.3	20.9	17.8	9.9	1.2	−13.7	−23.3	−1.7

The isothermal of 0°, which comes from northern Saghalien to descend along the Maritime Province, runs between Pukotu and Chalantun and from that point on tends northwards as it further proceeds westwards, until it passes south of Lake Baikal eventually reaching as far as the north of the Baltic Sea. It may be be seen from this that the greater portion of Manchuria and Mongolia is enclosed between the thermals of 10° and 0°. The regions of north Manchuria, because of their proximity to the coldest Siberian areas, register an average annual temperature of 4° or so below zero. The difference of temperature between the north and the south areas may be seen from the fact that the average temperature in January at Dairen is 5°.7, while that at Bolkovaka, close to the Siberian border, is 31° below zero, there being differences of more than 25° degrees. The isothermal of 20° below zero runs westwards from Taipingling, east of Kirin, and passes between Hsinking (Changchun) and Harbin until it extends into the areas south of Lake Baikal. Under this condition the average temperature of Mongolia in January falls below 20° below zero. The northern areas are situated close to Siberia, where the mean temperature in winter falls below 30° below zero, being one of the coldest spots in the world. The average temperature of July ranges between 20° and 24°, showing relatively but small regional variations. The isothermal of 24° runs in the east from the mouth of the river Tumen of the Korean border, following a northwesterly direction to pass between Mukden and Hsinking and proceeds thence in a westerly direction, ultimately traversing the plains of Mongolia. It may therfore be seen that the average temperature in July throughout Manchoukuo is around 24°, though the eastern regions close to the Maritime Province and those up in the north close to the Siberian borders, register temperatures below 20°.

Rainfall.—The year is distinctly divided into the wet and dry seasons, the former from the beginning of June to the end of September and the latter from the beginning of November to the end of April. Taking the rainfall at Hsinking as representative of the general precipitation of Manchoukuo, observations show that the rains during July and August make up 55% of the total annual fall, while the falls during four months ending September make up 77% of the total annual fall.

In point of distribution of precipitation, the areas along the main line of the South Manchuria Railway form a dividing line. The areas to the east of this line have a rainfall ranging from 600 to 1,000 millimetres, while the areas to the west have a fall from 600 to 100 millimetres. The precipitation grow less as we go further west. The rainfall at Manchouli is less than 300 millimetres. The areas along the above railway line record a fall ranging from 600 to 700 millimetres.

The heaviest rainfall recorded in twenty four hours was at Yingkow August 13th, 1811, when 209.2 millimetres of rain fell. On the same day Mukden had a fall of 148.7 millimetres which remains a record volume of this city. To the west of the Hsingan mountains the fall diminishes to 80 millimetres. Although no observation has been made farther out in the Mongolian regions, the annual rainfall may be assumed to be about 250 to 350 millimetres, since those of Irkutsk and Urumtsi are known to be respectively 428 and 259 millimetres.

From the agricultural point of view, it may be observed that the rainfall during July and August seems to afford an adequate volume of rain for the growing season. As representative of the central grain belt of Manchoukuo, the rainfall of Mukden may be taken for example. Between the beginning of May and the end of October the fall is recorded at 602 millimetres. For comparison the same seasonal rainfall of some northern cities of Japan, where the same months are also the growing season, may be taken: the city of Sapporo registers 558 millimetres and Niigata, on the Japan Sea coast, 834 millimetres, while the city of Tokyo records 1070 millimetres. Mukden has more rain than Sapporo. The figures of Niigata and Tokyo are affected by the fact that this particular time embraces the season of typhoons which are accompanied by rain, as a rule.

Table 7. Precipitation

(1935-36)

Locality	Days
Yingkow	84
Anshan	90
Fengtien	92
Kaiyuan	98
Tunhua	110
Hsinking	107
Tapingling	127
Mutankiang	111
Imienpo	141
Taonan	82
Harbin	107
Anta	83
Angangki	77
Tsitsihar	72
Chalantun	85
Pukotu	88
Mientuho	115
Hailar	96
Manchouli	71

Wet Days.—Manchoukuo has few places where on the whole more than 100 wet days are experienced in the year. At some places the number of wet days is less than 70. The following shows the annual number of wet days at more important places of this country.

Table 8. Amount of Rainfall (in mm.)

(1935-36)

Locality	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Yingkow	6.8	6.1	18.2	26.0	50.8	62.4	172.2	161.7	73.0	46.5	21.1	7.3	652.1
Anshan	7.9	6.0	19.8	27.9	55.9	72.6	163.0	170.1	61.6	66.4	25.1	16.7	693.0
Fengtien	4.8	6.2	18.8	27.3	61.2	92.7	162.0	153.4	76.3	40.5	22.9	8.7	674.9
Kaiyuan	8.6	9.7	17.3	21.4	59.7	91.9	211.0	138.1	65.1	43.7	14.3	10.6	691.6
Tunhua	2.4	4.1	11.6	20.0	59.7	107.1	175.5	142.4	46.2	34.0	26.8	9.2	660.6
Hsinking	6.8	6.7	15.6	20.4	56.0	109.2	179.8	132.8	56.6	38.1	15.7	7.0	644.8
Taipingling	3.8	4.1	9.5	24.7	59.5	94.4	125.4	106.3	79.4	35.0	18.8	6.8	567.7
Mutankiang	3.2	4.5	8.9	22.9	55.0	86.6	123.2	107.5	65.0	35.5	15.2	5.3	532.8
Imienpo	8.5	9.3	16.2	26.2	63.7	113.9	177.2	140.0	69.5	44.8	24.7	11.6	705.6
Taonan	1.3	2.2	4.7	8.6	25.3	66.9	139.8	135.9	50.0	13.5	4.7	0.8	453.7
Harbin	4.9	3.2	10.5	30.0	65.5	108.0	205.5	114.7	69.1	35.6	3.4	4.8	655.1
Anta	1.6	2.3	5.7	9.7	35.2	72.0	119.6	133.0	51.7	15.3	5.0	1.7	452.8
Angangki	2.3	2.3	4.8	9.5	27.9	73.2	107.5	89.8	39.7	13.0	5.8	2.3	378.1
Tsitsihar	1.4	1.6	4.7	14.3	36.2	102.8	124.5	124.0	54.4	24.8	6.4	1.2	510.0
Shalantun	3.3	2.7	4.5	16.4	35.0	81.2	146.6	111.7	69.4	19.1	7.7	2.3	499.9
Pukotu	2.4	1.9	1.9	8.5	28.0	88.5	127.5	101.3	53.4	9.7	4.8	1.9	429.8
Mientuho	4.3	4.8	3.7	9.8	24.7	64.7	80.8	86.8	61.5	11.5	6.3	4.7	363.6
Hailar	4.2	4.2	3.5	9.4	20.8	51.8	89.5	72.2	45.1	11.7	5.5	4.2	322.1
Manchouli	2.5	1.8	2.7	5.1	16.5	44.9	82.6	66.7	38.7	7.2	5.3	2.9	276.9

Humidity.—The average humidity of Manchoukuo ranges from 60 to 68%, or 10 to 20% less than that of the mean humidity of Japan. The driest months are April and November. In the former month especially, the humidity not uncommonly falls to 10% at Hsinking.

Evaporation.—Evaporation in Manchoukuo is from 1,400 to 1,600 millimetres annually, approximately twice the mean figures recorded in Japan. The highest figure is for May when the monthly average from various towns is upward of 200 millimetres. The lowest figure is for January when the monthly average falls below 50 millimetres.

Amount of Cloud.—The lowest amount of cloud on record is the annual average of 3.5 per cent at Chengkiatun. The average annual amount from various towns of the country is below 5 per cent. More than 200 days of the year are clear. Except the three summer months, fair or clear days prevail in unbroken succession. In winter especially, the skies are without a speck of cloud, as a rule. The annual sunshine hours, though subject to variation according to latitudes, number from 2,500 to 2,900, or approximately 20 per cent more than the figure credited to Japan.

Velocity and Direction of the Winds—The velocity of the wind, as may be expected under the continental conditions of the atmosphere, is not great, as a rule, in comparison with places under the influence of the sea. However, during three months in spring ending in May, strong winds prevail every day. The number of the so-called storm days, when the velocity of the wind is greater than 10 metres per second, as recorded at the Dairen observatory on top of Wakakusa hill, is on an average 121 in the year, while the observations made at the old establishment placed under shelter, registered but 17 days of storm. The annual records made at Kungchuling and Hsinking are respectively 50 and 62 days. The greatest velocity of wind recorded in Manchuria is 46.3 metres per second at Kungchuling March 23rd, 1919. Stormy winds are rare up in North Manchuria.

At Dairen, Port Arthur and other southern places in the areas close to the sea, the northwesterly winds prevail in winter and southerly winds in summer. These southerly winds turn southwesterly as they proceed further inland. In the northern portion of South Manchuria where Kungchuling and Hsinking are situated, and in the eastern section of North Manchuria marked by towns like Imienpo and Mutankiang, southwesterly winds prevail throughout the year, with practically no change in their direction. In the western areas of North Manchuria northwesterly winds generally prevail at all seasons.

Table 9. Direction of the Wind

Name of District	Most Usual Direction of the Wind		Average Velocity (metres per Second)		Number of Stormy Days
	January	July	January	July	
Manchouli	Southwesterly	Easterly	2.3 metres	2.7 metres	7
Hailar	Westerly	Westerly	1.1	2.0	3
Mientuho	Westerly	Easterly	1.1	2.0	16
Pukotu	Northwesterly	Easterly & Southeasterly	3.7	2.2	19
Chalantun	Northwesterly	Northerly	3.2	2.3	0
Angangki	Northwesterly	Southwesterly	3.9	4.8	27
Anta	Westerly	Southerly	3.6	3.6	9
Harbin	Westerly	Southerly	5.3	5.2	13
Yaomen	Southwesterly & Westerly	Southwesterly	2.3	3.2	34
Imienpo	Southwesterly	Southwesterly	3.5	2.8	11
Mutankiang	Southwesterly	Southwesterly	2.3	2.4	15 or less
Talpingling	Northerly	Southeasterly	4.5	2.9	7
Yenki	Westerly	Northwesterly	3.1	1.4	16
Sanhsing	Southeasterly	Southwesterly	3.6	2.1	9
Hsinking	Southwesterly	Southeasterly	2.7	2.2	21
Mukden	Northerly	Southerly	2.1	1.9	6
Dairen	Northerly	Southerly	5.2	4.9	121
Vladivostok	Southwesterly	Southwesterly	8.4	7.2	93

Frost and Snow.—The earliest date of frost is September 3rd at Mientuho, North Manchuria, and the latest is November 13th at Port Arthur in the southern section. The frost comes in the early or middle part of September in the areas west of the Hsingan mountains, and in the opening part of October at Harbin, Anta and Sanhsing. The area embracing Imienpo, Hsinking, Kungchuling, Kaiyuan, Taonan, etc., sees the first frost in late September, while Yingkow and Mukden follow about a week or ten days later, as a rule.

The end of frost is in the south region towards the end of April and in the northern parts mostly between the close of April and the middle of May.

Snow begins to fall in the north about the end of September and in the south around the end of October, a difference of one full month. The greater portions of the country seldom see the first snow before the latter part of October. The snowy season in the north closes around May 10th and in the south about April 10th, a difference of one full month also. In other words, the northern regions have two more months of snow than the southern areas. Snow falls on an average on from 20 to 40 days in the year. The depth of snow generally falls short of 10 centimetres.

Observatories.—Meteorological observatories are established at the following places at present:—

The heaviest rainfall recorded in twenty four hours was at Yingkow August 13th, 1811, when 209.2 millimetres of rain fell. On the same day Mukden had a fall of 148.7 millimetres which remains a record volume of this city. To the west of the Hsingan mountains the fall diminishes to 80 millimetres. Although no observation has been made farther out in the Mongolian regions, the annual rainfall may be assumed to be about 250 to 350 millimetres, since those of Irkutsk and Urumtsi are known to be respectively 428 and 259 millimetres.

From the agricultural point of view, it may be observed that the rainfall during July and August seems to afford an adequate volume of rain for the growing season. As representative of the central grain belt of Manchoukuo, the rainfall of Mukden may be taken for example. Between the beginning of May and the end of October the fall is recorded at 602 millimetres. For comparison the same seasonal rainfall of some northern cities of Japan, where the same months are also the growing season, may be taken: the city of Sapporo registers 558 millimetres and Niigata, on the Japan Sea coast, 834 millimetres, while the city of Tokyo records 1070 millimetres. Mukden has more rain than Sapporo. The figures of Niigata and Tokyo are affected by the fact that this particular time embraces the season of typhoons which are accompanied by rain, as a rule.

Table 7. Precipitation

(1935-36)

Locality	Days
Yingkow	84
Anshan	90
Fengtien	92
Kaiyuan	98
Tunhua	110
Hsinking	107
Tapingling	127
Mutankiang	111
Imienpo	141
Taonan	82
Harbin	107
Anta	83
Angangki	77
Tsitsihar	72
Chalantun	85
Pukotu	88
Mientuho	115
Hailar	96
Manchouli	71

Wet Days.—Manchoukuo has few places where on the whole more than 100 wet days are experienced in the year. At some places the number of wet days is less than 70. The following shows the annual number of wet days at more important places of this country.

Table 8. Amount of Rainfall (in mm.)

(1935-36)

Locality	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Yingkow	6.8	6.1	18,2	26.0	50.8	62.4	172.2	161.7	73.0	46.5	21.1	7.3	652.1
Anshan	7.9	6.0	19.8	27.9	55.9	72.6	163.0	170.1	61.6	66.4	25.1	16.7	693.0
Fengtien	4.8	6.2	18.8	27.3	61.2	92.7	162.0	153.4	76.3	40.5	22.9	8.7	674.9
Kaiyuan	8.6	9.7	17.3	21.4	59.7	91.9	211.0	138.1	65.1	43.7	14.3	10.6	691.6
Tunhua	2.4	4.1	11.6	20.0	59.7	107.1	175.5	142.4	46.2	34.0	26.8	9.2	660.6
Hsinking	6.8	6.7	15.6	20.4	56.0	109.2	179.8	132.8	56.6	38.1	15.7	7.0	644.8
Taipingling	3.8	4.1	9.5	24.7	59.5	94.4	125.4	106.3	79.4	35.0	18.8	6.8	567.7
Mutankiang	3.2	4.5	8.9	22.9	55.0	86.6	123.2	107.5	65.0	35.5	15.2	5.3	532.8
Imienpo	8.5	9.3	16.2	26.2	63.7	113.9	177.2	140.0	69.5	44.8	24.7	11.6	705.6
Taonan	1.3	2.2	4.7	8.6	25.3	66.9	139.8	135.9	50.0	13.5	4.7	0.8	453.7
Harbin	4.9	3.2	10.5	30.0	65.5	108.0	205.5	114.7	69.1	35.6	3.4	4.8	655.1
Anta	1.6	2.3	5.7	9.7	35.2	72.0	119.6	133.0	51.7	15.3	5.0	1.7	452.8
Angangki	2.3	2.3	4.8	9.5	27.9	73.2	107.5	89.8	39.7	13.0	5.8	2.3	378.1
Tsitsihar	1.4	1.6	4.7	14.3	36.2	102.8	124.5	124.0	54.4	24.8	6.4	1.2	510.0
Shalantun	3.3	2.7	4.5	16.4	35.0	81.2	146.6	111.7	69.4	19.1	7.7	2.3	499.9
Pukotu	2.4	1.9	1.9	8.5	28.0	88.5	127.5	101.3	53.4	9.7	4.8	1.9	429.8
Mientuho	4.3	4.8	3.7	9.8	24.7	64.7	80.8	86.8	61.5	11.5	6.3	4.7	363.6
Hailar	4.2	4.2	3.5	9.4	20.8	51.8	89.5	72.2	45.1	11.7	5.5	4.2	322.1
Manchouli	2.5	1.8	2.7	5.1	16.5	44.9	82.6	66.7	38.7	7.2	5.3	2.9	276.9

Humidity.—The average humidity of Manchoukuo ranges from 60 to 68%, or 10 to 20% less than that of the mean humidity of Japan. The driest months are April and November. In the former month especially, the humidity not uncommonly falls to 10% at Hsinking.

Evaporation.—Evaporation in Manchoukuo is from 1,400 to 1,600 millimetres annually, approximately twice the mean figures recorded in Japan. The highest figure is for May when the monthly average from various towns is upward of 200 millimetres. The lowest figure is for January when the monthly average falls below 50 millimetres.

Amount of Cloud.—The lowest amount of cloud on record is the annual average of 3.5 per cent at Chengkiatun. The average annual amount from various towns of the country is below 5 per cent. More than 200 days of the year are clear. Except the three summer months, fair or clear days prevail in unbroken succession. In winter especially, the skies are without a speck of cloud, as a rule. The annual sunshine hours, though subject to variation according to latitudes, number from 2,500 to 2,900, or approximately 20 per cent more than the figure credited to Japan.

Velocity and Direction of the Winds—The velocity of the wind, as may be expected under the continental conditions of the atmosphere, is not great, as a rule, in comparison with places under the influence of the sea. However, during three months in spring ending in May, strong winds prevail every day. The number of the so-called storm days, when the velocity of the wind is greater than 10 metres per second, as recorded at the Dairen observatory on top of Wakakusa hill, is on an average 121 in the year, while the observations made at the old establishment placed under shelter, registered but 17 days of storm. The annual records made at Kungchuling and Hsinking are respectively 50 and 62 days. The greatest velocity of wind recorded in Manchuria is 46.3 metres per second at Kungchuling March 23rd, 1919. Stormy winds are rare up in North Manchuria.

At Dairen, Port Arthur and other southern places in the areas close to the sea, the northwesterly winds prevail in winter and southerly winds in summer. These southerly winds turn southwesterly as they proceed further inland. In the northern portion of South Manchuria where Kungchuling and Hsinking are situated, and in the eastern section of North Manchuria marked by towns like Imienpo and Mutankiang, southwesterly winds prevail throughout the year, with practically no change in their direction. In the western areas of North Manchuria northwesterly winds generally prevail at all seasons.

Table 9. Direction of the Wind

Name of District	Most Usual Direction of the Wind		Average Velocity (metres per Second)		Number of Stormy Days
	January	July	January	July	
Manchouli	Southwesterly	Easterly	2.3 metres	2.7 metres	7
Hailar	Westerly	Westerly	1.1	2.0	3
Mientuho	Westerly	Easterly	1.1	2.0	16
Pukotu	Northwesterly	Easterly & Southeasterly	3.7	2.2	19
Chalantun	Northwesterly	Northerly	3.2	2.3	0
Angangki	Northwesterly	Southwesterly	3.9	4.8	27
Anta	Westerly	Southerly	3.6	3.6	9
Harbin	Westerly	Southerly	5.3	5.2	13
Yaomen	Southwesterly & Westerly	Southwesterly	2.3	3.2	34
Imienpo	Southwesterly	Southwesterly	3.5	2.8	11
Mutankiang	Southwesterly	Southwesterly	2.3	2.4	15 or less
Taipingling	Northerly	Southeasterly	4.5	2.9	7
Yenki	Westerly	Northwesterly	3.1	1.4	16
Sanhsing	Southeasterly	Southwesterly	3.6	2.1	9
Hsinking	Southwesterly	Southeasterly	2.7	2.2	21
Mukden	Northerly	Southerly	2.1	1.9	6
Dairen	Northerly	Southerly	5.2	4.9	121
Vladivostok	Southwesterly	Southwesterly	8.4	7.2	93

Frost and Snow.—The earliest date of frost is September 3rd at Mientuho, North Manchuria, and the latest is November 13th at Port Arthur in the southern section. The frost comes in the early or middle part of September in the areas west of the Hsingan mountains, and in the opening part of October at Harbin, Anta and Sanhsing. The area embracing Imienpo, Hsinking, Kungchuling, Kaiyuan, Taonan, etc., sees the first frost in late September, while Yingkow and Mukden follow about a week or ten days later, as a rule.

The end of frost is in the south region towards the end of April and in the northern parts mostly between the close of April and the middle of May.

Snow begins to fall in the north about the end of September and in the south around the end of October, a difference of one full month. The greater portions of the country seldom see the first snow before the latter part of October. The snowy season in the north closes around May 10th and in the south about April 10th, a difference of one full month also. In other words, the northern regions have two more months of snow than the southern areas. Snow falls on an average on from 20 to 40 days in the year. The depth of snow generally falls short of 10 centimetres.

Observatories.—Meteorological observatories are established at the following places at present:—

Port Arthur, Dairen, Yingkow, Chengteh, Mukden, Hsinking, Hailar, Heiho, Ssupingkai, Chihfeng, Suifenho, Harbin, Manchouli, Koshan, Hsingan.

FLORA AND FAUNA

Flora

As general characteristic of the Manchoukuo flora, it may be noted that the central plains of alkaloid soil is covered with grass, with no occurrence of trees except a genus of elms (*Ulmus punila*). Wherever immigrants have recently settled are to be seen a cluster of willow and other trees. However, the northern section of the Great Hsingans, Little Hsingans and the mountains ranges in the eastern parts of Manchuria, embrace vast domains of virgin forests. The mountains range of the Liaotung peninsula and the Sungling range are bare save for small wooded areas seen at places.

Native Flora.—Upon the central plains occur *Quercus mongolica* in the north as well as in the south, besides the particular elm specie above referred to. Of the conifers the Mongolian red pine (*Pinus sylvestris var. mongoli a*) is confined to the region west of the northeastern section of the Hsingan mountains, while the Korean pine (*Pinus Koraiensis*) spread over the Little Hsingan and other mountains in the eastern part of Manchuria. South of Tiehling the Manchurian black pine (*Pinus tubulaeformis var. mukdensis*) is of frequent occurrence, while in the Liaotung peninsula this is replaced by the Manchurian red pine (*Pinus tubulaeformis var. rubescens*).

In contrast to the western side of the Hsingans where grows the Mongol red pine as mentioned above, the eastern side, though totally wanting in the same specie, offers what is regarded as a purely Mongolian specie of vine, *Vitis amurensis*, beside: *Phellodendron amurensis, Juglans manshurica, Schizandra chinensis*, etc.

The watershed along the Antung-Mukden railway seems to form a line of division between the floras of Korea and South Manchuria. To the east, but not to the west, of this line are found varieties of violets such as Viol *xanthopelala, hirtipes, Raddeana, albida, Savatieri, Persicaria Makinoi*, and others like *Iris Rossii, Epimedium, macranthum Pulsatilla daurica, Jeffersonia dubia*, etc.

In the southern parts of the Liaotung peninsula occur some flora of the temperate zone such as *Zizyphus vulgaris var. spinsus, Vitex inciza, Euonymus Kiautschovica, Gleditschia Koraiensis, Allanthus glandulosa*, etc. The frostless period in this part is as long as 200 days in the year.

Exotic Flora.—Quite many varieties of species have intruded from other countries. Among them may be noted *Robinia pseudacacia, Amorpha fructicosa, Acer negundo, Populus pyramidalis, Laburnm vulgare.* Of these the first and third mentioned species predominate. The former is distributed as far north as Harbin, while for the latter the line of Hsinking (Changchun) seems the northern limit.

Interesting Manchurian Plants.—There are varieties of flowering and other plants not without special interest. Amongst these the following points may be noted.

The maiden-hair tree is found on islets near Dairen and Port Arthur, though the sago-palm of Japan occurs in no part of this country. The specie seems confined to the peninsula and islands in its proximity.

Varieties of iris are found practically all over the plains of Manchuria. Of these, *Iris lactea* var. *chinensis* is most frequently met with. Its characteristic, not unlike that of other species of the same genera, is seen in its leaves growing in a twisted form. Other common species are *Iris orientalis, ventricosa, ensata, laevigata, tigridia uniflora, Rosii, manshurica, minuata.*

Upon the sunny hillside *Selaginella Rossii* is seldom missed. *Hyosciamus niger* var. *chinensis* the seed of which is valued in China for its medicinal properties is of not rare occurrence on the plains north of Tangkangtzu and Lienshankwan. *Glycyrrhiza echinata* the root of which is valued as a simple, is of frequent occurrence upon the grassy plains of Inner Mongolia. Among the common herbs and flowering plants may also be noted *Convalaria majalis* in northern regions, six different species of the lilacs of which *Syringa* predominate, *Amblygonum pilosum*, the Chinese aster (*Callistephus chinensis*), *Delphinium gradiflorum*, a specie of the peony (*paeonia albiflora* var. *spontanea*).

The commonest among the lilies is *Lilium concolor* luxuriating on all hillsides. There are also found *Lilium tenuifolium, Cernuum, Callosum, amabile, dauricum, Maximowiczii, tigrinum, distichum.* The chrysanthemum species are a Siberian specie (*Chrysanthemum sibiricum*) and the no less common *Chrysanthemum lavendulaefolium.*

What may also be noted as a predominating feature of the Manchurian flora is that many varieties of the bramble and wormwood are met with almost all over the country. It is also noteworthy that not a few species of seaside flora are found far inland, a fact to be accounted for by the soil being impregnated with salt. The following species may be found as far north as Chengchiatun, Taonan, Tsitsihar and Manchouli:

Tribus terrestris, Apocynum venetum, Atriplex patula, Statice chinensis, Triglochin palustre.

Amongst the seaside flora *Salicornia herbacea*, which in Japan is confined to a few seaside places in Hokkaido and Shikoku, is met with in all parts of the Manchurian seashores. Among the species similar to those of Europe are *Statice chinensis, Bulomus umbellatus, Lemnatrisulca.*

Sand Dune Flora.—Upon the sand dunes of Manchuria and Inner Mongolia the willow and elm frequently occur, showing that these sandy places are by no means without subterranean water. The species special to the sand dunes are *Imperata cylindrica, Tonrnefortia sibirica, Corispermum stauntoni, Agriophyllum arenarium.*

Forest Zone.—The great forests of the Hsingan mountains chiefly consist of *Larix dahurica, Betula latifolia*, and *dahurica.* The above specie of the pine is for the most part found on the northern side of the mountains. The mountainsides all along the western section of the North Manchuria Railway line are bare in consequence of uncontrolled disafforestation. These places are covered with carpets of flowering plants during the three summer months. In the eastern mountains we find some species of pines (*Abies holophylla, Larix dahurica* var. *Principis. Ruprechtii*). The other common species are *Acer ginnala, Vitis amurensis, Juuglans manshurica, Schizandra chinensis.*

The mountains in the Liaotung peninsula are without forest of any notable size. The Mongolian oak (*Quercus mongolica*) and the Manchurian black pine (*Pinus tubulaeformis* var. *mukdensis*) are not infrequently met with, though the hillsides are generally covered by grass.

FAUNA

While the fauna of North Manchuria has been fairly well studied by European, especially Russian naturalists from early times, that of central and southern Manchuria has been almost totally neglected. This is especially true with regard to Jehol where, except a scientific expedition sent out in 1933 under the auspices of the Japanese newspaper Asahi Shimbun, nothing like research has been made in its history. The following is based on the information so far available on the subject.

Mammals.—Of the mammals of Manchuria more than 100 species have been described. Among the common inhabitants of the eastern mountains are the sable, the Manchurian ermine, the Siberian weasel, the lynx, the Amur racoon-dog, squirrel, the Korean stripped squirrel, the flying squirrel, the Manchurian nsaapan, the Manchurian hare, the red deer, the Korean antelope. The grassy plains and deserts in the western regions are the habitants of the vole, the ground squirrel, varieties of mouse, the flying hare, the badger, the fox, the sheep, the argali.

What is remarkable about the Manchurian fauna is the abundance of large mammals such as the tiger, the leopard, the lynx, the wolf, the red wolf, the Korean black bear, the ground bear, etc.

Fur-bearing Animals.—In the abundance of fur-bearing animal life Manchoukuo is surpassed by few countries of the world. To catalogue the more common species: the sable, the ermine, the weasel, the fox, the racoon, the badger, the lynx, the mountain cat, the wolf, the otter, the hare, the squirrel, the vole, the antelope.

Avifauna.—Of the rich avifauna of Manchoukuo more than 400 species have been observed. One of the remarkable feature is the abundance of birds of prey throughout the country. In the eastern mountains are found mostly those species which nest up in the trees. Among these are the owl, many species of singing birds, the pigeon, the cuckoo, the woodpecker. Upon the hills and plateaus of the western regions, as may be expected from the physiological condition of the country, we find those birds which live in undergrowth, such as the quail, the bustard, the partridge.

The region around Chengchiatun, Taonan and Angangki are a rich reservoir of partridges. The mountains along the eastern section of the North Manchuria Railway abound in pheasants and ptarmigans. Bustards are most common around Payintala. To the rivers Liaoho and Sungari huge numbers of water fowl such as ducks, wild geese and swans are attracted in autumn, to migrate in winter to southern latitudes. Of the avifauna there are but few species that are not common to Europe.

Reptiles and Amphibians.—Of these genera about a score of species of reptiles and as many species of amphibians have been observed. Mention must be made of snapping turtles which are abundant in the rivers Liaoho and Sungari, because any sort of turtle is taboo in China. The edible green frog, which the Chinese call "farm chicken" and the brown frog which they call "mountain clam," are both valued for their eggs.

Fishes.—There are more than a hundred varieties of fresh water fish found in Manchoukuo. Lake Dalainor and the river Sungari are

specially rich in big fishes such as carp, crucian, sturgeon, catfish and those called by the Chinese as *Pangtouyu, Paiyu, Kantiaoyu*. Among the last named fish some measure six feet long. *"Paiyu"* —white fish—of the Sungari is regarded as one of the delicacies to adorn the festive table in China, especially at new Years' time.

Nothing has been done by way of investigating the sea fish of Manchuria. The species most commonly seen are those of shallow waters such as codfish, hair-tail, guchi, flatfish (*Paralichthys olivaceus*), halibut, Shark, sea-bream, *Pseudosciaena japonica*.

In molluses the Manchurian shores are rich. Abundant prawns and sea-slugs are caught. Likewise for food are caught jelly-fish, cuttle-fish, octopus. Among the shellfish may be noted oyster, clam, *Corbicula leana*, sea-mussel, a specie of pullet (*Tapes philippinarum*), razorshell, *Solecurtus constricta*, whelk.

With regard to the insect fauna no research has yet been made, except in certain limited ways. The Chinese oak silk-worms are extensively bred in the Liaotung peninsula and on the lower courses of the Yalu. Some varieties of beetles and scarabs are found practicaliy in all parts of Manchuria. The mountain streams in the northern and eastern regions abound in Daurian crayfish.

Distribution of Fauna.—The Manchoukuo fauna belong to the boreal zone. From the physiographical and climatic conditions, however, the country falls into three sub-regions: (1) Mongolian, (2) Siberian and (3) North China.

The Mongolian Sub-Region embraces the area west of Taonan, Chengchiatun and Paintala, where desert animal life is represented by such mammals as Manchurian mole. Mongolian vole, the shrew, the flying hare, the Mongolian badger and a specie of mountain cat, desert fox, the argali. The mountain quail, a specie of pheasant, bustard and lark are the more representative ones of the avifauna of the sub-region.

The Siberian Sub-Region covers the area of North Manchuria which is drained by the Sungari and Nonni rivers. The animal life of these areas are also common to Siberia. Principal mammals are mole, Ussuri vole, hedge-hog, lynx, leopard, racoon, sable, ermine, weasel, Amur badger, hare, squirrel, red deer, musk-deer, east Siberian reindeer, etc. The avifauna is represented by pheasant, ptarmigan, grey starling, snow-owl, and varieties of woodpeckers. Of the reptiles, the Saghalien viper and the Siberian lizard are noteworthy. The typical amphibians are the salamander and Manchurian toad. Among the finny tribe may be noted the salmon, sturgeon and the river lamprey.

The North China Sub-Region covers the area drained by the river Liaoho and the Liaotung peninsula, the part popularly known as South Manchuria. The fauna of this part is common to North China and Korea. Among the mammals are Korean mole, ground mouse, Korean porcupine, racoon, a specie of wild dog called *Nukute*, squirrel, etc. The representative birds are the Korean pheasant and Peking coal-tit. The typical fishes are the eel, *Zacco platypus*, a specie of sheat-fish, a specie of killie-fish (*Poecilia latipes*), Korean goldfish.

References: Tables 1 & 2—Minsei-bu Tokei Nempo (Statistical Annual of the Department of Civil Affairs Manchoukuo), 1937. Table 3—Soil Survey of Manchuria. Tables 4 & 9—Chiri Koza (Lectures on Geography), Vol. I (Outline of Asia, Manchuria and Mongolia), published by the Kaizo-sha. Tables 5, 6, 7 & 8—Manchoukuo Nempo (Official Annual Report of Manchoukuo), 1936.

CHAPTER II

OUTLINE OF HISTORY

ANCIENT TIMES

Manchuria first emerges in history as the homeland of the nomadic Tungus, a race quite different from the Chinese in all essential and dominant characteristics. These original inhabitants of present Manchoukuo were known by the Chinese people as the Suchen, and in a later period as the Ilou or Wu-chi, etc. They mostly inhabited the upper reaches of the Hurka River in the year 352 A.D., when the Mujung declared independence and as late as the beginning of the Ming Dynasty, Manchuria and Korea were ruled by Non-Chinese tribes. But it was not until 1636, when Nuerhachi, the leader of the Nurchens, established the Taching Dynasty, that the name of Manchuria entered history.

About the year 244 B.C., Chao Hsing, ruler of the Yen Kingdom, began to build a barrier in what is known as modern Shansi against the barbaric tribes in the west and in the north. The work begun by Chao was continued by later emperors until it was completed during the Ming dynasty, forming what is known as the Great Wall and extending over a distance of 2,000 miles from Eastern Turkestan to northern Hopei, down to the sea at Shanhaikwan. This gigantic work was conceived and built as a barrier against the Mongol and Manchou tribes who had frequently raided Chinese territory.

It is a matter of historical truth that the Chinese in those remote days and for centuries after, looked on those tribes on the other side of the Wall as alien enemies and the vast territory there as alien lands. Changes in the situation were seen only in the Han, Tang and Ming Dynasties when the Chinese influence extended over a portion of what is present Manchuria and Mongolia. This expansion of Chinese was set back by Manchou and Mongol Tartars who under the leadership of such ruler as of Khitan and Nurchen, and like Genghis Khan broke through the Great Wall and ruled part or the whole of China.

Coming down as recently as the middle of the 17th century, Manchuria was regarded by the Manchou emperors as a sort of reserve or crown land, separate from China and closed for many years to Chinese immigration.

Aboriginal Tribes and Their Kingdoms

The Tungus.—Amongst a number of aboriginal tribes who made their abode in Manchuria at one period or another, the most important is undoubtedly the Tungus who are known to have been there as early as 2,000 years before the dawn of the Christian era. There were also tribes, known amongst the Chinese for many centuries by the names of Suchen, Tung-hu, Mais, Fuyu, Kaokuli, Khitan, Nurchen, etc. They were hunters and herdsmen, leading a life nomadic and of primitive order. It was therefore but natural that when they came in contact with Chinese refugees and immigrants of superior culture, they should have absorbed something of what had been brought from beyond the Great Wall. From these aboriginal tribes came a number of Kings which are known on record as Fuyu (37 B.C.-494 A.D.), Kaokuli (37 B.C.-668 A.D.), Pohai (717-927 A.D.), Khitan (916-1125 A.D.), Chin (1115-1234 A.D.), and Later Chin (1616-1644 A.D.).

These tribal Kingdoms, though some of them had reason to enter into tributary relations with China, were all independent in a full sense of the term. They made war and peace at their pleasure and sent envoys to foreign courts.

The people of Fuyu, an agricultural tribe of considerable means and power, inhabited the plains of Kirin and Taonan, a number of them having settled on the plains surrounding the present capital city of Manchoukuo, Changchun, now called Hsinking.

The Kaokuli who were of the same origin as the Fuyu were a warlike people and mostly lived in the valley of the Yalu River, dominating at a time the northern part of Korea and the greater part of South Manchuria, with the River Liao as its western boundary. It was with the object of checking the activity of this warlike people that the Han Dynasty of China maintained friendly relations with the Fuyu. With the Kingdom of Kaokuli, which later formed one of the three kingdoms into which Korea was divided, Japan engaged in warfare more than once. The Kaokuli conquered the Fuyu in 493, but when they were in turn threatened by Chinese invasion in 662, they made an

alliance with Japan, though they were to be overcome by the Tang Emperor a couple of years later.

Upon the heels of these two states came the kingdom of Pohai which marked the appearance of a northern tribe called Khitan upon the plains of Manchuria. The new born kingdom practically covered the territories of the old Fuyu and the Kaokuli. It lasted about 300 years, until it was subdued by the Khitan Tartars. While it lasted, this kingdom maintained friendly relations with both China and Japan. History records that Pohai and Japan exchanged envoys and had trade relations.

While Pohai was evolving from a tribe to a state in Kirin and elsewhere, another group of nomads, the Khitans, steadily rose to power near the southern part of Jehol and west Fengtien. A small tribe in the beginning, the Khitans, under the able leadership of their chieftain Yalu Apochi, came in course of time to extend their territory both westward and eastward, until at the beginning of the 10th century they ruled over 8 administrative areas and 41 districts. Yehlu Apochi still went on making conquests and in 916 proclaimed himself emperor of an independent state, with the dynastic title of Liao. His son Yehlu Takuang further extended the power of the Khitans as far as the northern parts of Chihli and Shansi. Peking was for the first time raised to the status of a capital where the Khitan ruler now chose to reside. The great Empire now extended over Mongolia, Manchuria, northern China and through North Korea as far as the coast on the Japan Sea.

The Nurchens.—The tribe next to come to power was the Nurchens or Golden Tartars, who were originally one of the Moho tribes and were also known as the Black River Moho. They are known to have made their home in certain parts of Heilungkiang (Amur) Province, but it was not until the first half of the 10th century that they began to be known as Nurchens. They revolted against Liao in 1114 A.D., under the leadership of their chieftain Akuta. They were so successful in their military campaign that the Nurchens leader established in the following year an empire with the title of Chin (Gold). They carried everything before them until in 1122, Peking having been taken by assault, the Khitan Emperor sought safety in flight. The reign of the Northern Sung Dynasty was then overthrown. By 1129 the whole of China north of the Yangtze River was under the rule of the Chin Emperor, a regime that was to last until 1234 when the irresistible Mongols rose to supremacy.

While nothing could withstand the advance of the Mongol hordes, the Nurchens themselves were responsible in part for their own downfall. When they came in contact with the Chinese and their ways of life, the hardy warriors of the north were quickly softened by the ease and luxury of the Sung civilization, so much so that when the Mongol Tartars rose under the mighty Genghis Khan, the once conquering race of Chin proved itself utterly helpless against the invading forces. And as if to hasten their own fall that was already in sight, the Chinese, true to their traditional diplomatic axiom, deserted the people with whom they had sworn friendship much to their own advantage, and now leagued with the new rising Khan against the tottering regime of their brother kingdom. Only in this case the double-crossing diplomacy, so often successful, failed to work out so well; for the Chinese themselves were later to be trampled upon by the warriors from the Mongolian plains.

The Mongols.—The Mongols who conquered the major part of Asia and a portion of Europe originated in Northwestern Manchuria, near the Hsingan Mountains. They were hunters and herdsmen and remained in obscurity until the great Genghis Khan rose to organize them into an invincible military force. They swept Manchuria and crushed the Kingdom of Chin. The once mighty Dynasty of Sung had completely passed away when Kublai Khan established himself at Peking in 1264.

The Mongols gave the Chinese the first foreign dynasty in their history—the Yuan Dynasty. But the Chinese began to revolt against the Mongol rule in 1341, and twenty-seven years later, 1368, the Yuan Dynasty was overthrown, to be replaced by a Chinese Dynasty, the Ming.

Although defeated and subjugated by the Mongols and now falling back before the rising force of the Ming, the old tribesmen of the old Chin, the Nurchens, were never annihilated. One group of them, called Haisi Nurchen, was still in possession of the western portion of the valley of the River Sungari, from the present Petuna to Harbin; for, the Ming Dynasty, even in the heyday of its career, never extended much further than what is present Fengtien or Mukden Province. Another group of these tribesmen had established themselves in the section of the country from the east of the Changpei Range to the valley of the Hurka, all about the Sanhsing district. They were called Chienchou Nurchen. There was still another group settled over the banks of the Amur River —the Wild Nurchen.

It was from amongst these tribesmen of the north that a man, a young chieftain, was to appear who was destined to change the course

of Chinese history and his descendants sat on the Dragon Throne in Peking for nearly three hundred years. Based in the castle at Hotuala and known by the name of "Dragon-Tiger General," Nuerhachi, the young leader, soon brought together the Nurchen tribes under his control. In 1616 Nuerhachi rose against the Ming, calling his domain the Kingdom of Later Chin. He took Mukden, Liaoyang and Kaiyuan, driving the Chinese into the valley of Liao. While achieving brilliant military success in many directions, the Nurchen leader was never successful enough in his lifetime to break through the Great Wall into northern China.

Upon his death in 1626 his fourth son Taitsung succeeded his and headed the house of Aisin-Chuehlo, the ruling house of what was later to be titled by him the Taching Dynasty, discarding the title of Later Chin. It was this young leader who gave the name of Manchuria to the land of the Nurchens for the first time in its history.

But it was not Taitsung, the founder of the Taching Dynasty, who dealt the last and final blow to the Ming regime of China. It was his younger brother, acting as Regent of the infant successor, that now led the Nurchens finally to complete the work of the late chieftain, his elder brother—the conquest of China. The Manchou leader entered Peking in May, 1644. The infant Manchou Emperor moved his capital from Mukden to Peking in September. The Manchou dynasty of Taching was proclaimed over all China in October of 1644.

Manchuria Under Manchou Rule

After the House of Aisin-Chuehlo had taken Peking and consolidated its position in China, many Manchous, especially officials known as "bannermen," migrated to China, while the homeland of the Manchou rulers was regarded as an extramural region apart from China. Manchuria was treated as "a crown land" and reserved exclusively for the Manchou race. Heilungkiang and part of Kirin were kept as royal parks where people were altogether forbidden to go. The Chinese people were carefully excluded from Manchuria, and this situation would have lasted but for the depopulation and impoverishment that Manchuria was later to see; an alarming state of affairs which eventually gave rise to Chinese immigration northward beyond the eternal Wall.

The Manchou ruler established a military administration over Manchuria, maintaining the old Manchou personnel and customs wherever possible. Mukden, Kirin and Heilungkiang had each a military governor vested with complete authority, both civil and military. These positions being open exclusively to officials of Manchou origin, Manchuria was always under rule of its natives, Manchou Tartar or "Banners," and this state of affairs continued down to 1907, when an Imperial edict was promulgated relating to provincial governors in the Three Eastern Provinces of Manchuria, by which these provinces, like those of China proper, were placed under the rule of civil administrators under a Viceroy or Governor-General.

For 268 years Manchuria remained under the rule of Taching, or the Manchou Dynasty. In 1912 China went through a great political upheaval, changing from a monarchy to a republic, and the last of the Manchou Emperors, Pu Yi, declared his abdication.

In point of international intercourse, the first instance of Manchuria having anything to do with an outside nation other than China was recorded in 1687, when disputes arose with Russia over some boundary questions. Next, when Great Britain and France waged war with China, their combined squadrons made use of Port Arthur as the base of operations. Two years later, Newchwang was opened to foreign trade. But it was not until the coming of the aggressive Russians some three decades later that Manchuria really assumed importance as a factor of international significance.

MODERN TIMES

Manchuria Under the Republic.—The first change to be made in the administrative system of Manchuria or the Three Eastern Provinces upon the establishment of the republican regime, was the appointment to each province of both a civil governor and a military governor. The latter under the orders of the President and the Minister of War at Peking concerned himself only with military affairs. But the powers of these military governors steadily increased as the central authority declined, so much so that when the question arose of joining the Allies against Germany in 1916, the military governors, amongst whom Chang Tso-lin of Mukden was prominent, asked President Li Yuan-hung to dissolve the Parliament which was opposed to the contemplated step, and amend the Constitution so that war could be declared without the consent of the Legislature. When the President turned down their request, Chang Tso-lin and other military governors declared their provinces as independent of the Central Government, a stand which eventually led to their secession.

When Soviet Russia concluded a separate treaty of peace with Germany at Brest-Litovsk, China had reason to fear a possible extension of Russian disturbance into her territory. Chang Tso-lin was appointed in September, 1918, Gov-

ernor-General of the Three Eastern Provinces and named in 1921 Superintendent-General of the Mongolian Frontier. In the spring of the following year Chang Tso-lin had trouble with General Wu Pei-fu, a leader of the Chihli party. In the ensuing civil war the Mukden chief was defeated and forced to withdraw his troops from the province of Chihli. President Hsu Shih-chang immediately issued an order dismissing him from the posts he had held. But a number of associations in Manchuria joined in passing a resolution against the presidential order, stating that the lives of 30,000,000 people of Manchuria depended on the fate of General Chang.

Independence of Three Eastern Province

Chang Tso-lin was quick to rise to the occasion. In May, 1922, he made a declaration of independence of the Three Eastern Provinces, which was communicated to the foreign ministers at Peking and to the foreign consular body at Tientsin. This declaration of independence ran in effect as follows:

(1) The Three Eastern Provinces of Manchuria, and Mongolia, Inner and Outer, cannot be recognized as parts of the Republic of China.

(2) Chang Tso-lin who holds a peculiar positions in these regions shall hold himself responsible for safegurding life and property therein, maintaining at the same time cordial relations with foreign nations

(3) The Treaties hitherto concluded between the Mukden Dynasty and the Chinese Republic shall be respected.

(4) Any foreign minister or consul desiring to negotiate should apply to his office.

(5) Any treaty to be concluded by the Peking Government relating to Manchuria must have his direct approval.

Whatever Peking might have said to this, Chang Tso-lin now considered himself and acted as the de facto ruler of an independent Manchuria. A couple of years later, or in October of 1924, he concluded, without reference to Peking, a separate agreement with Soviet Russia relating to the Chinese Eastern Railway, in the name of the "Government of the Autonomous Three Eastern Provinces of the Republic of China"

March on Peking.—Chang Tso-lin now turned his eye towards Peking. The October of the same year saw him engaged in war with Marshal Wu Pei-fu of Chihli. In December of the following year he clashed with Marshal Feng Yu-hsiang, and four months later he was again fighting with Feng. This time he was so successful that he entered Peking in December. He had in the meantime assumed the leadership of the so-called anti-"Nationalist" armies in North China. There was now little doubt that Chang was aspiring to the office of president on which he had his eye some long time since. He held a series of councils with military leaders about him and, ostensibly at their request, he was installed on June 18, 1927 as Tayuan-shuai, i.e., Grand Marshal of the Military Government of the Republic of China, and declared the vast territory north of the Yangtze to be under his rule.

The Grand Marshal, however, was not left unchallenged. The "National armies" under the command of General Chiang Kai-shek, Marshal Feng Yu-hsiang and General Yen Hsi-shan were ere long pushing their campaigns against Peking. In the spring of 1928 the Grand Marshal found the situation so unsatisfactory that he decided in June to withdraw from Peking to old Mukden. It was on this trip back to the Manchurian capital that Chang Tso-lin was fatally injured by an explosion caused in the train he and his suite were travelling.

Upon the death of Chang Tso-lin the control of Manchuria passed to his son, Chang Hsueh-liang who, unlike his father, pursued a policy or reconciliation with the National Government at Nanking. When civil war broke out in 1930 between the Nanking Government and the coalitions armies of Yen Hsishan and Feng Yu hsiang, the young Marshal of Mukden observed neutrality, until a turn in the situation gave him a chance to make an armed mediation and a pretext to send his military forces beyond the Great Wall. The Manchurian forces took the first opportunity to take possession of the railway zones in both Chihli and Honan Provinces. These provinces were formally placed under Chang Hsueh-liang when he accepted office with the Central Government as Deputy Commander-in-Chief of the National Army.

Manchuria under its often agressive military ruler, Chang Tso-lin, for the most part remained free from political or other disturbance, though her military forces had more than once got within the Great Wall to engage in warfare of one kind or another. Under the strong ruling hand of Mukden it had preserved a peaceful order of things internally; and except at the time of Kuo Sung-ling's revolt in December, 1925, it had never been menaced externally. But Manchuria, under the rule of young Chang Hsueh-liang, was to involve itself in serious troubles of international character; first with Soviet Russia in 1929, and next with Japan in 1931.

CHRONICLE OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

2210 B.C. The Suchens (肅慎) dedicate bows and arrows to the Emperor Shun (舜) in the 25th year of his reign.
1122 " The Suchens dedicate bows and arrows to the Emperor Wu (武) of the Chou Dynasty (周) on his enthronement.
220 " The Tsin Dynasty (秦) unifies China.
214 " The First Emperor of the Tsin Dynasty expands the Great Wall.
205 " The Tsin Dynasty overthrown. The First Year of the Han (漢) Dynasty.
37 " Chumeng (朱蒙), King of Tungming (東明), establishes the Kaokuli Dynasty (高句麗).
62 A.D. Taisu Wang (大祚王), 6th King of Kaokuli Conquers North Manchuria.
67 " Buddhism introduced into China.
262 " The Hous (靺鞨) pay tribute to the Wei (魏) Dynasty.
370 " Kaokuli makes War on Kudara (百濟).
427 " King Changshou (長壽) of Kaokuli transfers the Capital to Heijo (Korea).
589 " The Sui Dynasty (隋) unifies China.
618 " The Tang Dynasty (唐) overthrows the Sui.
645 " Taitsung (太宗) of the Tang Dynasty defeated by the Kaokulis at Anchicheng (安市城).
668 " The Kaokuli Kingdom overthrown.
698 " Tatsuyung (大祚榮) Chieftain of Pohai (渤海) moves to Yingchou (營州) with his family after the fall of the Kaokuli.
713 " Tatsuyung establishes the Pohai Kingdom.
727 " The Pohai Kingdom despatches an envoy to Japan to pay tribute.
872 " Yalu Apochi (耶律阿保机), the founder of Khitan (契丹) born.
916 " Yalu Apochi becomes independent and calls himself the Emperor of Khitan.
918 " Yalu Apochi constructs a Chinese styled walled town to protect the Chinese at Linhan (臨潢).
920 " Yalu Apochi invents the Khitan Letters, a kind of Phonetic Alphabet.
926 " The Pohai Kingdom overthrown by Yalu Apochi.
936 " Taitsung (太宗) of Khitan destroys the Later Tsin (後晉) and establishes the capital at Kaifeng (開封). He changes the name of the Kingdom to Liao (遼).
947 " Taitsung of Liao dies.
960 " The Enthronement of the First Emperor of Sung (宋).
993 " Shengtsung (聖宗) of Liao invades Korea (高麗).
1004 " Liao makes war and peace with Sung.
1068 " Akuta (阿骨打), founder of the Ching Dynasty (金) born.
1114 " Akuta defeats the Liao Army at Ningkiang (寧江) near the Lalin-ho (拉林河).
1115 " Akuta overthrows the Liao Kingdom and rises to the throne of the Emperor of Tsching (大金). He locates the capital at Hulning (會寧) (Kirin).
1119 " Akuta makes Nurchen (女眞) Letters by modelling the Khitan Letters.
1120 " Akuta takes the western capital of Liao.
1123 " Akuta dies at the age of 56 years.
1124 " The Liao Kingdom overthrown.
1127 " Taitsung (太宗) of Ching takes Kaifeng (開封) the capital of Sung, and makes prisoners of the two Emperors.
1147 " Caboul Khan (哈不勒), Mongolian Tartar, defeats the Ching Army.
1151 " The capital of Ching transferred to Yenking (燕京) (Peking) and called Chung-Tu-Ta-Hsing-Pu (中都大興府).
1204 " Temuchin (鉄木眞) defeats the Allied forces of the inner and outer Mongolias at Kenghai (杭海).
1206 " Temuchin unifies the inner and outer Mongolias and becomes the Genghis Khan (成吉思汗).
1209 " Genghis Khan invades the South and defeats the Hsihsia (西夏).
1214 " The Ching Dynasty transfers the Capital to Pienking (汴京) (Kaifeng).
1220 " Genghis Khan makes his four sons conquer Khorazm (花剌子模).
1223 " The Mongolian Army defeats the Russians at the River Kalka and invades Southern Russia.
1227 " Genghis Khan dies.
1234 " Mongolians destroy the Ching Dynasty.
1235 " Ogotai (窩濶臺), Taitsung (太宗), 3rd son of Genghis Khan establishes the Palace at Karaphorum (哈剌和林) and makes it the capital.
1236 " The Mongolian General Batu (拔都) makes an expedition to Europe.
1241 " Ogotai dies at the age of 56 years.
1258 " The Mogolian General Hulagu (旭烈兀) takes Bagdad and destroys the East Saracen Empire.
1259 " Hsientsung (憲宗) dies half way on his expedition.
1260 " Kublai (忽必烈) becomes Great Khan.
1271 " Kublai transfers the Capital of Yenking (燕京) and changes the title of the Empire to Yuan (元).
1274 " The Allied Army of Yuan and Korea invades Japan and is defeated.
1276 " The Yuan Army takes the city Linan (臨安) destroys the Sung Dynasty and unifies China.
1281 " The Yuan Navy invades Japan and again is defeated.
1294 " Kublai dies after 35 years' reign.
1368 " The Yuan Dynasty overthrown by the Ming (明) after 98 years' reign.
1410 " The Emperor Chengtsu (成祖) of Ming defeats Peniacheli (本雅失里), Tartar Chief, at the River Onon (斡难).
1414 " The Emperor Chengtsu defeats the Nairats (瓦剌部) at the River Tula (土拉) in outer Mongolia.
1438 " Li Manchou, (李滿住), the Chienchou Nurchen (建州女眞), moves to Tungchiakiang (佟佳江 and further to Hotoala (赫圖阿拉) in the valley of the River Sutsu (蘇子河, upper stream of the River Hun (渾河).
1470 " Tayan (達延), Tartar Chief, defeats the Oirats, unifies the clans and holds hegemony in Mongolia.
1563 " Yermac, Cossack Chief, gets over the Ural Mountains and invades Siberia.
1616 " Nurhachi (奴爾哈赤) of the Aisin-Chuehlo (愛新覺羅), a house from the Chienchou Nurchens, rises to the throne of the Emperor of the Ching Dynasty (金 [Later Ching (後金)] at the age of 58 years.
1619 " Nurhachi defeats the Ming Army at the Mount Sajuhu (薩爾滸山) east of Fushun.
1625 " Nurhachi transfers the capital to Shengyang (瀋陽) (Mukden).
1626 " Nurhachi killed in the battle with the Ming Army.
1627 " Taitsung (太宗) of Ching makes the first

Korean expedition.

1629 " The Russians reach the Pacific Coast.

1637 " Taitsung makes the second Korean expedition. changes the title of the Dynasty to Taching (大清) and rises to the throne. Cossacks reach the Okhotsk Sea.

1637 " Taitsung make the second Korean expedition.

1639 " The Russians construct Okhotsk city.

1643 " Taitsung dies at Shengyang.

1644 " Li Shih-cheng (李自成) takes Peking and overthrows the Ming Dynasty. Shihtsu (世祖) of Ching drives him out and transfers the capital there.

1653 " Chinese immigrants to Manchuria permitted.

1657 " Fengtien-Fu (瀋天府) established to administer the Chinese in Manchuria.

1683 " The Chenga (鄭氏) of Taiwan surrender and Taiwan incorporated by the Ching Dynasty.

1689 " The River Erhkono (額爾古納河), the upper stream of the Amur, decided to be the boundary between Russia and China by the Nertchinsk Treaty.

1702 " Tibet comes under the Influence of China.

1746 " The barrier made at Shanhaikwan (山關海) to inspect and suppress the Chinese Immigrants into Manchuria.

1757 " China destroys the Kashgars (準噶爾).

1760 " China Conquers the Southern district to the Mountains of Tienshan (天山).

1789 " Annan (安南) pays tribute to China.

1802 " A part of Manchuria opened to the Chinese.

1821 " The Opium Law Proclaimed.

1842 " China opens ports and cedes Hongkong to Great Britain by the Nanking Treaty.

1850 " The Taiping Rebellion arises.

1856 " Yingkow (營口) opened to foreign trade.

1858 " Ignatieff concludes the Aigun Treaty with China and occupies the Northern district to the Amur.

1860 " The Allied Army of Great Britain and France takes Peking and The Peking Treaty signed. Neuchuang (牛莊) opened to foreign trade. The Eastern district to the River Ussuri given to Russia as the Result of the Peking Treaty between Russia and China.

1861 " Russia establishes Vladivostok.

1864 " The Taiping Rebellion ends.

1882 " The Oli (伊犁) treaty concluded between China and Russia.

1884 " The clash between Chinese and French troops. French General Courbet destroys the Chinese Arsenal at Foochow.

1894–95 " Sino-Japanese War.

1895 " The Treaty of Shimonoseki signed. Intervention of Russia, France and Germany in Liaotung Cession to Japan.

1896 " Russia gets the right to contract the Chinese Eastern Railway by the Cassini Treaty. Russia Constructs the Siberian Railway (through North Manchuria. Russo-Chinese Bank established.

1897 " Germany occupies Kiaochou Bay. Russian Squadron occupies Port Arthur and asks the privilege to construct the Railway between Harbin and Dairen.

1898 " Russia leases the Liaotung Peninsula, constructs the Railway between Harbin and Dairen, and makes Port Arthur a Naval Port and Dairen Commercial Port. Great Britain leases Weihaiwei.

1899 " France leases Kwantung Bay. The Protocol on the Leased Territory boundary of the Liaotung Peninsula signed between Russia and China. The Boxer Rebellion rises in Shantung. U.S.A. proposes the Open-Door Policy of China.

1900 " The Allied Troops of the Powers occupy Tientsin and Peking for suppression of rebels and peace made between China and the powers.

1903 " The Russian War Minister Kropotkin inspects the Far East. The Postal Treaty between China and Japan signed. Yokohama Specie Bank loans 400,000 taels to China. Russian troops occupy Mukden.

1904–5 " Russo-Japanese War.

1905 " The Treaty of Portsmouth concluded. Harriman proposes to purchase the Manchuria Railways.

1906 " The South Manchuria Railway Company established by Imperial Order. The Tibet Treaty signed between Great Britain and China. Sino-Japanese Joint Management of Penhsihu Coal & Iron Company established.

1907 " Sino-Japanese Joint Management of Yalu Lumber Company established. Pauling & Company of England gets the right to construct the railway between Fakumen and Hsinmintun.

American Consul Straight plans to establish the Manchuria Bank and Monopolise the Mining, Forestry, Agriculture and Railways enterprises in Manchuria.

1908 " Chinese Government proclaims the date of opening of the National Parliament. The Accession of the Emperor Suantung (宣統) (Pu Yi).

1909 " The Treaty of Chientao (間島) signed between Japan and China. Harriman plans to purchase the Chinese Eastern Railway by Organizing an International Syndicate. Secretary Knox of the U.S.A. proposes to Internationalize the railways of Manchuria.

1911 " Revolution in China. Sino-Japanese Convention on the direct operation of trains at the frontier signed. Russo-Mongolia Agreement signed. The Revolutionary Army occupies Nanking and San Wen elected President. Secretary Knox tries to Organize the Four-Power Consortium to develope Manchuria, but fails by the objection of Japan and Russia.

1912 " The Ching Dynasty overthrown and the Chinese Republic established. San Wen elected President at Nanking. Yuan Shih-kai proclaims himself President of China at Peking. The Chinese Republic Parliament Law Proclaimed.

1913 " Opening of the Chinese Parliament. The Constitution Draft committee Organized. San Wen escapes to Japan. Nanking Incident occurs and Sino-Japanese negotiation begins. Yuan Shih-kai elected President. Russo-Chinese dispute settled by the conclusion of the Russo-Chinese Treaty.

1914 " Military-Governor of Fengtien, Kirin and Heilungkiang abolished and its power divided between General and Civil Governor. Japanese troops occupy Tsingtao.

1915 " So-called "Treaty of Twenty-One Articles" signed between Japan and China. The Kiakhta Treaty signed between Russia, China and Mongolia.

1917 " U.S.A. recognises Japanese special privileges and interests in Manchuria in the Ishii-Lansing Agreement.

Chang-hsun (張勳) tries in vain to restore Pu Yi. Kwangtung Military Government organized and San Wen appointed Field Marshal.

1918 " China makes outer Mongolia draw back the proclamation of Independence. Chang Tso-lin unifies The Three Eastern Provinces. U.S.A. recognizes Japan's special interests in Manchuria at the time of formation of Four-Power Consortium. The clash between Japanese and Chinese troops at Kuanchengtzu (寬城子).

1920 " China recovers the right to guard the Chinese Eastern Railway. Chang Tso-lin gets the floor in Central China after the Anwei-Chihli War.

1921 " Outer Mongolia again proclaims independence under the protection of U.S.S.R. Peking-Mukden Railway opened traffic. San Wen appointed President of Canton Government. Chang Tso-lin tries to recover outer Mongolia.

1922 " U.S.A. nullifies the Ishii-Lansing Agreement at the conclusion of the Nine-Power Treaty. Chang Tso-lin defeated at the first Mukden-Chihli War and deprived of his rank and title. China regains the Chinese Eastern Railway by taking advantage of the Russian Revolution. Chinese Parliament decides to nullify the "Treaty of Twenty-One Articles."

1924 " Chang Tso-lin wins the second Mukden-Chihli War. Soviet-Chinese Agreement and Soviet-Mukden Agreement signed.

1925 " General Shirakawa, Commander of the Kwantung Army, cautions Mukden and Kuo Sung-ling (郭松齡) troops. Kuo Sung-ling rebels against Chang Tso-lin and is defeated and killed. The National Government established and Chiang Kai-shek appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Army. Pu Yi escapes from Peking and takes refuge in Japanese Legation. San Wen dies.

1926 " Chang Tso-lin enters Peking and Organizes Ankuo Army (安國軍).

1927 " Chang Tso-lin appointed Field Marshal of the Chinese Republic. Severance of diplomatic relations between China and Russia. New National Government established. Japan despatches troops to China. Anti-Japanese movement arises in Manchuria. Japanese troops despatched to Shantung evacuate.

1928 " Chang Tso-lin bombed to death on his way to Mukden from Peking. Chang Hsueh-liang appointed Commander of the Three Eastern Provincial Peace Preservation Army. Second and Third despatchments of Japanese troops to Shantung.

1928 " Chang Hsueh-liang hoists the National Flag over the Three Eastern Provinces.

Severance of Diplomatic Relations between China and U.S.S.R. caused by the Chinese Raids of the Soviet Consulate at Harbin. Chang Hsueh-liang plans to recover the Chinese Eastern Railway. Khabarovsk Agreement between U.S.S.R. and China concluded. Nanking Government established. The Tsinan incident settled. The national funeral of the late San Yat-sen held. The clash between Japanese and Chinese soldiers at Shanhaikwan.

1929 " Chang Hsueh-liang appointed Vice-Commander of Army, Navy and Air Force of the National Government. The harbour construction of Hulutao begins. The communist bandits burn the Japanese consulate at Changsha.

1931 " Sino-Soviet Conference on the Chinese Eastern Railway affairs held at Moscow (Jan.). Wan Pao-shan incident (June). Captain Nakamura killed by Chinese soldiers (June). Clash between Japanese and Chinese soldiers at Liutiaokou, and Japanese troops occupy Mukden and Kuanchengtzu. China appeals to the League of Nations for mediation of the Manchurian Incident (Sept.). Chief Secretary Drummond advices Japan and China not to enlarge the situation. The Council of the League of Nations decides to invite observers. Nanking Government demands Japan to evacuate the troops from Manchuria (Oct.) Clash between Japanese and Chinese Armies at Nanking. Briand, Chairman of the League Council, advices Japan and China to stop the disputes. Japanese Army enters Taitsihar. Nanking Government demand Japan again to evacuate her troops (Nov.) Tsang Shih-Yi appointed Mayor of Mukden. Heilungkiang Province declares independence (Dec.).

1932 " Japanese troops enter Chinchow. New Heilungkiang Provincial Government established. Chang Hai-peng plans to establish a new independent state in Manchuria (Jan.). Japanese Army attacks the Ting Chao troops and enters Harbin.

The League Commission of Inquiry arrives at Tokyo. Shanghai Incident breaks out (Feb.) Proclamation of Independence of Manchoukuo. Pu Yi appointed Chief Executive of Manchoukuo. Changchun made capital of Manchoukuo and name is changed to Hsinking (Mar.). The Central Bank of Manchou opened to business (May). Declaration of Customs Tariff Autonomy of Manchoukuo (June). Ting Chien-hsiu visits Japan as special envoy of Manchoukuo. Chinese Government ordered to close the post offices in Manchoukuo. Ma Chan-shan defeated and escapes (July).

Chang Hsueh-liang tenders his resignation to the Chinese Government. General Muto, Japanese Ambassador and Envoy Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo arrives at Mukden (Aug.) Japanese recognition of Manchoukuo. Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol signed. Pao Kuan-chen visits Japan as special envoy (Sept.). The Lytton Report released. The Manchoukuo Budget for 1933 made public. Japanese Army enters Tunghua (Oct.). Japanese Army occupies Chalantun (Nov.). Japanese Embassy located at Hsinking. Japanese Army decided to suppress Su Ping-wen and Chang Tien-chin. U.S.S.R. refuses to deliver Su Ping-wen. Diplomatic relations between China and U.S.S.R. restored (Dec.).

1933 " Clash between Japanese and Chinese troops at Shanhaikwan. Manchoukuo protests against Chang Hsueh-liang. Chinese Government issues a project against Japan on the Shanhaikwan Incident (Jan.). Japan-Manchoukuo Army makes expedition to Jehol. Japanese Army occupies Chaoyang (Feb.). Japanese Army occupies Chihfeng and Lingyuan. Japanese Army enters Chengteh. Japanese army takes Luanping and Kupehkou. Japan withdraws from the League (Mar.). Manchoukuo adopts the new system of weights and measures. Japan-Manchoukuo Agreement on Leasehold Privileges signed. The Investigation of Manchoukuo Constitutional Law begins. The name of the Chinese Eastern Railway changed to the North Manchuria Railway. Ting Shih-yuan appointed first Manchoukuo Minister to Japan (Apr.). Japan-Manchoukuo joint management of Manchuria Telegraph and Telephone

Company established. The Truce Pact concluded between Japanese and Chinese troops. U.S.S.R. proposes to secede the Chinese Eastern Railway (May).

Su Ping-wen and Ma Chan-shan return to China. Japan mediates in the first negotiation for purchasing the Chinese Eastern Railway (June). China charges high rate tax on the goods imported from Manchoukuo. Ambassador Muto dies. Manchoukuo's New Currency system (MY) adopted. Evacuation of Japanese troops south to the Great Wall completed (July). The Anniversary of founding of Manchoukuo celebrated (Sept.). Shanhaikwan incorporated in Manchoukuo formally (Nov.).

1934 " The Imperial Regime adopted. Chang Hsueh-liang appointed Commander of Bandits Suppression Army of Honan, Hupei and Anwei Provinces (Jan.). Nanking Government orders the customs houses to stop the post traffic between Manchoukuo and China (Feb.) Pu Yi rises to the throne of the Emperor of Manchoukuo. New Organization Law of Government issued (Mar.). General Hishikari appointed second Japanese Ambassador to Manchoukuo. South Manchuria Railway Company contracts to construct seven new Railway lines for Manchoukuo. Pope recognizes Manchoukuo. The Orchid Flower decided upon as the Imperial Crest of Manchoukuo (Apr.). Recognition of Manchoukuo by Salvador (May). H. I. H. Prince Chichibu as Imperial proxy visits Manchoukuo carrying message to the Emperor of Manchoukuo from the Emperor of Japan.

The through train connecting Mukden-Shanhaikwan and Shanhaikwan-Peiping lines operated. Sino-Japanese Conference held at Dairen. The negotiation for purchasing the Chinese Eastern Railway reaches a deadlock. The Manchoukuo customs house at Kupehkou opened (July). Russo-Manchoukuo Water Routes Agreement signed. Franco-Japanese Investment Company for Manchoukuo established (Sept.). Manchoukuo Local Administration system proclaimed. Manchuria Electric Company established. Japanese Administrative Organ in Manchoukuo established (Oct.). General Minami appointed Commander of Kwantung Army. The Circulation of Hsien Tayuan prohibited (Dec.).

1935 " The postal routes between Manchoukuo and China reopened. Harha Miao Incident (Jan). Japan-Manchoukuo Customs Tariff Agreement signed (Feb.). Convention for Purchasing the Chinese Eastern Railway signed (Mar.). H. I. H. the Emperor of Manchoukuo visits Japan. State Monopoly Petroleum Law issued. The Message of friendship from the president of Dominican Republic arrives (Apr.). Formal Exchange of postal money orders between Manchoukuo and Holland begins.

Cheng Hsiao-hsu resigns as Prime Minister and is succeeded by Cheng Ching-hui. Preparatory Convention between Manchoukuo and Outer Mongolia begins at Manchouli (May). The Umezu-Ho Ying-chin (梅津) Agreement concluded. Hsieh Chieh-shih appointed first Manchoukuo Ambassador to Japan. Chahar Incident settled (June). Telephone Connection between Manchoukuo and China operated. Japan-Manchoukuo Joint Economic Commission established. Count Hayashi resigns the Presidency of the South Manchuria Railway Company (July) succeeded by Mr. Yosuke Matsuoka. Manchuria Mining Development Company established. The Change of Gauge of Hsinking-Harbin line undertaken (Aug.). Redemption of old notes by Central Bank of Manchou Completed (97%). Grand Naval Review in commemoration of the enthronement of the Emperor held on the Sungari. The number of the killed and wounded of Japanese soldiers since the outbreak of Manchuria Incident made public by the War Office of Japan (Total No. 11,035). Major-General Tada, Commander of Japanese Garrison in North China issues the statement on the Japanese policy on North China (Sept.). Exchange of postal, money orders between Manchoukuo and Germany begins. Agreement on telegraphic communications between Manchoukuo and China signed (Oct.). Branch office of Tumen Customs house located at Rashin. Patents Law of Manchoukuo decided to be enforced from January of following year. Manchoukuo Explosive Company established. Exchange of postal money orders between Manchoukuo and Poland begins. East Hopeh Anti-Communist Autonomous Commission organized. Break-up of Manchouli Conference. Abolition of extra-territoriality decided upon to be enforced from July of following Year (Nov.). Agreement on business between Bank of Chosen and Central Bank of Manchou formally concluded. Manchuria Development Company established. Manchuria-Forestry Company established. The lines to be constructed by the South Manchuria Railway Company made public (809 kms. in 7 lines). East Hopei Anti-Communist Autonomous Commission reorganized into An Autonomous Government and Yin Ju-keng appointed Civil Governor. The Treaty on Postal Affairs between Japan and Manchoukuo signed (Dec.).

1936 " Abolition of North Manchuria Special District (Jan.). The Five Year Plan of Agricultural Development decided upon to be undertaken from 1937. Japanese troops defeat the Outer Mongolian Army invading the frontier and destroy eight airplanes (Mar.). East Hopei Autonomous Government sends a special envoy for friendly relation to Manchoukuo. Manchoukuo undertakes to make research on the East frontier. Major-General Itagaki appointed Chairman of Japan-Manchoukuo Joint Economic Commission. Soviet Government accepts to locate Manchoukuo Consulate at Blagoveschensk. Ling Sheng, former Governor of Hsingan North Province, and other people shot to death for conspiring with U.S.S.R. Manchoukuo-Germany Trade Convention signed (Apr.) Railway between Pinchuan and Chengteh opened to traffic. Soviet-Manchoukuo Water Routes Technical Committee held at Blagoveschensk (May). T. Tanaka, former director of Bank of Japan appointed President of Central Bank of Manchou. The Overseas Department of Japan decides to send 5,000 families to Manchoukuo as immigrants from the following year. Japan-Manchoukuo Treaty for Protection of Industrial Properties signed (June). Mukden Arsenal established (July). The Railway between Paupingkai and Sian completed (Aug.).

Local Meteorological Observatories established at Yenki, Chengteh, Mishan and Tungning.

30th Anniversary of Kwantung Government (Sept. 1). Manchuria Resources Museum at Tokyo opened (Sept. 3). Six new state railway lines decided to be constructed and operated by the S. M. R. Toa Kangyo Company merged into Manchou-Chosen Development Company (Sept. 5). Japan-Manchou Social Works Association established (Sept. 12). Manchou-Chosen Development Company established (Sept. 14). The issue of Chiao-piao (Silver Yen) decided to be prohibited from Oct. 1st. (Sept. 15). Leasehold Right Adjustment Law Promulgated. General Direction of the State Railways Purchases the Private railway between Angangki and Taitsihar (Sept. 21). The Memorial Tower to the Japanese Soldiers at Harbin unveiled (Sept. 23). Soviet Consulate at Taitsihar closed (Sept. 26). Manchou Aeronautical Association established (Sept. 27). Manchoukuo Army begins to suppress the Communist bandits in Sankiang District with co-operation of Japanese troops (Sept. 30).

New office of General Direction of the State Railways opened at Mukden (Oct. 1). 25th Anniversary of Manchuria Medical College (Oct. 12). Central Meteorological Observatory opened at Hsinking. Sino-Japanese Air Routes Through Traffic Agreement signed (Oct. 17). Manchou Life Insurance Company Establishment Law and Manchou Measure Instruments Company establishment Law promulgated. Sheep Breeding firm at Chaoyang opened (Oct. 19).

Dairen Broadcasting Office building completed (Oct. 20). Sixth Manchou-Mongolia Conference begins (Oct. 25). Branch Offices of Japanese Consulate located at Mutankiang, Chiamussu and Shanhaikwan (Nov. 1). Manchou Light Metal Company Establishment Law promulgated (Nov. 2). The coal liquefying plant at Fushun established (Nov. 11). Conference of Japanese Army Commanders in Manchoukuo held (Nov. 20). Manchou Livestock Industry Company established (Nov. 21). Dr. Knoll appointed German Trade Representative to Manchoukuo (Nov. 24).

Anniversary of East Hopei Autonomous Government (Nov. 25). Physicians Law Promulgated Prime Minister Chang Ching-hui issues the statement on the Japan-German Anti-Communist Agreement (Nov. 26). Italian Consulate-General permitted to be located at Mukden (Dec. 1). The Industrial Bank of Manchou established. Revenue Stamp Tax Law Promulgated (Dec. 3). New office building of the State Council completed. Japan-Manchoukuo unification of time (Dec. 5). Number of the Chinese coolies to Manchoukuo limited to 380,000 in 1937 (Dec. 12).

Outline of Manchoukuo Industrial Development Plan proclaimed (Dec. 14). Match Monopoly Law promulgated (Dec. 20). Salt Monopoly Law proclaimed (Dec. 24). Number of Manchoukuo students to be sent to Japan limited to 500 (Dec. 25). The Manchurian Affairs Board of Japan issues the statement on Manchoukuo Industrial Development plan. New Manchoukuo Post Law promulgated (Dec. 26). Central Bank of Manchou accepts the Agencies of Japanese Banks in Manchoukuo (Dec. 30).

1937 " The whole line of railway between Tumen and Chiamussu opened to traffic (Jan. 15). Agreement on the increase of direct train between Mukden and Peking signed by the S. M. R. and Peking Railway Bureau (Jan. 20). Conference of Provincial Governors held (Jan. 22). Imperial Throne Succession Law promulgated. Lieut.-General Tojo succeeds Lieut.-General Itagaki and appointed Chief of the Staff of Kwantung Army (Mar. 1). Horse Affairs Encouragement Law promulgated (Mar. 10). Conference for Promotion of National Life, established in the State Council (Mar. 16). Imperial Property Administration Law proclaimed. Dr. Knoll arrives at Hsinking (Apr. 1). Prime Minister Chang Ching-hui leaves the Capital to pay the official visit to Chosen (Apr. 20). Conference of All Judicial Officials of Manchoukuo held at Hsinking (Apr. 26). The Council of Central Association of Manchou Special Products held at Dairen (Apr. 28). Sino-Japanese Hostilities Break Out at Lukowchiao in the outskirts of Peking (July 7). Agreement reached to entrust heavy industries of Manchoukuo under supervision of the S. M. R. Company to the Nippon Sangyo Company (Nov. 1).

CHAPTER III

RACES AND TRIBES

The Prehistoric Peoples of Manchuria and Mongolia.—Varieties of neolithic remains are distributed throughout China, Manchuria, Mongolia and Siberia. Some of them, such as ancient Chinese copper vessels, earthen tripods and polished stone tools, are common to China, Manchuria and Mongolia, a fact suggestive of the relations which existed between the peoples of these countries in prehistoric ages. In contrast to this, however, must be noted an outstanding fact that the palaeolithic remains unearthed further north in Manchuria and Mongolia are exclusively crude tools of chipped flint. The line of distinction is so clearly drawn there that one may doubt if these northern inhabitants had any close ethnic affinities with those in the south. Theories have been advanced as to the prehistoric inhabitants of these countries, but none of accepted authority as yet. Much remains to be done in these lines. In the meantime we shall have to confine our attention to those peoples whose history has been preserved in one form or another, and also to those whose racial and tribal life continues to this day.

PEOPLES OF MANCHOU

Suchens.—The Suchens, also known as the Chishens and Hsichens, are the oldest people known in history. They are recorded to have presented thorn arrows and stone bows to Wu Wang, the founder of the Chou dynasty, who ruled China in the twelfth century B.C. Through misinterpretation of ancient chronicles, these people have been identified with the I-lous of Tungusic origin who rose to prominence as inhabitants of the Ninguta region in the Han period (206 B.C.—25 A.D.). They are described as inhabitants of the "north country" in the histories written in the times of the Ch'in and Han dynasties. It is a matter of historical truth, however, that at this period "the north country" did not extend so far north as to embrace what is at present known as Manchuria. The Suchens must have inhabited Jehol or southern Mongolia.

Ancient Ch'aohsien (Korean) Tribe.—Legend makes Chitzu or the Viscount Chi, a former vassal of the Chou dynasty, the father of the Korean people. While he was a Han or Chinese, as his followers were, the people he ruled represented one of the earliest tribal indigenes of Manchuria. This tribal people has never been really identified; but in San Kuo Chih (History of the Three Kingdoms), compiled in the Chin period, reference is made to this under the head of the Wei tribes. They are said to have lived in the region of Liaoyang.

Shanjungs.—They are a tribe of unidentified origin who lived to the west of Shanhaikwan. They are recorded to have been frequent invaders of China in the time of Huan Wang, the 14th emperor of the illustrious Chou dynasty. Against this tribe the lord of Yen had to appeal to the Chou emperor for his military aid. From this it may be assumed that the Shanjungs were quite equals of the Cathayans in point of military equipment, having developed iron arms and a military art of quite their own.

Tunghus.—This tribe next appears in history towards the close of the Chou dynasty (1122—255 B.C.). Tunghu—Eastern Hu tribe—was so named because they lived to the east of the state of Chao whose historians refer to them as lightly armoured and well mounted barbarians. They made repeated attempts to invade the states of Yen and Chou. While their kingdom has never been exactly identified or traced back, their western border was in constant contact with the 'Huns' of western Chahar. Their eastern limit extended about as far as Liaoyang, occupying extensive areas, running from east to west, outside the Great Wall. This tribal kingdom was overthrown by the Huns about the time Han was at war with Chou. The defeated tribe broke up in two groups, the one later known as Wuhuans and the other as Sienpis.

Wuhuans and Sienpis.—Of the Wuhuan tribe nothing has been heard of for more than a hundred years, until in 73 B.C., in the reign of Emperor Chao Ti, of Former Han, "the Wuhuans of Liaotung" are recorded to have revolted. The rebel tribe was successfully overcome by a Cathayan force of 2,000 horses. It is presumable that the Wuhuans had grown into a military factor of not inconsiderable strength.

The Sienpis has remained in obscurity for about two hundred and fifty years. In the time of Kuang Wu Ti, the first emperor of the Later Han dynasty (25—55 A.D.), they are said to have invaded Liaotung. Later, under the leadership of Tanshihhuai the Sienpis rose to power. Their royal court was set up near Changchiakou. Having conquered all the eastern territory of the Huns in the 11th century, the Sienpi kingdom, according to a Chinese historian, had extended over a distance of more than 12,000 li from east to west and more than 7,000 li from north to south, "embracing therein mountains and rivers, and marshes and briny lands." In 178 A.D. they are said to have defeated great Han armies. The Sienpis maintained their power until their Northern dynasty was overthrown by a Sui emperor. A part of the Sienpis emerged as Mujungs in the time of the Chin, while another became the Khitans in the period following the Sui and Tang dynasties.

Fuyus.—In the first description given of the Fuyus in the above quoted "San Kuo Chih," they are represented as a tribe living south of the Sungari, having as their neighbours the Kaokulis in the south, the I-lous in the east and the Sienpis in the west. Physically, large framed, and by nature cautious and non-aggressive, they are represented as an agrarian tribe of quite peaceful disposition. In contrast, it may be noted that the Kaokulis, though apparently of the same racial stock, are described as "impulsive by nature and of aggressive bent of mind." What is noteworthy is that the Fuyus wore garments of white cloth as the Koreans do at present, and their strongholds were built in a circular form, as mountain castles of Korea are known to have been in old times.

Mais and Kaokulis.—What is called the Mai tribe in Chinese history was another of those closely allied with the original stock of the Korean race. They are said to have inhabited "Toumolou," which is now by common consent considered to be around the confluence of the Amur and Sungari. The Kaokuli tribe is generally regarded as of Fuyu origin. They first made their home in the valley of the Tungchia river, a tributary of the Yalu. Later, they extended their influence further northwards. Under the leadership of Chumêng or Tsoumou, the Kaokulis had extended their rule in the first quarter of the 4th century as far south as the Daidoko or Taidong-gang river in northern Korea. They rose at a time to such power as few ancient tribes of Manchou ever did. Their civilisation, too, was by far above that of the others. Their kingdom came to an end in the Tang period (618—907 A.D.).

I-lous.—This tribe sprang into prominence during the Han period. They lived over the area extending from Ninguta to Vladivostock. Physically, not unlike the Fuyus, their language was different to that of the Fuyus or the Kaokulis, according to San Kuo Chih. They were cave-dwellers. They lived on corn and clothed themselves in hemp and animal hides. They were one of the stone-age tribes, judging from the fact that they used poisoned stone arrow-heads; but they were not strangers to the plough, since it is also stated that they lived on "five sorts of corn and were possessed of hemp cloth."

Wei.—The Han period finds a tribe known as Wei living in Manchou, side by side with the Fuyus. They were later overcome by the latter tribe, with the result that they separated themselves in three groups one of which migrated to Korea, while the others lost themselves amongst the other tribal inhabitants they later came in contact with.

Wuchis.—Of this tribe of uncertain origin the Wei Shu, the history of the Wei dynasty or the House of Toba, says in part as follows: "The Wuchis live north of Kaokuli, where once the Suchens had lived. Each village is ruled by its own master. There is no unity among them. Bold and brave, they are the strongest of all the eastern barbarians. Their language is different from the others.... They live in fortified caves, shaped like a mound and opening above. Ladders are used for ascending and descending. Their land is without cattle, and the cart horses are used for ploughing. They have millet and wheat."

These people made an alcoholic drink by chewing rice. They generally decorated their heads with the tails of tigers and leopards.

Among the Japanese antiquaries it is generally held that this tribe lived around Shihtouchengtzu between Hsinking (Changchun) and Harbin.

Shihweis.—This tribe rose to power contemporaneously with the Wuchis, of whom they were close northern neighbours. They were nomads at some season, while at other times they were engaged in agriculture and cattle breeding. They spoke a language not unlike that of the Khitans. Composed of five tribal groups, they rose to considerable power in the period of Sui and Tang. Legend has it that the later Mongols of historic fame sprang from this tribe.

Mujungs.—A tribe probably of Sienpi origin. The early part of the Chin dynasty, or the fourth century A.D. found this growing tribe on the lower course of the Shiramuren which is the upper portion of the Liao river. Under the direction of successive able leaders, this tribe gradually rose to power. Mujungtsun, one of their chieftains, having captured Peking, declared himself Emperor of Yen and called his territory Ch'ien Yen. His capital was removed from Lungcheng to what is at present known as Chengteh. His territory extended

chiefly over a northern part of China and a western part of Manchou, including the Liaotung peninsula. The dynasty of the Mujungs is generally called Ch'ien or former Yen in contrast to the dynasties of Later Yen, Western Yen, North and South Yen that followed in that order.

Mohos.—The Moho tribe is of historical import because of the kingdom of Pohai they founded and also because they figured as a chief civilising influence of the Far East in the Tang period. History first records the Mohos as composed of seven tribal groups of which the two groups of Sumo-moho and Heishui-Moho are most important. The former inhabited the region of Kirin along the Sungari, while the latter were on the lower course of the Amur. Ta Tsujung, the founder of Pohai, is generally thought of Kaokuli origin, but it seems equally true that his followers were mostly Sumo-mohos who had early come in contact with the civilisation of Tang through their sojourn in Yingchu and Yuchow. Pohai, until it was overthrown by the Khitans in 926 A.D. after two centuries' existence, materially assisted in introducing the civilisation of Tang into Manchuria and Japan, with the latter having diplomatic and other relations for many years. When the Pohai kingdom came to an end, more than 100,000 Mohos found shelter in the Korean peninsula where they must have influenced in no mean measure the civilisation of the peninsular inhabitants.

Khitans.—This tribe, undoubtedly closely related with the Mohos, are first found along the upper course of the Shiramuren. After unsuccessful struggle with the Turks in the west, the Khitans became tributary to the Sui dynasty. They were later divided into eight groups which in the tenth century A.D. were again united by an able chieftain named Yeh-lu A-pao-chi who later became Emperor T'ai-tsu of the Liao Kingdom. In developing his country, this emperor made free use of the cultural and industrial attainments of Cathay. Iron and salt deposits were exploited; and agriculture was encouraged under Chinese direction. Liao steadily grew until at the period of Sung (960—1127 A.D.) its territory embraced practically all of North China, bordering on Manchuria and Mongolia. When the Liao kingdom was overthrown by Kin in the first quarter of the twelfth century, it meant that the last of those of direct Sienpi origin had passed out of the history of the Far East.

Nurchens.—The Nurchens, who have been called Manchus since their Ching dynasty was establish over China in the 17th century, are the only tribal entity remaining from antiquity. They were erroneously confused with the Suchens by some Chinese historians. They originally lived on the upper reaches of the Sungari, not far from the headwaters of the Yalu and mount Chingpaishan. They were known to Cathay of the Tang period. In 1115 a Nurchen chieftain named A-ku-ta declared himself the Emperor of the kingdom of Chin (Gold). In consequence of successful military adventures, he eventually annexed the Khitan kingdom in 1125. In the following year the Chin army occupied Pienching, the present Kaifeng in Honan province, the capital at the time of Sung. When the Chin kingdom was overthrown by the Mongols in 1234, the surviving Nurchens left China, returning to their original homeland in the north.

The Nurchens now made their abode around the region of Sansing or Han, on the right side of the Sungari. The Chienchou-Nurchens who are of the most historical importance among the three groups into which they had now divided themselves, later moved to the region of Kirin. These Nurchens were again divided into three section of Chienchou Guard, Chienchou Left Guard and Chienchou Right Guard. From the first named came Nurhachi, the founder of the Ching or Manchu dynasty. In 1616 he declared himself the emperor of the kingdom of Ta Chin and in 1636 his grandson occupied Peking to inaugurate the Manchu rule in China the regime which, though it saw the illustrious age of Chienlung, was by revolution brought to an end in 1911. The child emperor Hsüan T'ung abdicated. Fate disclosed to none at the time of how this child ruler was to become some two decades lated the Emperor of the Manchou empire

Of the Manchou population some estimate it at as many as 7,000,000 while others give something less than 1,000,000, the lowest estimate being around 600,000. From their physical characteristics the Japanese anthropologists differentiate them from those who are called by European scholars by the generic, and often misleading name of Tungus. The Manchou is regarded as a distinct type evolved from the ethnic stock that early made its abode around the foot of Mount Changpaishan. The Manchou is smaller of stature than the Chinese. He is also characterized by olive or light brown complexion, slightly prominent cheek bones, black hair and eyes, the shape of the eye resembling that of the Mongol type, beards and whiskers sparse and shaven except by old men. The women are smaller than the men, showing little difference from the Chinese women in point of stature. They have never practised foot-binding, though in all other points they have completely become Chinese.

RACES AND TRIBES OF NORTH MANCHURIA

Tunguses.—Several tribes of pure Tungus origin are found in some northern parts of Manchuria. The name Tungus embraces a number of Orochon tribes which are often designated by the animals they breed or the characteristics of their habits, such as (1) Reindeer Orochons; (2) Horse Orochons; (3) Dog Orochons; (4) Steppe Orochons; (5) Forest Orochons. The Tunguses are indigenes of Siberia, who are in Manchoukuo more or less distributed through Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces. The more important of these tribes are described below.

(1) **Gold or Goldis.**—Of all Tungus tribes this particular group most resembles the Mongol in external characteristics. They speak the same language as the Mongols. They are met with about Sanhsing, being the descendants of the Heishui Mohos. Because men's heads are clean shaved, the Chinese referred to them as "fish-skin pated" or "hairless" men. Their complexion is almost sickly pale. The face is long, the forehead low, the eyes narrowly slit, and the body of medium size. Their disposition is simple and peaceful, with artistic bent as is shown in their carvings.

(2) **Orochons.**—They are mostly found on the upper and middle courses of the Amur and in the Hsingan mountains. Those who live in the former region, as their tribal name Orochon, "reindeer owner," indicates, train the wild reindeer both for mounts and pack animals. Hunting is their chief pursuit. Those who live in the Hsingan mountains raise horses instead of reindeer. Physically, they are small and lean. The head is broad, the features flat, the chin protruding, the nose small, the lips thick, while the eyes are either brown or dark and narrow, and the beards sparse.

(3) **Daours (Darrs).**—This tribe is found in the region around Tsitsihar. It is one of the richest and by far the most cultured of all northern tribes. Those who are at present entrusted with local administration of the same region are mostly men of this tribe.

(4) **Solons.**—This tribe, often erroneously described by Japanese as cannibalistic, inhabits from the west of the Hsingan mountains to the river Hailar and its tributaries. It is hardly possible to distinguish this tribe from the Mongols. Known as good fighters from early days, the men of this tribe formed the backbone of the resistance offered to the invading Cossacks in the 17th century. They are characterised by tall stature, hardy frame, elongated head, deep black hair, round broad features, narrow eyes, flat nose, big mouth and thick lips. They are mostly nomadic.

Giliaks.—This ancient tribe of which there is no more than 5,000 population represents, with the Ainus of Hokkaido, the oldest denizens of north Asia. Approximating the Tungus in many physical points, this tribe is distinguished by the black lank hair common to the men who are often hairy. Other physical characteristics are prominent cheek bones, small deep set eyes, flat nose, yellowish skin, broad head, and low stature. They live in caves in winter and in huts in summer.

RACES AND TRIBES OF MONGOLIA

The inhabitants or indigenes of Mongolia were, from an ethnologic point of view, unknown to China before the Chou dynasty (1122-255 B.C.), when they began to be described as northern barbarians.

Hsiungnu (Huns).—This tribe was the first to come into the history of ancient Cathay. The period of Ch'in and Han, more than two centuries before the dawn of the Christian era, found this tribe as a powerful factor among the northwestern neighbours. They inhabited the present Inner and Outer Mongolia, later separating in northern and southern groups. The latter was at a time powerful enough to impose peace upon the Han dynasty. They later met with reverses at the hand of the Sienpis and Wuhuans, until eventually they broke up in small groups, fleeing westwards.

Tingling.—This northern tribe of uncertain origin is described to have been a terror to the northern group of the Huns in the Later Han period (25—221 A.D.). In a historical account of the Chin period, the 4th century, a portion of this tribe is described to have penetrated as far south as Shansi. The theory held by some European antiquaries that this tribe was a pure indigene of Siberia is unsupported by fact.

The House of Toba.—This tribal group, like the Mujung, is of Sienpi origin. In the last quarter of the 4th century it rose to prominence. Invading what is now known as modern Shansi after successful military campaigns against the Huns and Wuhuans, it set up in 386 the dynasty of Northern Wei. This dynasty eventually acquired control of all China north of the Yangtze, flourishing under a succession of able rulers. However, in 535 the kingdom was divided into Eastern Wei and Western Wei.

Juanjuan.—This is a group originated from the Tunghu stock, being related with the Toba. It is said that Tai Wu Ti of the Wei dynasty, in contempt of the ignorance of this tribe, so called it, comparing it to crawling insects. This, however, appears doubtful in the light of what is written of the tribe in the Nan Chi (Southern History), where it is said that the

men of this tribe wore brocade and other clothing of high craftsmanship. Their territory at a time extended "from the western frontier of Korea to the end of the Gobi desert." They were dispersed after disastrous struggle, first, with the above Wei emperor and, next at a later period, with Wen Ti of the Ch'i dynasty and, at the last, with the Turks.

Turks.—The Hsiungnu, undoubtedly of mongrel stock, are also called Turks because, it is said, in their early days they held their stronghold for generations at a fortified hill called Chinshancheng which, because of its likeness to a helmet was called Dürkö, the origin of the name Turk. Living close to the northwestern frontier of China, they had developed into a powerful kingdom in the period of Sui and Tang. They made frequent incursions into China. The Emperor Wu Ti of the later Chou took a Hsiungnu woman for his consort. At the close of the Sui dynasty a number of Chinese are said to have joined the Turks. Later, this tribal kingdom was split into an eastern and a western group. Their final downfall came about in the 7th century when the Ouigours (Wigours), a tribal force of the same ethnic stock, became ascendent.

Tiehlo.—This is another offshoot of the Hsiungnu tribe. Under this general tribal name existed a great number of divisions over areas extending to the east of Hsihai, mostly in the mountains. North of the river Loho about 20,000 of their soldiers had established themselves at the period of Sui. Farther west, as many of their soldiery were found close to Mount Paishan. They served under the eastern and western Turks. They were nomadic, fierce of nature, making predatory raiding their chief pursuit. They were good horsemen. Those who lived to the west are said to have been skilled in horticulture.

Mongols.—The Mongols, in a broad sense, include those of pure Mongol origin, who are represented by the Khalkas, and those of mixed Mongoloid origin such as Kalmuks, Buriats and other Mongolian inhabitants of more or less allied ethnic stock. Some hold that the Mongol is of the same race as the Tartar, and some consider the latter as offspring of the former. All these, however, still remain disputed points.

Khalkas.—The Khalkas comprise a number of related tribes such as **Kalmuks, Paerhhu (Barokh), Buriats, Ordos, Wulyianghai,** etc. Of these, the first and third mentioned are best known. Those of pure Khalka origin are mostly found in eastern Mongolia, numbering about 250,000. The mighty Genghis Khan is said to have been offspring of this tribe. They are not tall of stature, but strongly built with broad shoulders, though the neck is rather small and short. Other external characteristics are black hair, broad flat features, prominent cheek bones, flat nose, pointed chin, sparse beard, oblique and dark brown eyes and yellow tan skin.

Kalmuks.—This Mongol tribe is said to have originated in the Sungaria region. They call themselves "Eleuths" and "Oelöd." They inhabit the southwestern region of Mongolia, Sungaria, and as far as the Tibetan frontier. In Russia, they are distributed over some southern areas and the regions of the Don and Volga. Modern anthropologists call them Western Mongols. Their present number is estimated at 500,000. In old times they were strong and warlike people, but they have scattered over wide areas through war and migration. They are generally characterized by a hardy frame, though medium of stature, round head, short limbs, narrow eyes of lifted outer angle and also eyes set widely apart, flat features, etc. Both males and females are good riders.

The Kalmuks also comprise a number of tribal sub-divisions such as **Sungars, Torgods, Khoshods,** etc.

Buriats.—While the name Buriat is used to designate one of the great tribal divisions of Mongols, some scholars consider them as a part of the Khalkas, estimating their population anywhere between 120,000 and 250,000. Those who regard the Buriats as Siberian indigenes seem to have confounded them with Siberian Yakuts and Tunguses. This is, however, still a disputed point. They all live after the fashion of nomads, being distributed over Mongolia and Siberia, mostly clustering around the tundra and lake Baikal regions. In external characteristics they are, generally speaking, low of stature and short of limbs. Their skin is dark brown and the head round and big. They live in tents and clothe themselves in skin and fur. The women are decorative. They are industrious and thrifty, many of them being prosperous.

Ch'en Pa-erh-hu.—What the Chinese call the Ch'en Pa-erh-hu (Old Barga) is a tribe resembling the Daur. Though few European scholars have noted this tribe, its tribesmen, according to the Chinese historians, constituted one of the eight banners from very early days. Of the Pa-erh-hus, the older group was called **Ch'en Pa-erh-hu** and the new group **Hsin Pa-erh-hu** (New Barga). Because of their military occupation they in part settled on the frontier of Heilungkiang province and in part over areas extending from the Nonni to Holunbuir which is commonly called Barga. Both old and new groups live in nomadic fashion. The older tribesmen resemble, the Solons in physical characteristics, but speak a different tongue. Men representing the new group who are now found in Outer Mongolia, originally lived on the northern slopes of the Hsingans. They were transferred southwards by the Manchou authorities at the beginning of the 19th century.

Wulyanghai.—This tribe is said to have been the origin of the Khorchins. It was undoubtedly first found in east Mongolia. The first emperor of Ming, according to Chinese history, receiving their homage, organized them as an outer guard force and stationed them at Ulyangha. Geographically, they are allied with the Olot tribe, but generally described by the Chinese as a separate tribal group.

CHAPTER IV

FOUNDING OF MANCHOUKUO

As a result of the downfall of Chang Hsueh-liang in Manchuria, subsequent to the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese conflict in September, 1931, a movement for independence was started in many parts of the country. This movement resulted in the establishment of independent or selfgoverning organs of administration in important localities under such men as Yuan Chin-kai of Mukden, Tsang Shih-i of Mukden, Hsi Chia of Kirin, Chang Ching-hui of Harbin, Kan Chao-shan of Peishan-Taonan, Kan Chang-shan of Ssupingkai and others. They became leaders of this movement in their respective localities. In Inner Mongolia, the sentiment for independence also became very strong.

In the latter part of September, 1931, shortly after the outbreak of the Mukden incident, some Manchurian newspapers reported that the Commander of the Japanese army in Kwantung had dispatched a messenger to Chang Hsueh-liang at Peking, requesting him to return to Mukden and take charge of the affairs of the Three Eastern provinces. When this report was published, those connected with the movement for creation of a new sate in Manchuria and Mongolia, promptly expressed their objection to the return of Chang Hsueh-liang and made an appeal to the Japanese Commander. In this appeal, signed by a number of legal bodies and representatives of Liaoning (Fengtien) Province, they objected to Chang Hsueh-liang's return on the grounds that his administration had brought about a general state of disorder and corruption in Manchuria and Mongolia.

Transitional Measure

As a transitional measure what was known as the Local Order Maintenance Committee was organized. On November 7, the Committee issued the following announcement to apprise the public of its temporary assumption of administration in Liaoning Province:

"Since the outbreak of the recent incident, the administration of the province has been suspended, and the Committee has undertaken the maintenance of order. Apart from the question of inquiring into what has taken place or what is likely to occur in the future, this Committee takes over the administration of the province in an effort to protect its inhabitants. The Committee is endeavouring to sever relations with the former Chang Hsueh-liang government and the Nanking Government, to safeguard the people in their work, to define the duties and functions of the officials, and to enable the people to be at ease and observe laws. We hereby declare to the people that all central government offices as well as prefectural offices should strictly observe the orders of this Committee. Dated November 7. The Committee: Yuan Chin-kai, Yu Chung-han, Chang Chen-chi, Chin Liang, Kan Chao-hsi, Weng En-yu, Ting Chien-hsiu, Kao Yu-chun."

In Kirin also, a similar movement became active, and the Governor of the Province announced the principles of the new administrative policy which was to be based upon the wishes and interests of the people. The leaders of this movement conceived a plan of unifying Manchuria under a government independent of the Nanking Government or of the influence of Chang Hsueh-liang. On January 17, 1932, these leaders met at Mukden and made basic arrangements for the establishment of a new government.

The first practical step towards the realization of this scheme took shape at the "State Founding Conference" held at Mukden for three days, February 16 to 18. Those present at this conference were Tsang Shih-i, Ma Chan-shan Yu Chung-han, Hsi Chia, and Chao Hsin-po and it was called the conference of the "Five Big Leaders." At this conference, all important preparation for the formation of a new state in Manchuria were completed. On February 25, the Executive Committee, on the founding of a new government, made an epoch-making announcement, declaring that the new state to be formed in Manchuria would be called "Manchoukuo" and the new era would be called "Tatung." Also it was announced that Pu Yi, the former Emperor of China, would be installed as Chief Executive of the new state. The Executive Committee then announced the organic law governing the formation of the new Manchuria state.

Declaration of Establishment of the New State

The declaration of the establishment of the new government in Manchuria was formally made on March 1, and it marked the founding

of a new nation in Manchuria and Mongolia. On March 1, all Manchuria feted the birth of the New State. The declaration of the establishment of Manchoukuo by the Government of Manchuria reads as follows:

"March 1st, 1932
(First Year Tatung)

The Territory of Manchuria and Mongolia is a region remote and isolated on the Continent of Asia. In the records of the past, it is noted that its history is long; that the country often experienced unifications and disruptions within its border; that the soil of the land is fertile and that the people had exhibited honesty and simplicity in their manners and customs. After, however, opening the country to intercourse with outside countries the population increased in number and the products in volume, thus turning the country into a land of abundance and promise. On the contrary, since the establishment of the Republic following the Revolution of 1911, the military factions of the Eastern Provinces, taking advantage of civil wars in China proper, usurped administrative power and brought the Three Eastern Provinces under their control. Twenty years will have passed since the revolution, during which time warlords have sprung up in succession who, completely disregarding the welfare of the people, indulged themselves in greed, extravagance and dissipation. While they were bent upon the pursuit of self-interest and greed, the people, on the other hand, were subjected to extreme torture with the burden of overtaxation of the will of the war-lords. As a result the currency system was completely ruined, and the business conditions of the country became stagnant and really ruined.

"At such a critical moment, however, the warlords, giving rein to their ambition, advanced their army south of the Great Wall, thus causing unnecessary strife and killing and wounding a large number of people. Although they met with reverses many a time, never did they come to a realization of their own folly. They lost the faith and respect of the foreign powers. They engaged in wars with neighbouring countries. With utter disregard of the spirit of friendliness and cordiality of foreign countries, they encouraged anti-foreign movements.

"Lastly in the police administration provoked disturbances in the country, permitting ravages by thieves and bandits. The acts of looting, arson and massacre by these lawless elements drove the entire population to terror, exposing them to hunger in all corners of the country. To leave these thirty million people of Manchuria and Mongolia in their hands means their exposure to atrocity and lawlessness, finally leading to their extinction. It is the people's desire to extricate themselves from the extreme danger and horror. Happily, through the aid of the army of a neighbouring country, it has made possible to expel these corrupt elements from the area where they had built a stronghold for many years past. Thus the home of misrule and corruption is now put to a thorough cleansing. This, we believe is a Heaven-sent opportunity to the people of Manchuria and Mongolia for their resurrection. We should rise to the occasion and strive for our regeneration and rebirth with courage and determination.

"In turning our eyes to China proper we note that civil warfare has been engaged in intermittent warfare ever since the revolution took place. In later years despotic rule was exercised over the country by one party alone. Under the guise of the Three Principles of the People, the people are put to death in the name of Min-shen; their leaders are bent upon only self-interest and moved by greed while they go in the name of Min-chuan, and in their eyes there is nothing but their own party, although they profess the principle of Min-tsu. In this manner, though they profess that the country is ruled with fairness and equality, the practice of the party leaders is in utter contradiction to what they profess, thus not only deceiving themselves but the people at the same time.

"Of late years, internal strife has become frequent, with rivals aiming to partition each other's territory. It is to be noted that even the existence of the ruling party itself is now in danger. In these circumstances, it is impossible to expect from them consideration of the national welfare. At this time the country is overrun by Communist bands whose baneful influence is fast penetrating into the flesh of the people and into the very heart of the national government. Facing these deplorable conditions we are compelled to look back to the days of the Ching and Min dynasties and also to the Yao and Shun, and deplore to see how far away we have gone from the golden age in our history. What is important, this feeling of ours is equally shared by friendly nations abroad.

"The result of twenty years' experiences has convincingly taught us that we must bravely face the realities and take the task upon ourselves to reform our national life and seek a revival of the old golden age. The fact must be borne in mind, however, that evil influences are still at work amongst us, and should we evade the issue at this time and fail to check the spread of Communism, it is but obvious that the destruction of the nation would be inevitable. At this critical moment unless the people of Manchuria and Mongolia awake in good season to a realization of the heaven-given call for their liberation from the most corrupt political state, their extinction will be also inevitable.

"After thorough deliberations for several months past and after a number of meetings held by the leaders of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang and Jehol Provinces, Harbin Special District, and also those under the various banners of Mongolia, the conclusion was made with unanimity that they should look for a practical application of good rule rather than for mere expressions in words in administration of state affairs. Be the form of government what it may, the primary duty of the state is to give assurance of peace and security to the people.

"Manchuria and Mongolia had been, in the past, a separate state detached from China proper. In the present situation we are pressed to strive for national independence. In accordance with the will of the thirty million people, we hereby declare on this day that we sever our relations with the Republic of China and establish the State of Manchoukuo and that we hereby make a public proclamation of the fundamental principles on which this new state has been established.

"It is believed that statecraft should be founded upon the principle of Tao, or the Way, and Tao should be of Tien, or of Heaven. The principle on which this new state is founded is to follow the way of "Tien" (Heaven); that the people will have peace and security. The government must conform to the will of the people and not personal views should be permitted to prevail in the affairs of the state.

"There shall be no discrimination, with respect either to race or creed, among those people who now reside within the territory of the new state, including the races of the Hans, Manchous, Mongols, Japanese and Koreans; nationals of other countries as well may upon application acquire as permanent residents equal treatment with others and their rights shall be guaranteed thereby.

"It shall be the internal policy of our new state to

renounce such policies as were adopted in the dark days of the past, to revise laws and enforce local autonomy, to draft able men into the service of the government and elevate officers deserving of promotion, to encourage industry, unify the currency system, open the national resources, maintain the standard of living, adjust and regulate the administration of the police, eliminate banditry, and to further promote and popularize education, to respect Li-chiao, the teaching of Confucianism and to apply the principle of Wangtao Chui and practice its teachings. Thus it is designed to give enlightenment to the people who live within the state and maintain the honour of perpetuating the peace of Eastern Asia, thus setting a model example of good government to the world.

"The foreign policy of the new state shall be to seek and further promote cordial relations with foreign powers, win their faith and respect, strictly observing international conventions. The debt obligations accruing within the territory of Manchuria by treaty stipulations with various countries prior to the establishment of the new state shall be acknowledged according to the usage of international convention. Foreign investment by all nationalities uniformly shall be welcomed for the furtherance of trade and exploitation of natural resources, thus bringing the principles of the open door and equal opportunity and the like to a fuller realization.

"The foregoing articles hereby proclaimed are the fundamental principles whereon the new state has been established. The newly-formed government will assume all responsibilities from the day of the establishment of the new state, and the government hereby declare under oath made to the thirty million people, with sincerity and good faith, that these things shall all be fulfilled."

Simultaneously with the issuance of the above declaration, the Organic Law of the Central Government, the Law Guaranteeing the Rights of the People, and other regulations were promulgated. These laws and regulations were intended to be the basis of the provisional constitution pending the enactment of formal ones.

A new era dawned in Manchuria and on its thirty million people on March 9, 1932 when Pu Yi, the former boy-emperor of the Ching dynasty of China, was inaugurated as "Chieh Cheng" (Chief Executive) of the New State of Manchoukuo at Hsinking, the Capital, with proper ceremonies and public acclamation that marked the inauguration of the long-desired autonomy and the emancipation of the people from the tyranny of military rulers.

In the presence of all noted leaders of Manchuria, Provinces of Mongolia, the public and many foreign residents, the State Seal and the Seal of the Chief Executive were formally offered to Pu Yi. Upon the acceptance of the post of "Chieh Cheng" by Pu Yi, Cheng Hsiao-hsu read the public declaration of the Chief Executive which was as follows:—

Public Declaration of the Chief Executive

"Humanity should uphold morality. There are different races in the world, and if self-advancement is attempted by any race by oppressing another, morality will be lost. All mankind should respect humanity and justice. But there are international conflicts. To harm others and to profit oneself is against humanity and justice. In establishing this State, morality, humanity, and justice have been adopted as the basic principles. When racial differences and international conflicts are removed, we shall be able to establish an eternal reign of justice. All our people should therefore devote their efforts to the realization of this ideal."

The New Flag

Shortly after the ceremony of inaugurating the Chief Executive, that of hoisting the new national flag was held. The new flag of five colours, representing the five races or the Hans, Manchous, Japanese, Korean, and Mongols, was formally hoisted while Pu Yi, other dignitaries of the new government and the public assembled on the occasion saluted this national emblem of peace and unity.

On March 10, the following day, the Government of the new country was formally organized with the appointment of important officials. The new era was titled Tatung (great unity) and the territory governed by the new government of Manchoukuo consists of the former three provinces of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang, and the new province of Jehol. Hsinking, the most important city located in the centre of the territory, was selected as the new capital.

Foreign Minister's Note

Desiring to have the new state of Manchoukuo recognized by the Powers of the world Foreign Mininster Hsieh Chieh-shih of Manchoukuo sent a note to all Foreign Powers on March 12, requesting recognition. The same note read as follows:—

"Sir

I have the honour to inform you that the Provinces of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang and Jehol, the Tungsheng Special District and Mongolian Menga (League) under several banners, have united themselves to establish an independent government severing their relations with the Republic of China, thus creating "Manchoukuo" (State of Manchuria) on March 1, 1932.

"It must be known to you that the old military authorities, headed by Chang Hsueh-liang, who ruled the North-Eastern Provinces, sought only their self-interest and failed to give adequate consideration to the welfare of the people; further, that the entire populace was subjected to extreme suffering through outrageous exactions which were results of a corrupt discipline in official circles; and that the relations with foreign nations were greatly impaired through the enforcement of anti-foreign policies. Furthermore, in China proper there is to be found no unified and stable government due to constant factional strifes of a murderous nature among various military leaders of their own race, which make it impossible for the people at large to enjoy a single day of peace.

"Thereupon, the people of Manchuria, at the opportune time of the downfall of the old military power, have established a new State with a unity of effort and a single purpose.

"The Government of Manchuria proposes to perfect its institutions of law, to establish security for the life of the people and to exert all possible power for the promotion of their happiness and peace.

"As regards relations with foreign nations, it has been definitely decided that diplomatic intercourse should conform to the several principles herewith stated, that is to say:

"1. That the Government will conduct the affairs of the State according to the primary principle of good faith and confidence and according to the spirit of harmony and friendship, and pledges itself to maintain and promote international peace.

"2. That the Government will respect international justice in accordance with international laws and conventions.

"3. That the Government will take over those obligations incurred by the Republic of China by virtue of treaty stipulation with countries, in the true light of the law of nations, and discharge these obligations with good faith.

"4. That the Government will not infringe upon the acquired rights of the people of foreign countries within the limits of the State of Manchuria, and further that their persons and properties shall be given full protection.

"5. That the Government welcomes the entry of the people of foreign nations into, and their residence in, Manchuria and that all races shall be accorded equal and equitable treatment.

"6. That trade and commerce with foreign countries shall be facilitated, thus contributing to the development of world economy.

"7. That with regard to the economic activities of the people of foreign nations within the State of Manchoukuo, the principle of the Open Door shall be observed.

"It is the earnest desire of this Government that your Government will fully understand the object of the establishment of the State of Manchuria of which you are herewith appraised and that formal diplomatic relations will be established between your Government and the State of Manchuria.

"With assurances of highest esteem and distinguished consideration.

Respectfully,
(Signature) HSIEH CHIEH-SHIH,
Minister for Foreign Affairs.

March Twelfth, First Year of Tatung."

Recognition By Japan

The State of Manchoukuo was given the first formal recognition by Japan on September 15, 1932, when a protocol was signed between Manchoukuo and Japan.

The protocol signed between Japan and Manchoukuo on September 15, 1932, is as follows—

JAPAN-MANCHOUKUO PROTOCOL

"Whereas Japan has recognized the fact that Manchoukuo, in accordance with the free will of its inhabitants, has organized and established itself as an independent State; and

"Whereas Manchoukuo has declared its intention of abiding by all international engagements entered into by China in so far as they are applicable to Manchoukuo;

"Now the Governments of Japan and Manchoukuo have, for the purpose of establishing a perpetual relationship of good neighbourhood between Japan and Manchoukuo, each respecting the territorial rights of the other, and also in order to secure the peace of Far East, agreed as follows:—

"1. Manchoukuo shall confirm and respect, in so far as no agreement to the contrary shall be made between Japan and Manchoukuo in the future, all rights and interests possessed by Japan or her subjects within the territory of Manchoukuo by virtue of Sino-Japanese treaties, agreements or other arrangements or of Sino-Japanese contracts, private as well as public;

"2. Japan and Manchoukuo, recognizing that any threat to the territory or to the peace and order of either of the High Contracting Parties constitutes at the same time a threat to the safety and existence of the other, agree to cooperate in the maintenance of their national security; it being understood that such Japanese forces as may be necessary for this purpose shall be stationed in Manchoukuo.

"The present Protocol shall come into effect from the date of its signature.

"The present Protocol has been drawn up in Japanese and Chinese, two identical copies being made in each language. Should any difference arise in regard to interpretation between the Japanese and the Chinese texts, Japanese shall prevail.

"In witness whereof the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective Governments, have signed the present Protocol and have affixed their seals thereto.

"Done at Hsinking, this fifteenth day of the Ninth month of the Seventh year of Showa, corresponding to the fifteenth day of the Ninth month of the First year of Tatung.

(L.S.) NOBUYOSHI MUTO
Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of His Majesty the Emperor of Japan.
(L.S.) CHENG HSIAO-HSU
Prime Minister of Manchoukuo."

BIRTH OF IMPERIAL REGIME

In accordance with the basic principle which guided its birth and after two years of preparations, the State of Manchoukuo adopted an Imperial rule on the auspicious day of March 1, 1934, making the second anniversary of its founding, and its Chief Executive Pu Yi was enthroned as first Emperor of the new Empire.

Simultaneously with the adoption of the Imperial rule, various governmental systems were revised. The name of the country remained the same as before as Manchoukuo but that of the era was changed from Tatung to Kangte. On and after March 1 the Empire of Manchoukuo is ruled over by an Emperor. With the honour and prestige of the Emperor unimpaired, His Majesty presides over the administration of the country as Ruler, gives sanction to various laws to be enacted, orders their promulgation, oversees the judicial authorities in their administrations of justice and controls the army, navy and air force of the rising State.

CHAPTER V

POPULATION & IMMIGRATION

Introductory Remarks

One of the striking phases of Manchuria is the notable increase of the population in the last fifty years, and the predominance of Chinese immigrants. In 1907 the population was estimated at between sixteen and twenty-two millions. According to the returns at the end of December, 1935 Manchuria harboured a population of 35,822,189 of which 34,200,923 was accounted for by Manchoukuo and 1,621,266 by the Kwantung Leased Territory and the S.M.R. Zone.

The Manchoukuoans, inclusive of the Chinese immigrants who comprise more than a third of the population, accounted for 96.3% of the total population of Manchuria in 1935. The Koreans followed with 2.2% and the Japanese with 1.3%. In other words, throughout the whole of Manchuria in 1935 there were 478,519 Japanese as compared with 34,491,845 Manchoukuoans and 777,878 Koreans.

The flood of immigration into Manchuria started some three decades ago and in 1927 reached its peak when more than a million Chinese came into the country. Since 1928 the rate of immigration has fallen off considerably. In 1935 the Manchoukuo government instituted a regulation towards restricting the immigration of Chinese and partly as a result of this regulation such entries decreased to 436,739 in 1936. Chinese leaving Manchoukuo in that year were 452,294 so that the balance shows an emigation excess of Chinese from Manchuria of 15,555. It seems, however, that quite a number of Chinese find secret passage into Manchuria and when this factor is taken into account the number entering Manchuria is estimated to be larger than those departing.

Population By Occupation

Approximately two-thirds of the people of Manchoukuo were engaged in farming in 1935. Excluding the district, under the jurisdiction of the Mongolia Administration Bureau, there were a total of 21,626,386 persons eking their living from the industries of agriculture, live-stock and forestry in Manchoukuo in 1935. Commerce, which came next, accounted for 1,303,150 followed by civil service and professional occupations with 1,056,279.

When these figures are analyzed it is found that the ratio employed in the various industries differs with the nationalities. In the case of the Japanese about a fourth of them, or 32,495 of a total of 120,791 were engaged in commerce, followed by professional and civil occupations with 27,039. Projects towards implanting Japanese immigrants in Manchuria were undertaken several times in the past, but the results have not been totally satisfactory. The Korean immigrants, however, are doing better. Since the Manchurian Incident the Japanese have renewed their efforts at sending emigrants to Manchuria and in 1932 and 1933 a total of 1,000 Japanese settlers entered the country.

Manchuria claims about forty percent of the entire Japanese overseas population. At the end of 1934 the number of Japanese, not including the Koreans, in the Kwantung Leased Territory, the S.M.R. zone and the open marts, reached 398,317. A study of their occupation shows that most of them were engaged in business and industrial and communication activities. Very few were doing farming. This characteristic of the Japanese in Manchuria offers a marked contrast to those immigrants in Brazil, America and other lands, among whom farmers predominate.

Before the establishment of Manchoukuo, the Japanese communities in Manchuria were practically limited to the Kwantung Territory, the railway zones and the open marts. With the birth of the new State, however, Japanese nationals began to spread to every section of the country, thanks to the freedom of residence, travel and business which was allowed them by the new regime.

The encouragement of agricultural emigrants to Manchoukuo by the Japanese Government is bringing more settlers of this class into the new State, but their number is only a small fraction of the other classes of Japanese who have swarmed to Manchuria since the Manchurian Incident. Most of these new arrivals are engaged in government service, communications, manufacturing, business and mining. Of those in government service the majority are employed by the Manchoukuo Government. The Manchoukuo State Railways are also using an increasing number of trained Japanese experts, especially since the purchase of the North Manchuria Railway (formerly the C.E.R.) by the Hsinking Government. The staffs of the numerous industrial firms which have sprung into being during the past three years, are also mostly Japanese.

Japanese Immigrants into Manchoukuo

The most notable of the Japanese immigrants into Manchoukuo are those sent by the Department of Overseas Affairs, who are known as "self-guarding immigrants." Taking the opportunity of the growing interests of the Japanese in Manchuria due to the Manchurian incident, in February, 1932 the Department of Overseas Affairs drew up the outline of a plan for sending Japanese emigrants to Manchuria and has since sent four batches of emigrants. Then there are the Tenshoyen, experimental immigrants represented by the To-a Industrial Company, Korean immigrants forming what are known as "safe agricultural districts," Tenrikyo settlements formed by Tenrikyo followers.

Subsidy to Immigrants.—A subsidy which is given by the Department of Overseas to the immigrants according to the progress of their colonization extends over four years. Its details per household are as follows:—

	Yen
Passage	200
Livestock	75
Agricultural Implements	150
Housing	250
Clothing	30
Living	85
Total	790

Besides, a subsidy of ¥144,260 is granted to such public enterprises as primary schools, boarding houses, bath houses, etc., for every unit, or one thousand of these buildings.

First Batch of Immigrants.—The first batch of immigrants, 500 in number chosen from among ex-soldiers of under thirty years of age who had experience in agriculture representing eleven prefectures of North Eastern Japan was sent in February, 1933 to Yungfengchen. The district chosen for settlement covers an area of 26,000 cho, of which 18,000 cho is arable land. The soil, topography, climate and all other conditions are very favourable to farming. In the first year of immigration they cultivated such crops as barley, wheat, soya beans, small beans, millet, rice, potatoes, vegetables, etc. But, the total amount of these crops was as limited as 500 koku owing to such unfavourable causes as fighting with bandits, horses and cattle on the farms having to be devoted to other uses, prevalence of diseases among the farm workers, etc. From the second year of settlement, however, they began steadily to approach the stage of self-sufficiency, raising 1,600 koku of staple crops, 34,000 kan of potatoes, 100 kan of tobacco, 3,000 kan of beet sugar on the programme of bringing one cho of land under cultivation per capita. As for stock raising, there were 180 horses, 70 cattle, 350 sheep and 180 pigs. Besides, they made some agricultural manufactures. As on August 15, 1935 the number of these immigrants was reckoned at 563.

Second Batch of Immigrants.—The second batch of immigrants, who were also 500 in number, representing Tokyo, Chiba, Saitama and a few other prefectures were sent in July, 1933 to Tsihuli about seven ri south of Yungfengchen. This district covered an area of about 40,000 cho, of which 24,000 cho is arable. It is almost the same as Yungfengchen in the fitness for agriculture. In the first year of their settlement the immigrants had to confine their work on the farms to the raising of vegetables as the season for the cultivation of various cereals had been over when they arrived from home. On the other hand, they directed their efforts to the repairing of dwellings, the construction of walls against the attack of bandits, the gathering of fuel, road improvements, stock raising, etc. As at the end of 1935 the number of these immigrants stood at 297. This decrease in the number of the settlers is due partly to some being killed in battle and some having withdrawn or having been evicted from the party.

Third Batch of Immigrants.—The third batch of immigrants numbering 300 were all under thirty-five years of age and represented sixteen prefectures. Of this number 259 were sent to Peitakou in October, 1934 and the rest or 50 in March, 1935. In 1935 they ploughed upland farms of 220 cho and paddy fields of 50 cho, totalling 270 cho. The results of their tillage were far better than those shown by the former settlers owing to their painstaking preparations.

Fourth Batch of Immigrants.—The fourth batch of immigrants who were special farming settlers for 1935, were intended to cover 500 houses to be quartered at Hataho and Chengtzuho which are both well suited for developing paddy fields. These immigrants collected from all parts of the country were to have been settled in February, 1936. In view of satisfactory results being shown by the immigrants already sent, the Department of Overseas Affairs has worked out a scheme for sending a large number of agricultural and economic immigrants beginning with 1936 and budgeted ¥1,000,000 for the purpose.

Tenshoyen Immigrants.—The Tenshoyen immigrants were originally chosen from among the unemployed cared for in the Tensho-Koku, Tokyo in February, 1932 under the support of the Social Affairs Bureau of the Tokyo Municipality and the Government of Kwantung Province. They first received practical training at Machiatun, Kwantung Province and in March, 1933 were migrated to the Tungliao Farm owned by the To-a Industrial Company. They are 89

in number at present. In the first year of their settlement they showed some net profits, thereby surpassing any of the Japanese settlements. The following year, however, they suffered so seriously from floods that they earned bare living only by subsidiary occupations. The area under tillage in 1935 was 650 cho and the yield therefrom is estimated at 4,500 koku. As for stock raising, at present there are 80 horses, 55 cattle, 300 pigs. There is the possibility of raising about 10,000 sheep in the future.

Tenrikyo Village.—At Ashiho in the outskirts of Harbin there is a settlement known as Tenrikyo-Mura (Tenrikyo Village) formed by followers of Tenrikyo (See under Chapter on Religion in the Japan Section of the Japan-Manchoukuo Year Book). The first batch of settlers who numbered 205 and represented 43 houses were sent in November, 1934. This Tenrikyo-Mura is provided with a primary school, medical offices, cinema hall, a place of worship, telegraph and telephone apparatus and electric lights.

Future Immigration Program.—The question of Japanese emigration to Manchuria was brought up for discussion at the meeting of the Upper House Budget Committee, of the Japanese Diet, on March 11, 1937. The Hayashi Cabinet, then in office, pledged to succeed to its predecessor's plan to transplant a million Japanese farm households into Manchuria over a period of 20 years. In reply to an interpellation by Baron Kimimochi Okura, an influential member of the Koseikai and former Director of the South Manchuria Railway Company who asked if the Government planned to send 100,000 households to Manchuria for the next five years beginning with 1937, the Finance Minister Toyotaro Yuki replied in his concurrent capacity as Overseas Affairs Minister that the Government was in perfect agreement with the said emigration program and explained that a certain sum of money was contained in the 1937-38 budget to finance the transplanting of 5,000 farmers for collective settlement in Manchuria and 1,000 free emigrants during the next fiscal year. He also declared that the undertaking would be continued under similar methods as those employed by the Hirota government and that the Manchuria Colonial Development Company would be asked to attend to various matters relating to the progress of the emigration plan.

Korean Farming Immigrants

The immigration of Koreans to Manchuria with Chientao as a centre is very old in origin. Korean immigrants mostly worked on the paddy fields which are not suited for Chinese farmers. But the famine which had come at close intervals since 1920 had dealt a serious blow to these Korean farming immigrants. This, coupled with the frequent occurrence of battles caused great difficulties to them in the way of getting repayments from their Chinese debtors or securing credit. To make the situation worse, since 1929 they had suffered from a serious set-back of silver price and pressure brought to bear upon them by the Chinese authorities. The Manchurian incident offered them a rare opportunity to revive. They have well availed themselves of the opportunity thus offered. The authorities of the Government-General have not remained inactive. On the contrary, they have a plan for emigration of Koreans farmers to North Manchuria extending over a period of ten years and have estimated ¥50,000,000 as a necessary expenditure. On the other hand, directly after the Manchurian incident, the Government-General caused needy Korean farmers to set up a "safe farming village" by granting them a certain sum of money. These safe farming villages are now in four different places, namely, Yingkow, Tiehling, Suihua, Hotung. The village at Yingkow was established in May, 1933. There are about 1,000 households and paddy fields are under tillage to the extent of 2 cho 4 tan per household. The results of farming for 1934 were very satisfactory as the rice crop was 2 koku 3 to per tan on the average. The Suihua farming village covers an area of 1,000 cho. The area of paddyfields is 2 cho 4 tan per household. At present there are 350 households. The area under plough for 1935 was 840 cho. Earnings are estimated at ¥420 per household. The rest of the Korean settlements are the same as the foregoing in style. The Tiehling settlemnt was started in 1932 with 190 households. The number of households increased to 233 in 1933 and to 242 the following year. The area under cultivation is 700 cho. The Hotung settlement was started in 1933 with 852 households including some local inhabitants. The number of their households increased to 1,000 in the spring of 1935. The area under tillage is 2,000 cho all representing paddy-fields.

New Immigration Companies

Sen-Man (Korean-Manchoukuo) Colonization Co.—The Government-General of Korea contemplates organizing a Sen-Man Colonization Company with a view to controlling the "safe agricultural villages" referred to above and also dealing with the emigration of Koreans to Manchoukuo in general. The Company is to be capitalized at ¥30,000,000 and guaranteed a 5% dividend by the Government-General. It is intended to settle 160,000 households of a million Koreans in the course of fifteen years.

Manchou Colonization Co.—The organization of the Manchou Colonization Company, which had been pending for a long time, was at last materialized on December 13, 1935 when the Manchoukuo Colonization Company Law was promulgated. The Company which is a Japan-Manchoukuo joint undertaking is capitalized at ¥15,000,000 and intended to settle 200,000 Japanese immigrants in North Manchuria with Ilan as a centre in the course of ten years.

Table 1. Population By Nationality

(End of Dec.)

Nationality	Sex	1932	1933	1934	1935
Manchoukuoans	Male	15,952,952	16,633,636	17,634,990	18,199,976
	Female	12,949,640	13,556,890	14,417,229	15,057,970
	Total	28,902,592	30,190,526	32,052,219	33,257,946
Japanese	Male	*300,601	23,099	47,154	74,579
	Female	*265,870	15,558	29,275	53,683
	Total	*566,471	38,645	76,429	128,262
Koreans	Male	——	292,448	354,445	398,578
	Female	——	258,655	308,416	344,634
	Total	——	552,103	662,861	743,212
Others	Male	78,801	50,739	40,105	35,496
	Female	58,253	47,692	37,440	36,007
	Total	137,054	98,431	77,545	71,503
Total	Male	16,332,354	17,000,922	18,076,694	18,708,629
	Female	13,273,763	13,878,795	14,792,360	15,492,294
	Total	29,606,117	30,879,717	32,869,054	34,200,923
Male population per 100 females		123.0	122.5	122.2	120.8
Population per household		6.1	6.0	6.0	6.0

Note:—* Including Koreans.

Table 2. Population By Province

(End of Dec., 1935)

Province	Manchoukuoans	Japanese	Koreans	Others	Total
Kirin	5,051,836	10,756	39,099	305	5,101,996
Lungkiang	2,235,085	12,140	4,695	1,034	2,252,954
Heiho	52,732	987	811	515	55,045
Sankiang	955,437	4,532	16,369	165	976,503
Pinkiang, Mutankiang	4,404,984	11,598	57,841	5,902	4,480,325
Chientao	153,857	9,261	452,246	120	615,484
Antung, Tunghwa	2,717,412	1,030	73,021	74	2,791,537
Fengtien	9,560,119	14,717	83,935	1,020	9,659,791
Chinchow	3,551,138	7,369	1,652	55	3,560,214
Jehol	2,776,109	5,823	835	51	2,782,818
Hsinking*	221,900	22,207	3,807	512	248,426
Harbin*	385,514	21,841	5,736	45,288	458,379
West Hsingan	453,747	240	151	17	454,155
South Hsingan	618,020	1,140	2,370	10	621,504
East Hsingan	67,848	1,528	298	1,661	71,335
North Hsingan	56,208	3,129	346	14,774	70,457
Total	33,257,946	128,262	743,212	71,503	34,200,923
% to total	97.2%	0.37%	2.1%	0.2%	100%
Total Including Kwantung Leased Territory & S. M. R. Zone	34,491,845	478,519	777,878	73,947	35,822,189
% to total	96.3%	1.3%	2.2%	0.2%	100%

Note:—* Special Municipality.

Table 3. No. of Households for Recent Years

End of Dec.	Manchoukuoans	Japanese	Koreans	Others	Total
1932	4,707,158	*92,876	——	30,147	4,829,881
1933	5,049,115	11,950	98,990	26,272	5,185,967
1934	5,307,138	24,668	118,754	23,761	5,474,321
1935	5,481,433	36,129	132,703	20,697	5,670,962

Note:—* Including Koreans.

Table 4. No. of Households By Province
(End of Dec., 1935)

Province	Manchoukuoans	Japanese	Koreans	Others	Total
Kirin	745,988	3,008	7,981	109	757,086
Lungkiang	358,661	3,732	1,038	265	363,696
Heiho	11,575	476	213	46	12,310
Sankiang	162,996	1,348	3,547	25	167,916
Pinkiang / Mutankiang	724,112	3,264	11,944	1,630	740,950
Chientao	25,709	2,746	75,830	28	104,313
Antung / Tunghwa	396,795	362	12,247	20	409,424
Fengtien	1,494,575	4,091	16,465	310	1,515,441
Chinchow	645,611	2,145	470	41	648,204
Jehol	591,272	1,878	234	31	593,415
Hsinking*	41,022	5,650	793	148	47,613
Harbin*	73,746	5,511	1,253	14,069	94,579
West Hsingan	93,009	88	35	8	93,140
South Hsingan	94,304	380	536	2	95,222
East Hsingan	12,587	644	107	595	13,933
North Hsingan	9,471	806	73	3,370	13,720
Total	5,481,433	36,129	132,703	20,697	5,670,962

Note:—* Special Municipality.

Table 5. No. of Households and Population in Kwantung Leased Territory and S.M.R. Zone

	Kwantung Leased Territory					S. M. R. Zone				
		Population					Population			
End of Dec.	No. of Households	Male	Female	Total	Male pop. per 100 females	No. of Households	Male	Female	Total	Male pop. per 100 females
1931	150,406	533,418	404,870	938,288	131.8	63,333	220,987	116,371	336,897	189.5
1932	155,149	544,740	416,406	961,146	130.8	68,354	234,659	128,061	362,720	183.2
1933	161,838	569,942	434,497	1,004,439	131.2	74,944	261,841	142,475	404,316	183.8
1934	170,847	598,256	453,102	1,051,358	132.0	83,085	288,692	157,550	446,242	183.2
1935	183,857	641,112	478,758	1,119,870	133.9	93,402	322,987	178,409	501,396	181.0

Table 6. Number of Households in Kwantung Leased Territory and S.M.R. Zone
(Dec., 1936)

	Japanese	Koreans	Manchoukuoans	Others	Total
Kwantung:					
Dairen	29,720	578	38,425	379	69,102
Ryojun (Port Arthur)	2,765	21	3,768	7	6,561
S.M.R. Zone:					
Wafangtien	781	11	690	—	1,482
Yingkow	1,010	66	151	—	1,227
Anshan	4,707	115	2,852	7	7,681
Liaoyang	1,081	36	606	4	1,727
Ssuchiatun	1,037	5	293	—	1,335
Fengtien	15,202	234	2,756	198	18,390
Tiehling	725	26	247	—	998
Kaiyuan	535	374	2,603	—	3,512
Ssupingkai	1,638	144	1,697	7	3,486
Kungchuling	1,300	103	1,433	—	2,836
Hsinking	7,788	515	3,095	77	11,475
Antung	3,679	3,004	9,544	5	16,232
Penhsihu	386	22	255	—	663
Fushun	3,765	499	5,275	6	9,545

Table 7. Population By Nationality in Kwantung Leased Territory

End of Dec.	Manchoukuoans	Japanese	Koreans	Foreigners	Total
1907	385,006	24,572	?	74	409,652
1910	425,599	36,668	20	112	462,399
1915	490,584	50,176	77	141	540,978
1920	592,913	73,894	396	179	667,328
1925	665,989	90,542	834	441	757,806
1930	820,534	116,052	1,792	734	939,114
1931	816,114	119,770	1,747	657	938,288
1932	832,488	125,935	2,002	721	961,146
1933	862,307	139,016	2,259	857	1,004,439
1934	898,117	149,492	2,708	1,041	1,051,358
1935	955,514	159,749	3,251	1,356	1,119,870

Table 8. Population By Nationality in S.M.R. Zone

End of Dec.	Manchoukuoans	Japanese	Koreans	Foreigners	Total
1907	11,061	13,313	?	3	24,377
1910	31,774	25,266	384	13	57,437
1915	60,225	34,396	449	181	95,251
1920	113,849	61,576	2,048	378	177,851
1925	180,534	83,620	9,005	1,466	274,625
1930	235,016	99,411	15,901	1,769	352,097
1931	214,370	100,268	20,794	1,465	336,897
1932	216,839	116,589	27,956	1,336	362,720
1933	235,234	139,973	27,781	1,328	404,316
1934	251,832	165,375	27,855	1,180	446,242
1935	278,385	190,508	31,415	1,088	501,396

Table 9. Population and Number of Households in Cities of Manchoukuo
(Dec., 1936)

	No. of households	Population				
		Japanese	Koreans	Manchoukuoans	Others	Total
Yingkow	22,125	740	1,128	126,560	47	128,475
Anshan	2,662	9	139	11,532	—	11,680
Liaoyang	10,392	89	176	63,869	12	63,966
Ssuchiatun	564	—	42	2,450	—	2,492
Fengtien	85,332	13,161	14,024	429,794	755	457,734
Tiehling	8,558	—	—	42,174	7	42,181
Kaiyuan	4,080	33	66	21,180	5	21,284
Sspingkai	5,781	311	56	28,479	36	28,882
Kungchuling	3,324	16	166	16,462	7	16,651
Hsinking	50,772	29,639	4,616	211,876	533	246,664
Antung	20,849	188	851	116,415	43	117,497
Penhsihu	5,632	1,731	386	28,567	—	30,684
Fushun	18,449	65	3,911	83,522	5	87,503
Panshih	3,995	255	1,285	19,477	10	21,027
Kirin	25,532	9,962	2,152	115,297	90	127,501
Tunhua	6,765	1,300	1,575	30,413	14	33,302
Chiaoho	3,174	353	5,342	10,857	—	16,552
Mingyuehkou	2,134	224	6,301	4,456	3	10,984
Hsinchan	5,804	457	1,179	25,721	22	27,379
Chaoyangchuan	1,525	339	4,394	1,848	2	6,583
Yenki	5,037	1,718	9,108	13,945	53	24,824
Tumen	6,426	3,835	21,587	1,803	1	27,236
Lungchingtsun	5,303	1,486	18,285	4,608	50	24,429
Toutaokou	1,940	106	6,719	3,614	26	10,440
Hunchun	3,179	1,002	5,237	9,233	—	15,498
Paitsaokou	1,574	162	4,077	3,537	4	7,812
Ningan	7,704	576	3,094	34,917	—	38,591
Tungkingcheng	5,717	46	3,778	28,821	316	32,645
Mutankiang	12,701	4,994	4,706	49,666	8	59,682
Chengchiatun	7,371	827	199	41,940	9	42,974
Tungliao	7,435	585	455	39,061	—	40,110
Kailu	4,496	96	14	18,877	—	18,987
Taonan	9,665	912	357	47,568	13	48,850
Koshan	4,412	369	41	22,052	1	22,463
Taian	4,799	170	371	25,826	—	26,367
Noho	2,475	242	77	11,913	51	12,283
Tailai	3,934	118	110	16,211	1	16,440
Chentung	970	19	10	5,303	—	5,332
Paichengtzu	4,027	1,698	257	16,095	6	18,056
Wangyehmiao	2,039	539	334	7,586	1,085	9,544
Kaitung	2,691	70	23	14,504	—	14,597
Pamiencheng	2,735	28	22	17,038	6	17,049
Tunganganghsi	3,671	571	40	16,396	212	17,219
Tsitsihar	19,736	6,924	551	86,840	361	94,676
Harbin	98,223	32,472	6,679	388,638	37,023	464,812
Shanhaikwan	7,868	1,518	249	35,279	26	37,072
Hsiungchi	5,092	2,733	19,387	352	2	22,474
Lotsin	3,291	4,553	18,865	277	—	53,695
Tsingtsin	11,130	11,604	44,023	1,011	27	56,665
Nanyang	1,349	768	4,868	98	4	5,738
Chinchow	18,713	7,001	624	92,203	547	100,375

Table 10. Population By Occupations*
(End of 1935)

Occupations	Population	Occupations	Population
Agriculture, Live-stock, and Forestry	21,626,386	Civil service and professional occupations	1,056,279
Fishery	37,141	Employee	2,319,247
Mining	49,125	Others	1,461,620
Industry	896,545	Without fixed calling	4,152,011
Commerce	1,303,150	Total	32,991,904
Transportation	90,400		

Note:—*Excluding District under Juridiction of Mongolia Administration Bureau.

Table 11. Occupation By Nationalities*
(End of 1935)

	Manchoukuoans	Japanese	Koreans	Others	Total
Agriculture, Live-stock, and Forestry	21,138,049	4,019	481,198	3,120	21,626,386
Fishery	32,436	262	4,328	115	37,141
Mining	43,859	837	4,332	97	49,125
Industry	849,468	16,526	26,607	3,944	896,545
Commerce	1,217,398	32,495	49,097	4,160	1,303,150
Transportation	78,783	6,911	2,451	2,255	90,400
Civil service and Professional occupations	971,600	27,039	51,703	5,927	1,056,279
Employee	2,268,995	7,635	29,970	12,647	2,319,247
Others	1,424,232	11,569	19,349	6,470	1,461,620
Without fixed calling	4,050,899	13,498	70,318	17,296	4,152,011
Total	32,075,729	120,791	739,353	56,031	32,991,904

Note:—*Excluding District under Juridiction of Mongolia Administration Bureau.

Table 12. No. of Foreigners Classified By Locality
(End of Dec., 1935)

	Japanese		Koreans		Other Foreignes		Total	
Province	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Kirin	5,980	4,776	22,119	16,980	213	92	28,312	21,848
Lungkiang	6,964	5,176	2,556	2,139	569	465	10,089	7,780
Heiho	557	430	496	315	137	378	1,053	1,123
Sankiang	2,821	1,711	9,664	6,705	89	76	12,574	8,492
Pinkiang / Mutankiang	7,432	4,166	33,743	24,098	3,331	2,571	44,506	30,835
Chientao	5,925	3,309	235,105	217,141	94	26	241,124	220,476
Antung / Tunghwa	708	322	40,880	32,141	37	37	41,625	32,500
Fengtien	8,719	5,998	45,567	38,368	534	486	54,820	44,852
Chinchow	4,145	3,224	868	784	35	20	5,048	4,028
Jehol	3,383	2,440	454	381	37	14	3,874	2,835
Hsinking*	12,289	9,918	2,260	1,547	249	263	14,798	11,728
Harbin*	11,858	9,983	3,034	2,702	21,504	23,784	36,396	36,469
West Hsingan	170	70	84	67	14	3	268	140
South Hsingan	699	405	1,325	1,045	5	5	2,029	1,455
East Hsingan	993	535	195	103	895	766	2,083	1,404
North Hsingan	1,909	1,220	228	118	7,753	7,021	9,890	8,359
Total	74,579	53,683	398,578	344,634	35,496	36,007	508,653	434,324

Note:—Exclusive of Kwantung Leased Territory and S. M. R. Zone.
* Special Municipality.

Table 13. Classification By Nationality (June 30, 1935)

Nationality	Number of Households	Male	Female	Total
Japanese: Japanese excluding Koreans	22,065	53,833	36,192	90,025
Japanese: Koreans	123,625	376,429	324,732	701,161
Denationalized (Ordinally Russians)	5,891	21,686	22,673	44,359
British	168	217	207	421
Soviets	5,894	10,230	11,042	21,272
Naturalized White Russians	1,479	2,619	2,435	5,054
Americans	134	134	92	226
French	110	110	75	185
Czechoslovaks	61	102	91	193
Belgians	20	26	1	27
Finns	1	—	2	2
Lithuanians	6	13	6	19
Swedes	6	11	8	19
Indians (British)	6	7	2	9

Nationality	Number of Household	Male	Female	Total
Dutch	14	11	19	30
Australians	1	—	1	1
Hungarians	4	4	4	8
Portuguese	3	6	4	10
Germans	152	256	203	459
Italians	16	24	22	46
Poles	441	781	738	1,519
Turks	14	20	15	35
Danes	42	60	76	136
Canadians	14	29	32	61
Swiss	16	20	18	38
Norwegians	1	2	5	7
Latvians	43	100	79	179
Austrians	11	22	14	36
Armenians	12	23	25	48
Greeks	16	23	22	45
Total	161,167	466,798	398,835	865,633

Table 14. Chinese Immigrants Entering, Departing and Remaining in Manchoukuo

	entered	departed	remained
1930	748,213	488,504	259,709
1931	467,402	461,339	6,063
1932	414,034	498,783	–84,749
1933	631,962	497,246	134,698
1934	690,925	439,628	251,297
1935	519,552	495,009	24,543
1936	436,739	452,294	–15,555

Table 15. Visés Issued

Year	Male	Female	Total
1933	2,696	1,811	4,507
1934	5,609	3,334	8,943
1935	7,189	5,005	12,194
1936	7,165	5,178	12,343
1936 Jan.	456	210	666
Feb.	424	205	629
Mar.	541	298	839
Apr.	619	386	1,005
May	629	394	1,023
June	755	581	1,336
July	700	724	1,424
Aug.	806	776	1,582
Sept.	728	614	1,342
Oct.	600	427	1,027
Nov.	489	299	788
Dec.	418	264	682

The number of foreigners who were admitted into Manchoukuo in 1935 with their passports duly vised totalled 12,194 including 7,189 males and 5,005 females. The detailed list is as follows:—

Table 16. Visés Issued

(a) By Locality

	Male	Female	Total
Dairen	2,557	2,082	4,639
Antung	799	566	1,365
Yingkow	148	44	192
Shanhaikwan	1,834	1,296	3,130
Suifenho	71	18	89
Manchouli	928	383	1,311
Tumen	209	110	319
Heiho	20	8	28
Kupeikou	39	32	71
Embassy, Tokyo	367	271	628
Consulate, Blagoveschensk	19	11	30
Foreign Commissioner's	22	1	23
Office, Harbin	175	183	351
Foreign Office, Hsinking	1	—	1
Total	7,189	5,005	12,194

(b) Nationality

	Male	Female	Total
American	1,000	935	1,935
British	626	571	1,497
Soviet	600	381	981
German	788	298	1,175
Polish	173	99	272
French	253	132	385
Dutch	101	34	135
Danish	96	55	151
Swiss	69	35	104
Austrian	43	17	60
Sithuanian	153	71	224
Czechoslovakian	91	30	121
Belgian	58	27	85
Italian	66	17	83
Others	409	173	582
Denationalized	2,274	2,130	4,404
Total	7,189	5,005	12,194

(c) By Occupation

	Male	Female	Total
Diplomats	296	8	304
Other Public Officials	139	2	141
Officials of Ussuri Railway	92	15	107
Military Officers	78	—	78
Missionaries	413	267	680
Scholars & Teachers	298	377	675
Students	448	284	732
Employees of banks	84	14	98
Business men	2,477	59	2,536
Engineers	737	10	747
Journalists	78	11	89
Physicians	177	94	271
Housekeepers	—	2,247	2,247
Labourers	74	12	86
Others	1,390	754	2,144
Unemployed	408	851	1,259
Total	7,189	5,005	12,194

References: Tables 1-4, 12, 13, 15 & 16—The Official Bulletin of Manchoukuo. Tables 5-8—Kwanto-kyoku Tokei-sho (Statistical Annual of the Kwantung Government), 1937. Tables 9 & 14—Manshu Keizai Tokei Geppo (Monthly Statistics on Economics of Manchuria), published by the S. M. R. Co. Tables 10 & 11—Minsei-bu Tokei Nempo (Statistical Annual of the Department of Civil Affairs, Manchoukuo), 1937.

CHAPTER VI

ADMINISTRATION

The administration of Manchoukuo is nominally vested in the person of the Emperor. The position of the prime minister is similar to that of Japan and the actual administrative work is carried out through the State Council, presided over by the prime minister, with the sanction of the Emperor.

Important revision in the administrative system were effected and enforced from July 1, 1937 with a view towards facilitating the work of the national programme, now in its second stage, and to secure the best possible efficiency in the task of building the state. By virtue of the revisions the responsibilities of the prime minister have been greatly increased. The main features of the reforms are as follows:

1. Submission of views to the Throne by Privy Councillors is to be abolished.
2. The Supervisory Council is to be abolished, and a Bureau of Audit is to be created in the State Council.
3. An Office of Home Affairs is to be established in the State Council to take charge, under the direct supervision of the Prime Minister, of matters concerning the general guidance of local organizations and the general supervision of provincial governors.
4. A Planning Council, under the direct control of the Prime Minister, is to be inaugurated to study and deliberate upon basic national policies..
5. The Department of Foreign Affairs is to be abolished. Supervision of foreign policy will be directly in the hands of the Prime Minister, and a new Office of Foreign Affairs under the jurisdiction of the Prime Minister will take charge of matters concerning the supervision of envoys and consuls abroad, international negotiations, guidance and protection of nationals abroad and investigation of international political affairs. Matters concerning commercial affairs will be transferred to the new Department of Economics.
6. The Department of Defence and the Bureau of Police Affairs now within the Department of Civil Affairs will be amalgamated and reorganized into the Department of Public Peace, which is to take charge of the police affairs of the State in addition to matters concerning national defence.
7. The Department of Mongolia Administration is to be abolished. An Office of Hsingan Affairs, under the direct control of the Prime Minister, is to be created. The president of the new Office is to assist the Prime Minister in coordinating and adjusting matters concerning the administration of Mongols which will be executed by the various Departments concerned.
8. The existing Departments of Civil Affairs, Industry, Finance, Communications and Education are to be reorganized into the four Departments of People's Welfare, Industry, Economics and Communications.
   (a) The Department of People's Welfare is to take charge chiefly of administration concerning education, social affairs, public health, stabilization of the people's life and elevation of the national spirit.
   (b) The Department of Industry is to take charge of administration concerning husbandry of the people's resources, and exploitation and conservation of natural resources. The Horse Administration Bureau now attached to the Department of Defence will be merged into the Bureau of Live-Stock Farming, an independent bureau to be created under the jurisdiction of this Department. The Bureau of Forestry now existing within the Department of Industry will be raised to the status of an independent bureau under the jurisdiction of this new Department.

      The Provisional Industrial Research Bureau is to be abolished.

      The Patent Bureau and the Hydro-Electric Power Construction Bureau will be placed under the jurisdiction of this Department.
   (c) The Department of Economics is to take charge of administration concerning the financing of exploitation and conservation of natural resources and other matters connected therewith.

      The General Monopoly Office will be placed under the jurisdiction of this Department. The Weights and Measures Bureau now attached to the Department of Industry will be transferred to the jurisdiction of this Department, and will be reorganized into the Weights and Measures Examination Office.
   (d) The Department of Communication is to take charge of administration concerning communication and transportation.

      The General Administration Bureau will be under the jurisdiction of this Department.

      The various Navigation Bureaux are to be merged into the Customs Houses, and the superintendents of the Customs Houses are to be supervised by the Minister of Communications in so far as matters relating to navigation are concerned.
9. The organizations of the Courts and the Department of Justice are to remain in general as hitherto.

Ordinance of Manchoukuo Empire

In March 1934, the Government issued the following ordinance on the inauguration of an Imperial Regime in Manchoukuo.

By the grace and will of Heaven, we have acceded to the Throne and have indicated the fundamentals of the soverign organization by enacting the Organic Law. In the exercise of the supreme power We shall conform to the provisions of the said Law and shall not suffer the same to be violated.

Imperial sign-manual and Imperial seal
First day of March, First year of Kangte (1934).

Countersigned by
The Prime Minister and
Ministers of the Departments.

Chapter I. The Emperor

Article I.—The Manchou Empire shall be reigned over and governed by an Emperor. The succession to the Imperial throne shall be as determined separately.

Article II.—The dignity of the Emperor shall be inviolable.

Article III.—The Emperor is the head of the Empire, supervising the sovereign rights, and shall exercise them in accordance with the provisions of the present Law.

Article IV.—The Prime Minister shall give his advice to the Emperor and be responsible for it.

Article V.—The Emperor shall exercise the legislative powers with the approval of the Legislative Council.

Article VI.—The Emperor shall cause the courts of justice to exercise the judicial powers in accordance with the law.

Article VII.—The Emperor shall issue or cause to be issued ordinance for the maintainance of public peace and order and for the promotion of public welfare, or for the carrying out of laws. But no such ordinance shall in any way alter any of the existing laws.

Article VIII.—The Emperor, in consequence of an urgent necessity of maintaining public safety or averting emergency calamities, shall be empowered to issue, with the approval of the Privy Council, when it is impossible to convene the Legislative Council, Imperial ordinances which shall have the identical force of law. Such Imperial ordinances, however, shall be reported at the following session of the Legislative Council.

Article IX.—The Emperor shall determine the organization of the different branches of administration, appoint or dismiss government officials and shall fix their salaries, except in the case of those especially provided for in the present law or other laws.

Article X.—The Emperor shall have the power to declare war, make peace, and conclude treaties.

Article XI.—The Emperor shall have the supreme command of the military, naval and air forces.

Article XII.—The Emperor shall confer decorations and other marks of distinction.

Article XIII.—The Emperor shall order amnesty, pardon, commutation of punishments and rehabitations.

Chapter II. The Privy Council

Article XIV.—The Privy Council shall be composed of Privy Councillors.

Article XV.—The Privy Council shall, when consulted by the Emperor, submit its opinions relative to the following matters:

(1) Laws;
(2) Imperial House Law;
(3) Imperial Ordinances;
(4) Budgets and matters pertaining to contracts other than budgets which entail obligations upon the National Treasury;
(5) Treaties and agreements negotiated with foreign nations and declarations issued in the name of the Emperor;
(6) Major appointments and dismissals of government officials;
(7) Other important matters of state.

Article XVI.—The Privy Council may report its views to the Throne on important matter relating to the affairs of the State.

Chapter III. The Legislative Council

Article XVII.—The organization of the Legislative Council shall be as determined separately by law.

Article XVIII.—All legislative and budgetary bills and matters pertaining to contracts other than budgets entailing obligations upon the National Treasury shall require the approval of the Legislative Council.

Article XIX.—The Legislative Council may present proposals relating to affairs of the State to the State Council.

Article XX.—The Legislative Council may receive petitions presented by the People.

Article XXI.—The Legislative Council shall be convoked annually by the Emperor. The duration of the ordinary session shall be one month which may, however, be prolonged by the Emperor in case of necessity.

Article XXII.—No session of the Legislative Council can be opened unless more than one third of the total number of the members are present.

Article XXIII.—The proceeding at a session of the Legislative Council shall be decided by a majority vote. In case of a tie-vote, the chairman shall have the casting vote.

Article XXIV.—The deliberations of the Legislative Council shall be held in public. Closed session may, however, be held upon demand by the State Council or by a resolution of the Legislative Council.

Article XXV.—All legislative and budgetary bills and matters pertaining to contracts other than budgets which entail obligations upon the National Treasury shall be sanctioned, promulgated and put into force by the Emperor.

In the event of the legislative and budgetary bills and matters other than budgets pertaining to contracts which entail obligations upon the National Treasury being rejected by the Legislative Council, the Emperor shall represent them to the Legislative Council by indicating his reasons therefore. When further rejected, the Privy Council shall be consulted for its decision thereon.

Article XXVI.—No member of the Legislative Council shall be held responsible outside the Council for his opinions uttered or for any vote given within the Council.

Chapter IV. The State Council

Article XXVII.—The State Council shall take charge of all administrative affairs.

Article XXVIII.—The State Council shall be composed of the Departments of Civil Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Defence, Industry, Communications, Justice and Education.

Article XXIX.—The State Council shall have a Prime Minister and each of the Departments a Minister.

The Minister of each Department shall be responsible for the affairs over which he exercises jurisdictions.

Article XXX.—The Prime Minister and the Ministers of the Departments may attend the sessions of the Legislative Council at any time and may have a voice in its deliberations, but shall have no vote.

Article XXXI.—All Imperial edicts or rescripts, Imperial messages, laws and Imperial Ordinances relating to State Affairs shall bear the counter signatures of the Prime Minister and the Ministers of the Departments concerned.

Chapter V. The Courts

Article XXXII.—The Courts shall, in accordance with law, conduct trials of civil and criminal cases. In respect to administrative and other special litigations, however, special provisions shall be made by law.

Article XXXIII.—The organization of the courts and the qualifications of the judicial officials shall be determined by law.

Article XXXIV.—The judicial officials shall command independence in the discharge of their duties.

Article XXXV.—No judicial officials shall be dismissed except by trials on criminal offence or disciplinary punishment, nor shall he be subjected to suspension, transfer of position or office and reduction of salary, against his will.

Article XXXVI.—The trials and judgements of the Courts shall be open to the public. Cases which threaten to disturb the public order and peace, or in which public morals are liable to be in danger, however, may be closed to the public in accordance with the law or by a decision of the Courts concerned.

Chapter VI. The Supervisory Council

Article XXXVII.—The Supervisory Council shall conduct supervisory duties and audit the accounts. The organization and duties of the supervisory council shall be determined separately by law.

Article XXXVIII.—The Supervisory Council shall have supervisors and auditors.

Article XXXIX.—No supervisor or auditors shall be dismissed except by trials on criminal offence or disciplinary punishment, nor shall any supervisor or auditor be subjected to suspension, transfer of position and reduction of salary, against his will.

Supplementry Provisions

Article XL.—The present Law shall come into force on the First day of March, First year of Kangte.

Article XLI.—The Emperor, may, for the time being, issue Imperial ordinances or decrees possessing the identical force of laws, fix the budgets or make contracts other than budgets which entail obligations on the National Treasury, with the approval of the Privy Council.

Article XLII.—All previous ordinances, Council orders, and other laws and ordinances irrespective of their designations or titles shall continue to remain in force.

Promulgation of Imperial Throne Succession Law

On the occasion of the fifth anniversary on March, 1,1937 of the founding of the state of Manchoukuo, the Law Governing Succession to The Imperial Throne of the Empire of Manchou, together with an Imperial Edict relating thereto, was promulgated, in accordance with Paragraph 2, Article 1 of the Organic Law of the Empire.

It is announced that the law was drafted by the Imperial Household Ritual Committee in 1936 and was presented to the State Council by the Minister of the Imperial Household Department on December 1, that year. The State Council on February 26, 1937 gave its formal approval to the law which was then referred to the Privy Council. Having met at 10:30 a. m. on February 27, 1937 in the presence of His Majesty the Emperor, the Privy Council approved the documents in their entirety. Hence, the law was promulgated with a special Imperial Ordinance gazetted on March 1, 1937.

Text of the Law Governing Succession to the Imperial Throne

(Promulgated March 1, 1937)

Article 1: The Imperial Throne of Manchoukuo shall be succeeded to by male descendants in the male line of His Majesty the Emperor for ages to come.

Article 2: The Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the Imperial eldest son.

Article 3: When the Imperial eldest son is deceased the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the Imperial eldest grandson. When there is neither Imperial eldest son nor any male descendants of his alive it shall be succeeded to by the Imperial son next in age and his descendants and so on in every successive case.

Article 4: For succession to the Imperial Throne by an Imperial descendant, those of full blood shall have precedence over descendants of half blood. The succession to the Imperial Throne by the latter shall be limited to those cases only in which there is no Imperial descendant of full blood.

Article 5: When there is no Imperial descendant, the Throne shall be succeeded to by an Imperial brother and by the descendants.

Article 6: When there is no such Imperial brother or descendant of his, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by an Imperial uncle and his descendants.

Article 7: When there is neither such Imperial uncle nor descendant of his, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the next nearest member among the rest of the Imperial Family and his descendants.

Article 8: Among the Imperial brothers and the remoter Imperial relatives, precedence shall be given, in the same degree, to the descendants of full blood, and to the elder over the younger.

Article 9: When the Imperial heir is suffering from an incurable disease of mind or of body, or when any other weighty cause exists, the order of succession may be changed in accordance with the foregoing several provisions and with the advice of the Imperial Privy Council.

Article 10: The order of succession to the Imperial Throne shall in all cases be in accordance with actual genealogy.

The present law shall take effect from the date of its promulgation."

Statement of Mr. Chang Ching-hui, the Prime Minister, on the Law Governing Succession to the Imperial Throne Issued on March 1, 1937.

"Our Manchoutikuo, depending upon the righteous aid and support of the Empire of Japan, has been able to accomplish its great national task of laying foundations for the State. Ever since Our ascension to the Imperial Throne, which was thus rendered possible. We have worked day and night not neglecting Our duty even for a moment, in order to see to it that all the far-reaching policies of statecraft designed to protect Our State were carried out in cooperation with the Empire of Japan, thereby furthering the inseparable relationship existing between the two Empires and upholding the real cause of the moral and psychical unity of both nations.

"We have established an Imperial Throne Succession Law and hereby enact a relevant code prepared with due stress laid upon the grave importance of the succession to the Throne, thus hoping to lay foundations for its perpetuation. By virtue of this code, Our Imperial Throne has been solemnized, but for its maintenance which is not easy, We rely upon the support and protection of His Majesty the Emperor of Japan.

"The foundations of the Imperial Throne must have their limit. The incumbent of the Throne, in deference to the dictates of Heaven and Earth, shall act as the father of the subjects. With all benevolence, he must rule the State and with all justice, he must enforce the laws.

"When peace pervades the State under the benevolent reign of the Emperor, can the unity of the Throne and the nation be achieved and maintained. Human morals must be made subservient to the dictates of Heaven and Earth and be cultivated with time. All the people whom We now rule and Our posterity may rule are hereby called upon to realize where the foundations of Our Empire lie and appreciate what We have in mind for the sake of the State.

"We hereby command all of Our subjects to make unremitting efforts, in the spirit of cooperation, in loyalty to Us. If the foundations of Our Imperial Throne remain solid and immutable, it will prosper for ages to come and be coeval with Earth to maintain Our rule of benevolence over the Empire."

Changes in Manchoukuo Government Officials

On May 7th, 4th year of Kangtê (1937) important changes took place in the personnel of the Government of Manchoukuo. Messers: Chang Yen-ching, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Ting Chienhsiu, Minister of Industry, Feng Han-ching, Minister of Justice and Chi-mo-te-sai-mu-pei-lo, Minister of Mongolia Administration, who had occupied important positions in the Government ever since 1932 were formerly relieved of their posts at their requests by H.I.H. the Emperor on the morning of May 7th.

Immediately following their resignations His Majesty appointed Marshal Chang-Ching-hui, the Prime Minister, concurrently to the portfolios of Foreign Affairs and Mongolia Administration,

and Mr. Chang Huan-hsiang, former official of the Manchoukuo Concordia Association to the portfolio of Justice.

In addition the following changes were made: Mr. Sun Chih-chang, former Minister of Finance, was appointed the Minister of Civil Affairs; Mr. Han Yuan-chieh, former Mayor of Hsinking Special Municipality, the Minister of Finance; Mr. Lu Jung-huan, former Minister of Civil Affairs, the Minister of Industry.

Members of The New Cabinet

Marshal Chang Ching-hui, Primer Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs and Minister of Mongolia Administration.
Mr. Sun Chi-chang, Minister of Civil Affairs.
General Yu Chih-shan, Minister of Defence (unchanged)
Mr. Han Yuan-chieh, Minister of Finance.
Mr. Lu Jung-huan, Minister of Industry.
Mr. Li Shao-keng, Minister of Communications (unchanged)
Mr. Chang Huan-hsiang, Minister of Justice.
Mr. Yuan Chen-te, Minister of Education (unchanged)

New Member of the Privy Council

Mr. Chi-mo-te-se-mu-pei-lo.

Acting President of the Supervisory Council

Mr. Hideo Terazaki.

Acting Mayor of the Hsinking Special Municipality

Mr. Kotaro Ueda

Retiring Ministers and Privy Councillors

Mr. Chang Yen-ching, former Minister of Foreign Affairs.
Mr. Ting Chien-hsiu, former Minister of Industry.
Mr. Feng Han-ching, former Minister of Justice.
Mr. Tseng Yun, former member of Privy Council.
Mr. Pao Hsi, former member of Privy Council.

Decorations

Decorations granted by the Imperial Court of Manchoukuo are divided into four classifications as follows:

(1) Ta-hsun-wei-lan-hua-chang-king-shin (the Collar of the Grand Order of the Lanhua), grantable only to holders of the Grand Order of Merit.
(2) Ta-hsun-wei-lan-hua-ta-shou-chang (the Grand Cordon of the Lanhua), grantable to those with or to be conferred the Grand Order of Merit.
(3) Lung-kung-ta-shou-chang (the Order of Lungkuang), grantable only to those who are to be conferred or who have been conferred the First Order of Merit.
(4) Ching-yun-chang (the Order of Ching-yun), grantable to those who are to be conferred any of the decorations from the First to the Eighth Order of Merit, excepting those who have been conferred the First Order of Merit and who have been granted the Order of the Lungkuang.

The orders of merit consist of nine grades. They are the Grand Order of Merit and those from the first to the eighth order. The orders of merit are conferred through letters patent. The letters patent for holders of the Grand Order of Merit. The First or the Second Order of Merit shall bear the Imperial Sign Manual and the Seal of the State as well as the signature of the Prime Minister who also enters the date by Imperial command. The letters patent for holders of any of the orders of merit of or below the Third Order of Merit shall bear the Seal of the State and the Signature of the Prime Minister who shall also enter the date by Imperial command. The Director of the Bureau of Decorations (of the General Affairs Board) shall enter in each letter patent a number according to the grade of decoration to be conferred, and shall append a note to the effect that the number has been entered in the Register provided for the purpose, and shall also affix the Seal of the State Council and his signature.

Allowance to Officials

(1) For medical treatment.
  (a) at home .....M¥ 2.00 a day.
    M¥ 1.50 a day after 20 days.
  (b) at hospital:—
    Te-jen & Chjen-jeh . M¥ 10.00 a day.
    1st to 4th classes, of Chien-jen ..... M¥ 8.00 „
    5th class of Chien-jen to 2nd class of Wei-jen ..... M¥ 6.00 „
    Others ..... M¥ 4.00 „
    The limit of period is 180 days.
(2) For injuries.
  The sum differs according to the kinds of injuries.
  1st class ..... 18 months' salary.
  16th class ..... half a month's salary.
(3) For the family of the deceased.
  Ordinary case .... 15 months' salary
  Special case .... 18 month's salary.
  (Battle, etc.)

Persons qualified to the above allowance in their respective order are given below: 1. Wife. 2. Son. 3. Grandson. 4. Parents or parents-in-law or sisters-in-law and brothers-in-law. When the persons qualified in the same class exceed a certain number, the allowance is divided in equal portions.

Grand to Officials

(1) Resigned officials. (after more than one year's service). This rule is applied to the officials who resigned due to public injuries or disease after over a year's service.

Period of service	Pension
1 year	1 month's salary
2 years	2 „ „
3 years	3 „ „
4 years	4 „ „
5 years	6 „ „
6 years	8 „ „
7 years	10 „ „
8 years	12 „ „
9 years	14 „ „
10 years	16 „ „
More than 10 year .....,	An additional monthly salary for one year.

The official may appoint the person qualified for this pension. Otherwise, the order shall be the same as the allowance mentioned above.

(2) To the deceased during his service.
The pension shall be his last salary multiplied by the number of his service years plus 2 years.
The official can nominate the person qualified for the pension.

Order & Salary of Officials

(1) Te-jen. Appointed by the Emperor himself.
Monthly Salary .... between M¥ 1,800 and M¥ 1,000
(2) Chien-jen. Appointed by the Imperial Command.
Monthly Salary .... between M¥ 1,000 and M¥ 500.
(3) Chien-jen. Appointed by the approval of the Emperor.
Monthly Salary .... between M¥ 450 and M¥ 75.
(4) Wei-jen. Appointed by the judgment of the Government.
Monthly Salary .... between M¥ 170 and M¥ 30.

The number of official, exclusive of the Army and Navy, classified by ranks, was returned as follows at the end of December 1935.

Rank	Number
Te-jen	38
*Chien-jen	171
Chien-jen	1,648
Wei-jen	7,787
Total	9,644

* Though pronounced alike as the rank which it follows, the Chinese characters which identify them are different.

JAPAN IN ADMINISTRATION OF MANCHOUKUO

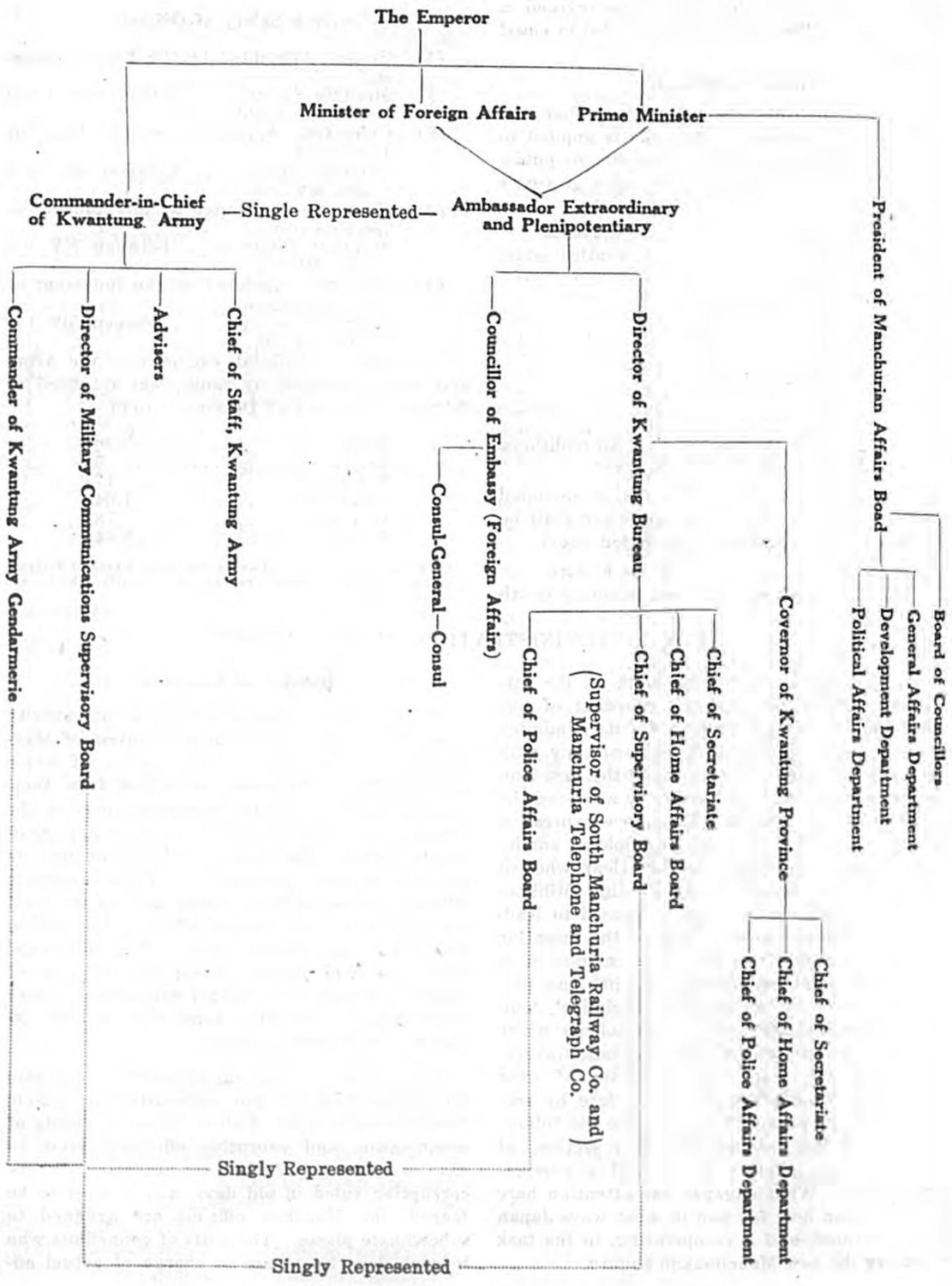
"We are hereby set to formulate all the far-reaching designs for the safe-guarding of our domain and the future policies for its admimistration, in close co-operation and harmony with the Empire of Japan": so declared the first Emperor of Manchoukuo on the day he ascended the throne on March 1, 1934. The above expression enunciating the fundamental principle of administrative policy becomes tangibly clear when it is remembered that in 1932 Foreign Minister Hsieh Chieh-shih, in his note addressed to leading nations of the world, declared the intention of his government "to perfect the institution of laws and to establish security for life and property, contrary to the 'corrupt discipline', 'outrageous exaction' and 'anti-foreign policies' which were characteristic of the old militaristic Government." Of the scope and character of what has actually been accomplished to date by way of realizing the above official promise the following parts of this chapter and other sections of the present compilation will afford a comprehensive idea. What engages our attention here is the question how far and in what ways Japan has co-operated, and is co-operating, in the task of making the new Manchoukuo empire.

Number of Japanese

The official list of men serving in one capacity or another in the present administration of Manchoukuo is composed of 5,700 names of which about 3,250 are Japanese as judged from their personal names. Of the remaining portion the Chinese and Manchou officials are in a preponderate number, the Mongol and Korean making up each a small percentage. These Japanese officials serving in Manchoukuo are for the most part retired civil or military officers, some having been taken out of active service. The ministerial posts are held without exception by men of Chinese, Manchou or Mongol extraction. These ministers are invariably supported by high executives of Japanese origin.

It is scarcely of less significance to look into the composition of the administrative system from the racial point of view. Japanese ability of organization and executive efficiency seem to have been availed of wherever necessary. Where corruption ruled in old days, and is most to be feared, the Manchou officials are assigned to subordinate places. The posts of councillors who in each department are in charge of actual ad-

Diagrammatic Chart of Japanese Administration in Manchoukuo



ministrative work are held by Japanese officials.

Directly under the State Council, the highest organ headed by the Prime Minister, the Secretariate and the seven bureaux constituting the General Affairs Board are each headed by Japanese.

The nine departments of state, with the exception of that of Mongolia Administration are under the direction of Manchou Ministers, sometimes assisted by Manchou Vice-Ministers, but in no case are Japanese placed in any of these high places. But the bureaux and sections under these ministers are in charge of Japanese chief executive known as Councillors. The Department of Mongolia Administration is presided over by a Mongol prince. Of the three principal executive sections under him two are in charge of Mongol officials, the one being headed by a Japanese sectional chief.

Under the Department of Civil Affairs the Bureau of Police Affairs comprises numerically the largest staff. The central police force is formed about equally of Manchous and Japanese. But the frontier police guard forces, forming altogether what is known as the Special Police Corps, is formed of about 170 Japanese against 50 Manchous, the latter being employed as low-ranked patrol men. What is known as the Harbin Mobile Police Force is formed exclusively of Japanese.

The Department of Foreign Affairs is the only division with a Japanese Vice-Minister, the similar places being held by Manchous in the other departments. Of the four bureaux of General Affairs, Commercial Affairs, Political Affairs and Information and Publicity all are headed by Japanese.

In the Department of Defence all important positions are held by Manchou officers. On the General Staff the Manchou far outnumber the Japanese. The advisory body to the General Staff consists of more Japanese than Manchou military men.

The efficient management of finance in Manchoukuo is apparently to be credited to the Japanese officials who far outnumber the other nationals in the Department of Finiance. The monopoly offices of matches, opium, etc., and in the salt administration office actual executive work is chiefly entrusted to Manchou officials who are in a preponderate number.

In the Department of Communications, post and air services are practically carried on by Manchou officials and employees, though the higher places are held by Japanese. The post-offices are without exception in charge of Chinese and Mongol masters.

In judicial administration where the former Chinese authorities had been notoriously guilty of mismanagement, it is not surprising that most of the more responsible places have been filled by men from Japan. Each of the four sections is headed by them. The Districts Courts are also in charge of Japanese judists. They are also in charge of public prosecution. It is also of significance that six prisons of Kirin and Mukden are entrusted to Japanese officials.

With regard to the matter of public education it is natural that Japan, in view of her bitter experience in the past, should see that it is conducted in ways free from racial antagonism. While the Minister and Vice-minister are both Manchous, the two bureaux of General Affairs and Education Affairs are in charge of Japanese chiefs, only the bureau of Rites and Religions being left under Manchou management.

The Department of Mongolia Administration is featured by somewhat different policy, if the numbers of Mongol men employed are to be taken as a guide. Different from other departments of administration, a far greater percentage of officers of Mongol extraction are engaged in executive and other branches of work. The total number of men serving at central offices is approximately 415 of which the Japanese comprise slightly more than a quarter. Of those petty officials serving at sub-provincial or banner offices about 50 are Mongols and 30 Japanese.

At the central offices of local government there are about 450 Japanese against 1,500 Chinese and Mongols. Of the staff engaged at sub-offices and Hsien offices the Japanese number about 250 against a total slightly more than 300. In the provinces of Kirin, Lunkiang, Jehol, Pinkiang, Chinchou, Heiho and Sankiang the Hsien (country) and banner offices are under the exclusive direction of Japanese officials who number altogether 300, one or two, and sometimes more petty officials being stationed under the Japanese councillor for each country. So far as local government is concerned the whole matter may be said to be under the direction of these Japanese councillors, a situation quite contrary to that of the pure Mongol areas.

Highest Japanese Official

The Japanese administration is entrusted to a figure vested with the dual powers corresponding to those of the commander-in-chief of the Kwantung Army and those of a diplomatic envoy of ambassadorial rank. The figure is directly responsible to the Emperor in matters of military affairs and to the Foreign Minister and the Prime Minister in matters dealing with diplomatic affairs. As regards other matters, such as the supervision of the South Manchuria Railway, a voice is given to both the military and diplomatic authorities.

The main cause influencing the administrative change is the growing responsibility of Japan in looking after the affairs of Manchoukuo. The sphere of Japanese power in Manchoukuo is delineated in the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol signed on September 15, 1932. By virtue of the Protocol Japan is given a free hand in the maintenance of the national security of Manchoukuo against any foreign threat to the country. To execute this purpose Japanese forces are thus allowed to be stationed in Manchoukuo.

Japanese jurisdiction in the Kwantung Leased Territory, prior to the founding of Manchoukuo, was under the direction of the Governor of the Kwantung Province and the Commander-in-Chief of the Kwantung Army. The Governor, a civil appointee, exercised administrative and judicial jurisdiction in the Province, control of the police in the Leased Territory and the Railway Zone and supervision of the business of the South Manchuria Railway Company. The sphere of the Commander-in-Chief of the Kwantung Army was over the garrison troops and the railway guards. Consular jurisdiction outside the Leased Territory was entrusted to the Japanese consular authorities.

With the establishment of Manchoukuo the system of Japanese jurisdiction underwent a modification and an embassy was founded at Hsinking and matters with regard to the Kwantung Army and diplomatic affairs were entrusted to an ambassador. The first ambassador to represent Japan at Hsinking was the late Marshal Nobuyoshi Muto who was appointed to the post in August 1932. Following his death in July 1933 he was succeeded by General Takashi Hishikari. In December 1934 General Jiro Minami was appointed to succeed General Hishikari at the post. In February 1936 General Minami was succeeded by General Ueda on his resignation.

Japan's Policy for Economic Development of Manchoukuo

Certain principles were laid by the Japanese administration in developing the economic potentialities of Manchoukuo. The policy as announced by Lieut.-General Kuniaki Koiso in 1933 when he was Chief of Staff of the Kwantung Army is summed up as follows:—

1. Unification and rationalization of the economic systems of Japan and Manchoukuo.
2. Consolidation of the position of Japan and Manchoukuo and protection of the lives of the two peoples in times of war and peace.
3. Utilization of the economic resources of the two countries as a means for improving their economic positions in the world.

The following measures are to be taken in order to realize the purposes mentioned above:—

(1) The interest of the two nations at large should receive paramount consideration before that of any individual.
(2) The economic systems of the two countries should be so arranged as to meet the need in time of war.
(3) Consolidation of Japan's economic position in Manchoukuo before any of the world powers starts economic activities in that country.
(4) The kinds of industries to be started in given places are to be decided on with due consideration of the public interest of the two countries.
(5) The investment of foreign capital in Manchoukuo is to be encouraged in order to show respect for the open door policy and the principle of equal opportunity.

Economic Administration

At the outset of its industrial program the Manchoukuo Government designated the placing of certain basic enterprises under governmental control. The following kinds of enterprise fall into the category:

(1) Business of importance relating to traffic and communication.
(2) Technical industries, mining, and any other kinds of basic industry with close relations with the national defence of the two countries.
(3) Gold mining.
(4) Electric industries.
(5) Leading business pertaining to the banking business.
(6) Industries closely connected with public interest.
(7) Some of the special industries, which it is necessary to place under the economic control policy of the authorities.

These seven kinds of industry are to be placed under the economic control policy of the authorities by placing them under the direct management of government organs or of semi-official ones, or of allowing some of them to be managed by special people furnished with official licenses issued for the purposes in view.

Table of Industries to be Placed Under the Economic Control of the Authorities

1. Industries to be placed under the direct management of government organs, public office or semi-official offices, or to be carried on by virtue of special licenses:—

(1) Special banking business
(2) Saving banking business
(3) Central banking business
(4) The business of issuing lottery tickets, debentures with premium, etc.
(5) Postal service
(6) Railway service (local and private railways, i e. railways for private use, are excluded)
(7) Telegraph and telephone service (Radio broadcasting business excluded)
(8) Aviation service
(9) Horse-racing business
(10) Slaughtering business
(11) Live-stock markets
(12) Afforestation in state forests
(13) Trade in opium and cocaine, and the manufacturing of these chemicals
(14) Gold mining in the mining districts of the State
(15) The mining of iron, petroleum, ores of such light metals as are necessary for national defence
(16) Refining industry of light metals
(17) Iron and steel manufacturing industries
(18) Oil shale industry
(19) Electric industry
(20) Manufacture of gunpowder
(21) Manufacturing of other kinds of war necessaries
(22) Manufacturing of weighing and measuring tools

2. Kinds of industries to be carried on with the official permission.

(1) Ordinary banking business
(2) Insurance business
(3) Local railways (All kinds of traffic service by means of track are included)
(4) Railways for private use
(5) Automobile transportation
(6) Small transportaion business on rivers
(7) Sea-transportation
(8) Transportation business on small scale
(9) Fishery to be conducted under Fishery rights given to fishing companies, associations, etc.
(10) Fishery to be conducted by individuals by virtue of their membership of the fishing companies or associations with fishery right
(11) Afforestation
(12) Manufacturing of wool and cotton
(13) Hunting
(14) Cultivation of opium
(15) Gold mining outside the state mining districts
(16) Mining of coal and other useful ores other than mentioned in (15) of the industries itemized in 1
(17) Oil refining (Petroleum)
(18) Gas supply
(19) Automobile production
(20) Ammonium-Sulphate industry
(21) Alcohol distillery
(22) Sodium industry
(23) Tobacco Manufacturing
(24) Salt manufacturing

3. Kinds of industries to be started or carried on freely.

(1) Farming and stock raising under private management
(2) Manufacture of agricultural and live-stock products (Woolen and Cotton manufacturing industries are excluded)
(3) Fishery in general
(4) Lumber industry
(5) Trade in marine products (Salt manufacturing is excluded)
(6) Trade in live-stock products
(7) Trade in agricultural and forestry products
(8) Pulp and paper manufacturing
(9) Sugar Industry
(10) Flour Industry
(11) Brewery (Alcoholic distillery is excluded)
(12) Provision manufacturing
(13) Oil and grease manufacturing
(14) Cement producing (Production control is needed)
(15) Spinning
(16) Dyeing and weaving
(17) Production of hides and skins
(18) Pharmaceutical business at large
(19) Machinery industry
(20) Porcelain manufacturing

CHAPTER VII

JUDICATURE

General

The judicial administration of Manchoukuo is in a state of transition. That the present laws and their administration are far from adequate to meet the actual condition of the country is officially admitted. What with the abolition of exterritoriality and the social and economic issues arising from the conditions peculiar to the new Empire, the jurists of Manchoukuo are expected to work out innovations along many lines in 1937 and the next few years. The officials charged with such undertakings are chiefly those who were taken from Japanese schools and courts. Under the circumstances it is not unnatural that the judicial system of Manchoukuo should in future be modelled after Japanese jurisprudence just at it has been done in China.

It is therefore of interest to know that the present judicial system of Manchoukuo is in part and parcel the same as that of the Nanking Government which in turn had practically adopted the laws which were in force toward the end of the Manchou regime.

Courts and Jurisdiction

District Court (Tifang Fayuan).—This is a court of the mixed system corresponding in general to the Japanees District Court (Chiho Saibansho) and, in some respects, to the Japanese local Court (Kusaibansho). Tifang Fayuan is composed of Chientieng or the Subordinate Court where trials are held by a single judge in such cases as are handled at the Subdistrict Court in Japan, and of the regular court where a bench of three judges sit on cases such as are handled at the District Court in Japan. The civil cases handled are of two kinds (1) "Local Cases" which are cases involving less than 100 yuan and tried in the collegiate section of the District Court; and (2) "First Grade Cases" which are cases involving less than 100 yuan (800 yuan in Jehol) tried by a single justice.

A feature of the latter section of the District Court is that the judge as a rule tries to effect a settlement out of court wherever possible. Only upon his failure so to do is the case formally tried. From his decisions appeals may be made to the collegiate section of the same court which handles them as second instance hearings.

The District Court handles appeals from summary decisions or orders other than those given by single judge trial. The collegiate section may also take up as cases of second instance any decision made on first grade cases by Hsien (county) judicial offices or county magistrates.

The criminal cases handled by the District Court are also divided in two classes; (1) "First Grade Cases" which are provided under Article 8 of the Criminal Trial Law, or the offences liable to punishment with "the maximum imprisonment of less than three years, or to detention or fines. (2) Local Cases other than classified under the above. Thefts, swindles and breach of trust and some others, though punishable by imprisonment of more than three years, are treated as first grade cases.

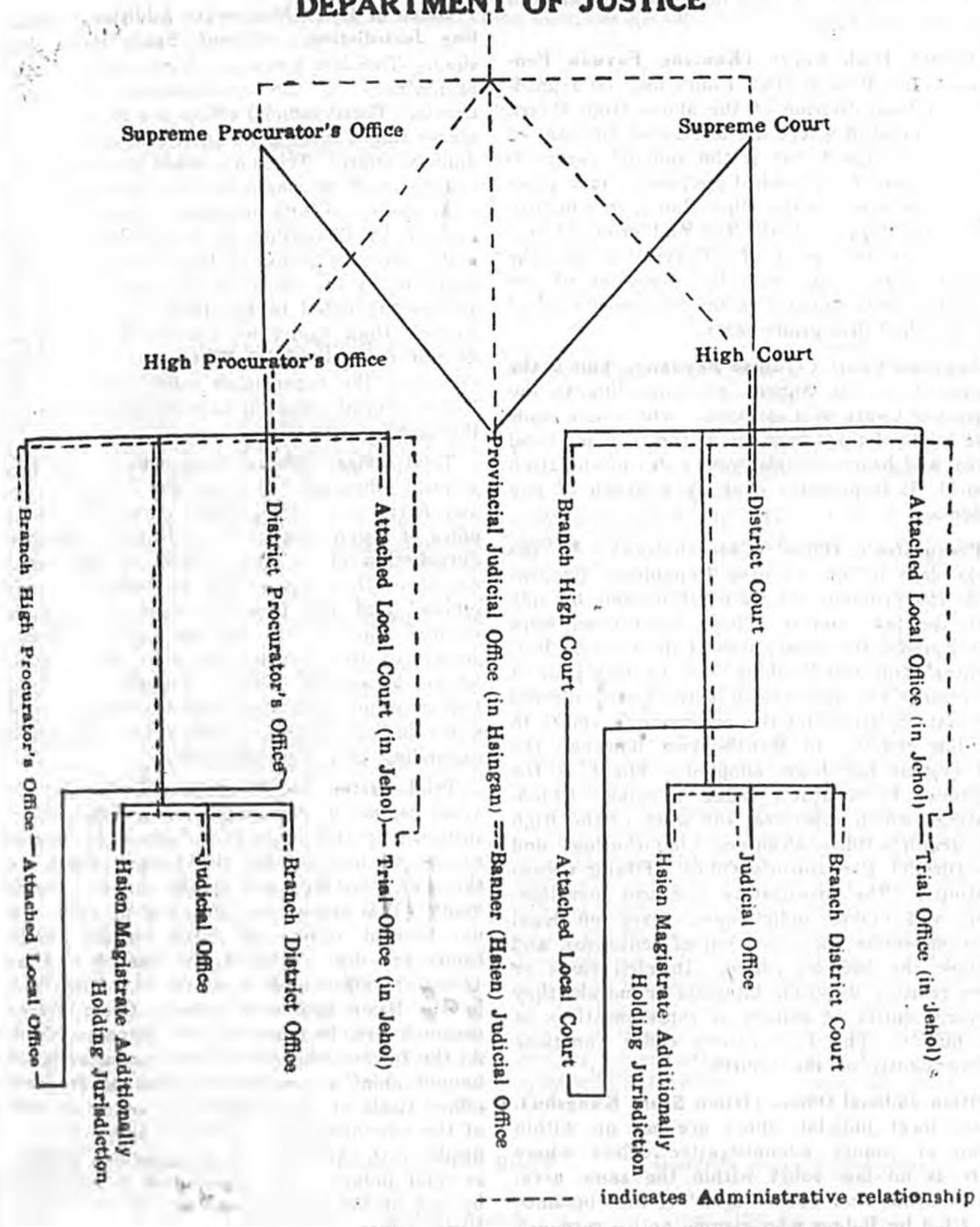
In criminal procedure as in civil all "First Grade Cases" are tried by single judges, while the "Local Cases" are handled by the collegiate section of the District Court.

There are two exceptional judicial organs with the same ranking as the District Court: (1) the District Court attached to the High Court in Jehol, and (2) the District Court attached to certain Branch High Courts. The former institution, confined to Jehol deals with second instance trials of First Grade Cases. The latter district court deals with first instance trials of both "Local" and "First Grade Cases" within its judicial district, and also with second instance trials of both "Local and First Grade Cases" within the district over which extends the jurisdiction of the Branch High Court to which it belongs.

Branch District Court (Tifang Fayuan Fenting.—This branch of the District Court handles second instance trials of "First Grade Cases" and first instance trials of all cases other than those handled by the Supreme Court, High Court, or **Chientiting** of the District Court. In other words, the Branch District Court handles cases of first instance of both "Local and First Grade" classes. The bench is of one judge except in exceptional cases where three judges may be ordered to it.

High Court (Kaoteng Fayuan).—This court corresponds to the Japanese Court of Appeal, though its function covers a wider field. The High Court deals with second instance trials of "Local Cases," third of final trials of "First Grade Case." The Court also handles offences against the internal as well as external security of the state. The bench usually consists of three

JUDICIAL SYSTEM OF MANCHOUKUO



judges, and sometimes of five for cases of third instance.

In this connection it may be noted that since for civil cases involving less than 100 yuan the second instance is final, the High Court is concerned with no civil suits involving any amount less than the same .

Branch High Court (Kaoteng Fayuan Fenyuan.—The Branch High Court may be regarded as a local division of the above High Court. It is established where the territorial divisions of which the High Court is the judicial centre is too extensive for practical purposes. It is practically the same as the High Court, in constitution, consisting of both civil and criminal sections. The only point of difference is that the Branch High Court, with the exception of the Fengtien court, handles no third instance trial of the so-called first grade cases.

Supreme Court (Tsuikao Fayuan). This is the highest Court of Appeal, corresponding to the Japanese Court of Cassation. The court deals with trials of third instance of the so-called local cases, and hears appeals from trials of the High Court. It is presided over by a bench of five judges.

Procurator's Office (Chienchating).—In the early days of the Chinese Republican Government the prosecurates were set up side by side with the law courts. These institutions were placed under the supervision of the General Procurator's Office of Nanking. In the 16th year of its regime the Republican Government altered the system, attaching the procurator's offices to the law courts. In Manchoukuo, however, the old system has been adopted. There is the Supreme Procurator's Office (Tsuikao Chienchating) which supervises the work of the High Procurator's Office (Kaoteng Chienchating) and the District Procurator's Office (Tifang Chienchating). The procurators institute investigations and makes indictments, carry on legal suits, supervise the execution of sentences, and oversee the judicial police. In civil cases or cases relating to public interests or morals, they perform duties as suitors or representatives of the public. The Procurator's Office functions independently of the Courts.

Hsien Judicial Office, (Hsien Ssufa Kungshu). These local judicial offices are set up within Hsien or county administrative offices where there is no law court within the same area. "First Grade and Local Cases" of first instance are tried by judges who assume entire responsibility for legal proceedings. The public prosecution is instituted either by the chief or magistrate of the Hsien or procurators, the former in all cases assuming responsibility. From decision of the office appeals may be made to the collegiate section of the supervising District Court, if the case is of the first grade class, and to the High Court if it is a "Local Case."

Office of Hsien Magistrate Additionally Handling Jurisdiction. (Chienli Ssufa Hsien Kungshu).—This is a transitory legal system adopted preliminary to the establishment of district courts. These judicial offices are set up at local places where there is no District Court, or Hsien Judicial Office. Trials are made in charge of the county chief or magistrate on "first grade and local cases" of first instance. These offies are assisted by Chengshen or trial officers who are under the supervision of the county chief. The decisions by the office on all criminal cases are always submitted to the High Court or to the Branch High Court no matter if the accused do not make appeal. When retrial is deemed necessary the supervising court may order the Hsien Judicial Office, or appoint judges to review the case.

Trial Office (Cheng Shen Chu).—The local judicial offices of this class are found in Jehol and Kirin provinces. They correspond to the office of Hsien Magistrate Additionally Handling Jurisdiction above mentioned. In the former provinces these offices are in charge of "trial offices" and the prosecution is done by the county magistrate. In the latter province, judges of these offices are sent out to places where, because of lack of transportation facilities or other geographic considerations, the regular judicial courts or office find difficulty in expending this legal authority.

Trial System In Mongolia.—Under the previous regime it was a rule to try cases of first instance by the Jassack or banner chief, cases of second instance by the League Chief, and those of third instance by the Judicial Department. This system was changed in 1932. Under present system all cases for the District Court are dealt with by the banner or Hsien (county) office, and those for the High Court by the Hsien Provincial Office. Cases of third instance are handled by the Supreme Court. At the former offices trials are conducted by the banner chief or magistrate. At the provincial offices trials are in charge of a collegiate court of the administrative councillor and judicial officials, with the chief of the province presiding as chief judges. The prosecution is represented by one of the police inspectors of the Hsingan Police Office.

Civil Cases.—The number of civil cases accepted by the High Court and other judiciary courts as at the end of 1935 was as follows:—

Table 1. Number of Civil Cases

(1935)

Accepted During Former Regime	Accepted up to 1935 by New Regime	Total	Decided	Remaining to be Decided
83,718	111,910	195,628	109,912	85,716

Criminal Cases.—The number of criminal cases accepted by the High Court and other judiciary courts in 1935 was as follows:—

Table 2. Number of Criminal Cases

(1935)

Accepted During Former Regime	Accepted up to 1935 by New Regime	Total	Decided	Remaining to be Decided
2,291	77,430	79,721	42,253	2,611

Police System.—In accordance with the organization of the various departments of the State Council of Manchoukuo promulgated on March 9, 1933, the police affairs of the whole country (exclusive of Hsingan Province) were placed under the control of the Minister of Civil Affairs who should supervise Governors of Provinces. Governor of the North Manchuria Special District, the Chief of the Metropolitan Police Board and the Chief of the Harbin Police Board and under the direct charge of the Bureau of Police Affairs. Thus the Bureau of Police Affairs takes charge of Peace Police and Administrative Police Affairs and is divided into six sections, namely, General Affairs Section, Special Service Section, Peace Preservation Section, Judicial Affairs Section, Detectives Section and Inspectors Office.

Metropolitan Police Board and Harbin Police Board.—Police Boards under the direct control of the Department of Civil Affairs are placed in Hsinking, the Capital of Manchoukuo and Harbin. The former, which is known as the Metropolitan Police Board, was opened on October 15, 1932, and has under its control the city of Hsinking and the whole of Changchun and the latter which, is known as the Harbin Police Board, was opened on March 3, 1933 and has under its control the entire extent of the special city of Harbin.

Special Police Corps.—Police corps under the direct control of the Department of Civil Affairs are stationed at important points on the frontier and seacoasts in view of the necessity of providing against emergencies, the unlawful entry of foreigners into the country, the smuggling in and out of goods, etc. Besides, mobile police corps have been organized under the direct control of the Department of Civil Affairs in order to guard against bandits.

Provincial Police Affairs Board.—In accordance with the organization of the Provincial Government established on March 9, 1932, the Police Affairs Board was instituted with every Provincial Government by abolishing the Whole Province Police Affairs Board which had been in existence before the establishment of the new state to take charge of affairs relating to police, health, and anti-opium smoking, and also settlement of disputes, etc. The Chief of the Police Affairs Board executes his duties in accordance with orders of the Governor of the Province and directs and superintends the police in the Province.

Police Boards.—Prior to the founding of the new State each Provincial Castle town, city and trading port were provided with a Public Peace Bureau, which were under the direct control of the Whole Province Police Affairs Bureau. After the foundation of the state these bureaus were all placed under the direction of the chiefs of hsiens. In June, 1932 the organization of the Police Board was enacted and promulgated, in accordance with which the Police Boards were instituted in Mukden, Kirin, Tsitsihar, Yingkow, Antung, Chinchou, Yenki, Heiho and Fushun under the direct control of the Governors of the Provinces to take charge of police, fire-fighting, especially health affairs, which may be designated by the Governor. The following are the names of the Police Boards and the districts under their jurisdiction designated by the Department of Civil Affairs on January 25, 1934:—

Seat of Police Board	Name of Police Board	Districts under Juriadiction
Mukden	Shenyang Police Board	Mukden City
Kirin	Kirin Police Board	Kirin City
Tsitsihar	Tsitsihar Police Board	Tsitsihar City
Antung	Antung Police Board	Antung City

Hsien Police Organs.—The Public Peace Bureau in each Hsien before the establishment of Manchoukuo was under the direct control of the Whole Province Police Affairs Bureau and

was to be under the supervision of the chief of the hsien. In practice, however, the chief of the Public Peace Bureau wielded greater power than the chief of the hsien. That was prolific of various evils in the way of local administration. Therefore, a Police Bureau was instituted with each Hsien Government in accordance with the hsien organization promulagated on July 5, 1932 in order to secure the unity of hsien administration. Simultaneosuly with this, Public Peace Bureaus in each district of the hsien and in trading ports were transformed into police offices under the direction and supervision of the chief of the hsien.

Water Police Bureau.—What had been known as water public peace bureaus were renamed Water Police Bureau to take charge of police affairs on the principal rivers of the country. There are four water police bureaus as follows:—

Table 3. Water Police Bureaus

Fengtien Province	Yalu & Han Rivers Water Police Bureau
	Liaoho Water Police Bureau
Kirin Province	Sungari Upper Water Police Bureau
	Sungari Lower Water Police Bureau

Police Affairs Bureau in the North Manchuria Special District.—Formerly, police affairs in the North Manchuria Special District, which was known as the Eastern Province Special District, was under the control of the Eastern Province Special District Police Superintendent Bureau, which had branch offices in important places. With the promulgation of the organization of the North Manchuria Special District on July 1 1933, the Eastern Province Special District Police Superintendent Bureau was abolished and a Police Affairs Bureau was established in the North Manchuria Special District Office to take charge of the police affairs of the whole district.

The number of police offices and fire stations in Manchoukuo is tabulated below:—

Table 4. Number of Police Offices and Fire Stations

	No. of Police offices	No. of Fire Station		
		Government	Private	Total
Kirin Province	118	5	7	12
Lungkiang „	134	4	16	20
Heiho „	17	2	—	2
Sankiang „	82	1	11	12
Pinkiang „	160	16	25	41
Antung „	84	1	25	26
Fengtien „	230	10	39	49
Chinchow „	97	1	3	4
Chientao „	32	—	13	13
Jehol „	79	—	14	14
Metropolitan Police Board	10	1	3	4
Harbin Police Bureau	11	4	1	5
North Manchuria Special Districts	17	—	—	—
Total	1,071	45	157	202

Table 5. Number of Police Officers

(End of Dec., 1935)

Jurisdiction	Machoukuoans	Japanese
Kirin Province	8,302	260
Lungkiang „	6,668	210
Heiho „	517	68
Sankiang „	4,189	130
Pinkiang „	10,893	205
Chientao „	1,885	156
Antung „	8,448	264
Fengtien „	20,079	350
Chinchow „	5,950	108
Jehol „	3,640	143
Metropolitan Police Board	1,314	189
Harbin Police Bureau	2,068	187
Special Posse	193	336
Hsingan Province	900	11
Total	74,046	2,618

Reformed Jurisdiction

Under the previous regime of Manchuria legal practices, despite the improvements made in codification and other lines, remained in quite inefficient hands. The administration of the law courts was seldom free from political interference. In view of this fact, the judicial authorities of Manchoukuo have bent their efforts on securing the independence of the judicial administration of the country. In consequence the law courts higher than the local branches have all been placed in positions to function their authority, maintaining their dignity and independence. The only case where reform has yet to be made is that the local judicial offices and

Hsien chiefs are entrusted with dispensation of justice. The system, however, being a transitory one, is to be done away with when local courts have been added to extend their work over all parts of the country.

The attention of the Department of Justice has since its establishment been mostly given to adjustment of the conditions in which it found the matter of judicial administration. In the first fiscal year the Department appropriated no more than 3,181,126 yuan with additional appropriation of 3,547,444. In the second fiscal year the budget appropriations advanced to the total of 5,897,135 yuan, and in 1934 to 8,024,000.

One of the earliest reforms made under the present administration was to raise the salaries of the justices and other officials. Under the previous regime the legal authorities were so underpaid that they were perforce compelled to practice corruption, courting in consequence open public contempt. At the same the accounting system of all judicial institutions, the source of confusion and maladministration in the past, has been unified on a countrywide basis. Appropriations have been made for recodification of the laws with the object of reviewing them to meet the sanitary and other conditions of the prisons, laws being in substance those of the old Manchu dynasty. Work has also been started on repairs and reconstruction of court and other buildings which had been suffered to fall into decay by the former militarist rules. Improvement on the sanitary and other conditions of the prisons was also a matter of early concern under the present administration.

Consular Jurisdiction

Among all reforms and changes undertaken by far the most important was the abolition of Consular jurisdiction resulting from the withdrawal of Japanese extraterritoriality in 1937. So far as Manchoukuo is concerned, extraterritoriality was part of the treaty obligations she undertook from the former regime. The Department of Justice had since the first year of Tatung been striving for improvement of the judicial system, a condition to abolishment of the consular courts. Some of the more important things accomplished to date are described below.

Participation of Japanese Jurists.—The contempt in which the courts of justice and its administrators were held under the former Chinese rule had kept men of quality or ability away from jurisdiction. Of these legal officials many, especially of South China origin, left the country when the new state of Manchoukuo was established. To meet this situation a number of jurists were engaged from Japan. The law School of the Department of Justice was hurriedly called into being, though the depleted force will not be filled yet another year by its graduates. Wherever Manchu officials are engaged they are placed under the direction of Japanese jurists.

In view of Japan's successful abolition of extraterritoriality in a period of 30 years, Manchoukuo has since its first five year been engaging Japanese jurists of high scholarship and practical experience. In the latter part of 1932, 82,200 yuan was appropriated for this purpose. As an initial undertaking a collegiate section was formed at the Fengtien High Court of two Japanese and as many Manchou judges. In 1933, the sum of 198,329 yuan was appropriated to appoint Japanese officials at the High Court of Kirin and Harbin. The High Procurator's Office of Fengtien, Kirin and Harbin as well as the District courts and Prosecutorates of the last named district were likewise reenforced by judges of Japanese nationality. These experimental arrangements having proved successful, the budget appropriation was substantially increased to 506,262 yuan for 1934 for engagement of more judicial officials from Japan. The total number of these judicial officials from Japan is given below:—

Table 6. Number of Judicial Officials of High Courts and High Procurator's Offices

(July, 1937)

Court:	President	Vice Pres.	Chief Judges	Judges	Secretaries	Interpreters
Supreme Court	1	1	3	20	3	1
Kirin High Court	1	1	3	14	2	—
Mukden High Court	1	1	5	24	3	—
Harbin High Court	1	1	3	10	1	—
Chinchow High Court	1	1	—	6	1	—
Tsitsihar High Court	1	1	1	8	1	—

Procurator's Office:	Procurator General	Vice-Pres.	Procurators	Secretaries	Interpreters
Supreme Procurator's Office	1	1	6	4	1
Kirin High Procurator's Office	1	1	8	1	—
Mukden High Procurator's Office	1	1	10	2	1
Harbin High Procurator's Office	1	1	7	1	2
Chinchow High Procurator's Office	1	1	1	2	—
Tsitsihar High Procurator's Office	1	1	4	2	—

Note:—Figures exclude Judicial Officers of District, Local Courts and District, Local Procurator's Offices.

Table 7. Number of Prison Inmates
(End of Dec.)

			1935	1934	Increase
Convicts	Male		11,170	7,880	3,290
	Female		212	165	47
Accused	Male		9,607	9,070	537
	Female		346	282	64
Detention (Civil cases)	Male		70	25	45
	Female		6	1	5
In separate cells	Male		228	184	44
	Female		6	8	2*
Unconvicted	Decided	Male	150	124	26
		Female	—	—	—
	Undecided	Male	401	312	89
		Female	22	7	15
Infants	Male		14	4	10
	Female		15	3	12
Total	Male		21,640	17,599	4,041
	Female		607	466	141

Note:—* Derease.

Table 8. Crimes and Arrests Classified
(1935)

Crimes	No. of Cases	Arrests: Cases	Arrests: Criminals
Rebellion	5	5	10
Foreign Troubles	2	2	3
Disturbance of Diplomatic Relations	—	—	—
Disgrace of Official Honour	199	191	288
Disgrace of Official duties	117	108	163
Disturbance of Election	3	3	4
Disturbance of Public Peace	306	295	472
Escape	93	81	121
Criminals concealed	149	147	210
Perjury and Calumny	270	272	381
Public Danger	565	473	602
Forgery of coins	156	153	257
Forgery of measure instruments	5	5	7
Forgery of documents and securities	85	85	130
Corruption of Public Morals	222	313	525
Disturbance of Marriage and Home	934	885	1,678
Profanity of Rites, Defilement of Tombs and corps	99	87	176
Obstruction of business	10	10	18
Opium-smoking	2,110	2,071	2,791
Gambling	2,470	2,401	11,164
Murder	951	757	11,217
Battery and assaults	1,474	1,398	2,146
Abortion	11	11	15
Desertion	24	22	37
Disturbance of Freedom	158	160	250
Defamation of Honour and Trust	53	51	68
Disturbance of Civil Secret	12	11	14
Larceny	8,584	7,165	9,317
Burglary and Pirating	11,635	4,874	8,423
Trespassing	371	351	534
Fraud	1,275	1,256	1,787
Black-mailing	171	159	247
Stolen goods concealed	552	528	808
Damage	31	29	38

Crimes	No. of Cases	Arrests: Cases	Arrests: Criminals
Total	33,202	24,359	43,901
Violation of Temporary Insurgents Suppression Law	218	106	187
" Robber and Bandit Suppression Law	10,150	3,963	5,843
" Opium Law	2,401	2,397	3,484
" Others	159	159	184
" Total	12,928	6,625	9,698
" Police Regulations	12,425	12,294	20,445
" Fire-arms Controlling Regulations			
" "Pao-Chia" (Civil Guards) Regulations	1,536	1,536	2,562
" Others	50	50	442
" Total	582	578	949
GRAND TOTAL	14,593	14,458	24,398
	60,723	45,442	77,997

Table 9. Suppression of Publication

		No. of Publication	Cases of Suppression	Copies Suppressed
1934	General	370	41	3,944
	Newspaper	41	3,175	7,307
	Magazine	16	1,175	1,687
1935	General	664	892	21,077
	Newspaper	43	2,270	16,890
	Magazine	27	779	2,686

In 1934 the Department of Justice appropriated some 30,000 yuan with the object of sending Manchou officials to Japan and to the Kwantung Leased Territory for study of Japanese legal system and institutions.

Complete Transformation of Judicial System

It was announced on May 8th, 1936 that the organization law of Manchoukuo Courts, promulgated on January 4, 1936 would take effect on July 1, 1936. A complete transformation of the Manchoukuo judicial system was brought about by its enforcement, resulting in an increase in the number of Courts and Procurators' offices, a revision of the present trial system, the independence of the judiciary, the establishment of a circuit court system and in the appointment of vice-presidents of Courts and Procurators' Offices.

With the enforcement of the new law, local Courts and local procurators' offices are being newly established. The new law provides in principle for the establishment of a three instance trial system for both civil and criminal suits, with one or two exceptions in criminal cases. That is, lese majeste cases will be adjudicated under the first, and at the same time, final instance, and will fall under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. Offences of internal disturbance and cases of espionage will be subjected to two trials, the first trial falling under the jurisdiction of the High Court.

Law School of Department of Justice.—In order to meet the urgent situation as regards judicial administration, the Department of Justice set up its Law School in 1934. The regualr course is to be completed in three years, the scholars being examined for entrance in their health and scholarship of higher middle school grade. Scholars are also taken to a certain number by recommendation and otherwise from among the clerks serving at courts.

The secondary course is to be completed in six months. The scholars are enrolled by recommendation of chief judges and otherwise from those who are serving as judges and prosecutors at district and other courts and not older than 40 years of age.

Attached to the school is the goalers' training institute where officials are selected by recommendation from those who are serving as warders or chief goalers and not older than 40 years of age. The training course is completed in 4 months.

Other Reforms.—Manchoukuo's interest in penology was early shown in the matter of improving the prisons and the detention quarters where unconvicted prisoners are kept. Under the former administration any idea of improving the prison was frowned upon as encouraging crime. Evil practices were especially notorious where the prisons were administered under contract.

Manchoukuo's earliest improvement in this direction was seen in the abolition of the old system of commuting prison terms to payment of fines, a system by which any one could buy his freedom. Improvement of food and regular supply of clothing to the prison inmates were also undertaken. Special funds are also being appropriated each year for training under Japanese direction Manchu jailers who were often in the past men of undesirable character and not