

taking place on December 11, 1930, and the second on May 23, 1939, as these gentlemen outshine all others in view of their glorious works accomplished.

The Imperial luncheon was granted on December 11, 1930, to a group of ten inventors consisting of the following: Umetaro Suzuki, inventor of the patent No. 20785, process of extracting abery acid out of rice-bran, and patent No. 39501, substitute of Sake which dispenses with the use of rice; Kyota Sugimoto, patent No. 27878, typewriter for Japanese, and patent No. 34521, type founding equipment; Kokichi Mikimoto, patent Nos. 29409, 33640 and 34138, pearl layer covering process; Tadaoki Yamamoto, patent No. 39641, synchronous motor, patent No. 30045, a special inductor alternator; Ryotaro Mitsuda, patent No. 32640, mercury lightning arrester; Chiharu Kakizaki, process of producing a prophylactic vaccine against cattle plague; Genzo Shimadzu, patent No. 41728, process of producing lead monoxide powder; Kotaro Honda, patent Nos. 32234 and 32422, special alloys; Tsunekichi Takuma, patent Nos. 23750 and 28173, steam generator and boiler water circulation accelerator respectively; Yasujiro Niwa, patent Nos. 84247, 84722, 85028, 85029 and 86775, transmission system, modulation system of photograph transmission, photograph transmission system, and commutation system and four others.

At the second Imperial luncheon held on May 23, 1939, another ten inventors had the privilege of being invited: Tokushichi Mishima, inventor of patent No. 96371, magnet steel containing nickel and aluminum; Masatoshi Okochi, patent Nos. 103718, 103995 and 104871, equipment for the production of electrolyte of hydrated magnesium chloride, magnesium electrolytic equipment, drying process of hydrated magnesium electrolyte respectively, and again patent No. 70144 covering the production of piston rings; Kinzo Okamura, patent No. 69920, oil shale carbonisation process; Tsunesaburo Umene, patent No. 42972, dressing process of hematite and limonite ores; Toragoro Tanahashi, patent Nos. 101579 and 112035, production process of chromate, and patent No. 28944 covering the production process of chlorate; Hiroshi Ando, patent Nos. 80948 and 78309, multi-electrode vacuum tube and its connecting device, also patent No. 78713, synchroscope; Seichiro Asao, patent No.

89965, 93174 and 110633 all covering photocells; Issaku Koga, patent Nos. 95637, 117015 and 120478 covering piezo-electric oscillators, and improvement on quartz crystal; Kinjiro Okabe, patent Nos. 124419 and 124749, vacuum tubes for ultra short waves and microwaves; and Yasuhiko Asahina, patent Nos. 88562, 93222, 107423 and 110085, production process of paraoxycamphor, and its isomer, production process of γ - π apocamphor carboxylic acid out of camphor oil and again production process of trans π oxocamphor out of isoketopinic acid chloride.

Day-light Movie Screen The Riken, the Institute of Physical and Chemical Research, placed on the market a new screen, which enables movie films to be shown in broad day light or under a brilliant chandelier.

Patented in England, France, Belgium, Switzerland, the United States and Canada, and with patents pending in other countries, this Riken De-Light Movie Screen, otherwise called "Tokyo Screen," was developed by Dr. Takeo Shimadzu of the Institute through years of hard and untiring research work. Although a casual inspection does not reveal any particular peculiarity, the screen is the fruit of an extremely complicated theory of optics.

Briefly, the Tokyo Screen consists of a mass of thousands of fine celluloid pieces in the form of lens, the back of which is painted in black, leaving the convex parts of the lenses uncolored. This makes the screen appear colorless in front and black on its reverse. When a beam is flashed through the screen from behind, for this screen is so arranged, each of the miniature lenses absorbs the beam, and the screen projects complete and clear vision of the picture on its front just as an ordinary film is projected by darkening the room.

The World's Largest 100,000 KVA Water Turbo Generator The Shibaura Division of the Tokyo-Shibaura Electric Company, which is technically affiliated with the General Electric Company of America, completed, at its Tsurumi plant in June 1940, a 100,000 KVA water turbo generator, creating an epoch-making engineering achievement ever accomplished in Japan.

This new water wheel generator is to be installed at the Suibo hydro-electric power plant on the Yalu River by which

this river which borders Chosen and Manchoukuo will be harnessed.

Upon completion, the proposed power plant will excel the famed power plant of the Hoover Dam, also known as the Boulder Dam, in the Black Canyon of the Colorado River in the United States. This plant is intended to furnish enough power to meet the requirements of principal cities both in Manchoukuo and Chosen lying in districts along the said river.

With vertical, revolving field and enclosed ventilation, this world's largest generator is capable of developing 100,000 KVA at 125/150 r.p.m. 10,500 volts, three phase, 50/60 cycles, and 48 poles, with a power factor of 1-0.9. Having a total weight of 1,110 metric tons, with its rotor weighing 700 tons and main shaft 65 tons, this generator can manage a thrust load of 1,100 tons.

Natural Color Photography The century-old puzzle of natural color photography has now been answered by the Konishi Roku, Ltd., otherwise known as the Roku-sha, Tokyo, one of the largest makers of cameras and photo supplies in Japan, who announced the attainment of natural color positive photographs through their own unique process, and incidentally tri-color films and chromogenic developing paper to be used in conjunction for the development of a still picture in natural colors.

The "Sakura" natural color film, as it is known consists of five layers of different thicknesses placed on a base of nonflammable celluloid. The first layer consists of emulsion which is sensitive to blue-purple light and absorbs yellow; the first intermediate layer which acts as filter at the time of photographing consists of yellow colloidal silver; the second emulsion layer which is sensitive to green light takes care of red; the second intermediate layer consists of red colloidal silver and works as a filter; the third and the last emulsion layer is sensitive to scarlet and takes care of blue.

In other words, the new natural color film which was developed by the enterprising makers consists of three layers having two intermediate layers with a total thickness of 3/100 mm.

The "Sakura" tri-color film and "Sakura" chromogenic developing paper were developed following the invention of the above film and are the first of their kind in the whole world. The instantaneous and simultaneous shoot-

ing of tri-color negatives and that by the use of an ordinary camera were perfected at the laboratory of the Roku-sha in the form of the tri-color film and this in conjunction with the patented chromogenic developing paper and the special developing process evolved constitute a most valuable contribution made by the concern to the photographic industry last year, when the nation was celebrating the 2600th anniversary of the founding of the Empire.

The tri-color film consists, as the name suggests, of a combination of three different films, the first layer or the film is of an ordinary emulsion of low light sensitivity without any color sensitivity, its back being covered by yellow gelatin; the second film is an orthochromatic emulsion film of medium light sensitivity with crimson layer at its back, and the third and the last film is of a panchromatic emulsion film of high light sensitivity with green layer at its back. These films are placed one upon the other in the order given and held in between two sheer glass plates.

Cosmic Rays Research Being Conducted by Nishina Research Institute The distribution of cosmic rays according to differences in altitude, at the time of the total eclipse of the sun, and according to differences in latitude on the sea, has been the subject of elaborate researches by Dr. Yoshio Nishina and his assistants of Nishina Research of the Riken, the Institute of Physical and Chemical Research. On the other hand a further study as to the infiltrating strength of the cosmic rays through the earth was conducted by the scientists deep in the Shimizu tunnel, Shizuoka prefecture, dropping to a depth of 3,600 feet in some places. Here installing measuring instruments and apparatus within a man-hole of the tunnel, the scientists labored and confirmed the theory that the said strength at points from 1,500 to 3,600 feet below the surface of the earth is in inverse ratio to the cube of the depth.

Further researches are being conducted at the same spot as to what constitute the cosmic rays, whether they consist of electrons alone or some other particles as well, which remains a perpetual enigma to the scientists.

Dr. Nishina in collaboration with Dr. Dalgoro Moriwaki of Tokyo Higher School, is further working on the solution of another puzzle, namely, whether

cosmic rays would affect the heredity of all living things thereby giving rise to spasmodic anomalies (metamorphosis) through the use of fruit flies at the same spot where cosmic rays so rarely penetrate.

Accomplishment in 1940 Prof. Hideki Yukawa, of Kyoto Imperial University, for a theoretical study on the interaction of particles, forecasting the existence of mesotron in the cosmic rays; Prof. Toshiro Horiuchi, of Hokkaido Imperial University, for theoretical and experimental studies on the speed of chemical reaction.

For his successful experiments in changing hens into roosters, Prof. Kiyoshi Masui of Tokyo Imperial University was granted a prize by the Japan Agriculturists Association.

Engineer Yoshio Ishida of the Institute of Physical and Chemical Research was successful in developing a wool substitute by effecting a physico-chemical treatment of collagen obtained from whales after whale oil was extracted. The new wool substitute is reported to excel staple fibers in strength, elasticity, and thermal quality and is decidedly lower in its cost of production.

A synthetic fiber, which is claimed to be better in all respects than the much talked of nylon, vinyon or the P.C. fiber, and to have a strength four times that of natural wool, has been developed. It is known as "Synthetic Fiber No. 1" and is the invention of Dr. Ri Sho-ki, a research chemist and professor at the Chemical Laboratory of Kyoto Imperial University.

The albuminous substance, contained in the refuse of fish but wasted so far was discovered to constitute a fine material for making artificial wool at a plant of an artificial silk manufacturing company, Gifu city, Gifu prefecture.

Another addition to the host of fibrous materials was introduced in the form of *Typhala folia*, a perennial plant, commonly called bulrush or cattail, growing luxuriantly in swampy places along rivers and lakes throughout this country. Unlike other lines of fibrous materials the prospect of industrializing this novel grass, which is called gama among the Japanese, is highly encouraging. Prof. Takeshi Ninomiya of Otsuma Gijei Gakuin—Otsuma Polytechnic College—is the inventor. What requires further information regarding this grass is that its cars when treated by a special method offer

an ideal material for mixture with woolen yarn or cotton. A concern is already working on a commercial basis for the latter purpose.

The alluvial gold deposits of the Takdri Canyon in Taiwan, which caused a nation-wide sensation is expected to be exploited in earnest commencing with 1942 and preparations to that end, such as road construction, etc., are now being pushed.

An effective anti-infantile paralytic vaccine was completed by the medical department of Osaka Imperial University after five years of research.

A wireless teletype was invented by a Japanese wireless operator in Kiating, Manchoukuo. According to the test made between Dairen and Kiating, there were only five mistakes out of 10,000 words transmitted and its speed ranged from 200 to 1,000 words per minute.

Japan's first power plant utilizing heat from hot spring waters will be established in the course of this year in Izu Peninsula, popular hot spring district in Shizuoka Prefecture.

A device for generating power on the strength of subterranean heat has been tested in Izu Peninsula, Shizuoka Prefecture and has proved successful by Dr. Fumio Oda, Professor of Kyushu Imperial University and his colleagues.

A synthetic sake, which can rank with the best brands on the market in quality, can be produced in only 24 hours from any cereal, even from potatoes, announced F. Nakajima, an industrial chemist at Osaka Imperial University. In spite of the short time taken for the manufacture of this synthetic sake it is claimed that it can remain fresh for three years.

The Utilization Bureau of the Commerce and Industry Ministry announced that they are contemplating the manufacture of fuel such as artificial petroleum, methane gas and briquettes on an industrial basis from sewage and garbage which accumulate in great quantities in urban districts.

Lubricant oil, indispensable for airplane motors, and hitherto produced from mineral matter, can now be produced in large quantities from animal matter as a result of the invention by Dr. Yusaburo Nagai of the Aeronautics Research Laboratory of Tokyo Imperial University, after nine years of indefatigable study.

The stereo statue, or the stereographic statue, is produced

through the application of the principles of the stereoscopic camera. A solid statue with considerable artistic effect is thus produced through mechanical means. This optical invention was accomplished by Tsunehito Yamada, technician of the Japan Optical Company, Tokyo.

Two ferro-concrete treasure-houses in which to preserve the many art treasures of the 1,300-year-old Horyuji Temple at Nara have been completed within its compound after 27 months of labor. Built on the architectural style of 1,300 years ago, the two structures were designed by Dr. Chuta Ito, noted authority on Buddhist architecture, and other leading experts.

A super high-speed movie camera for use in various experiments at laboratories and in measuring phenomena in the course of high-speed operation of machines for many industrial purposes was contemplated by Prof. Tatsuzo Fukuhara of Hamamatsu Higher Technical School. While the camera has a photographing speed of from 2,000 to 9,000 frames per second for the present, the professor is striving to increase the speed up to 10,000 frames per second.

Liquefaction of coal which had been under intense study since 1928 by the Imperial Navy and the South Manchuria Railway Company was at last consummated, and on July 22, 1939, on the occasion of the completion of the Fushan Coal Liquefaction Plant of the S.M.R., all the experts concerned who had substantially contributed to the research were given recognition for their

DEVELOPMENT OF MEDICINE IN JAPAN

Before the infiltration of Western science into Japan, medicine as practiced or studied in this country was mainly "Kampo", or Chinese medicine, with such additional clinical lore as was gleaned by native experience and therapeutic methods fashioned by native genius.

Towards the end of the Tokugawa Era, different schools of medicine criss-crossed each other and a complicated situation developed. The Dutch, Chinese and Dutch combined, and pure Western schools vied with each other. The advocates of the scientific medicine of the West, however, had the hardest lot, hampered at every turn by the closed-door policy of the Tokugawa Shogunate. But the times changed and the seclu-

meritorious services. The industry has since been attempted at several other places, notably in Kyushu, Saghalien, Chosen, and North China, where the different processes of liquefaction of coal are employed.

An event of historical importance was the completion of the underwater tunnel connecting Shinonoseki and Moji. The junction was made on July 10, 1941, when the last screen of rock was pierced, opening direct land connection between Kyushu, and the main island of Japan. The tunnel is now enlarged, surfaced and will be served by transportation facilities, enabling the passengers to travel between Kyushu and the mainland dryshod.

The wired wireless telephony is now considered in this country. This is of carrier current system and is to utilize either telephone or electric wires. All that is required in the way of reformation is to install a tuning unit. The tests so far made at the anti-air raid drills are reported to have been successful and entirely satisfactory.

By means of non-loaded carrier cable, telephone service connecting Tokyo and Mukden, a distance of 3,000 kilometers was made possible and opened to the public. The Communications Ministry authorities were subsequently successful in their test communications over a distance of 10,000 kilometers by utilizing its multiplex circuit with a degree of clarity equal to that of ordinary telephone conversation within the city limits. When extended this could be a conversation between Tokyo and Chicago, U.S.A.

sion policy of the Yedo Government could not stem the tide of civilization and with the opening of Japan's ports to the West in 1848, the merits of the scientific medicine of the West came to be recognized by the intellectual class of this country.

Meiji Restoration The Meiji Restoration (1868) swept away the evils of feudalistic tradition and with them the obstacles to the adoption of the scientific medicine as developed in Europe. The Government proclamation of March 7, 1862, may be considered a landmark in the history of Japanese medicine as ushering in a new era of experimental medicine, for the proclamation gave official sanction to the adoption of Western medicine in this country. From this

time on physicians and surgeons were engaged from abroad and Government medical colleges were established.

Medical Science During the Meiji Era (1868-1912) and After

Some 80 years have passed since the Meiji Restoration and now there are throughout Japan proper 27 Government, public and private medical colleges including the renowned medical department of Tokyo Imperial University. Each year these institutions are turning out 2,300 or more graduates. The number of registered practising physicians and surgeons in 1938 was 51,837. The number of medical scientists holding the doctor's degree was 11,894 in 1939, including men of the caliber of late Dr. Hideo Noguchi, engaged in instructing and training rising scientists. Besides the regular medical colleges, there are innumerable specialist institutes.

A brief survey of the development of medical science after the advent of Meiji era reveals that during this period medical knowledge was imported chiefly from Germany, but it was only after the outbreak of the First European War that the medical men in this country got an opportunity of manifesting their full abilities. Instead of going abroad, they had then to study by themselves and develop upon what had been transplanted by the earlier scholars.

The present highly advanced state of the science owes entirely to the painstaking researches and laborious efforts of the pioneer scientists in those early days. It would hardly be an exaggeration to say that Japan today occupies a place in the first rank among medically advanced countries of the world, for this country has completely mastered the best that Western science has to offer and has developed techniques all her own and best suited to the physical and mental peculiarities of the Japanese people.

Medical science has made phenomenal advancement in the past 20 years, led chiefly by the development of bacteriology, the discovery of innumerable viruses, which in turn have been instrumental in the advancement of immunology, serology, chemotherapy, etc.

Endocrinology Advance in this field has served to accelerate the progress in anatomy, physiology, pathology and

pharmacology, proving highly effective in clinics and therapeutics. Further cooperation with organic chemistry, extraction and synthetic production of pure hormones have now been made possible.

Dietetics Here too in conjunction with organic chemistry properties of hormones have been clarified and success in synthetic production has led to the exploration of the still unenlightened field of physiology, pathology and pharmacology, the results of which has been employed in clinics in numerous instances.

X-ray Generator and Discovery of Radioactive Elements Progress and improvement made in X-ray generator, discovery of radium and other radioactive elements, discovery of neutron, electron and proton in the atomic physics, and the artificial production of radioactive elements have served to hasten the progress in the science of radioactivity, leading to its application in manifold directions such as diagnosis, therapeutics, etc. Its effect in curbing of heredity is also studied in recent years.

Electron Microscope Invention of the electron microscope now enables scientists to survey the so called invisible viruses, while the X-ray spectrum has clarified the molecular arrangement which in conjunction with colloid chemistry has opened up new fields in biochemistry.

Physics The scientific progress of harnessing the ultra-short wave and the super-short sonic wave is already finding useful application in clinics, and its value is destined to grow.

Electro-physics Medical applications in the field of electro-physics have been manifold. The electric cardiometer has opened up a new vista in physiology, pathology and pharmacology of the heart, while chronaxy has done much to clarify the physiology, pathology and pharmacology of muscular action. On the other hand by measuring the operating current of the brain a new light is being thrown on physiology, pathology and pharmacology.

Colloid Chemistry Extensive contribution to biochemistry including immunology has been made by the progress in colloid chemistry.

Precision Machines and Instruments Stupendous contribution has been

made to the medical science by the development in precision machines of all kinds, notable among them being the super high speed centrifuge used for the separation of invisible viruses for the measuring of molecular weight of macro-moleculars, apparatus of micro-methods for the advancement of cytology and bacteriology. The fact that micro-analyses of blood and body tissues have now been facilitated is due to the progress of microchemical quantitative analyses. Application of colorimeters and refractometers in clinics has been noteworthy.

Isotopes Isotopes, especially sodium, zinc, phosphorus and iron having radioactive properties have been harnessed for metabolic experiments and are producing salutary results. These are bound to make further development.

Organic Chemistry Organic chemistry including pharmacology is making big strides in close collaboration with the progress in other branches of medical science, as is proven by the appearance of a large number of medicines of un- doubted effectiveness.

Flying Illness and Calsson Disease Following the progress in aircraft and submarines, there appeared diseases which were total strangers to our forefathers, and this subsequently gave birth to new researches of flying illness and calsson diseases. On the other hand researches in endemic diseases have led to the advance of medicines in colonial conditions. That these will play an important role in future need hardly be said in view of Japan's southward advance which is destined to be made in the coming years.

Industrial Medicine Along with the advance in industries, there has come the need for special medicines for miners and factory workers. Important research has been done on prophylaxis against diseases liable to be caused by poisoning and toxication.

Hygienics Hygienics including prophylaxis as well as the problems of food, clothing and habitation, has received great attention. From prophylactic medicine, it has advanced to the science of living and then to the science of welfare in general, encompassing within its sphere not only pure medicine but all phases of natural science including physics, chemistry, engineering, biology, agriculture, meteorology, and veterinary medi-

cine, and even psychology and economics, and this field of research will no doubt make further advance in close cooperation with all the sciences involved.

Anthropology Another science which cannot be lost sight of is anthropology, which through archaeological and morphological studies has now developed in the form of ethnology based on the studies of vital statistics, color tones of the skin and hair, characteristics of the blood, psychological peculiarities, etc., incidentally serving as a key to the solution of the problem of the racial relations between the Japanese and other peoples of the Orient.

Pathology Pathology being a basic study of medical science, the range of subjects covered by researches on this subject is as extensive as it is diversified. A glance at the reports on researches made in the past few years more than suffices to give an idea of the present situation of this department.

Numerous doctors have been awarded prizes from societies and institutes both at home and abroad, for their contributions to pathological research. Some notable prize-winners are: Dr. Fujiro Katsurada and Dr. Gokichi Fujinami for their study on distomum haematobium japonicum; Dr. Katsuburo Yamagiwa for his research on artificial cancer, and Dr. Koryu Sasaki for his research on the same subject; Dr. Atsushi Tawara for his contribution on stimulus conducting system of the heart; Dr. Kenji Kiyono for vital staining; Dr. Tomosaburo Ogata for his research on beriberi; Dr. Rinya Kawamura on lipoid; Dr. Yutaka Kon on argyria; Dr. Seiko Katsunuma on oxydases.

Special mention should be made of the contribution made by pathologists in general to the researches of beriberi, distomum haematobium japonicum, distomatosis hepatitis and distomatosis pulmonalis, as well as all other endemic diseases, parasitism, epidemics, cancer, etc.

Bacteriology Numerous treatises have been contributed up to the present in the field of bacteriology, and outstanding work has been done in this field of medical science. Surveying chronologically the following may be mentioned among the more important contributions.

Discovery of spirochaeta ikterohaemorrhagiae japonica by Dr. Ryukichi Inada, Professor at Fukuoka Medi-

cal College and Mr. Yasushi Ido, Assistant Professor of the same college in 1915 was an outstanding work during the Taisho era (1912-1926); in 1917 Dr. Kenzo Futaki and Dr. Kikutaro Ishi-wara of the Infectious Diseases Research Institute discovered spirochaeta of rat-bite disease; in the course of 1914-1917 bacillus of cholera infantum was discovered by Dr. Seinosuke Ohara and Mr. Mitsugu Minoda; in 1925 research on tularaemia infectious from the hare was reported by Dr. Hachiro Ohara; since 1923 researches on rickettsia tsutsugamushi had been conducted by Dr. Matao Nagayo, Chief of the Infectious Diseases Research Institute, Doctors Yoneji Miyagawa, Tokushiro Mitamura, and Takeo Tamiya of the same institute, as well as by Dr. Norio Ogata, Professor of Chiba Medical College, and Dr. Rinya Kawamura of Niigata Medical College, and these as well as the researches on typhus mandchuricus and typhus exanthematicus by Dr. Makoto Kodama in 1932 had been the forerunner which led to the numerous researches on the same disease in this country. The same remark applies to the research of preventive inoculation against rabies by Dr. Shinkichi Umemo in 1923-1924 and also to that of hemophilic bacillus by the experimental researches on the composition of blood which is essential in the culture of influenza-bacillus by Dr. Masachi Terada since 1921.

Mention should also be made of the culturing process of anaerobic bacillus developed by Dr. Shogo Hosoya of the Infectious Diseases Research Institute in 1926; research on streptococcus, especially hemolytic streptococcus by Dr. Rokuzo Kobayashi, Professor at Keio University since the advent of the Showa era (1926); research on immunization against pestis by Dr. Kikuo Kurauchi of the Dai-ri Sanitary Research Institute in 1936; studies on small pox virus by Dr. Nakamura, Professor at Hokkaido Imperial University, since 1920, as well as by Dr. Toyochi Otahara, Professor at Kumamoto Medical College on the same subject in 1924, and subsequently on small-pox by Dr. Jokai Iguchi of the Metropolitan Police Board.

Outstanding researches have been conducted, since 1935, on the virus of the fourth venereal disease by Dr. Ikuzo Toyama, Professor at Tokyo Imperial University and his associates, as well

as by Dr. Yoneji Miyagawa, President of the Infectious Diseases Research Institute and his associates; on encephalitis epidemica japonica by the Committee of the Foundation for the Promotion of Scientific and Industrial Research of Japan, headed by Dr. Ryukichi Inada, and by other workers conducted independently, and again a report published on the same subject by Professor Terada.

The research on Dick toxin by Dr. Koji Ando, President of the Dai-ri Sanitary Research Institute since 1927, and that of Dr. Hidetake Yahagi, of the Infectious Diseases Research Institute, on preventive inoculation against scarlatina by means of toxoids since 1927, paved the way to a clear analysis of the virus of scarlatina and its prophylaxis.

Anatomy Constituting a part of biology, anatomy is but one of the primary studies of medical science, and as such it is less conspicuous than other departments of the science. Up to the present there have been three scholars in this line who received the Imperial Academy prizes for their excellent researches: Prof. Kumakatsu Kosaka of Okayama Medical College on the origin of cranial nerves in 1913; Prof. Genzou Fuse of Tohoku Imperial University on anatomical researches of the brain in 1921; and Prof. Buntaro Adachi of Kyoto Imperial University on the artery of the Japanese race in 1930.

A survey of this department can be made most effectively by glancing through the special lectures delivered since 1928 at the annual meetings of the Anatomical Society of Japan: on the embryology of the palate and the cause of its cleft by Prof. Inoage of Tokyo Imperial University in 1925; histological study by means of super-microscopic construction by Prof. Fumio Oka of Kyoto Imperial University in 1929; histological survey regarding the antagonistic action of potassium and lecithin against that of calcium and cholesterolin by Prof. Kosaka of Okayama Medical College and on the anatomy of the Japanese by Prof. Adachi of Kyoto Imperial University in 1930; on Aschoff-Tawara's bundle by Prof. Shindo of Kyushu Imperial University; and on microscopic and geometrical computation by Prof. Okajima of Keio University in 1931; anthropology of the native in Oceania by Prof. Hasebe of

Tohoku Imperial University in 1932; on embryology of the muscle by Prof. Nishi of Tokyo Imperial University and on the construction of cell nucleus by Prof. Saguchi of Kanazawa Medical College in 1933; on front-occipital-lines of the brain by Prof. Shimada of Kyoto Imperial University, on the fertilization of eggs of amphibious Urodela in Japan by Prof. Kunitomo of Nagasaki Medical College, and on the appearance of latent heredity in the abnormal results by Prof. Ogawa of Kyoto Imperial University, all in 1934; on the embryology of the primitive kidney (Wolf's duct) of the Japanese by Prof. Sakumami of Okayama Medical College, and exhibition of human bones in the stone age by Dr. Koganei, Professor Emeritus of Tokyo Imperial University, in 1935; on the computation of correlation coefficient by Prof. Oyada of Keio Imperial University in 1936; on organogenesis of amphibia in Japan by Prof. Kudo of Niigata Medical College, anthropological survey of the physiognomy of the Ainu by Prof. Tamazaki of Niigata Medical College, and on the artificial polyembryony by Prof. Morita of the Jikeikai Medical College, all in 1937; on the embryology of the membranous labyrinth and its surrounding organs by Prof. Koike of Chiba Medical College, and on the histological differentiation of the cortical tissues of the brain by Prof. Hirakawa of Kyushu Imperial University in 1938; on the silver plating and its application developed by Prof. Morita of Osaka Imperial University, and on the differentiation of the lymphatic by Prof. Kihara of Kyoto Imperial University, in 1939; on the anthropological features of human bones found in Hokuriku districts by Prof. Yamamoto of Kanazawa Medical College.

A survey of the work done by the Anatomical Society of Japan reveals that the trend of the major part of research has been in the direction of the central nervous system and experimental embryology. While cytology has made considerable progress, studies by means of tissue culture are practically nil and lines of chromosomes are very few. Hence the reports on systematic anatomy and topographic anatomy are only a small number which are not with women and children. Equally deserving of attention are the anthropological studies based on genetics of mankind which seem to have been

neglected. The anthropological studies of the Ainu and other races are bound to be made vigorously in future in addition to those of other races inhabiting Oceania.

Biochemistry Development of biochemistry in this country owes almost in its entirety to the progress in the quantitative microanalyses, as it incidentally paved the way for the application of biochemistry to actual clinical work.

Subsequently as a result of further studies, researchers began to select themes of a limited and specific nature rather than follow along the general lines, as for example: enzymic chemistry, amino acid and its intermediate metabolism, bile acid, biological oxidation-reduction process, varying processes of quantitative analyses, intermediate metabolism of sugar, lipid chemistry, general metabolism, protein chemistry, dietetic chemistry, vitamin chemistry, endocrinology, etc.

In the early years of development in this line of medical science, practically all researchers were either internists or pediatricists. Subsequently their number greatly increased and this gave rise to a society of bio-chemists called, "Seika-Kagakusha Yoi-no-kai" in 1922. It was at one of the meetings of this society that the late Dr. Katsumi Takahashi made an announcement on vitamin separated from live oil. This society was later absorbed into the Society of Bio-chemistry in Japan, and the subsequent development of the science has been phenomenal. Some notable researches brought forth before the annual meetings of the society are: intermediate metabolism of tryptophan by Prof. Yashiro Kotake of Osaka Imperial University; bile acid by Prof. Tael Shimizu of Okayama Medical College; metabolism of scurvy by Prof. Takeyoshi Nagayama of Tokyo Jikeikai Medical College. All these have been studied exhaustively over a period of 20 or 30 years in the past, and their reports have drawn the attention of medical men in all parts of the world.

Other researches of interest are the one on the quantitative analyses of vitamin C by Dr. Akiji Fujita of the Kitazato Infectious Diseases Research Institute and the other on octopin by Asst. Prof. Akashi of Kyoto Imperial University.

Medical Jurisprudence The foundation for this department of medical science in this country was laid largely as a result of the efforts of Dr. Sadanori Mita, professor at the Department of Medical Jurisprudence of Tokyo Imperial University, after he took up this post in 1920. During his tenure of office themes were given in large numbers along this line and particularly along the line of serology and the science made big strides.

The Society of Medical Jurisprudence in Japan was established in April 1914 by Dr. Kuniyoshi Katayama, Professor at Tokyo Imperial University, notable lectures delivered at some of the annual meetings of the society since then being on the following subjects:—Hereditry of blood-type, by Dr. Yoshimaro Tanaka, Professor at the Agricultural Department of Kyushu Imperial University, in 1927; blood-type and temperament, by Dr. Takeji Furukawa, Professor at Tokyo Girls Higher Normal School, in 1928; on individuality of cells, secretions, and body-cavity fluid due to agglutination of human blood corpuscles, by Dr. Hajime Asada, Professor at Tokyo Women's Medical College, in 1929. At the annual meeting held the next year, 1930, some 103 lectures were delivered mostly on blood-types and serological researches, among them being a significant lecture on blood-types by Dr. Furuhashi, Professor at Osaka Medical College.

The lectures which attracted much attention in the subsequent years were: on lipoid antigen—antibody reaction, by Prof. Yunosuke Kagaya of Niigata Medical College in 1932; also at the same meeting Prof. Mita of Tokyo Imperial University denied the M.N.P. by Landsteiner; on the relation of the reaction of pharmaco-toxins and physical conditions by Prof. Matachiro Konami of Okayama Medical College in 1933; on the value and quantity of precipitin by Dr. Takeo Sato, Professor at Tokyo Imperial University, in 1934; on the functions of the lungs in the intermediary metabolic change by Professor Kazutane Nikaido of Kanazawa Medical College in 1935; on the specificity of species and organs viewed from two immune bodies by Prof. Tetsuro Ishikawa of Chiba Medical College in 1936; on the toxin like substances produced by abnormal body temperature by Prof. Atsuro Nakata and Asst. Prof. Omura of Osaka Medical College in 1937; on the decom-

position of a corpse by Prof. Chuzo Endo of Kyoto Imperial University in 1938; on the registry and identification of finger-prints by Prof. Kyosaku Komiyama of Nagoya Imperial University in 1939; on the temperament viewed from the reaction of precipitin by Prof. Harumitsu Hojo of Nagasaki Medical College in 1940.

Hygiene Of all the fields of medical science, the one which claims foremost attention is perhaps prophylaxis, which aims at the emancipation of men from the danger of contagious diseases and allows them to enjoy their full span of life and die a natural death. Of course the mission of prophylaxis is not confined to mere prevention of disease, but also includes the elucidation of the causes and motives of all diseases which are liable to be occasioned conditionally, environmentally, socially and economically thus making it possible to devise ways and means for the removal of these conditions. Hence the future of prophylaxis is bound to be closely connected with social reorganization.

In the curriculum of medical education in this country, the department of hygiene has been in existence from the very beginning of its history, but bacteriology has for long constituted a part of the hygiene department. The rapid advance of bacteriology in recent years has separated this field of science from hygiene with the result that the latter has remained in a state of stagnation for several years. However, at the Kyoto Imperial University, researches were made assiduously in this rather neglected field of science, laying the foundation for experimental hygiene for future development.

Another institute which contributes much towards the development of prophylaxis was the department of hygiene established in the Keio University for the first time in the history of medical education in this country under the support of the Rockefeller Foundation.

Simultaneously with the rise of prophylaxis, studies in racial welfare have been progressing as vigorously as in other. This trend became particularly noteworthy since the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident in 1931. The increasing necessity of racial welfare led both the Government authorities and medical societies to concentrate their efforts for the promotion of this line of medical science, and throughout researches are being conducted on

problems of population, heredity and eugenics.

The Population Problem Research Institute came into being in April 1939, succeeding the Council of Population Problems which had been working exhaustively prior to that time, and efforts are being directed toward a wholesome increase in the population of this country. While the imminent question of the population problem is centered on the quantitative factor, qualitative factor is demanding such attention in recent years, and as a result, the problem of eugenics is studied for the maintenance and increase of superior elements and elimination of inferior ones, and even the question of sterilization is being considered at present.

Pharmacology The outbreak of the First European War produced a considerable effect on the medical science of this country, pharmacology being no exception. Until that time pioneers in the field of science used to study abroad, and with what knowledge they acquired, they engaged in their experimental researches and instructed the younger scholars, but this practice was discontinued. They had begun to carry out their researches independently of the West, and this incidentally served for the development of the science in this country, with the two universities at Tokyo and Kyoto playing prominent roles.

To define the main currents which constitute pharmacology in Japan is a rather difficult task, as it is exceptionally diversified. In a word, it can be stated that they mostly consist of experiments on excised organs or in situ and from these the reactions of a medicine on a body are observed. As pharmaco-dynamical method is being used in recent years, this branch of medical science has become all the more delicate and complex. For experimental methods, both histological as well as bacteriological methods are adopted to some extent.

Regarding the materials used for experiment, researches using alkaloid and cyanide are still going on briskly, while the autonomous nervous toxin is employed for the determination of the setting point of the toxin in many instances, and the properties of these are being studied exhaustively, the experiments being performed on every organ and on all sorts of animals.

While vitamins had been studied

formerly to a large extent, they seem to have been superseded by hormones in recent years, the latter researches being conducted particularly in regard to sexual hormones.

Of all the excellent results achieved in the department of pharmacology, the most outstanding is perhaps the discovery made by Prof. Kenzo Tamura of Tokyo Imperial University regarding the use of camphor as a cardiotonic, camphor, when applied to the body, being oxidized and turned into a substance having a heart strengthening action. The professor, subsequently, found a way of obtaining the said camphor-oxide by using dogs, which is, as is well known, marketed today by the name of Vitacampher. Vitacampher is the compound of allo- π -oxo-camphor and trans- π -oxo-camphor.

The entire attention of the society is now concentrated on the efficacy of Digitalis, and the fact that its toxic power does not correspond to its effective power has become fairly definite today. Mention should be made in this connection of the laborious work of Dr. Kikuji Tokita, who has been making comparative studies of all kinds of medicine obtained from every country in the world with the exception of the U.S.A. Especially interesting is the chromosome duplicating method by means of Colchicin.

Parasitology The inception of parasitology in this country dates back to 1886, when Prof. Iijima, reputed to have been the first parasitologist in Japan, returned from his extended studies abroad. Until the middle of the Meiji era (1868-1912), however, this department confined its sphere of activities to the discovery of new parasites and their morphological studies, but it soon extended to pathological studies of parasites, and later their biological aspect, including the cycle of development of parasites, and later prophylactic studies began to be made. The researches advanced from nematoda and cestoda to protozoa and insects, and partly stimulated by the advancement in this department of medical science abroad, the number of researchers engaged in this line also increased steadily.

Today, parasitology in Japan is in every way equal to that of the advanced countries of the world, largely owing to the efforts of the Society of Parasitologists organized shortly after the Great

Earthquake and Fire in 1923. This society was the precursor of the present society called the Parasitological Society of Japan, established in February 1929.

Mention regarding the existence of *distomum haematobium japonicum* was made as early as 1847 by Yoshimichi Fujii, but its eggs were not found until 1902 and the parasite was discovered two years later by Dr. Fujiro Katsurada. It was, however, ten years later that Doctors Keinosuke Miyairi and Minoru Suzuki ascertained its intermediary host, elucidated its cycle of development and determined the channel of infection.

Regarding *distomum hepatis*, its primary as well as secondary intermediary hosts were discovered in 1915, the nature of which was elucidated by later scholars. Mention should be made in this connection that the foregoing discoveries were made as early as 1875 by Sosaku Ishisaka, but since his description was not scholarly, it did not come to the notice of the scholars in his time.

With regard to somatocyst of miracidium, this was ascertained by Dr. Iijima as well as Dr. Kanji Nagano in 1926, the latter developing a method of destroying "Mame-tanishi" a species of mud-snail, which is the primary intermediary host, found by chance in a water-fowl. This is believed to be quite effective in the prevention of *distomatosis hepatis*. Subsequently the cycle of development of *distomum buski* was determined by Dr. Koan Nakagawa in 1920.

In 1911 Dr. Sadashi Yokogawa discovered Yokogawa's *distomum heterophyes* known by his name, and completely disproved the long established belief of taking its eggs as those of *distomum hepatis*, and this was further verified by the discovery of the life-cycle of the primary intermediary host in 1916 by Dr. Masatomo Muto. In 1915 a noxious *distomum heterophyes* was discovered by Dr. Yosaku Onji and the secondary intermediary host was recognized, and this was followed by the discovery of the primary intermediary host by Dr. Hajime Asada in 1928, which shed much light on the cycle of development of *distomum heterophyes*.

Although the history of nematoda is long, it may be pointed out that it was first discovered by Dr. Scheube in Kyoto, and its mother worm of *Sparganum Mansonii* was defined by Dr. Shiro

Yamada and Dr. Sadao Yoshida in 1917 and 1918 respectively, and two years later the cycle of development thereof was made clear by Dr. Tachyu Okumura. The morphological analyses of *diplogonoporus grandis* discovered in Japan in 1882 was completed by Dr. Sadao Yoshida and Dr. Ryozo Takano in 1922. Others worthy of mention in this connection are the discoveries of *Sparganum proliferum* by Dr. Masao Yamamura in 1904.

It was Dr. Kinnosuke Miura who discovered ascaris of non-fertilization. In this connection Dr. Sadao Yoshida proved in 1917 that there are also some cases of infiltration of the worms through coelom against Stewart's theory of infiltration only through vascular system; he further established the theory of inessentiality of an intermediate host through experiments on men. Particularly world famous are the experiments on men of ascaris of pigs conducted by Koino brothers, thereby proving the impossibility of the growth of the worm in men.

Regarding the researches as to the pathological effect of ascaris, various reports have been made abroad with reference to the coelomic fluid, and those being conducted by Dr. Tan Kotsumi and his associates are outstanding in this connection. Mention should also be made regarding the relation between lack of Vitamin A and the infection from ascaris. Some controversies took place as to the infection from *ancylostomida*, but what deserves special mention in this connection is the treatise published in 1925, by Dr. Tojiro Inadome, which proved that when *ancylostomida* were made to infect through the skin of other animals, they remain for years as parasites in the abdominal muscle of the latter, which report came as a complete surprise to the parasitologists in those days. What is of international importance in this connection was the elucidation made in 1913 by Dr. Kotaro Jimbo, who noticing the confusion of the eggs of *ancylostomida* with those of *trichostrongylus orientalis*, with the incidental assumption that the latter are identical with *trichostrongylus instabilis*, and further since some Japanese emigrants had been denied entry into the United States of America in view of the alleged confusion, called the attention of that Government to this fact and the confusion was subsequently corrected (thanks to Dr.

Jimbo's elucidation.

While parasitology has thus advanced to a high level, there is a comparative lack of research in the biological aspect of the parasite. Perhaps this is due partly to the fact that artificial culture of parasites is not yet quite well developed, and it is believed that parasitologists in Japan will have to steer the course of their future researches along this direction.

Internal Medicine The department of internal diseases can be likened to a tall tree from the trunk of which branch out many boughs large and small. For instance, pediatrics today is a full-fledged department by itself, but it can hardly be denied that it forms a part and parcel of the internal disease department; the same remark applies to gastrology, phthisiology, epidemiology, and endocrinology.

A survey of the reports of the Society of Internal Diseases of Japan reveals that in the early years of the society, reports invariably dealt with broad subjects such as phthisis, contracted kidney, nephritis, and beriberi, but today researches treat in more details as to the cause, pathology, and therapeutics, to such an extent that these subsequently have given birth to independent societies of phthisis, digestive organs, infectious diseases, etc.

Several processes have been introduced to ensure accurate diagnosis in treating the patients of internal diseases, among them being Widal-Gruber's reaction and Wassermann's reaction which are followed by the use of seruni reaction in the diagnosis of a malignant case of tumor, although these are not as yet completely established. Mention should be made in this connection of the practices of X-raying the stomach and intestines by means of bismuth preparations, the pouring an iodine oil like lipodol in the trachea, the injection of chemical into the gall bladder and the kidneys.

In the field of chemotherapy the appearance of salvarsan proved revolutionary in treating syphilis and nervous diseases caused thereby, although fear is entertained in this country as to the abuse of this medicine by overemphasizing its efficacy.

Another item which called forth abruptly in recent years and is claiming attention forcibly is a sulfanilamide compound for stamping out gonorrhea and other exciting suppurations, al-

though here too abuse in the use of this novel medicine is noticed.

Another pet in therapeutics in recent years is vitamins of all kinds. A host of vitamins hardly dreamed of 20 or 30 years ago are now asserting their presence vigorously: A, B, C, D and E and complexes thereof, and their activities are as effective as they are extensive. Mention should also be made as to the addition of new vitamins K₁ and K₂ and quite recently vitamin P.

In the field of organotherapy, the first and foremost is the variety of hormones, substances extracted from thyroid gland, suprarenal gland, pancreas, pituitary gland, pineal gland, testicle, and ovarium. There are a host of medicines in this line, of which the most remarkable are insulin, pituitrin, spermin, cophorin, etc.

Serums can be divided into two groups: prophylactic serum and therapeutic serum, and are being used extensively for diphtheria, typhoid, dysentery, tetanus, streptococcus, etc. Of vaccines, tuberculin is widely used and is considered essential both for diagnostic and prophylactic purposes, especially in the case of rabies.

Phthisiology Until the birth of the Society of Phthisiology in January 1923 reports on researches in this department of medical science were made at meetings of the societies of internal medicine, hygiene or pathology individually. With the birth of the society, however, the number of such reports at its annual meetings increased by big strides: from only 31 at its initial meeting in 1923 to 161 in 1940 and as many as 170 this year. Some of the salient themes at these annual meetings follow:

On the subject of vaccine in connection with therapeutic problems, reports were made at meetings from 1925 onwards on the prophylactic and therapeutic effects of A-O by Dr. Raikichi Arima and his associates, the annual meetings having been highly animated by criticisms and debates on the subject for some years.

In the field of chemotherapy, notable among the reports were those on copper compounds by Dr. Daijiro Iwasa at the initial and subsequent meetings followed by those of Dr. Shuzo Sato of the Infectious Disease Research Institute from about 1927 onwards. These doctors were succeeded by Dr. Tonosji Terao on the curbing of the

growth of tubercle bacillus.

In 1936 Prof. Eiji Arima dealt with the therapeutic action of thymofogen and in the subsequent two or three years further reports were made by the professor and his associates. In 1939 Dr. Hideji Hasegawa reported on the results obtained during his experimental researches in the chemotherapy of tuberculosis.

It was in 1927 that a report on pneumothoraxtherapy appeared at the annual meeting of the society for the first time by Dr. Hideta Nagai. Since then the subject was dealt with by numerous participants at the subsequent meetings and the total number of them related to this subject at the meeting of 1930 numbered as many as 30.

The first report on the removal of diaphragmatic nerve was made in 1928 by Dr. Hideo Ozono and his associates. In 1931 Makoto Marukawa and Dr. Hideo Sakamoto were responsible for the report on thoracoplasty. Quite a number of reports were made on mass examination in the last two or three years, some 33 reports having been presented at the annual meeting of 1940.

In 1924 the society had the privilege and honor of being graciously accorded a monetary gift by His Majesty the Emperor in recognition of its meritorious activities.

Surgery The Society of Surgery of Japan has the longest history among the medical societies in this country, its first meeting having been held in April 1899.

Until about 1909 the reports at the annual meetings chiefly dealt with symptoms and conditions of illness, but from about this year onwards biological tests were also reported and it was from 1929 that not only biological tests but also clinical experiments began to be reported, placing the science on an equal level with that in other advanced countries of the world.

The present position of the society in Japan can be well grasped from the interesting reports made at its annual meeting held this year at the Tokyo Imperial University. Prof. Masaya Araki of Kyoto Imperial University reported on the surgery of the pituitary body and its neighborhood. He announced that the tumor of the pituitary body, as long as it is on the Turkish saddle, can be cured not only by its total removal but also by its partial removal, and while the tumor in the

third ventricle is impossible to be operated, that out of the Turkish saddle can be operated although not without attendant difficulties in its execution. His operating method consists in reaching the tumor within the dura mater through the frontal region and the removal of the tumor being effected by breaking its capsule. He also cited the important points to be observed in executing this method of operation.

Some exhaustive reports were made by Prof. Seiji Tsuda on acute cases of pancreatic necrosis, its cause and prognostic effect.

Prof. Masao Tazuzuki of Tokyo Imperial University made public his statistics on surgical tuberculosis to the effect that of all the cases of tuberculosis, 10 to 22 per cent require surgical operation, and that tuberculosis of the lymph gland occupies 35 per cent of the total cases of surgical tuberculosis. Again, of these cases of surgical tuberculosis, those combined with pulmonary tuberculosis approximated 37 per cent in early stage; 11 per cent in non-progressive stage, and 30 per cent in progressive stage, and those whose lungs were not affected were 20 per cent.

Of all the patients suffering from surgical tuberculosis, those who can be cured are those suffering from tuberculosis of bones and joints (with the exception of spinal caries) and of the lymph gland, especially when the pulmonary symptom is not serious. These are followed by the cases of tuberculosis of the thorax and the peritoneum. The cases of tuberculosis of the intestines and the anus are regarded as partial symptoms and their prognoses are discouraging.

Interesting reports were also made regarding military surgery: on abdominal wounds by Surgeon Commander Tomita, and on shrapnel and bullets lodged in the entrails of the wounded by Surgeon Major-General Ibuka. The fact that the latter surgeon was successful in removing such objects out of the lungs and the thorax in numerous cases without a single case of failure is worthy of special mention.

Orthopedics The history of orthopedics in Japan is longer than one can easily surmise since it traces back to the days of the Tokugawa Shogunate (1603-1867) when part of this medical science was practised by Judo experts under the name of a profession called

Sekkotsushi or bone-setters. The chair of orthopedics, however, was not installed at any medical college until 1906, when one was inaugurated at the Tokyo Imperial University and the chair was offered to Dr. Tashiro and another was opened at the Kyoto Imperial University and was occupied by Dr. Michiji Matsunaka in the following year. The Society of Orthopedics in Japan was established in 1926.

A new departure in orthopedics in recent years is the establishment of an institute for the protection of the deformed and the crippled as an enterprise of social welfare. The state of such protective institutes abroad was reported in detail by Dr. Kunyuki Katayama of the Jikeikai Medical College some dozen years ago as a means of urging the establishment of such institutes in this country, and the same subject was again taken up by Dr. Kikan Takagi in 1934.

A census of the deformed and crippled was conducted in 1933 for part of the city of Tokyo and it was proved that their figure was by no means small. With the realization by both the Government and the people of the keen necessity of establishing protective institutes for the unfortunate people, a number of institutes were built. Of these mention should be made of the home for the wounded built within the compound of the Welfare Ministry, and while such installations are yet far from being ideal, it is nevertheless encouraging to see an increasing number of such institutes and the general cooperation of the nation for the cause of social welfare. Especially since the outbreak of the China Affair in 1937, the importance of orthopedics in the military and industrial fields has become highly pronounced.

A notable discovery which is of striking importance in this connection, is the discovery of certain chemicals for hypodermic injection for sarcopoleptic purpose made by Dr. Kenzo Takahashi, otorhinolaryngologist, Tokyo. Unlike imitations of the same kind, both in Japan and abroad, the chemical liquid, once injected, does not cause deformation after a lapse of years since what is injected turns into flesh in about three weeks' time and with it a slight improvement in physiognomy can be effected with ease without resorting to any surgical treatment whatever.

Obstetrics and Gynaecology Late in

development has been this line of medical science in this country, having been left for long to the care of midwives. Perhaps the first record worth mentioning in this department was the extirpation of the uterus through the vagina effected by Prof. Gentatsu Hamada in 1891. Against myoma of the uterus in those days, injection by means of ergots or ovariectomy was effected, and in rare instances amputation at the upper part of the vagina. Subsequently total removal of the uterus against myoma, Alexander's operation against retroflexion of the uterus, vagino-fixation as well as vagino-abdominal fixation against retroflexion of the uterus, Wertheim's operation in the removal of the uterus began to be effected in succession and the progress made in operation in this field of medical science in those days was remarkable.

According to Dr. Masakiyo Ogata some 14 cases of vaginal Caesarean operation had been conducted by him until 1901, and the reports were made at the initial meeting of the Society of Gynaecology held the following year. Vaginal Caesarean operation was subsequently carried out by most doctors although today this is done mostly through the cervix. While the method of operation was imported from abroad, it was later elucidated that it was advisable and better to carry out such operation aseptically and this knowledge came as a great enlightenment to the doctors concerned.

Regarding myoma again Prof. Gentatsu Hamada insisted on pharmacotherapy and carried out the injection of ergot principles, but later in 1908 Dr. Masanaka Kinoshita and Dr. Kenzaburo Adachi reported on its surgical treatment, and these together with vaginoplasty by means of the intestinal duct advocated by Dr. Masamichi Mori were the subjects which used to evoke lively debates at the annual meetings of the society.

It was in 1912 at the 14th annual meeting of the society that Dr. Masakiyo Ogata referred to the subject of neo-Malthusianism and it is after this that artificial contraception and sterilization began to be practised. Since the outbreak of the China Affair, however, such deplorable tendency seems to have been checked a great deal, and while this problem involves many other social and moral problems equally important, it is self-evident that any attempt to discourage births and curb

the increase of population is against the interest of the nation.

Today, asepsis is used either in the delivery or in hysterotomy. Against placenta praevia, Caesarean operation is effected in most cases in place of tampon; blood-transfusion in place of salt injection and cardiotonics against anemia; very efficacious cardiotonics have also been introduced in recent years. Especially the introduction of hormones and sulfanilamides has been a boon to the medical science of obstetrics and gynaecology.

Another factor which served to contribute much to the progress in this department of medical science is the roentgenisms and radiotherapy. Particularly noticeable has been the application of Roentgen rays, not only has the X-ray photograph of the uterus and the ovarian tube been used for diagnosis but it is now applied in the measurement of the pelvis and in the diagnosis of placenta praevia and even for the determination of the sex of an embryo.

Pediatrics A branch of internal medicine, the history of pediatrics in this country is not long. Its rise and steady development until it attained the present stage of progress can be traced back to December 1889 when a chair for pediatrics was created in the then Tokyo Medical College for the first time.

When the present highly advanced state of pediatrics is compared with the days when the average school doctors effected an annual physical examination perfunctorily, the difference is indeed more than can easily be appreciated. This contrast can easily be accounted for by the fact that pediatrics in former days was confined only to the diagnosis and therapeutics of children's diseases and hardly paid any attention to the constitution, heredity, or prophylactic treatment, the last mentioned now forming a department by itself at medical colleges.

The three common diseases found among children in this country are: infantile beriberi, so called meningitis and cholera infantum. The so called meningitis baffled the medical practitioners and its exact cause remained a mystery until 1923, when Prof. Ikutaro Hirai proved that it originated from lead-poisoning or plumbism, and subsequently face powders and paints containing lead were prohibited to be produced and sold by law and as a result of the enforcement of this regulation,

this disease has been completely eradicated.

Regarding cholera infantum, while this has been studied exhaustively no concrete therapeutics or prophylaxis has been discovered as yet. The same remark also applies to infantile beriberi.

Some other subjects under deliberation in the Society of Pediatrics in this country in recent years are: auto-intoxication, periodical vomiting and bleeding. Since these diseases are native ones, the causes as well as the remedies for them will have to be discovered by the medical experts of this country.

Dermatology Meiji Era (1868-1912). The most outstanding field in medical science in this country, where brilliant researches and discoveries have been made, is perhaps dermatology, syphilology in particular. As with other departments of medical science, an equal advance began to be made with the establishment of the chair of dermatology and syphilology in the Medical Department of Tokyo Imperial University in 1890, other medical colleges throughout the country following this example later. The Society of Dermatology was established in 1900.

Simultaneously with the discovery of spirochaeta pallida in 1905, Doctors Dohi and Tanaka discovered the same spirochaeta in the cerebrospinal fluid. This together with the same discovery in the tissues of tabes dorsalis and paralysis epidemica by Hideyo Noguchi in 1913, constitute two interesting discoveries in this connection. In those days researches on experimental syphilis were also spurred on by the discovery of the virus.

It was in 1908 that reports on Wassermann's tests, which are of considerable importance in the diagnosis of syphilis, were given out by the Department of Dermatology of Tokyo Imperial University.

The discovery of salvarsan jointly by Dr. Ehrlich and Dr. Hata in 1909 caused a literal sensation in the society since it established what can be called a "blitz" therapy—maximale fröhbehandlung—in spite of many assertions to the contrary. Incidentally the injection of salvarsan and neo-salvarsan into veins was instrumental for the introduction of many medicines for intravenous injection which are being employed today.

Quite a number of dermatosis other than syphilis were discovered by the end of the Meiji era. Some notable instances in this connection are tuberculous cutis, especially lupus vulgaris, a number of tubercular exanthema, favus, impetigo, keratosis follicularis squamosa (Dohi) and pityriasis circinata (Toyama) which are all peculiar to this country.

Taisho Era (1912-1925). Upon the outbreak of the First European War (1914) and the subsequent prohibition of the export of salvarsan from Germany, numerous varieties of this medicine were produced in this country, such as, arsaminal, ehtamsol, tanvarsan, arsamid, saviol, neo-preparations and natrium preparations, which are in every way equal in their efficacy to those produced abroad.

Until the latter half of the Taisho era it was common practice to use salvarsan in combination with mercuric preparations, which eventually led to the discovery of an excellent mercuric preparation called "imanicol." Subsequently bismuth preparation was found to be as effective as mercuric preparation with less reaction and today, a combination of salvarsan and bismuth preparations is used for the cure of syphilis.

An outstanding contribution in the field of dermatological research during the era is the one by Dr. Tetsutaro Ito on chancre. He was successful in developing a vaccine by culturing the chancre bacillus, which has since proved efficacious, by hypodermic injection, in diagnosing patients of chancre.

In the meantime medicines for demopathia were also introduced, such as thionol, pityrol, glyteer, lignol, etc., and for intravenous injection there were calcium chloride, calcium bromide, strontium, strontium bromide, and hyper tension glucose solution.

On the other hand intense researches were conducted on spirochaeta stimulated in part by the discovery of spirochaeta letero-haemorrhagiae japonica in 1915 as the virus of Weil's disease by Dr. Ryukichi Inada and Dr. Yasushi Ido, and subsequently of the spirochaeta of rat-bite disease by Dr. Kenzo Futagi; simultaneously it was elucidated that both weasel-bite disease and cat-bite disease are due to the same spirochaeta.

Showa Era (1926—) The latter half of the Taisho era as well as the beginning of the Showa era witness-

ed many a brilliant report on researches on syphilis. Notable researches in other lines were various cases of immunity phenomena, rat-bite disease, virus of Weil's disease, frambesia and a number of discoveries by means of trypanosoma.

In 1926 Prof. Shoji Doi proposed to set up the standard quantum of anti-syphilitic; one cure dose of salvarsan to be fixed at five grams, and with this to be used either bismuth or mercuric preparations in combination. Subsequently, professors at some of the colleges decided to fix a definite process for this purpose based on their past experience. This later proved to tally approximately with that adopted by the League of Nations Committee in 1935 which was based on clinical experience with 25,600 patients.

In 1928 there was added to the list of venereal diseases another known as lymphogranulomatosis or the so called fourth venereal disease, and it was later discovered to the alarm of all concerned that this disease was prevailing among the people to some extent, and the annual meetings of the society in 1935 and 1936 were crowded with reports on researches conducted clinically and pathologically on this disease.

Lepers in Japan, according to the statistics of the police authorities, counted 30,000 in 1900, which decreased to 23,000 in 1906. In the following year, 1907, in view of the keen necessity of preventing the spread of the dreaded disease, the Government promulgated the law for the prevention of leprosy and built five leper colonies in Japan proper and one each in Taiwan and Chosen. A nation-wide attention was aroused by the gracious consideration of H.M. the Empress Dowager over the unfortunate patients, and both the Government and the people strove hard for the eradication of this disease. Subsequent institution of further colonies, researches, and organizations had their effect in the decrease of the patients and since 1919 the total number is running round 15,000 and those patients who are not confined in the leper colonies are less than 7,700. Mention should be made of the saintly work done by Miss Riddell who established the Kaishun Hospital at Kumamoto and Miss Legh who opened the St. Barnabas Hospital at Kusatsu. On the other hand it is regrettable that in the way of therapeutics no efficacious medicine has yet been introduced other than hydro-

carpus oil in spite of the many years of research conducted by a number of devoted scholars including Dr. Kensuke Koda, now president of the National Lepers Colony at Nagashima.

Researches on favus have a long history in this country and have been conducted by a number of experts, of which the work of Dr. Masao Ota, who conducted his researches from 1926 to 1928 and still left incomplete deserves special mention. Experimental researches on eczema and cutis have been made assiduously by Prof. Isamu Miyake of Kumamoto Medical College and his associates from 1930 to 1937 and the detailed report presented before the international medical conference held in Budapest, Hungary, won world-wide recognition.

Dermatology in Japan is closely linked with urology, and this tendency has become all the more apparent since the beginning of the Showa era and combined meetings of the two societies are being held annually in recent years.

Mention should also be made regarding the institution of the law for the prevention of venereal disease in 1927. This law, however, leaves much to be desired since it aims at the control of prostitutes alone and some further steps are generally considered essential in order to put the ill-famed disease under complete control.

Urology Urology in this country falls far behind that in the advanced countries of the West. This is borne out by the fact that there are yet a number of medical colleges where this department is not set up and run independently from other departments of medical science. The only exception is the Kyushu Imperial University, where an independent department of urology was set up in 1924 with a competent professor. At other universities and colleges while the department is nominally independent, the chair is invariably held by the professor of dermatology.

An interesting instance in connection with this subject in the past was the introduction of the rejuvenation process of Steinach by a professor at Kyushu Imperial University. With the dismissal of the professor from the university, however, the interest in the recondite process died down and its place seems to have been taken up in a way by a host of sexual hormones at present.

The pyrexia therapy was once em-

ployed against degenerative syphilis, but this too is now superseded by sulfenicamide preparations.

The outbreak of the First European War made it impossible for medical colleges and institutes in general to import some of the important medical equipment, temporarily affecting urology as other branches of medical science. This sudden suspension of imports resulted in the appearance of a number of domestic medical equipment, some notable items among them being cystoscope for inspection, incorporating many improvements over the imported ones, and Takei's instrument with steam-sterilizing device which has been found to be a very efficient outfit and contributed much towards the development of urology in this country. The same remark also applies to urethral speculums and catheters.

With the completion of diathermy apparatus in this country introduced by Dr. Masatsugu Kitagawa, Professor at Kelo University, non-malignant cases of tumors of the bladder began to be cured simply and easily, while malignant cases of tumors of the bladder or of the prostate gland are now cured by means of radon seed since the establishment of the Cancer Research Institute. As for hypertrophy of the same gland, either total or partial removal by operation was effected previously, but hormone therapy is employed extensively at present.

Anatomical researches of the urethra, especially that of the urethral gland was early conducted by Dr. Tsunesuke Sato and subsequently results of pathological researches on acute and chronic cases of gonorrhoea were published by Dr. Gotabayashi and Dr. Kusaka.

Dr. Kunihiko Hayashi and Mr. Hisayuki Kume elucidated that chyluria is caused by the outflow of the congested lymph due to *Filaria Bancrofti* and Dr. Hajime Tamura later enlightened that it can be prevented by syringing fluid medicines into the pelvis of the kidney.

Regarding pyelocystotomy, Dr. Goro Inoue devised a cystoscope for irrigation purpose and an excreting pump to be employed in combination at the time of treating the urinary calculus, replacing those cumbersome instruments from abroad.

As for pyelography the use of thorium and sugluron is proving to be quite effective, the former introduced by Dr. Koshiro Nakagawa of Okayama and the latter by the Pharmacological Depart-

ment of Tokyo Imperial University, the latter being used extensively by doctors engaged in internal medicine, surgery and gynaecology.

Another treatment evolved in this department of medical science is the saltless alimentotherapy which is proving efficacious in penis tuberculide, although it is not used in cases where operation is possible such as tuberculosis of the kidney and the epididymis. Mr. Hide Yanagiwara made it clear that this disease is not a rare occurrence in this country.

By the development of pyelography, accurate diagnosis of deformity of the kidney and the urinary passage, their abnormal positions, etc. is made possible. The transplantation or transplantation cutanea of the congenital hypospadias or injuries on penis by war is now showing good results.

In effecting an operation of the kidney total inhalation anaesthesia is now giving way to either intravenous injection or lumbar anaesthesia.

Otorhinolaryngology The otorhinolaryngology in this country, it can be confidently asserted, has now attained its prime as some 50 years have elapsed since this department was established in the military medical college in 1889 for the first time.

This branch of medical science has had a flourishing record of half a century to its credit, during which time pioneer doctors studied abroad extensively and devoted their utmost to its development. Some outstanding achievements in this connection are: vital fixation of the ear by Dr. Ushizaburo Yoshii, thus opening an outlet in the research of labyrinthine pathology; introduction of endoscopy by Dr. Inokichi Kubo; researches on labyrinthine nystagmus by researchers at Kyoto Imperial University; tonsillectomy by Dr. Kenzo Takahashi, which created a sensation among all doctors concerned in the clinic of enlarged tonsils. Incidentally among other outstanding discoveries and inventions by Dr. Kenzo Takahashi, mention may be made of the internasal plastic surgery initiated by the doctor. All internasal troubles are due, according to the doctor, to the impediment in the internasal inspiration and expiration, and all nasal troubles including diseases caused by the malformation of the nose, are now cured by his complete internasal "remodelling", which is revolutionary to say the least.

Today, in all medical colleges including those established recently in Peking, Hsinking, Harbin and Chiamussu, are found the Department of Otorhinolaryngology, each headed by youthful and learned professors. Another fact which features this line of medical science is that a large number of women physicians are engaged in this line, a feature which is perhaps peculiar to this country.

A list of special lectures delivered at the annual meetings of the society since 1920 follows: Vital fixation of the ear by Dr. Kikuma Tadokoro and others, 1920; the Nasal cavity and the accessory cavity of the Japanese by Dr. Harujiro Arai; Statistics on otorhinolaryngological patients who had previously suffered from influenza by Dr. Kyoshiro Yamakawa, and Grippe and its complications by Dr. Noboru Nakamura, 1921; Labyrinthine reflex by Dr. Teiji Hoshino, in 1922; Symptom and therapeutics of laryngeal tuberculosis by Dr. Noboru Nakamura and Dr. Tooru Kato respectively in 1923; local anaesthesia and its application in the otorhinolaryngological department by Dr. Hisashi Kosokabe, 1924; Etiology and diagnosis of otosclerosis by Dr. Yuta Hosoya and Dr. Fumio Tanaka respectively in 1925; Relation between the eyes and accessory cavity of the nose by Dr. Taneji Masuda and again on the same subject by Dr. Ryo Ishiwara, 1926; Acute case of tonsillitis and its influence on constitution by Dr. Bungo Yagisawa, 1927; Paralysis of recurrent laryngeal nerve by Dr. Shuzo Okonogi, 1928; Inflammation of the labyrinth and its complications by Dr. Keiji Torii in 1929; Deaf-mutism by Dr. Shotaro Tatsumi, 1930; Stenosis of the esophagus by Dr. Shizuo Kobayashi in 1931; Stenosis of the Eustachian tube by Dr. Gen Wanibuchi, 1932; Chronic sinusitis of the maxilla superior by Dr. Kyoshiro Yamakawa, 1933; Otorhinolaryngology and dental diseases by Dr. Mutsumi Akune and Dr. Shirokuro Endo respectively, 1934; Otogenous cerebral abscesses by Dr. Kinichi Nihonsugi, 1935; Diagnosis and therapeutics of cellulitis ethmoidalis by Dr. Kiichi Nishibata, 1936; Otitis media tuberculosis by Dr. Shigeichi Sato, 1937; Sexual phenomenon of women and its influence on otorhinolaryngological diseases by Dr. Ryoichi Matsuda, 1938; Experimental investigations on the mechanism of voice production and sound articulation by Dr. Cotaaji Satta, 1939; Facial injuries by the current war

which pertain to the otorhinolaryngological department by Dr. Tsutorau Saito and tonsillectomy and its indication by Dr. Minoru Sasaki, 1940; Mucosusotitis by Dr. Yutaka Tsuski, 1941.

Recent themes that have been added to this line of medical science are sound detection under water and the inspection of labyrinthine function following the development of the aircraft medicine.

Another notable fact is that in concert with the nationwide effort in combating tuberculosis, this department is zealously contributing its share in fighting against laryngeal tuberculosis.

Ophthalmology Survey of the past history of ophthalmology of Japan reveals at once that remarkable development in this line of medical science was seen around 1910 when lively discussions took place about the Wassermann's reaction and the therapeutic value of salvarsan.

In the pathological field informative debates were held on the relation between trachoma etiology and its granula and genesis of trachoma pannus. Oguchi's disease also attracted much attention at the annual meeting of the society in the clinical field.

The discovery by Dr. Tatsunosuke Nakamura, who was then an assistant in the Ophthalmological Department of Tokyo Imperial University, of the alarming fact that about 90 per cent of the cases of inflammation of the cornea, about one half of those of the iris, about one third of those of the retina and the choroid, one-third of the cases of the dimness of the vitreous humor and practically all cases of marasmus of the optic nerve appearing in middle-aged persons were of syphilitic origin. Salvarsan was first introduced to the society in Japan in 1909, and the subsequent few years witnessed a series of lively discussions about the advisability of applying the same in the ophthalmic field.

Oguchi's disease discovered in 1907 and subsequently proved to be a congenital non-progressive case of hemeralopia, attracted much attention in those days. Later in 1912 Prof. Gentaro Mizuo discovered that when such patients were bandaged over the eyes for a certain number of hours such blindness disappeared, and this phenomenon has since been known as Mizuo phenomenon.

Other problems of note which attracted considerable attention of the society in those days and which are yet to be solved today are one regarding Schwalbe's cavity which appears in the optic nerve of a patient suffering from glaucoma and the other concerning the pathological genesis of retinitis nephretica.

The perpetual problem of the society during the 30 years of its existence, however, has been the cause of trachoma, which still remains unsolved. Special mention must be made regarding the very laborious studies carried out by Dr. Kenjiro Kakisaka for many years which have contributed much towards the research of trachoma in this country. Another ailment which has been subjected to a long series of researches is phlyctane which is today virtually determined as being a tubercular disease.

Since 1933 the Society of Ophthalmology in Japan has been holding annual meetings, at which the following subjects were discussed: Trachoma and its therapeutics by Prof. Shinobu Ishihara at the first meeting; Eye tuberculosis by Dr. Sadao Suganuma, Professor at Kelo University, at the second meeting; Diagnosis and therapeutics of cataract by Prof. Yoshitane Shoji at the third meeting; Visible injuries of the optics by Prof. Oguchi at the fourth meeting; Operative therapeutics of the ablatio retinae by Prof. Tatsunosuke Mori at the fifth meeting; Glaucoma, its diagnosis and therapeutics by Prof. Naoki Kumagai at the sixth meeting; Sympathetic inflammation of the eye by Prof. Bumpel Nakamura at the seventh meeting; and at the eighth meeting held last year Prof. Bumpel Hata explained the results of his research on epidemic meningitis with particular reference to its optical aspect. These will show incidentally the recent trend in the ophthalmic science in this country.

Roentgenology The sphere which the physical treatment involves is as extensive as it is diversified from the primitive sun-bath or insolation and massage treatment to the medical application of neutron! While roentgenology constitutes the mainstay of researches in this line of medical science, it also includes incidentally therapeutics of many other kinds: radiotherapy, electrotherapy, osteopathy, hydrotherapy, balneotherapy and climatotherapy.

The Society of Roentgenology was established in November 1922 through the enthusiastic efforts of Doctors Kashinori Tashiro, Shichiro Hida, Kazuhiro Manabe and Goichi Fujinami, and at the initial meeting held the following year, 1923, the following lectures were delivered: Spectrum of X-rays by Dr. Masaji Nishikawa and installation of hydrotherapeutic equipment by Dr. Kazuhiro Manabe.

Since 1928 Japan has been represented by delegates sent by both the Government and the society at the International Congress of Radiology, where these representatives explained the development of the science in this country and learned at the same time of the progress made in this science in other countries.

Kelo University was the first in establishing an independent department of roentgenology in this country, headed by Prof. Goichi Fujinami, since it was established simultaneously with the opening of the Medical Department in the university in 1920. Subsequently the department was established in other medical colleges in close succession.

Another fact of importance in connection with roentgenology in this country is that in March 1940, commemorating the 2600th anniversary of the founding of this empire, the two societies, the Society of Roentgenology in Japan and the Society of Radiology in Japan, each having a brilliant history in their contribution towards the development of the science, were merged into one composite society called the Society of Medical Radiology in Japan.

Psychoneurology While the recent development in this department of medical science has been remarkable, it was literally a thorny path for the early pioneers in this department, namely, Dr. Shuzo Kure, Dr. Yasusaburo Sakaki, Dr. Saburo Matsubara, Dr. Seima Morita and Dr. Junjiro Shinnaka. Especially the meritorious work of Dr. Morita was outstanding. Teaching at Tokyo Jikeikai Medical College for 30 years, he defined neurasthenia and established his own therapeutics. That he shunned the transplantation of foreign theories and established his own therapeutics of world-wide fame is a matter of the highest congratulation in the medical history of the nation.

A close survey of the course of

development in this department, makes one readily perceive that there are two factors which feature psychoneurology in this country, one is the increasing trend of combining psychiatry with neurology, the two making a close and harmonious whole, and the other is the initiation of researches being carried along independently and the use of new medicines, as for instance the employment of insulin which was first attempted at Kyushu Imperial University and pre-dates the use of the same abroad for a different purpose; the use of gonovaccine in the treatment of paralysis generalis progressiva, vesanorum, was first attempted at the Inokashira Hospital; the practice of electroblitz therapy against dementia praecox at Kyushu Imperial University quite independently from that initiated in Italy.

The activities by the scholars in this line of medical science are not confined to the therapeutics as will be seen by the reports rendered by Dr. Maki Takata and Dr. Ara at the first meeting of the Medical Congress in the Far East; on encephalitis by Dr. Masaji Hayashi and Dr. Tokushiro Mitamura, on autonomous nerve system by Dr. Ken Kure; and on tension of the muscles by Dr. Tsurayuki Sasa and Dr. Seizo Katsunuma. Valuable contribution is expected to be made along the lines of social psychiatry, industrial psychiatry and efficiency psychiatry, all being recent additions which will enable the researchers in their work.

Dentistry Dentistry in this country has made a unilateral development quite apart from other departments of medical science. The fact that by the end of December 1940, the total number of dentists registered in this country numbered 28,786, clearly indicates that dentists by far outnumber physicians in other branches of medical science. This state of affairs is largely due to a number of colleges exclusively devoted to the education of dentists, both male and female, although not enough college have research departments to study for instance the problems connected with dentistry in general, relation with other diseases, diseases arising from platano-nasal surgery, surgical prosthesis, etc. The fact that there are only 12 medical colleges in this country where dentistry department is installed explains the situation in this department of medical science. It is greatly hoped by those awakened to the problem

to devise ways and means to solve the present situation and make dentistry attain a wholesome and well-balanced state of development.

In November 1940, under the auspices of all dental colleges a joint conference was held in Tokyo, and in view of the successful results attained on the occasion, it was unanimously decided at the meeting to hold such joint conference every four years.

Doctor's Degrees

Doctorates awarded up to March 1941 are listed below:

Doctor of	Awarded		Total for Apr. 1927- Mar. 1941
	In 1939	In 1940	
Law	10	5	100
Medicine	1,097	919	12,837
Pharmacology	7	4	90
Technology	47	48	579

Doctor of	Awarded		Total for Apr. 1927- Mar. 1941
	In 1939	In 1940	
Literature	11	10	171
Science	66	67	692
Agriculture	28	21	358
Forestry	2	1	18
Veterinary surgery	0	0	8
Economics	6	10	74
Commerce	2	1	25
Political science	0	0	2
Total	1,276	1,086	14,954

Note:—Figures for April 1927-March 1941 include also those awarded during the 3 months of 1941.

Figures are for doctors under the new law. The number of those who received doctor's degree under the old law during the years between 1888 and 1932 was 2,047.

CHAPTER XXXIII

PRESS AND PUBLICATIONS

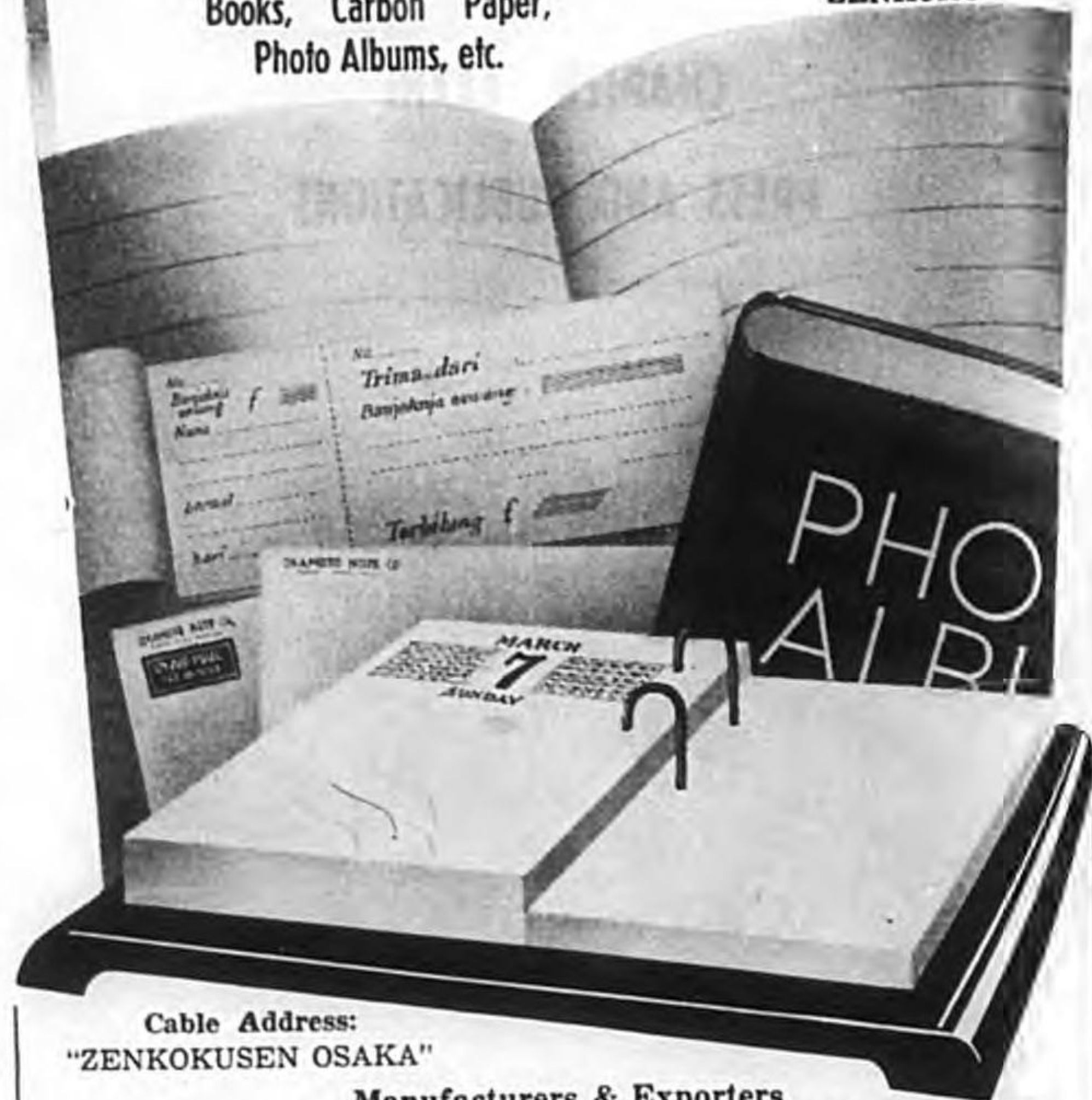
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CHAPTER XXXIII

PRESS AND PUBLICATIONS

Press

Early History

Yomiuri Even in Old Japan some form of public announcement was issued from time to time, like the Acta Diurna of the era of the Roman Empire, but perhaps the history of newspaper publications in this country may be said to begin with the Yomiuri, the oldest semblance of the newspaper, the word "Yomiuri" meaning literally "reading food and selling." The Yomiuri sheets were so named because the vendor read aloud the contents of the newspaper on the street while soliciting buyers. The Yomiuri sheets were essentially the Flugblatt of the Middle Ages of Europe. They consisted of single printed sheets, or pamphlets of several pages, recording the latest events of the period. Even in those days the progress of wood-block prints permitted the appearance of illustrations in the sheets. In many cases the illustrations were the outstanding feature, and the descriptive matter was of secondary importance. In this respect the Yomiuri differed from the Flugblatt of Europe.

Yasetsugaki Another equivalent of the modern newspaper, in addition to the Yomiuri, was a periodical named "Yasetsugaki" or Book of Reports, which carried foreign news.

Precursor of Modern Paper When provincial clans requested that the Yasetsugaki be made public by the Shogunate government's Yoshokan, or Bureau for the Study of Western Learning, agreed and planned to publish it. This plan did not materialize, however, as the Dutch government then replaced the book with newspapers. Instead, the bureau translated the newspapers into Japanese and published them for general circulation. This was the precursor of the modern newspaper in Japan.

Not content with this Dutch newspaper, the Shogunate government continued to translate and publish other newspapers from Holland and imported Chinese-language newspapers publish-

ed by white Christian evangelists in Hongkong, Shanghai and other places, and had them not only translated and annotated but printed and bound into books and entrusted Hyoshiro Yorozya, a book purveyor to the Shogunate government, with the public sale of these books.

In general printing wooden types were used. For printing these Chinese newspapers imposition was adopted and for this purpose the Shogunate government had to establish a special department for type foundry. This enterprise was a reflection of the out-and-out principle the Shogunate government adopted for opening the country to foreign intercourse. Those books were chiefly published during the era of Bunkyo (1861-64). Hence they were popularly called Bunkyo Shimbun (newspaper).

Papers in Yokohama Foreign residents of Yokohama translated foreign-language newspapers and published them in Japanese and they were patronized by those who favored opening the country to foreign intercourse. Men on the staff of the Bureau for the Study of Western Learning had an eye on foreign affairs and established a new institution for the purpose of translating into Japanese articles dealing with Japan which appeared in the English-language newspapers in Yokohama, such as the Japan Commercial News and Japan Times.

Those translations were not printed but written by scribes and circulated among interested persons. The years during which this was done extended from 1863 to 1865. Foreign residents of Yokohama also published three Japanese-language newspapers, Kaigai Shimbun (Foreign Newspaper), Bankoku Shimbun (International Newspaper) and Rondon Shimbun (London Newspaper).

Of these three, the Bankoku Shimbun had in its contents not only information from abroad but news of Yokohama and comment on the English-

language newspapers of Yokohama; it introduced ideas of British civilization and carried many advertisements. This journal was edited ably in a characteristic style and published monthly. From this time general progress in newspaper-making was noticeable.

The Restoration In Japan, as in other countries, the demand for foreign news was a great incentive for the birth of newspapers. The internal disturbances prior to the Restoration and the great aftermath of the historic event afforded an opportunity for the press to develop in all aspects—thereby laying the foundation for the press in the modern sense of the term.

The Press Law

The press law in Japan was enforced by the Government for the first time in February 1869. This was the signal for several new newspapers to spring up. The Government, however, interfered so much with the press that sales of newspapers were much hindered and the healthy progress of the press was checked. While the business side of the press was dull, editing itself attained notable progress. Political news had become unusually constructive and efforts were made to establish a new civilization and propagate new and advanced ideas among the people.

Modern Papers

The Yokohama Mainichi The first Japanese daily newspaper of the modern kind appeared in December 1870, with the publication of the Yokohama Mainichi Shimbun. The newspaper consisted of a single sheet of foreign-style paper with printing done with lead types. In outside appearance it had the semblance of the modern newspaper. Although its contents were much inferior to those of the newspapers that were founded later in Tokyo, it resembled English-language newspapers in that it carried many advertisements.

More Papers Born The year 1872 saw the birth of several more dailies, newspapers which were more perfect in appearance and reading matter than their predecessors. Those newspapers included the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, Yubin Hochi Shimbun, and the Nisshin Shinjishi, the last being edited under the supervision of Mr. Black, formerly editor of the Japan Herald. The Nichi

Nichi and Hochi remain to this day but the Shinjishi had to change hands in 1875 when the Government, in an effort to bring pressure to bear upon democratic newspapers, controlled the activities of foreigners in newspapers. The change of ownership brought decadence to the journal and the paper was discontinued shortly afterwards.

Government and Press

Era of Draconic Press Law An era of drastic gag rule dawned upon Japan's journalism in 1875 when the government, dissatisfied with the way in which the press in general stirred up the discontented elements of the people, revised the press law with the avowed purpose of curbing the influence of the newspapers. Severe punishment was provided for violation of the press law. Journalists writing articles censuring the government were fined or imprisoned. Indeed, this was the first time journalists in Japan were exposed to punishment. Not content with this drastic legislation, the government in July 1877, invested the Home Minister with power to suppress newspapers or delay their publication, and gave him full discretionary powers to curb newspapers as he saw fit. This objectionable law worked havoc with the press, whose progress was much hampered thereby.

The era in which newspapers served as political party organs began in 1881. Two years earlier a movement in favor of instituting the Diet had been launched by the late Taisuké Itagaki and others.

Revised Press Law The government's desperate policy of oppression toward the liberals of the period, which resulted in the prohibition of the formation of political associations and the oppression of newspapers and magazines, came to a definite halt on December 26, 1880, with the enforcement of a new government decree. Two days later a revised press law was issued, considerably modifying the strict control of the press which had had the effect of almost terminating all the free political organs of the country. The new press law was drafted on the basis of the principle of "freedom of the press," recognized in the Japanese Constitution which was to be promulgated shortly. The new press law was received with joy by journalistic circles with much satisfaction.

Don. Indeed, the modified press law marks a turning point in the history of the development of the modern newspaper in this country.

Whereas under the old law a prospective publisher had to apply for a permit to start a newspaper, by the new regulations he had only to notify the authorities of his intention to issue a journal. The prefectural governor was shorn of his power to suppress newspapers or confiscate the newspaper plants and only the Home Minister was given such power. Unreserved criticism for public good was admitted, and compared with the despotic gag rule that had prevailed before, newspaper management under the new law became markedly free.

Emergence of Independent Dailies

The approaching promulgation of the Constitution, coupled with the removal of the ban on the formation of political associations and the growing political enthusiasm among the people, revived political newspapers. In the meantime, the Diet was instituted and the majority of the best-known editors of influential newspapers were elected to the legislature. As a natural consequence, these editors made use of their newspapers as their political tools and alienated public sympathy. Their popularity showed a decided tendency to wane.

The Kokumin and Yoroza While the political organs were thus losing influence, a strictly politically-independent newspaper which refused to cater to the popular taste but which took upon itself the responsibility to instruct the public was founded and caught the fancy of the intellectuals of the day. Its editing, however, was of the old style and this newspaper failed to capture the popular imagination. In the year 1890 Heihiro Tokutomi founded the Kokumin Shimbun, a popular newspaper. This journal enjoyed the support of the masses and soon other papers more or less imitated the style of editing inaugurated by the Kokumin.

In 1892 the late Shuroku Kuroiwa founded the Yoroza Choho, which added to the Kokumin's style of editing a strong spice of sensationalism, devoting much of its space to the publication of detective and love stories. The Yoroza invaded the fields of the Miyako Shimbun, Yamato Shimbun and other newspapers then having the largest cir-

ulation. Thus, the promulgation of the Constitution served to bring about marked progress in the development of modern journalism.

Chinese War and the Press The Sino-Japanese War (1894-5) caused severe competition in news reporting. The Osaka Asahi Shimbun, by introducing new features in covering war news, greatly increased the number of its subscribers. In Tokyo the Chuo Shimbun, closely affiliated with the military, was conspicuous for its activities in the issuance of extras and consequently gained an enlarged circulation. Other papers also sent war correspondents and featured news from the front. The Yoroza was the most popular newspaper in those days, having a circulation of 50,000. The war was also responsible for the appearance of influential provincial newspapers, including the Fukuoka Nichi Nichi Shimbun in Kyushu, the Shin Aichi in Nagoya, the Kahoku Shimpō in Sendai and the Hokkai Times in Hokkaido.

After the Russo-Japanese War

Catering to the Public Following the Sino-Japanese War the majority of the newspapers in Tokyo adopted a non-partisan attitude toward politics and concentrated their efforts in gaining popularity. To advance their sales they resorted to means which often savored of vulgarity and received public criticism. The city of Osaka witnessed a keen rivalry between the Asahi and the Mainichi not only in business but in news gathering. In the meantime, the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5) occurred to start keen competition in war coverage. The Asahi both in Tokyo and Osaka, the Osaka Mainichi and the Jiji Shimpō competed severely in the matter of extras and increased their circulation. The Russo-Japanese peace treaty was signed at Portsmouth, but the peace terms were found unsatisfactory and were stoutly opposed by all the newspapers of Tokyo and Osaka, except the Kokumin and the Chuo, both of Tokyo, the political organs of the government of the day. Anti-peace mass demonstrations were held in Tokyo and Osaka, and in Tokyo the demonstrators, incited by inflammatory articles in one or two newspapers, turned into a mob and attacked the building of the Kokumin Shimbun. To suppress the rioters the government had to pro-

claim martial law. The government simultaneously issued an urgent Imperial Ordinance and suspended the publication of the newspapers for certain periods which incited the public to violence. During the month following the enforcement of the Imperial Ordinance the Yorozu, the Niroku, the Miyako, the Nihon, the Jimmin, the Asahi of Tokyo and Osaka, and other papers were suspended. Of these papers, the Niroku and the Osaka Asahi suffered suspension twice in a month.

Equilibrium of Influence The panic in the newspaper world thus brought about upset the equilibrium of influence. The Kokumin lost much of its circulation; so did the Chuo. The Yorozu, with a special appeal to the youth of Japan increased its circulation markedly. In Osaka the Mainichi took advantage of the suspension of publication which the Asahi suffered and invaded its unfortunate yet heretofore superior competitor's field, with the result that finally their influence in business and other respects became about even.

Motion Picture Utilized Several changes for the better were effected following the Russo-Japanese War, and it is noteworthy that the changes effected were all concerned with newspaper enterprises. The Kokumin, which had suffered a dwindling popularity since the paper became the object of public censure by supporting the government that signed a "humiliating peace treaty," issued provincial editions, an example which was soon followed by other newspapers. Shortly afterward the Hochi attained success by issuing an evening edition. This ambitious enterprise was also followed by several other competitors.

As regards the contents of newspapers, the Yorozu reported all sorts of sports and amusements; the Asahi brightened its pages with articles from the pen of famous men of letters like the late Soseki Natsumé, and the Hochi established a precedent by carrying a novel in serial form that suited home reading. On the business side, the Hochi took the initiative in establishing provincial branches. The Yamato promoted an exhibition and began a motion picture demonstration show throughout the country.

That these enterprises attained favorable results soon showed in the increased number of circulation. According to reports considered reliable, the Osaka

Asahi topped the list with 350,000. The Osaka Mainichi came next with 300,000 and the other papers came in the following order: the Hochi, 200,000; the Yorozu, the Kokumin and the Yamato each 150,000; the Tokyo Asahi, 80,000, and the others 30,000 or 40,000 each.

In the Taisho Era

Expansion of Business One notable advance made by the press of Japan during the Taisho Era was the remarkable expansion of newspaper business. All first-class journals erected imposing structures for their offices and installed expensive high-speed presses. By the end of the era all the leading newspapers in Tokyo and Osaka had become public corporations with their capitalizations exceeding the ¥1,000,000 mark.

The earthquake and fire of 1923 reduced to ashes the majority of the newspapers in Tokyo, except the Hochi, Nichi Nichi and Miyako. Of the unfortunate sufferers, those financially well off made a good start and soon recovered their former positions, but those less financially favored failed to raise their heads again and had to remain content with insignificant positions. At present the Osaka Asahi and Osaka Mainichi claim more than 1,300,000 copies paid circulation each, and some of the leading papers in Tokyo also claim a daily circulation of a million copies. It is not an exaggeration to say that the achievements made by the press of Japan after the dawn of the Showa era (1926), are a high-water mark of Japan's modern culture.

Newspapers Today

In circulation, news service and public influence the Osaka Asahi and Osaka Mainichi, with their head office in Osaka enjoy a position admittedly superior to all other contemporaries. They have their respective sister papers in Tokyo, the Tokyo Asahi and Tokyo Nichi Nichi. Recently, the Yomiuri, one of the oldest newspapers published in the capital, has come to a close second in circulation and news service.

The two Osaka papers divide the country with their two Tokyo sister papers with Shizuoka as the dividing line. The Osaka edition covers the western part of Japan, Shikoku, Kyushu, Chosen, Taiwan, Manchoukuo, China and other southern regions. The Tokyo edition covers the areas east of Tokyo up to

Hokkaido and Karafuto (the southern half of Saghalien). This system of division seems to have been generally adopted by other Tokyo papers.

Other well-known dailies which exercise considerable influence in respective districts are the following: The Yomiuri, Hochi, Chugai Shogyo, and Miyako, published in Tokyo; The Kahoku Shinpo of Sendai; The Shinano Mainichi of Nagano; The Shinichi and Nagoya Shinbun published in Nagoya; The Fukuoka Nichi Nichi of Fukuoka.

Since the Manchurian incident all dailies in Japan have made a definite swing in the direction of a nationalistic outlook, looking at the various problems from a strictly nationalistic point of view. Japan's continental policy is being given much prominence and the pioneering spirit given full support. The press unanimously upheld Japan's policy of extending her influence to the continent and, to that end, forming an alliance with the newly born Empire of Manchoukuo.

China Affair The outbreak of the China Affair (1937) brought about a decided change in the press, both in its physical and moral aspects. On account of the stringent control of paper pulp, the supply of newsprint was rationed while many dailies, weeklies and monthlies had to amalgamate or discontinue publication. All dailies have reduced the number of pages; the noon edition has been given up and, with rare exceptions, the Sunday evening edition has been discarded. The size of advertisements has been reduced and the full page advertisements for toilet articles, department stores, etc. which used to be common formerly have disappeared altogether.

Censorship is enforced with greater vigilance but the press is voluntarily cooperating with the authorities in censoring news and reports that have close bearing upon the military operations and the general policy of carrying out the basic purpose of the China affair.

Greater East Asia War With the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War on December 8, 1941, the press launched forth a large scale system of news gathering much greater than for the China Affair. Picked correspondents and cameramen were dispatched with major army units and quite a number of them were killed in action, while braving

the danger of enemy fire for gathering news.

One peculiar feature regarding the daily newspapers in Japan is the absence of the Sunday edition such as is seen in the United States. The edition on Sundays is the same as that on other weekdays. The traditional custom among the Japanese to spend the Sundays, as far as possible, out of doors for recreational purposes may largely account for the lack of Sunday editions.

(See "The Press in Wartime Japan," Contemporary Japan, April 1940 number).

Number of Newspapers

The number of daily newspapers in Japan proper at the end of April 1941, was 454. In addition, there were on the same day 340 newspapers issued 4 times or more a month and 2,984 newspapers issued 3 times a month or less. All these 3,778 papers come under the category of "newspapers" and are so treated by the Government.

Since 1938 the Government strengthened the control of newspapers and advised the publishers of petty dailies to discontinue their publication, in view of the shortage of newsprint and other reasons. The following tables reveal the result of such control in 1938 and 1939.

NUMBER OF DAILY PAPERS

According to Districts in 1937-1941

Districts	1937	1938	1941
Northern prefectures			
Hokkaido	76	62	27
Aomori	12	11	7
Iwaté	14	14	5
Miyagi	15	16	5
Akita	7	7	5
Yamagata	12	11	5
Fukushima	38	28	3
Prefectures around Tokyo			
Ibaraki	19	9	4
Tochigi	15	10	6
Gumma	14	13	2
Saitama	7	7	1
Chiba	14	12	1
Tokyo	254	238	146
Kanagawa	19	20	7
Prefectures facing the Japan Sea			
Niigata	23	20	5
Toyama	7	6	2
Ishikawa	10	10	5
Fukui	14	12	4

District	1937	1938	1941	District	1937	1938	1941
Prefectures in Central Main Island				Prefectures in Shikoku			
Yamanashi	8	7	2	Okayama	10	10	5
Nagano	40	38	7	Hiroshima	17	18	9
Shizuoka	62	56	6	Yamaguchi	17	17	11
Prefectures around Nagoya				Prefectures in Kyushu			
Gifu	12	12	4	Tokushima	4	3	2
Aichi	74	61	37	Kagawa	3	2	1
Mie	16	16	8	Ehime	20	17	9
Prefectures around Osaka				Prefectures in Kyushu			
Shiga	18	17	2	Fukuoka	56	40	14
Kyoto	31	33	12	Saga	6	4	2
Osaka	95	90	40	Nagasaki	10	10	6
Hyogo	48	48	14	Kumamoto	7	6	3
Nara	9	9	1	Oita	32	32	2
Wakayama	19	18	6	Miyazaki	13	12	1
Prefectures in Western Main Island				Prefectures in Kyushu			
Tottori	3	4	1	Kagoshima	6	5	3
Shimane	2	2	2	Okinawa	6	6	2
				Total	1,208	1,103	454

YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF PERIODICALS IN JAPAN PROPER

Total Sum	With Guarantee Money			Without Guarantee Money		
	Total	Daily	4 Times Monthly or More	Total	Daily	4 Times Monthly or More
1932	11,118	6,301	1,124	4,714	4,817	206
1933	11,860	6,678	1,179	5,038	5,182	210
1934	12,166	7,081	1,219	470	5,084	215
1935	12,101	7,180	1,222	506	4,921	219
1936	12,820	7,531	1,226	564	5,289	209
1937	13,268	7,797	1,208	609	5,471	214
1938	12,043	7,739	1,103	619	4,304	176
1939	8,676	5,977	815	486	2,699	113
1940	8,124	5,654	767	478	2,479	—
1941	5,190	3,778	454	340	2,984	—

Note: Publications that discuss political questions must deposit a certain amount of "guarantee money" with the authorities, otherwise they are forbidden to publish anything referring to politics. A magazine devoted to purely literary matters does not come under this regulation.

Official Gazette

The Government publishes "Kan Po," or Official Gazette, daily, excepting Sundays and national holidays, and it has a wide circulation, for example, 16,915,704 in 1939. It issues also "Shuho" or a weekly with over a million subscriptions.

Circulation

Circulation Unpublished The circulation of daily newspapers in Japan ranges from about 4,000 to about 1,500,000. Japanese newspapers do not publish exact circulation figures. What is believed to be a comparatively accurate estimate of the daily circulation of more than 800 newspapers is 19,000,000. In

1937 the average monthly consumption of paper by all newspapers amounted to over 800,000,000 lbs. The number of households in Japan is over 17,500,000. Newspapers are far more widely read in cities than in the provinces and they are read more in commercial and industry districts than in agricultural districts.

Tokyo has the largest number of daily newspapers, and the more powerful ones are a well-defined force in society. Among them are the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, the Yomiuri-Hochi Shimbun, the Tokyo Shimbun, and the Nippon Sangyo Keizai.

Osaka City has a relatively small number of daily papers, 40 in all, but, as

regards circulation, the Osaka Asahi which is the head office of the Tokyo Asahi, and the Osaka Mainichi, which controls the Tokyo Nichi Nichi, predominate all, and their circulation is said to be nearly the same. The two papers have practically the whole of Western Japan under their control, and their influence is felt stronger in Kyushu districts by the publication of the "Kyushu Asahi" and the "Western Mainichi" commenced in February 1935.

Estimated Circulation Estimated circulation of leading dailies in Japan is as follows:

Tokyo	
Tokyo Asahi	1,100,000
Tokyo Nichi Nichi	1,000,000
Yomiuri-Hochi	1,000,000
Nippon Sangyo Keizai	150,000
Tokyo Shimbun	700,000

Osaka	
Osaka Asahi	1,300,000
Osaka Mainichi	1,200,000
Leading Provincial Papers	
Shin-ichi, Nagoya	200,000
Fukuoka Nichi Nichi, Fukuoka	180,000
Hokkai Times, Sapporo	100,000
Kahoku Shimpō, Sendai	100,000

Subscriptions Subscription fees of Japanese daily papers in large cities range from ¥1.00 to ¥1.50. Airplanes are used for transportation of newspapers between Osaka and Fukuoka, but in most cases it is done by trains and electric cars.

Magazines

Many and varied are the periodicals, mostly monthlies, published in this country. A casual visit to a book-stall or the book section of any of our department stores, will give one some indication of the amount of mental pabulum provided to the masses by this type of publication. Statistics show that in 1940 the number of magazines including monthlies, semi-monthlies and quarterlies published in Japan totalled 1,970.

The more serious periodicals intended primarily for intellectuals deal with a wide range of subjects including social problems, science, literature, sports, as well as political and economic subjects. There are four or five magazines both in respect of size and contents,

catering to the intellectual class of people, and every one of them has the thickness of a fairly big volume, containing from 500 to 600 pages in octavo. What is more, these magazines become stouter still at least four times a year when special numbers are issued. So far as the number of pages is concerned, these monthlies most probably stand in a class by themselves in the whole world.

These magazines publish, among other things, detailed reports of news relating to political and economic problems, and frank comments by experts on such problems. Besides, every one of these journals contains, as a rule, a treatise or two of topical interest, usually examinations, from various points of view such as political, philosophical, religious, and literary, of some of the heritages of Japan's past which remained ignored while the country was busy transplanting Western civilization to her soil.

Another feature of these periodicals is that a large number of contributors write for each issue. The number averages about 45, of which from one-third to one-half are generally considered as first-rate writers of the day. The writings of these men, excellent both in substance and style, make an attractive feature in any magazine.

Another feature of these monthlies is the large space devoted to short stories and dramas by rising authors. Each issue contains as a rule three or four feature stories or dramas, and in the case of a special number anything from five to seven. Short-story writing has been and still is occupying an important place in the literary field in this country. One of the cogent reasons for the healthy growth of this branch of literature in this country may be sought in the great favor shown by magazine editors to young writers able but unknown to fame. It has been the custom ever since the Meiji era for almost all literary efforts by writers, who have since become famous in the literary world to be introduced to the public first through the pages of magazines of a serious nature.

These serious magazines have a limited circulation of from 30,000 to 70,000 each. Magazines which have a larger circle of readers are those catering to the tastes of the masses, young and old, and those edited primarily for the fair sex.

There are about five popular maga-

zines that are reported to have a combined monthly circulation of more than 1,500,000. As might be expected, editors of such magazines are out to put in that may be regarded as representative stories calculated to move the reader to tears or tickle his or her sense of humor. Here is a vast scope for popular writers of tales replete with those deeds of derring-do which reflect the ethos of the feudal days. Sentimental love stories by popular novelists are hailed with great delight. The Edgar Wallaces and Wodehouses of Japan find in these journals a great demand for their thrilling and side-splitting stories.

Keeping pace with these journals in point of popularity are women's magazines. They contain, among other things, articles on social problems previously touched upon in newspapers, such as the love affairs concerning film stars, cases of double suicide, scandals of noted ladies and many other sensational topics. Space is not allotted to sensationalism alone. A great deal of space is also devoted to articles on conventional things, such as hints on cookery, sewing and the care of babies—rehashed and repeated year in and year out—as well as romances by popular writers.

Another remarkable thing about all these popular journals was that whenever special numbers are issued, generally three times a year, two or three extra volumes, running up to 200 pages each, are thrown in as a token of gratitude to the reader. But the publication of extra volumes has come to a stop in 1941, on account of the Governmental control of the distribution of printing paper and the control of publications in general by the Japan Publication Association (see "Publications" in this chapter).

Of the monthly magazines described above, those of a serious nature generally see the issues of the following month out on or about the 19th of the preceding month, popular magazines much earlier, that is, about the 10th. As soon as they are out a half-page advertisement, showing the contents with subjects and names of writers of feature articles printed in large type, is inserted for two or three days in the principal newspapers.

There are at present (April 1941) 9,424 varieties of monthly journals in Japan.

Of these 2,804 are on sale in Tokyo. Below are given figures representing some of the principal magazines:

Magazines (serious)	250
Magazines (light)	58
Women's magazines	25
Young men's magazines	95
Juvenile magazines	30

LIST OF PRINCIPAL PERIODICALS

Politics and literature:

Chuo Koron (Central Review)
 Kaiso (Reconstruction)
 Nippon Hyoron (Japanese Review)
 Bungel Shunju (Literary Review)
 Sozo (Creation)

Politics and law

Sokai Chishiki (World Knowledge)
 Shakaisisaku Jiho (Social Policy Review)

Kokusai Chishiki and Hyoron (International Knowledge)

Gaiko Jiho (Diplomatic Review)

Kakushin (Renovation)

Hogaku Shimpō (Science of Law)

Finance and Economic Magazines:

Toyo Keizai Shimpō (Oriental Economic Review)

Economist

Diamond

Keizai Chishiki (Economic Knowledge)

Keizai (Economy)

Zaisei (Finance)

Honpo Zokai Josel (Economic Conditions of the Country)

Kokusai Graph (International Graph)

Popular Magazines:

King

Hinodé (Rising Sun)

Kodan Kurabu (Kodan Story Magazine)

Gendai (Present Generation)

All Yomimono (All Stories)

Hanashi (Story)

Shinseinen (New Young Generation)

Tairiku (Continent)

Literary Magazines:

Bungel (Literary arts)

Bungaku (Literature)

Bungakukai (Literary World)

Bungakusha (Men of Letters)

Shincho (New Tide)

Araragi, a waka magazine

Hototogisu, a haiku magazine

Butai (Stage)

Women's Magazines:

Fujin Koron (Women's Review)

Fujin Kurabu (Women's Club)

Shufu-no Tomo (Friend of Ladies)

Fujin-no Tomo (Women's Friend)

Press Organizations

The Federation of Newspapers was established on May 15, 1941, as a juridical person. The number of member publishers reached 110 in July. The first president of the Federation is Tokichi Tanaka of the Chugai Shogyo. The purpose of the Federation is to effect autonomous control of daily papers in all matters of publication, reports and discussions, training of correspondents and distribution of printing paper.

Shunjukai; founded 1903; a social club of newspaper editors, magazine writers and correspondents in Tokyo.

Niju-Ichi-Nichi-Kai; founded 1926; members include editorial directors, managers, news editors and others holding responsible positions on the editorial staffs of newspapers.

The Federation of Newspapermen and News Agency Reporters; founded 1931; consists of 46 newspapermen's and news agency reporters' clubs at various governmental institutions and economic or financial bodies.

News Agencies

The Shimbun Rengo Tsushin Sha was merged with the Nippon Dempo Tsushin Sha (June 1, 1936) and became known as the Domei Tsushin Sha. It is organized by 200 Japanese daily newspapers on a non-profit making system, on the same lines as the Associated Press in America, and its directorate is represented by leading dailies and the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan.

The Domei maintains close relations with representative news agencies abroad, and their correspondents in Tokyo have offices in the Domei building. It handles domestic and foreign news, news reels, news photos, overseas radio service.

The Nippon Dempo remains a purely advertising agency.

Schools of Journalism

Waseda, Meiji and Jochi universities maintain their schools of journalism since early 1930's. Tokyo Imperial University opened a similar school as a section of the Faculty of Literature in 1932. Lecturers in the Tokyo Imperial journalism course include noted men of experience in the active press work. The Newspaper School (Shimbun Gakuin), founded by Shinjiro Yamano, of the Kokumin Shimbun, sent out its first 40 graduates in December 1932.

College Papers

Tokyo Imperial and Waseda universities issue a weekly of their own; Keio and Kyoto Imperial universities a bi-monthly; Meiji and Kansai universities a monthly, all in Japanese and edited by students of journalism. Waseda publishes a monthly newspaper, The Waseda Guardian; Tokyo Imperial University an annual edition, both in English. Kwansel Gakuin used to publish The Gakuin Observer (also in English) twice a year but is temporarily suspended.

Foreign Language Publications

The Nagasaki Shipping List and Advertiser, a weekly, first issued in Nagasaki in 1861 by a resident Britisher, named Hansard, was the first foreign language newspaper published in Japan. He soon moved to Yokohama where he continued the publication, in December of the same year, under the name of the Japan Herald. He employed another Britisher named Black as its editor.

The Japan Herald was soon followed by a weekly, in 1863, known as the Commercial News, edited by a Portuguese. The Japan Herald, in October of the same year, started, in addition to the weekly, a daily, featuring advertisements. In 1865 the Commercial News was discontinued and a certain banker Rickerby bought the equipment and started The Japan Times in September of the same year. (This publication has no connection whatever with the daily of the same name published in Tokyo).

A dispute arose in the Japan Herald in 1867 between its editor Black and the new owner, and Mr. Black left the paper and started the Japan Gazette, an evening paper. The popularity of the Japan Gazette was so great that it eventually forced the Japan Times out of business.

Shortly after the disappearance of the Japan Times, Captain Brinkley, a Britisher, started the Japan Mail. It enjoyed a large patronage among Japanese and foreign residents and after the death of Captain Brinkley was run by his son, the paper having moved, in the meantime, from Yokohama to Tokyo. In 1914 the Japan Mail was merged with the Japan Times, the paper being known since then as the Japan Times & Mail.

There was another English language newspaper, the Japan Express, edited by an American, which first appeared in 1860. The copies of the paper were

hand-written, engraved in wood blocks and printed. The name of this American and the duration of time the paper was published are unknown but a diplomatic document in the possession of the French Government records that this journal represented American interests.

There were also a French newspaper, *L'Echo du Japon*, in the Kelo era (1865-68), an English magazine, the *Japan Punch* which was started in the Bunkyo era (1861-64) and lasted for 20 years, and a French magazine of caricatures, "*Tobaye*." These foreign papers served to stimulate, directly or indirectly, the birth and growth of modern newspapers in Japan.

Mention should be made of the *Nagasaki Press*, one of the oldest foreign language newspapers, the *Kobe Herald*, and the *Yokohama Gazette*. They kept up a heroic struggle but eventually discontinued. The earthquake of 1923 dealt a death blow to them financially.

The *Japan Times*, started in 1900, sponsored by leading statesmen and businessmen, under the editorship of Motosada Zumoto, may be considered the oldest daily in English (or in any foreign language) in Japan. It was launched with the purpose of presenting correct information about Japan to the world and has been carrying on with increasing success. Its name was changed to the *Japan Times & Mail* when it was amalgamated with the *Japan Mail* in 1914. About that time, Mr. Zumoto left the *Times*. The name of the paper was again changed to the *Japan Times and Advertiser* when it combined with the *Japan Advertiser* in 1940.

The *Osaka Mainichi*, English edition, was begun by the *Osaka Mainichi* in Osaka with the same purpose as the *Japan Times*, in 1922. A year later, in April 1923, the *Tokyo Nichi Nichi*, English edition, was started in the *Tokyo Nichi Nichi* building, a sister paper of the *Osaka Mainichi*. The following year, it was transferred to Osaka and fused together with the *Osaka Mainichi*, becoming known as the *Osaka Mainichi & Tokyo Nichi Nichi*.

The *Japan Advertiser* and *Japan Chronicle* were both foreign-owned dailies of long record. Both papers, however, were amalgamated with the *Japan Times* in 1940, and the *Japan Advertiser* was combined with the *Japan Times*, while the *Japan Chronicle* is published in Kobe as before by the *Japan Times, Limited*.

Contemporary Japan was first published in June 1932 as a quarterly by The Foreign Affairs Association of Japan, founded in 1931, Tokyo, to furnish all principal phases in the current national life of Japan. In order, however, to achieve the object more effectively, consonant to the changing national conditions, it was made from a quarterly to a monthly, (beginning March 1939). Contributors to Contemporary Japan include men of highest authorities in respective lines of their endeavors. Members of Council are: Prince Fumimaro Konoye, Marquis Moritatsu Hosokawa, Counts Nobuaki Makino and Kentaro Kaneko, Viscount Kikujiro Ishii, Barons Yoshiro Sakatani and Kijuro Shidehara, Seihin Ikeda, Hantaro Nagaoka, D. Sc., and Kihieiji Onozuka, LL.D., while Prince Iyesato Tokugawa continued a member from the beginning until he passed away in June 1940. The Director is Toshi Go who is also President and Editor of The *Japan Times & Advertiser*.

The newspapers and periodicals in foreign languages published in Japan today are as follows:—

Daily

Japan Times & Advertiser
Osaka Mainichi & Tokyo Nichi Nichi
(m.e., except Mondays)

Weekly

Japan Times Weekly & Trans-Pacific
(The *Japan Times, Limited*)
Deutsche Kulturschau
Latest China Intelligence

Monthly

Contemporary Japan (Foreign Affairs Association of Japan)
Tourist (To-A Tourist Bureau)
Japan Trade Monthly
Travel Bulletin (N.Y.K.)
Oriental Economist
Bulletin of South Sea Association
Commercial Japan
Japana Esperanto Servo
Tenrikyo (The Shinto Sect)

Quarterly

Commerce (Japan Foreign Trade Federation)
Cultural Nippon (Nippon Central Cultural Federation)
Sakura (Osaka Mainichi)

Annual

Japan Year Book (Foreign Affairs Association of Japan)
Orient Year Book (Asia Statistics Co.)
Japan Today & Tomorrow (Osaka Mainichi)
Present Day Nippon (Osaka Asahi)

Bi-Monthly

Japan Trade Review (Yokohama Commercial & Industrial Museum in

Yokohama Chamber of Commerce & Industry)
Nippon (in English, German, Italian and French)

Daily News Service in English

Domel Service (domestic, foreign, commercial, etc.)
Okuyama Service
Pacific Information
Commercial Daily Report

Publications

A Historical Summary

The number of books published in Japan prior to 1881 is not accurately known. But judged from the records and catalogues of books now existing, they may be roughly taken as follows:

About 1,800 between the time of founding the country and one year before the time when the Shogunate Government was established at Kamakura.

About 5,000 since the establishment of the Shogunate Government at Kamakura until one year before the time when the Tokugawa Shogunate was established.

About 60,000 between the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate and the Meiji Restoration.

About 130,000 between the 1st and the 10th year of Meiji, 33,819 between the 10th and the 13th year of Meiji, and 679,368 between 1881 and 1924. Statistics for latest years follow:

1931	23,110
1932	22,104
1933	24,025
1934	26,331
1935	30,347
1936	31,996
1937	30,732
1938	29,466
1939	28,054
1940	26,279

Since the outbreak of the China Affair, the number of publications in Japan has tended to decrease. Books and pamphlets have fallen off by 4 per cent in 1937 and 1938. This trend is largely due to the high price of paper, which began to rise in the spring of 1937, and to the recent increases in postal charges. Most significant was the decrease in the number of pamphlets and the increase in books. For a time there was actually a deluge of pamphlets, the peak coming in July 1936, when for

the 996 books published there appeared 1,520 pamphlets. But the pamphleteer's popularity has dwindled in recent months, and in October 1938, there were only 505 such literary products as compared with 1,898 books, a decrease of about two-thirds.

Many factors have contributed to this decrease in pamphlets, especially the ten-sen brochures. One factor has been the appearance of the Cabinet Information Bureau's Weekly Report, (circulation over 1,000,000) which has acted as an authoritative substitute for the various brands of news-interpretation pamphlets which held the field in the past. Another important cause has been the liquidation of various problems which had supplied the themes for many a pamphleteer owing to the unification of public opinion during the emergency. But the main reason for this significant decline is the fact that serious-minded readers no longer rely upon such pamphlets as a background for the daily news.

Of the 26,279 publications turned off the press in 1940, the largest individual group is represented by literature, numbering 3,112. The number increased by 112 as compared with the previous year. The reason why literary works, novels and stories, maintained a steady output during the past 5 years is to be found in the fact that people are seeking entertainment in them in these years of emergency more than in peacetime, so that stories depicting the affairs at the war and home fronts appeared in greater numbers. Books on politics have gained 264 as compared with the previous year.

The number of religious books published remained normal, indicating the presence of a strong thirst for spiritual comfort.

Another interesting result may be seen in the decrease of books on langu-

age and dictionaries, dropping to a normal number. The reason may be found in the saturation of supply in preceding 3 years.

The publication of books on military affairs has also returned to a normal condition, reflecting subsiding of excitement.

The total number of books and pamphlets published in 1940 decreased 1,775 or 6.3 per cent from the previous year.

Increase of New Books But the publication of new books and foreign books

translated into Japanese is on the increase as revealed in the following tables. The reasons may be sought in the increase of public demand for new books as a means of recreation in these emergency years in which other means of amusement are much restricted, in the thirst of the Japanese people for the knowledge of foreign countries at this time of international confusion, in the increase of readers among working classes and in the constant demand for knowledge in general as it has been one of the best national characteristics of the Japanese people.

YEARLY COMPARISON OF PUBLICATIONS

Subjects	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Politics	1,127	1,322	945	592	856
Law	876	835	833	913	860
Economy	2,000	1,707	1,745	1,589	1,749
Social science	1,252	1,414	1,222	1,813	1,474
Statistics	183	251	205	67	449
Religion	1,891	1,576	1,453	1,566	1,199
Philosophy	1,248	1,106	751	605	578
Education	2,581	1,830	1,677	1,527	1,030
Text books	1,488	2,709	1,948	1,619	2,282
Literature	3,189	2,656	2,452	3,000	3,112
Language	1,341	1,378	1,621	842	273
History	460	455	503	370	390
Biography	547	411	583	342	398
Geography	1,467	1,444	1,132	1,076	1,085
Mathematics	590	529	404	180	32
Natural science	602	429	422	512	565
Engineering	862	1,035	993	694	102
Medicine	985	927	989	807	656
Industry	1,884	1,751	1,368	925	967
Communications and transportation	243	246	228	121	208
Military subjects	414	834	961	417	387
Fine arts	1,117	1,107	812	490	447
Music	1,185	963	908	1,148	778
Handicrafts	185	71	245	322	83
Dictionaries	102	123	152	122	102
Series	378	419	511	686	794
Domestic subjects	1,451	1,011	1,434	2,177	2,303
Amusements	761	786	557	603	831
Miscellaneous	1,587	1,407	2,412	2,929	2,287
Total	31,996	30,732	29,466	28,054	26,279

YEARLY COMPARISON OF NEW PUBLICATION AND TRANSLATIONS OF FOREIGN BOOKS

(Compiled by the Tokyo-Do Book Store)

Subjects	New Publication				Translations of Foreign Books in the Total			
	1937	1938	1939	1940	1937	1938	1939	1940
Philosophy	211	142	205	200	22	20	38	38
Religion	122	62	77	109	8	5	10	15

Subjects	New Publication				Translations of Foreign Books in the Total			
	1937	1938	1939	1940	1937	1938	1939	1940
Education	464	346	287	169	6	7	3	5
Criticisms, essays	416	195	268	225	—	—	—	—
Literature	65	48	61	61	76	86	128	194
Poetry	166	86	108	145	—	—	—	—
Fiction	515	255	509	795	—	—	—	—
Music	66	24	28	22	5	8	7	12
Fine arts	87	83	58	64	—	—	—	—
Drama, cinema	17	18	12	25	—	—	—	—
Language	110	83	56	34	—	—	—	—
Foreign language	170	137	96	96	6	2	1	2
History, biography	197	160	161	201	22	13	32	33
Geography	70	71	86	103	10	10	9	13
Politics, social science	295	355	325	376	29	29	55	84
Law	156	157	134	128	3	2	4	—
Military subjects, communications and transportation	—	—	89	109	6	6	3	22
Statistics, year books	—	—	61	37	—	—	1	—
Finance, economy	253	273	221	258	28	32	28	43
Commerce	72	70	72	55	3	5	3	—
Industry	255	234	258	229	—	3	8	11
Agriculture	107	105	85	81	—	8	4	5
Natural science, mathematics	154	107	105	126	10	8	15	15
Medicine, sanitation	241	146	163	117	2	2	3	5
Sports, amusements	88	69	33	48	7	2	2	1
Domestic subjects	63	41	35	50	2	—	2	4
Designs and maps	13	6	5	7	—	—	—	—
For boys and girls	302	264	276	347	5	8	9	21
Reference books for examination	279	335	349	355	—	—	1	3
Series, library	—	474	448	538	133	190	145	171
Pamphlet	—	141	160	248	—	2	3	15
Revised books	—	521	930	792	19	37	79	66
Character building	49	43	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	5,003	5,041	5,761	6,123	402	485	589	784
Percentage of translations of foreign books	—	—	—	—	8.2	9.6	10.4	12.8

STATISTICS OF ITEMS RELATIVE TO PRESS AND PUBLICATION

(1936—1940)

Items	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Publications	31,996	30,732	29,466	28,045	26,279
Governmental publications	10,497	11,067	12,620	11,318	7,034
Newspapers (End of the Year)	12,820	13,268	12,043	8,676	5,871
Magazines (End of the Year)	16,739	16,788	15,057	15,953	15,369
No. of principal magazines sold	68,584,000	72,733,000	75,474,000	82,275,000	—
New books appeared on bookstalls	4,900	5,003	5,041	5,761	6,126
Libraries	4,893	4,615	4,616	4,755	4,538
Library admissions	24,444,000	26,158,000	26,701,000	19,671,000	—
Members of the Japan Booksellers Association	15,072	15,168	15,341	16,141	—
Printing papers sold (In million lbs.)	1,872	2,032	2,030	2,035	1,935

Control of Publication

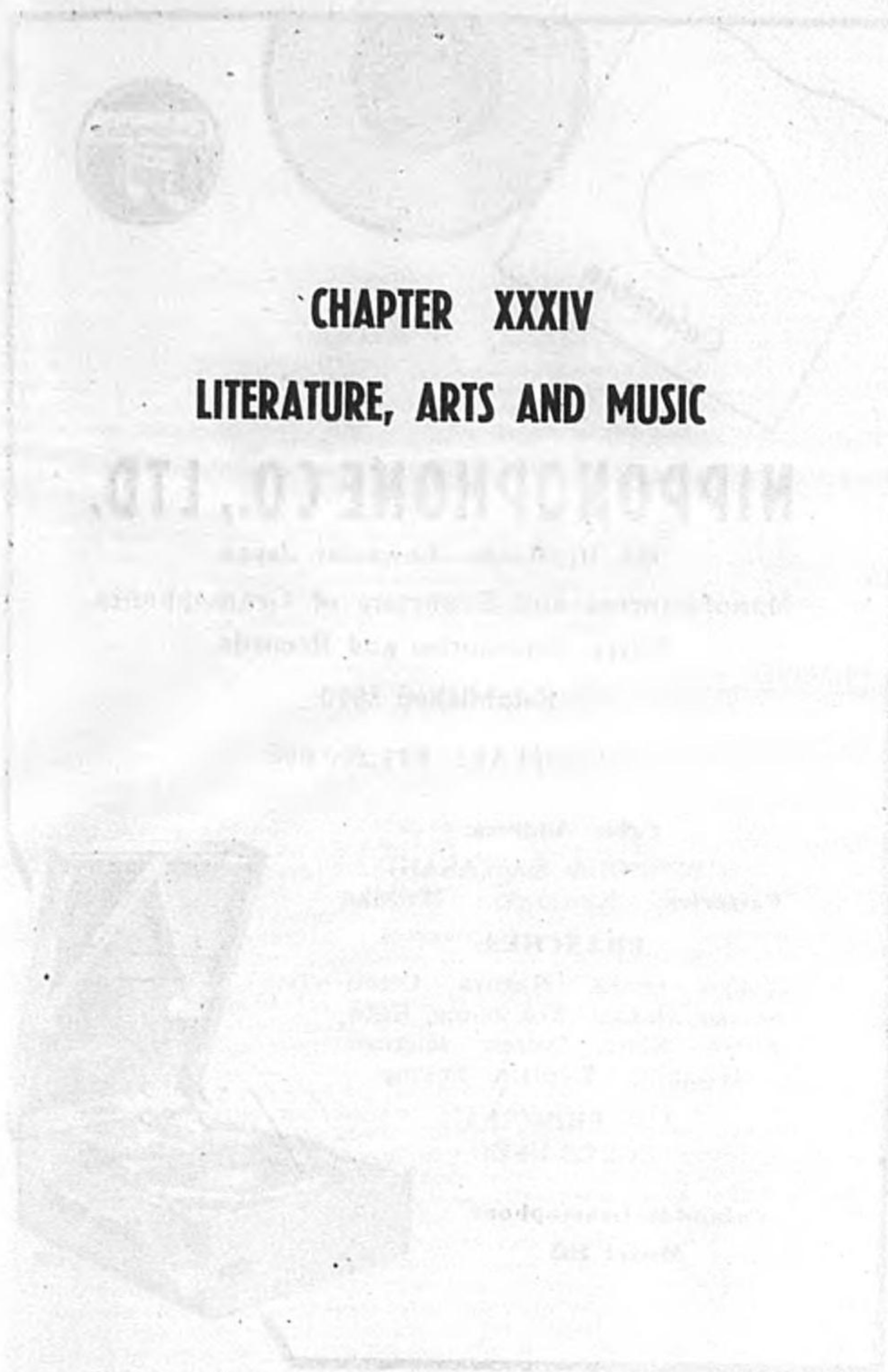
In consonance with the movement for the new national structure, the Nippon Shuppan Bunka Kyokai (Japan Cultural Publication Association) was organized on December 19, 1940, with the purpose of controlling the publication of periodicals and books and the distribution of printing paper for publication, under a permit system. Among various periodicals, the number of which reaches over 20,000 including non-commercial private magazines, and books, the monthly publication of which reaches 3,000, there are superfluous of publication on similar subjects, competition for mere profiteering purposes and even those periodicals which are published with the main purpose of getting money from advertisers. The regulation of the indiscriminate publication of insignificant periodicals and books has been long required by thinking people through the columns of newspapers. And in answer to their requirement the Association was organized by the cooperation of competent authorities in the Government and leading publishers.

The members of the Association are (1) publishers in general, (2) publishers for non-commercial purposes, (3) those who are engaged in the publishing business carried by the above-mentioned publishers, and (4) those persons who have special interest in and knowledge of publication and recommended by the president of the Association. Their number reached 3,536, on June 24, 1941, when the first general meeting of the Association was held in the Okuma Memorial Hall at Waseda, Tokyo.

The main works of the Association are a proper supply of material for publication to publishers of periodicals and books, and the control of publication, both under a permit system through which selection of publishers and choice of books and periodicals are made; and a proper distribution of books and periodicals among book stores through the Japan Publication Distribution Company. In other words, publication in Japan is restricted to books and periodicals published under the recognition or permission of the Japan Cultural Publication Association.

CHAPTER XXXIV

LITERATURE, ARTS AND MUSIC





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CHAPTER XXXIV

LITERATURE, ARTS AND MUSIC

LITERATURE

History

Yamato Period The history of Japanese literature may be divided, in accordance with the political development of the country, into 6 periods: the Yamato, Hélan, Kamakura, Muromachi, Yédo and Tokyo periods. The Yamato period comprises the Kodal (archaic period) and the Nara age that followed. The term, Yamato, is derived from the district of Yamato, Nara prefecture, wherein was the seat of the Imperial capital throughout that age. This nascent age of Japanese literature ended in 781 A. D., with the removal of the Imperial capital to Kyoto, then called Hélan, by the Emperor Kammu. It may seem improper to include so long a period under one section, but this early stage of Japanese literary growth can thus conveniently be considered as one concrete age, and be studied as such.

(1) **Literary Works.** The literary works which reveal the mind of the Yamato period and which are still extant, are: the *Kojiki*, *Nihonshoki*, *Fudoki*, *Norito*, *Senmyo*, *Mannyoshu*, *Kafuso*, and *Nihonraiki*. The principal writers are: *Ohno-Yasumaro*, *Tonérisshino*, *Yamabé-no-Akahito*, *Kakinomoto-no-Hitomaro*, *Yamanoéno-Okura*, *Otomono-Yakamochi*, *Ohmino-Mifuné*, besides certain sages of the prehistoric age. The last mentioned, *Ohmino-Mifuné*, was proficient in Chinese classics

and poetry.

(2) **Development and Classification.** Narrative prose and lyric verse assumed concrete form in this period. From a literary point of view the writings of the period can be divided into two sections: works in descriptive style, of which the *Kojiki* is the main representative; and poetry that followed, with the *Mannyoshu* anthology as the typical poetic composition.

Individual self-consciousness realized meagre general development; instead, a collective sense controlled society. But ample evidence of a pure national spirit is seen. In the latter part of this period alien ideas were introduced from China and India, but could not find their way deeply into the minds of the people. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that the literary achievements of this awakening period are instinct with the noble national spirit of loyalty and ancestor-worship, permeated with the national traits of optimism, frankness, and genuine simplicity.

Hélan Period The Hélan period starts from the year in which the Emperor Kammu removed the Imperial palace to Kyoto, then called Hélan, and ends in 1186 when the Shogunate government was established by Yoritomo Minamoto at Kamakura. This second literary period, covering nearly 400 years, following the period of dawn, saw Japanese prose and poetry reach full bloom.

1 *Mannyoshu* (or *Manyoshu*). The anthology is considered to be one of the greatest poetical attainments of the nation not only in this period, but all through the history of Japanese literature. Its compiler is unknown. The period in which the poets of the book lived covers 450 years from 313 to 764 A.D., and the range of the social standard of the poets extends to all classes from the Emperor down to the farmer or the hermit. The book contains 4,496 poems, which consist of 262 long poems, 4,172 *waka* and 62 others. Their themes are taken from human relations, love, lamentation, the four seasons, and natural scenery. They are written in the Yamato dialect with Chinese characters. The eminent anthologists in it are *Kakinomoto-no-Hitomaro* of the epic long poems; *Yamanouéno-Okura* of the long lyrics who took his themes from social and economic problems of his day; *Yamabé-no-Akahito*, the only nature poet among the group; *Otomono-Yakamochi* who is believed by many critics to be the compiler of the book and *Nukatano-Ohogimi* and *Sakanoé-Iratsumé*, who distinctly tower above many poetesses who left beautiful love songs with the anthology to their posterity.

Generally speaking, the literature of the period emerged from a style of clear-cut simplicity to one of elegance and delicacy, all literary productions assuming a mood of refined sentiment. In presentment likewise there appeared the graceful kana syllabary, in keeping with current ideas. This harmonization of content and form in the literature of the Héian period set an example to succeeding generations. The Héian period is thus the golden age of Japanese literary achievement. This period may further be subdivided into the following four sections:

Early Héian period (781-884)

Middle Héian period (885-980)

Mature Héian period (981-1064)

Last Héian period (1065-1182)

(1) Early Héian Period. During this period, imported Chinese culture exercised no small influence on the literary circles of the country, resulting in the popularity of Chinese classics and poetry. Among the poetical works are the *Ryounshu*, *Bunkashureishu*, *Kéikokushu*, while among the authors were the Emperor Saga, Kukai, Onono-Takamura, Miyakono-Yoshika, Déno-Otondo, Sugawarano-Koréyoshi, Tachibanano-Hirosuké, Sugawarano-Michizané, Fujiwarano-Sukéyo and Miyoshi-Kiyoyuki. With the overwhelming influence wielded by these imitators in the domain of the newly imported Chinese literature, the Japanese waka (31-syllabled poem) was threatened at one time with relegation to obscurity. But the situation was saved through realization of a proposal from Sugawarano-Michizané to discontinue the customary visits of Government envoys to China. In consequence, Chinese literature gradually lost its former influence, and the eminent position once occupied by this alien form of belles-letters was taken by Japa-

nese poetry. The forerunner of the revived waka verse was the *Rokkasen*, a collaboration of six representative poets, namely, Ariwarano-Narihira, Onono-Komachi, Bunyano-Yasuhidé, Kisenhoshi and Otomono-Kuronushi. A further literary achievement of the period is the appearance of works in the Japanese kana syllabary, such as the *Takétori-monogatari* and the *Isé-monogatari*.

(2) Middle Héian Period. This is the age of national consciousness when the waka poetry triumphed over Chinese forms, pushing itself forward like a tidal wave. In poetry, works like the *Kokin-wakashu* and *Gosen-wakashu* are prominent, while in fiction such works as the *Utsubo* and *Ochikubo* and *Tosa-nikki*, in Japanese kana syllabary, are representative products.

(3) Mature Héian Period. This is the period in which the literary development of the Héian era attained the highest perfection, creating a golden age of prose. In the field of waka we have such poets as Izumi-shikibu, Akazomé-Emon, Fujiwarano-Kinto, Fujiwara-Sanékata and Noin-hoshi, while in the realm of prose there appeared women novelists, like Murasaki-shikibu and Séisho-nagon, the former being the authoress of the *Genji-monogatari*, while the latter composed the *Makura-no-soshi*, opening up a literary régime of women, as if flowers of innumerable variety and colors blossomed all at one time.

(4) Last Héian Period. A general survey of the period gives the impression of its being politically transitional from Imperial rule to Shogunate administration. Along with the decline of the Fujiwara family in power, literature also hastened towards decline. And in consequence, in the early part of the period the literary cult turned from

1. *Genji-monogatari*. The authoress Murasaki-shikibu (975-1031) was born a daughter of Tametoki Fujiwara, a family of the illustrious Fujiwara clan, and served at Court for some years as lady-in-waiting to the Empress Akiko. She is known as Lady Murasaki, but her personal name is not known. The book is a large one (nearly 1,900 pages in Arthur Waley's English translation), written in pure old Japanese, extremely refined and pregnant, with Japanese character, or kana, sentences, and literary critics agree in the opinion that it belongs to the greatest masterpieces of the novels of the world.

Genji-monogatari means the Tale of Genji, mainly a love story between the hero Genji and several heroines. It is also a most vivid picture of a civilization, nine hundred years ago, probably as refined, though in the central city only, and certainly as colourful, as any the world has ever known. The most striking thing about the book is the impression it creates upon us of its modernity and universality of feeling. It reflects the Oriental characteristics in every line and still shows human nature very much the same as the Occidental.

novels to historical works, producing the *Eiga-monogatari* and *Okagami*. In the realm of poetry also a new tendency was apparent, which gave birth to such noted poets as Toshinari Fujiwara and Saigyô-hoshi; and at the same time a scientific criticism of poetry was initiated and prevailed under students like Mototoshi Fujiwara, Toshiyori Minamoto, and Kiyosuké Fujiwara.

(5) General Development. The most characteristic feature of the period lies in the movement from impromptu and lyrical poetry to stories and narration which require plots and objectification of things. The instinctive or primitive sentiment of the *Manyôshû* precedes the more intellectual *Kokinshû*; and the *Shikashû* that followed is pervaded by more meditative and philosophical reflections. With reference to prose, the myths and legends appearing in the *Manyôshû* and *Kiki* (short for *Kojiki* and *Nihonshoki*) underwent mutation and took the form of narrative tales in the *Takétori-monogatari* and the *Isé-monogatari*. This realistic tendency was further augmented by the *Utsubo-monogatari*, and later produced the famous *Genji-monogatari*, turning its direction thenceforward toward historical compositions, such as the *Eiga-monogatari* and the *Okagami*. To enhance this realistic tendency of the time, legends and fairy tales, mingling with current realism, regained their former influence, producing the *Konjaku-monogatari*, a fairy tale dealing with supernatural and supersensuous things. Furthermore, amid this abundance of literary composition there are others with characteristic features common to meditative, lyrical literature, namely the *Tosa-nikki*, *Murasaki-shikibu-nikki*, *Makura-no-soshi*, *Izumi-shikibu-nikki*, *Tombi-nikki*, *Tonomine-sho-sho-monogatari* and *Sarashina-nikki*.

Kamakura Period The period of about 150 years, beginning with Minamoto-no-Yoritomo Shogunate government at Kamakura in 1182 and ending in the Kemmu Era of 1334, is called the Kamakura period. In the history of our literature. For the first 50 years literature was under the influence of the preceding Héian period; but the 100 years that followed saw two literary currents sweeping against each other, one at Kyoto, the cultural center, and the other at Kamakura, the pivot of political authority. Although, during the period,

there was no literary movement worthy of special mention, yet it created its own literary atmosphere which resulted in the production of numerous so-called war-tales and religious literature.

(1) Kamakura Literature. The fact that the emotional and sentimental tendency of earlier ages gradually turned to philosophical meditation during this period explains why the works of the time are generally void of individual touch while being true to type. Buddhist pessimism then dominated social thought. The popularization of the Buddhist religion in this period was the result of the natural growth of that religion on the one hand, and of the reaction of public sentiment against the ceaseless civil wars, on the other.

(2) Representative Works. War literature, like the *Hogen-monogatari*, *Héiji-monogatari*, *Héike-monogatari* and the *Gempéi-séisuiki*, is the most outstanding production of the age. Just as in the preceding period, when literary themes were gathered from historical facts, so in the Kamakura period subjects were sought for from the social conditions of the times when bloodshed, existing side by side with the simple, artless life of the samurai, completely saddened and subdued public sentiment. With reference to waka, inspired by the advent of well-known poetical works like the *Shin-chokusenshu*, were born the *Zoku-gojuishu* and *Kinkashu*. The *Sin-kokinshu*, another anthology of poetry, shows the highest point that Japanese poetry had so far reached. The *Kinkashu* suggests a return to the *Manyôshû*, while the *Sin-chokusenshu* gives an impression of having reached the acme of poetical refinement, retracing its way back to the beauty of simplicity. It is a pity, however, that rival influences between groups of literary men and critics holding different theories of literary values left the healthy development of literature very much handicapped. Ranking as principal poets of the period were Gotoba-joko, Tsuchimikado-joko, Juntoku-joko, Yoshitsuné, Sadaié, Iétaka, Jakuran and Sanétomo.

Muromachi Period The Muromachi period is the term applied to the 270 years sandwiched in between the Kamakura and Tokugawa periods, beginning in 1335 when Takauji Ashikaga, rebelled against the Emperor Godaigo and terminating in 1603 when Iyéyasu Tokugawa removed the Shogunate govern-

ment to Yédo.

(1) Muromachi Literature. In consequence of civil disturbance in the preceding age, the literary movement of the period was rather stagnant: the Court nobles were deprived of their positions, while the militarists, taking advantage of the disorderly administration of the central government, exercised an unfavorable influence on the natural development of literary talent generally. Nevertheless, even in such helpless social conditions, the period had the literature peculiar to such an age. Despite the troublesome yoke of historical events, there emerged a certain free and simple literary style; hence, instead of the waka, tales, and diaries, that flourished down to the close of the last period, such descriptions of war and historical tales as the *Masukagami*, *Jinnoshotoki*, *Taihéki*, *Yoshitsunéki* and *Soga-monogatari* were born, besides rambling notes like the *Tsurésurégusa*, with their own characteristic attractions.

(2) New Forms of Literature. It is worthy of special mention that in this chaotic period originated such new literary forms as the *renka*, *yôkyoku* (*uta*), *kyogen* and *otogisôshi*, which saw full development in the following period. *Tanka* (or *waka*) verse developed and gave birth to a more diminutive mode, the *haikai* (or *haiku*); *kyogen* evolved into *yoruri* and drama; while *otogisôshi* reappeared in the form of novels and plays, all in the period that followed. Herein we notice the beginnings of modern thought, the product of classicism evolving into modernism, and aristocracy into plebeianism. The Muromachi period thus occupies an important position in our literary history, functioning as a bridge that connects the preceding periods with the more illustrious Yédo literature. Another thing worthy of note in this connection is the creation at this time of the *Kanazawa Bunko*, the *Ashikaga-gakko* and the *Gozen-bungaku*, the first two being seats of learning and the last a branch of literature.

Yédo Period The Yédo period begins in 1603 when the Tokugawa Shogunate took up the task of civil government in Yédo, and ends, after 265 years, in 1868, when the Meiji Restoration was accomplished. This forms the most important section in the history of Japanese literature. The Yédo literature succeeded the decadent Muromachi literature

and handed on its wealth of achievement to the Meiji period. The remarkable fecundity of this era is to be attributed to various factors, but to none more fundamental than the good government of Iyéyasu Tokugawa, the first Shogun of that line. Realizing the importance of the diffusion of learning for good government, he engaged Confucian scholars, published books, started schools and collected rare literary works. The example thus set by the first Shogun was emulated by the succeeding Shoguns, each striving to open up the way for easier access to knowledge and culture both in town and country, until in the Genroku Era under the rule of the fourth Shogun, *Trunoyoshi*, national culture reached its highest stage of development. The Yédo period may be divided into the following four sections: centered around Osaka and Kyoto,

1. Period of enlightenment (1603-1680)
2. Period of development (1681-1741) Yédo as the center
3. The period of eastward advance of literature (1741-1791)
4. Period of maturity (1791-1868)

(1) Period of Enlightenment. True to its name, this period, following the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate in Yédo, saw the collection and publication of ancient books, and annotations thereof, as well as translations of Chinese literature. It is but natural that during this period nothing worthy of note was produced save as foundation work in preparation for what was to come. From another viewpoint this is the age when the traditionally mystic view of art, and the undue belief in tradition, greatly wanes in influence.

(2) Period of Development. A bird's-eye view of the period gives the impression of a rapid development in popular literature, with Osaka and Kyoto as the center and the Genroku Era as its climax. The origin of this literary movement is traceable to the *Mitogaku*, which later led to a renaissance of the classics; we see a revival of *haikai* verse under Bashô, the poet; and then the appearance of Chikamatsu's *yoruri*. Each made unfettered development within its own sphere of influence. Towards the close of the period, however, these branches of literature lost popularity, until eventually they could scarcely enjoy public recollection.

(3) Eastward Advance of Literature. This is the period when the so-called *Kamigata* literature of Kyoto and Osaka, began its movement eastward to establish a new literary movement in the city of Yédo, the seat of the Shogun's government. By this time the popular literature founded by Chikamatsu and Sakaku had declined. Buson became the representative *haikai* poet of the time. Besides *haikai*, there came into vogue in Yédo various kinds of short poetry, namely, *senryu*, witty epigrammatic verse; *kyôka*, comic verse; and *kyôbun*, nonsense notes. Also in this period the so-called literature for men of the world cropped up, following the publication of the *kiyoshi* and *sharémon*.

(4) Period of Maturity. It was in this period that the construction of the main body of Yédo literature was completed. As a result of the encouragement of learning by the Shogun's highest official, Sadanobu Matsudaira, both art and learning made a remarkable advance, producing a number of artists, and authorities on Japanese and Chinese classics. Parallel with this phenomenal development of classics, popular literature resumed its firm grip on the public. Inasmuch, however, as during the latter half of the period the country was completely upset by troubles both from within and without, most of the literary progress was confined to the early part of the period. Nevertheless, this is known as the period when Yédo literature was crowned with full maturity.

What most characterize Yédo literature are its variety, volume of production and sphere of influence. Not only was it prolific but, all branches of art and learning, from the aristocratic classics down to *kyôka*, *senryu*, *haikai*, *yoruri* (*gidayu*) and popular novels, showed systematic advancement. The social structure in those days could not but reflect the taste and sentiment of the people, as is evidenced by the two different literary currents that prevailed throughout the period. Whereas the so-called aristocratic literature, which dominated those days, stood on a foundation of Bushido and Confucianism, the popular literature strove to create the epicurean's world. Each of these tendencies went on cultivating its own field of influence in its own respective class, yet what most aptly represents the characteristic fea-

tures of Yédo literature is the stronger public appeal of popular literary works. These intellectual diversions of the common people, unlike the traditional, conservative and retrogressive taste of classical literature, are optimistic, and charged with the spirit of uplift and mirth. But the negative policy of the Tokugawa government proved an impeding factor in the healthful growth of popular literature, resulting in a gradual loss of individuality. In this way authorship gradually kept aloof from essential requirements of progressive art; the most glaring example of this deplorable tendency is clearly noticeable in Bakin's works. (As to the development of literature in Meiji and Taisho eras see the Japan Year Book, 1938-39, p. 839.)

Literature in 1938-41

(See pp. 753-757, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41 and pp. 733-738, the Japan Year Book, 1941-42).

Literary World, 1941-42

There was no remarkable change in the tendency of the literary world during the one year starting in June 1941 and ending in June 1942. On the contrary, the conditions in the story-writing circles proved rather dull and inactive, not marked with the advent of any great war stories as in the case of the preceding year. The only special tendency of the literary world during the present year was the rise of book-reviews and comments on current topics. Pivotal subjects which were discussed by commentators and critics were focussed on the re-recognition of classical literature and the study of the racial spirit for the guidance of the Greater East Asia.

Under the influence of such a tendency, the study of *Waka* and *Haiku* (pure Japanese short poems) became active. Such a tendency was most vividly reflected by the movement of the publishing world.

Of all the reasons which brought about such a tendency of the literary world, the most noteworthy was the progress of the general public attitude toward the war from the spasmodic pursuit of mere war reports to the study of the very thought of the war as the war became prolonged. Mere novels depicting war conditions proved ineffective to satisfy reading circles. The interest and concern of the reading circles be-

came increasingly and steadily abstract and idealistic. As a result, novels which attach the greatest importance to description became temporarily neglected and reviews which attach the first importance to thinking came to prosper. Such, however, is a transitional tendency. When a racial thinking grows strong and powerful enough to make the story-writing possible, it will result in the creation of war novels in the true sense of the words.

It seems that that racial will for making such a story-writing possible has come to express itself in the increasing pursuit of classical works such as "Manyōshū" or "Kojiki" with an unprecedented zeal and enthusiasm. On the other hand, there has been a mushroom rise of dogmatic and hasty racial thinking or literature in an attempt to jump at a conclusion.

When "a myth of the twenty century" or a guiding principle, for the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere is clearly set out in the mind of men of letters the concrete advance of the Japanese literary world will be possible. However, in 1941, literary thinking of Japan failed to make a merry and bright advance, particularly in the second half of 1941, as the course of Japan in that year was marked not only with concerns on the China Affair but also with threatening clouds overhanging the nation just before the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War. Literature reflects the psychological conditions of realities most vividly, and it was quite natural that the vehicle of thinking had to race and the story-writing world has lost its spiritual impetus.

Another principal reason for the inertia of literary circles was a Government control of the distribution of paper. The economization of paper necessitated a strict selection of books to be published by the Japan Cultural Publication Association through which all publication in the country is controlled, periodicals including newspapers had their absolute numbers reduced. Under these circumstances, publications were selected on the one and only basis of the need of the country, resulting in the advent of a kind of government-licensing uniformity.

The economization of paper by magazines and newspapers made it impossible for them to contain long stories or serials. This tendency caused long historic novels based on facts or persons to disappear and enabled the rise of short

stories principally by veteran writers such as Yasunari Kawabata, Hakucho Masamune and Riechi Yokomitsu. Thus, the private-life novels came to prosper, a tendency entirely contrary to the expectation of literary circles which had been nothing but a development of healthy nationalism. This tendency called for criticisms pro and con. But besides a sentimental discrepancy among story writers themselves, it was also attributable to a restriction pressed upon them from without in the form of a literary disciplinary movement sponsored by the Cabinet Information Board. This movement called for the enforcement of a ban on the publication of stories entering to superstitious sentiments or offending to public morals. Subjected to such a ban were the works by popular writers such as Fumio Niwa, Shusui Tokuda, Sakunosuke Oda, Miss Fumiko Hayashi and Mikihiko Nagata.

As the Cabinet Information Board strengthened a control over the publication of romantic stories or comic stories in order to encourage the rise of sound novels likely to stimulate the sentiment of the people under the wartime situation, the contents of stories were forced to become inevitably dry and uninteresting.

Under these circumstances, activities of story writers were more confined to such fields as war reporting, participation in the "misogi" movement, formation of patriotic bodies as well as comfort visit to the front lines. Starting from about September 1941, groups of popular story writers made lecture tours to various parts on the continent. It was at that time that such famous writers as Miss Fumiko Hayashi, Ryūichi Yokoyama and Hidenobu Kamizumi organized a literary patriotic league and made a lecture trip to China and Manchoukuo with the support of the Press Section of the Japanese Army in Kwantung Leased Territory.

The Military Protection Board dispatched 96 noted writers to different parts of the country in order to write stories about those who rendered distinguished services for the protection of soldiers as well as the activities of members of the bereaved families of war dead and compile such stories into a work titled "Good Acts Behind the Gun." Among those selected by the board for the task were Hiroshi Ueda, Shiro Hibino, Ashihel Hino, Minoru Nakano,

Kezuo Takemori, Kinzo Satomura, etc.

The Kuroganekai, a literary patriotic body, was organized by 40 writers including Ki Kimura, Komatsu Kitamura, etc. and held an inaugural lecture meeting at the Hibiya Auditorium on October 4. Among the proposed program of their activity are positive co-operation with dramas, movies or radio programs of patriotic nature, publication of a magazine on sea defense, establishment of a marine research organ, fight against enemy propaganda, etc.

Activities of writers as members of the army and naval press sections have been remarkable since the outbreak of the China Affair, and particularly so since the start of the Greater East Asia War, a great number of them being sent to the areas occupied by the Japanese forces extending from the Aleutians in the north to the islands in the south-western Pacific area together with many painters. This task of serving in the execution of the gigantic war with pen and brush is no invention of Japan but many writers and painters of all the countries of the world are engaged in similar work at Western war fronts, and it may be said that it is one of the specific duties of the literary men in Japan to serve the country with pen.

It is believed that their experience in the occupied regions will lay a foundation for a new and more extensive development of literature in this country.

There is no denying that the dazzling victories of the Imperial Japanese forces since the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War including the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor at the outset of the war have offered many and numerous new experiences and encouraging factors to Japan's literary circles, and have served to drive away a rather gloomy atmosphere which prevailed during the four years of the China Affair.

With the remarkable war results in the past 8 months Japan's literary circles have renewed their convictions that they are tasked with a heavy responsibility of building up literature in East Asia as the leaders of literary circles of the countries in the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere. This conviction certainly proved the strongest

element for the creation of literary work in 1942.

As compared with the inactivities of story writers in 1941, the rise of "Kado" or the art of Japanese poetry was one of the noteworthy developments in the literary circle of Japan last year. The increasing zeal and enthusiasm of poets as well as the general public toward poetry culminated in a plan to create a representative Japanese song titled "Kōa Daikōshin Kyoku," or "March of Asia," under the sponsorship of the East Asiatic Bureau of the Imperial Rule Assistance Association. This plan is now well under way with the assistance of the Japan Poetry Association, Japan Poetry League and other leading poetry bodies.

On August 1, 1941, the recipients of the Akutagawa and Naoki prizes for 1941 were announced. They included Akutagawa Prize for Yukei Tada for his work titled "Choko Delta" (Yangtze Delta); Naoki Prize for Soju Kimura for his work titled "Sentry in Yunnan."

The special feature of the works which received the two prizes was that both of them based their themes on the life on the Continent depicting it with a deep insight into realities, instead of a mere presentation of outward actions to flatter the age.

The epochal boom of the publishing world inspite of restrictions mentioned above was one of the noteworthy features of the literary world during 1941, particularly since the start of the Greater East Asia War. This tendency is believed to be due to a remarkable increase of reading circles as a result of the steady disappearance of other forms of amusement under wartime restrictions.

Great importance attached to scientific books due to the encouragement of the diffusion of scientific knowledge by the Government was another special feature in 1941-42.

On the other hand, the Ministry of Education created a Commission for Recommendation of Good Books in an attempt to select good books for the public. Books thus recommended by the commission have been sold with special tags bearing the words "recommended by the Ministry of Education."

FINE ARTS

History

Pre-Asuka Period This period, corresponding to what is called the dark age of art, has nothing specially to describe, although it is perhaps the longest period, extending, as it does, from the age of myths down to about the 7th century, A.D.

According to archaeology the ancient Japanese worked in stone, artifacts such as stone images being used in ancestor worship. These are rough hewn sculptures, representing persons clad in armour, wearing a sword, or other arms, all having been used in burial as guardians of the tomb. It was customary, too, in ancient times to have a similar primitive engraving, in the form of a ladder or a wheel, made on the coffin; the plain, artless impression thus conveyed is expressive of the simple mode of living in that remote age.

The dwellings were also in very simple style, constructed of barked but unhewn timber. Even in this simplest type of building there were two styles, known as the Izumo and the Isé, which implies that the ancient culture of Japan was dual, derived either from Izumo or Isé. The former style of structure is represented by the Izumo Shrine, Izumo province, present Shimane prefecture; and the latter by the grand shrine of Isé, although these now give no more than a vague idea of what must have been the prehistoric architecture of the country.

In addition to the above, there are earthen figures called haniwa which arrest the attention not only of archaeologists but also of artists. According to historical records, the Emperor Suinin, who abdicated in 2 B.C., abhorred the cruel old custom of burying people alive around the grave of a high personage, certain individuals being selected from among those persons who were under patronage of the deceased in life. At the instance of a retainer, Nomino-Sukuné, he caused earthen figures to be interred in place of living persons, when the Empress Hitasuhime died; and this was the origin of haniwa. It is believable, however, that the haniwa existed before Suinin's time. The haniwa is, from an artistic point of view, by no means of high value. It is nevertheless, the only art product of Japan before the importation of Buddhism. Moreover, its value rests on

the fact that it is a work produced solely by the Japanese before they had been influenced by Chinese art. Besides, it is invaluable in that it gives some idea of the life of the people of its day. The variety of haniwa may be roughly classified into human figures, birds and animals, architectural structures, household articles and arms.

Asuka Period As has been stated in the preceding section, for sometime after the foundation of the Empire by the Emperor Jimmu, there was nothing worthy of mention in the realm of art. The Asuka period covers the reign of the Empress Suiko (592-629), when the imperial palace was in the province of Yamato, Nara prefecture. Already, as early as the time of the Emperor Yuryaku, in the middle of the 5th century, a painter named Isura came over from Chosen, with which country Japan then had frequent intercourse, and through which Chinese civilization had been introduced. Later, during the reign of the Emperor Sushun, towards the end of the 6th century, another painter called Hakka came with carpenters to build temples. But it was not until Shibatatto came over from China, in the reign of the Emperor Keitai (507-531), that Buddhism was introduced into Japan, despite the fact that communication had long before continued with Chosen, then called Kudara.

Shibatatto must have been an expert in the art of sculpture, for he was the grandfather of Kuratsu-kurinatori who cast the image of Buddha now in the Horyuji Temple, in the Empress Suiko's time. Nevertheless, it is evident that the country which contributed most toward founding Japan's fine art technique was Kudara.

The development of art in the Suiko régime was really wonderful. Prince Shotoku, a man of wide learning and an enthusiastic devotee of Buddha, spurred on the ever increasing devotion to art. The leading structures of the period were the Horyuji and Tennoji temples, but those parts of them that have best withstood the wear and tear of time are the two-storied kondo, gate, the five-storied pagoda of the Horyuji temple and the three-storied pagodas of the Horyuji and Horinji temples. No doubt the creative design of the Prince must have been woven into them, but it is

nevertheless true that they were modeled after Kudara architecture. It is only from these structures that one can form any idea of what Chinese architecture in those days might have been. The Tamamushi-no-zushi, (a miniature temple) in the Horyuji temple, is valuable not only as a model of ancient architecture but as an example of the structural art and craft of the Suiko régime. The honeysuckle design on the metal fittings of the miniature temple bears close resemblance to similar art motives of Greece. The sculptures of the Suiko period are not all from one source, some coming from China or Korea, while others are home creations, either from the hands of Chinese sculptors, or the combined efforts of Japanese and naturalized aliens.

The fine art of the Suiko period is both deep and comprehensive, and at the same time affords invaluable reference for study.

Hakuhô Period In the history of Japanese fine art, following the Suiko Era comes the Hakuhô period which starts in the reign of the Emperor Jomô, terminating in that of the Emperor Mommu, 629-697. In the 15th year of the reign of the Empress Suiko the custom of sending a government envoy to China, then called Sui, was established, followed by increased intercourse between the two countries. Later, in the 2nd year of the Emperor Jomô's administration, the first envoy was despatched to the T'ang Court in China. By the establishment of this custom art products of China came direct to Japan instead of through the Korean Peninsula, as they had done up to that time. Moreover, the Taika Reformation, by which the political system of China came to be closely followed from the time of the Emperor Kotoku, contributed much toward developing Hakuhô art.

(1) **Painting.** One of the most outstanding facts in the art of this period is that paintings were imported from the Continent, and Buddhist pictures were painted by priests from China and India. The mural paintings of the kondo of the Horyuji temple testify to this: Its fresco work is further advanced in technique than that of India, and is prized as the leading example of mural painting in any extant wooden building. This and other examples of imported pictorial art technique during the period eloquently speak of the inflow of art from India and other Oriental countries.

(2) **Bronze.** The most representative work of the period consists in the big bronze images of Buddha and the two disciples at the Yakushiji temple at Nara. Upon their pedestals are engraved a hoshokumon design in lieu of honeysuckle which by that time had ceased to command preference. The hoshokumon design is the art of inlaying or setting jewels in necklaces, armlets, pedestals, and halos around the heads of images. In connection with the Yakushiji temple's three images, it is interesting to notice that, side by side with the hoshokumon, there is an engraving of arabesque design in grapes. This grape pattern also has its origin in the west of India, whence it came to China during the Han dynasty and prospered in the age of Tang.

(3) **Architecture.** The only model of architecture constructed in this period and still extant is the three-storied pagoda of the Yakushiji temple at Nara. Another example of the best architectural technique of the period is to be seen at the Nara Imperial Museum where models of five-storied pagodas of the time are preserved.

Tempyo Period The Nara period (707-780) is called the Tempyo Era in the history of Japanese fine art. Through the zealous efforts of the Emperor Shomu and Empress Komyo, who were unrivalled in piety, Buddhist doctrine was thoroughly demonstrated in the capital of Nara, with a consequent development of Buddhist fine art. It was the veritable golden age of fine art in religion. The casting of the Daibutsu (great image of Buddha) at the Todaiji temple and the construction of the temple itself may be pointed out as the greatest examples of art within the period. The Daibutsu has several times suffered from fire, which made it necessary to repair the image; and, in consequence, only the petals of the lotus blossom upon which the image sits retain traces of contemporary art motives. On the surface of these petals are engraved scenes from the sacred world of Buddha, which, from the view point of technique in painting are decidedly excellent. In front of the building occupied by the colossal statue of Buddha there is a bronze-lantern which minutely exemplifies the characteristics of the Tempyo period. Other remains representing the sculptures of the period include several images in the same temple.

(1) *Shoso-in Museum.* After the demise of the Emperor Shōmu all the objects of art he possessed were donated to the Tōdaiji temple by the Empress Kōmyō. Nearly all were treasured in the Shoso-in Art Museum of Nara, and have safely been handed down to the present times. Perfect preservation of art products from so remote an age could be expected only in such a country as Japan. The national treasures of the Shoso-in not only abound in rare paintings but also in many objects of industrial art, such as textiles, lacquer-ware as well as gold and silver ware, porcelain and writing utensils. Especially noteworthy are the Tang masterpieces from the Imperial household of China. In addition to those of Japanese and Chinese production, examples from the East Roman Empire, Persia, India and countries west of China are found in the museum. Thus the Shoso-in Art Museum is representative of the art products covering both East and West from even before the 7th century.

(2) *Ganjinwajo.* A priest known in Japan as Ganjinwajo together with a number of disciples, visited Nara, then capital of the country, not long after the completion of the Daibutsu. He and his followers had drifted ashore in the southern part of Kyushū. These foreigners left an indelible impression on the history of Japanese art, because they belonged to a group of leading

artists of the Tang period of China. Their skill in art was woven into the art of the Tempyo period, not only in the fields of painting and sculpture, but also in architecture. That art products from their hands must have been as great in number as in variety is evidenced by the art treasures of the Tōshōdaiji temple in Yamato province, Nara prefecture. The image of Buddha enshrined in that temple exhaustively represents the characteristics of the art of the Tang dynasty. Besides these there are several wood-engravings in which, it is surmised, the sculptures of the succeeding period had their origin. Among the foreigners were persons of other than Chinese nationality. Gumporiki, as he was called in Japan, was an expert sculptor, from the country of Kunkunkuo the exact location of which is still a question. Judging by the fact that the Ganjinwajo party included people from the west of China, it is but a matter of course that the engravings at the Tōshōdaiji temple resemble the fresco art of countries west of China. From what remains, there is sufficient reason to believe that some of the descendants of the Persians driven out of the country by the Mohammedans, arrived in Japan with the party.

All kinds of cultural forms and products were imported during this period. These the Japanese could digest and work with a skill not inferior to that

1. The Shoso-in is located in the precinct of the Tōdaiji temple at Nara. The building is a typical wooden storehouse of old Japanese *Azē-kura* style. No metal nails are used and no walls of earth. The whole building consists of three separate sections which have no windows but one entrance door for each. In the interior each section is two storied with an attic. The dimensions of the building are approximately 108 feet by 30 feet, the height from the ground to the roof top being 39 feet.

Formerly the treasures were kept out from light, and untouched for a long period of years. Since 1872 the doors are being opened annually for airing for two weeks, from November 1st to 14th. All the precious objects are kept in glass cases. In the northern section are kept treasures of the Imperial House before and at the time of the Emperor Shōmu, mirrors, desks, musical instruments, screens, medicine, etc. The middle section contains arms and armour, cases, glass and lacquer wares. The southern section largely contains religious antiques of the Tōdaiji temple.

The Shoso-in apparently existed in the precinct of the Tōdaiji temple before 756 A.D. when the Empress Kōmyō, widow of the Emperor Shōmu, dedicated to the Vairocana Buddha or Daibutsu the Imperial treasures as a memorial of the deceased. Time and weather have told upon the building. Battles went on around the sacred ground and the Shoso-in itself was once stricken by a thunderbolt. But the wooden storehouse has been mysteriously preserved through 1,179 years, with partial repairs. Most of its contents listed in the "Tōdaiji Kemmotsu Chō" (catalogue of donation), dated June 21, 8th year of Tempyō-shōhō (756 A.D.),

of the foreigners. A general impression of the Tempyo period, however, is that there was too much copying of Chinese art and so, too little originality. This one-sided trend of evolution gave rise to a movement in the following periods for a revival of art genuinely Japanese in origin.

Konin Period The Konin period (782-888) begins about the time that the Emperor Kammu transferred the capital from Nara to Kyoto, lasting till the reign of the Emperor Kōko. The outstanding characteristic of the Konin period lie in the phenomenal rise of native art at the hands of noted priests. Kōbodaishi and Chishō-daishi were priest sages of refined artistic endowment. Quite a number of pictures and sculptures of the period are from their hands. The Toji, Koyasan and Mildera temples treasure works of theirs. As one of the prominent painters of the time we may name Kudara Kawanari on whom there are a number of books, but none giving reliable historical information about him. He must have been among those artists summoned by the Emperor Saga to paint the pictures of landscape and rough seas seen on the walls and paper sliding-screens of the Sōryōden Hall of the palace. The custom of painting landscapes and characters on screens of the Imperial palace was thereafter developed setting a fashion in drawings which please the

eye. In those days screens were popular, and this helped to popularize landscape painting.

The typical sculptures of the period are such sacred images as are seen at the Shingoji temple, Kyoto, known as the Shingoji style sculpture, and others at the Murofuji temple in Nara prefecture, known as the Murofu style. The rise of the art of engraving images of Japanese gods may be mentioned as a memorable event of the age.

As regards architecture the period shows very few examples that now remain, the representative structures being the main hall and five-storied pagoda of the Murofuji temple. The Hélian Shrine constructed in Kyoto, closely modelled after the structures of the age under review, offers excellent material for the study of Konin architecture.

Fujiwara Period The Fujiwara period (889-1186) covers the 300 years between the reign of the Emperor Uda and that of the Emperor Antoku. At the beginning of the period the Emperor Uda, at the suggestion of Michizane Sugawara, discontinued the custom of despatching envoys to China, thereby cutting off facility of communications with the continent. During the consequent isolation Japanese art was afforded a chance to cultivate its native genius and its own field of influence. The continental art that had been freely

have been kept unharmed solely due to the loyalty of the officials and people to the Imperial House to whom the Shoso-in belongs.

The most important treasures are the "Kemmotsu Chō" (catalogue of donation), letters of the Emperor Shōmu, essays written by the Empress Kōmyō, slung sword of the Emperor Shōmu, Kin-gin Hyōmon Kin (gold and silver ornamented Oriental harp), Shitan Genkwan (a stringed instrument), Gogen Biwa (a five stringed lute) Mokuga Shitan Kikyoku (a sandal wood checker board ornamented with wooden mosaic), Toriké Tachionna Byōbu (a screen with a female figure who wears feathered garments), Urushi Ko Hēi (a lacquered carafe), Yōraku or diadems and fragments of the crowns of the Emperor Shōmu and Empress Kōmyō, Gōgaku Men (masks used in an old performance "gōgaku"), bronze mirrors, swords and other arms and armour; Imperial edict engraved on a bronze plate, glass cup, lacquered chest painted with gold and silver dust, gold and silver ornamented leather box, hangings with figures of Buddhas, Mitsu Ebon (a painted tray), silver bottle, and censer with a handle.

Priceless documents of the Tempyō period are stored in Shoso-in, 779 in all. They include census registers, maps, official documents, I.O.U. and books, and present indispensable materials for the study of official and civil life 11 centuries ago.

For the sake of protection, inspection of the treasures of the Shoso-in is not permitted to the general public, but the pictures of all treasures are published in book form named "Tōyēi Zuko," and all the documents may be found in the "Dai Nippon Ko Mon Jo" (Japan's old documents).

absorbed and adopted up to that time commenced to produce national characteristics as is demonstrated by yamatoyé work in the sphere of painting.

(1) Painting. Koséno-Kanaoka was probably the most skilled landscape painter of the period. His reputation was such that the horse he painted on a paper sliding-door was credited with getting out of the screen at night to feed on bush clover in the yard. Koséno-Hirotsuka, a well-known painter, was one of his descendants. As skilled painters of that age we may mention also Motomitsu Fujiwara, Mitsunaga Fujiwara, Takayoshi Fujiwara and his son Takachika, besides Toba-sojo and Kakyu, all of whom specialized in painting yamatoyé or native style, which had developed from a school in the Tang period of China, called Karayé. Japanese paper-doors and folding screens were what they selected to paint on.

Besides yamatoyé many other schools of Japanese style paintings were started, as the kamiyé, utayé, ashideyé, and okoyé. The last mentioned was a school of comic genius whose premier artist was Toba-sojo, a noted priest of the day. Three albums of comic pictures from his brush are treasured at the Kozanji temple. Another important arrival was the yémakimono (paper-scroll) which later developed, reaching its golden age in the Kamakura period. The aforementioned three artists were the most popular masters of the age. Some of their work still survives.

Consequent upon the ever inculcated Buddhist precepts, Buddhist paintings flourished, so much so that specialists in that art were always in evidence. In this religious sphere of painting also national characterization was effected to no meagre extent. The most outstanding of the Japanized Buddhist schools was named the Eshinfu, started by Eshinsodzu, a priest, first affiliated with the Tendai sect of Buddhism, but who later preached the doctrines of the Jodo sect. Probably this school was second to none at that time in Japanization of technique. Taméto, commonly called Great Takuma, who did the fresco work of the Ho-o-do at Uji, Kyoto, belonged to the Takuma family, producing accomplished painters of the time. The most representative Buddhist paintings are treasured at the Hokkéji, Yamashiro Chohoji, Yamato Horinji, Koya-

san, the Toji temples and the Imperial Art Museum of Tokyo.

(2) Sculpture. Remarkable advancement in the realm of Buddhist sculpture was revealed in consequence of effective doctrinal propaganda by the Tendai and Shingon sects. Wood-en-graving stood unrivalled, but that art, unlike the same mode of the previous age, was mainly in what is called parquetry work. Sculptors collaborated, and in most cases images were constructed in separate parts, each carved by a different artist, under an accomplished specialist. It is interesting to note that even in the carving of hands, feet, head and body there was a division of labor into smaller parts, and each section was put in charge of one sculptor. When completed, the several parts were put together, painted with lacquer and gilded.

Guilds of sculptors, like the Shichijé bussho, Shichijé-oniya-bussho, Rokujo-marikoji-bussho and Sanjo-bussho, established studios one after another. Especially noteworthy in this field was the Shichijé-bussho started by the famous artist Jocho who was practically supreme in the realm of sculpture in the Fujiwara period. The peculiarity of the Jocho school of his creation lies in its soft, mild features with smooth, elegant textile folds or plaits, which characterize the most glorious period of Fujiwara art. The images of Amida enshrined at the Ho-o-do, Hokaiji, Saikyoji and Chusonji temples are all representative works of the Fujiwara period.

(3) Architecture. Along with the development of Japanese style painting, a new Japanese architecture, as seen in what is called the Shinden-zukuri (main building of a peer's residence), prevailed. This style gradually encroached on the domain of sacred structures, as is well exemplified in the Ho-o-do and Konjikido, above cited.

Within 300 years after the country's adoption of a seclusion policy, an indigenous style characteristic of the Yamato race made the fullest possible development in all branches of art.

Kamakura Period Between the Emperor Gotoba and Emperor Godalgo the Kamakura Shogunate assumed the reins of government. The Kamakura period (1182-1337) of political history is at the same time that of Japanese

art. During those 140 years traditional Japanese sentiments and thought developed vigorously against the aristocratic culture which had gained influence in the previous period. Such a turn of cultural development could not but react on art: the anti-traditional spirit of the age began to tell on artistic creation. Not only from within but also from without the country a radical change was introduced, because in those days the Yuan period succeeded the Sung in China; and its highly favored cultural attainments came flooding into Japan. The two movements, of foreign and domestic origin, combined to lay a foundation for modern fine art which started and developed in and after the Muromachi period.

(1) Painting. Continued civil wars, military administration, and war literature, all contributed to the voluminous production of yémakimono (picture-scrolls) based on themes from battle scenes. Another kind of yémakimono worthy of special mention was painted for the purpose of propagating the doctrines of newly risen sects of Buddhism, such as the Zen and Jodo. This pictorial demonstration of religious doctrines proved quite effective; for, by depicting the life and work of founders, a more direct appeal was made to prospective converts. For the same reason the yémakimono came to serve also as a means to propagate knowledge of the origin and development of shrines. Quite a number of picture-scrolls of the period still remain in perfect condition, those reckoned among the greater works being the History of the Kitano Tenjin Shrine, Murasaki-shikibu-nikki, Sanjurokkasen, Mokoshural-ékotoba, Honen-shonin-gyojo-édzu. The last mentioned is a yémakimono depicting the personal history of Honen-shonin, the noted priest who founded the Jodo sect of Buddhism. Among scores of yémakimono painters, Nobuzané Fujiwara, Kéion Sumiyoshi, En-i, Takakané Takashina and Yoshimitsu Tosa were the most popular. A further noteworthy event of the period was the rise of portrait painting. Generally speaking, until this period there was no other method for reproducing figures except by sculpture. The term for portrait was niséyé. But toward the end of this period a new mode appeared. The technique of portrait painting made rapid advance from the time of Takanobu Fujiwara, Taira-no-Shigémori, Minamoto-no-Yoritomo

whose works are treasured at the Shingoji temple, all rare masterpieces.

With reference to Buddhist painting, the aforementioned Takuma school gradually improved in technique; and with the appearance of Shoga, a descendant of the Takumas, the Takuma school of Buddhist painting was founded, drawing a clear line between the old and the new delineations.

(2) Sculpture. The Kamakura period was also a fecund age in the direction of sculpture. Compared with the work of the preceding period it appeals with more virility. The Shichijé-bussho, the most important sculptors' association or guild, which had been making steady progress, produced a group of consummate artists in Koéi, Unkéi, Jokaku, Kalkéi, Tankéi, Jokéi, Koben and Koshô, all contemporaries. Among them the most skilled were Unkéi, Tankéi and Kalkéi, who are recognized as the best sculptors since the time of Jocho. Whereas Unkéi and Tankéi excelled in producing the expression of passion, as in statues of nio (Deva kings), Kalkéi specialized in gentle, elegant figures, like those from the chisel of Jocho.

(3) Industrial Art. Lacquer-ware technique, too, made a remarkable advance. The art of engraving also progressed, especially with the appearance of the Kamakura-bori (Kamakura style of engraving). Technique in metal work, also saw much development, inheriting the characteristic virtue of the Fujiwara period. Up to that time the native ceramic art was in so primitive a stage that only unglazed ware could be manufactured. After Kato Shirozaémon-Kagéhisa returned from Sung, marked progress was made in this field, and fine chinaware became a home product.

(4) Architecture. The mansions of nobles had been built in the Shinden-zukuri style, but during the Kamakura period the Buké-zukuri style of architecture started and soon dominated. This is a simple, plain style with an unusual number of sliding-doors to let in light. Though this style of structure has gone out long ago, one can get an idea of it through various yémakimono in which this style of architecture is represented. After the advent of the Zen sect of Buddhism under Eisai-zenshi from China, then called Sung, and the establishment of the Kenninji temple at Kyoto, Zen style of architecture

came to attract attention. A good example of this style, still intact, is the Enkokuji temple at Kamakura.

Muromachi Period Succeeding the Kamakura age came the Muromachi period (1337-1573), which after the two centuries and a half of civil strife, ended with the downfall of the Ashikaga Shogunate. In China the civil disturbances of the late Yuan dynasty had been brought under control by the rise of the Ming, resulting in the advent of the golden age of Ming culture, which exercised some influence on Japan.

(1) **Painting.** As was customary whenever Chinese culture attained its zenith, communication between the two countries, which had been on the wane, revived again, resulting in the gradual decline of yemakimono, portrait and Buddhist painting, handed down from the preceding Kamakura period, which were unable to cope with the powerful influence of Sung-Yuan style of painting in China. Early in this period there were not a few yemakimono worthy of note such as the Gosannen-gunki by Korohisa Fujiwara and the Yuzu-nembutsu-engi, joint work of Hiroyuki Tosa, Yukihide Katsuga, Mitsukuni Fujiwara, Ryuko Awataguchi, Jakusa Rokkaku and Eishun Hogan. The latter still remains in the form of a colored wood-engraving, perhaps the most widely known as our oldest example of this art.

Typical portrait work of the period is that of the Emperor Godaigo in the Daitokuji temple, Kyoto, and of Yoshimochi Ashikaga, at the Shingoji temple. Far more characteristic of the age, however, are the portraits of Zen priests or so-called "chinso." The most typical chinso is, perhaps, the portrait of Seiichi-kokushi, painted by Mincho, preserved in the Tofukuji temple. Strictly speaking, chinso has more similarity to the Sung-Yuan style than to the Tosa school of portraits.

Buddhist painting of the Muromachi period may roughly be adjudged stationary. Copying of old works seemed to have been the only task attracting artists, among whom a priest named Myotaku-zenshi was known for skill in painting Acala pieces; the principal works of this priest-painter are treasures of the Imperial Art Museum. The most distinguished pictorial artist throughout the period, however, was Mincho. Among his works handed down to the

present are the portrait of Seiichi-kokushi, above-mentioned, Gohyakurakan (500 disciples of Buddha) in the Tofukuji temple, and Dainichanzu, known as the largest painting in the country. In his brush work are ample traces of the style of the Sung-Yuan period in China; and he was, moreover, the leading painter of the age by whose art the Continental technique, introduced with the Zen sect in the Kamakura period, was digested, assimilated and consummated.

Special mention should be made of the advent of the Sun-Ming style in yamatoye work, enhancing the traditional style of that art. This new movement was no doubt made possible by the Ashikaga policy of encouraging trade with China, then called Ming. In consequence, numerous Chinese works of art continued to be imported, greatly stimulating the domestic art world. Among the various art institutions then inherited from the Continent, kakemono (hanging pictures) and a more advanced technique in painting flowers and birds were perhaps the most outstanding. It is also a fact worthy of special mention that the Sung-Yuan style of sumiyé painting (black and white) became popular throughout Japan, under artists like Jasoku Soga, Sotan Oguri, Shinno Nakano, Sesshu and Masanobu Kano. These five sumiyé painters were talented pupils of Shubun who enjoyed the confidence of the Shogun and occupied an important position under the Shogunate government as a painter.

(2) **Sculpture.** Images of Buddha continued to be supplied by the Shichijobussho of which mention has already been made. But these products gradually lost their artistic value. The aforementioned Shubun was also a good sculptor. It is said of his skill that the great wooden statue, 40 feet high, of Amitabha, enshrined in the Unkyoji temple, was originally the work of a Nara sculptor, but was retouched by Shubun's chisel and improved.

(3) **Industrial Art.** In this epoch the development shown in industrial art was mainly due to the whimsical enthusiasm of the Shogun. Chanoyu (tea ceremony), a ceremonial etiquette genuinely Japanese, gave rapid rise to various branches of industrial art especially in fine porcelain, the climax of which was reached during the latter part of the period. This progress was not only

in works of manual art like tea-cups, trays and so on, but in kakemono and tokonoma (alcove) furnishings of the tea-room, and the building itself, all of which are required for the full ceremony of tea-serving. Most of the tea-cups used for chanoyu in those days were of Chinese make, or imports from the South Seas.

(4) **Architecture.** The Zen style of architecture greatly improved. This, combined with the cult of chanoyu, lent impetus to the construction of simple but tasteful habitations and temples, with gardens and arbors harmonious to the main building, well represented by the Kinkakuji and Ginkakuji temples in Kyoto.

Momoyama Period The 25 years from 1574 to 1598 is termed the Momoyama period. During this comparatively short interval civil disturbances stirred up the whole country under the governments of Nobunaga Oda and Hideyoshi Toyotomi, acting as military dictators.

(1) **Painting.** Eltoku Kano was perhaps the greatest painter of the period. Nearly all the mural pictures in the castles of Azuchi and Osaka and the mansion of Shuraku are attributed to the brush of this famous artist. The peculiarity of the painting of the period lies in its grand scale and gorgeous, bright coloring. This is especially true of Eltoku Kano's work. Another noted landscape and uktyoyé painter was Sanraku Kano; in the Sesshu school of sumiyé were Kogan Unkoku and Tohaku Haségawa; the Tosa school had Mitsuyoshi who succeeded to the Tosa school which had by that time been reduced to a school only in name.

(2) **Sculpture.** The most striking feature of the Momoyama sculpture is its clever adaptation to decoration of architecture. Besides Hidari-Jingoro, whose fame as an accomplished sculptor and engraver still enjoys nationwide popularity, there were skilled artists like Yuzaemon Miyonishi and Matayemon Okabé. As in the Muromachi period, the art of carving "No" masks came into vogue.

(3) **Industrial Art.** Metal work experienced remarkable improvement. The sword-guard artists evolved novel designs. Also in the technique of bronze casting no insignificant progress was made by casters like Yashichiro Nagoya, Dojin Nishimura, Yojiro Tsuji-

do, Yayemon Nagoya and Echizen-no-Shojo-sansho. The current of the age could not but influence the art of raised lacquer, handed down from previous periods; now works on large scale, fit for the decorative purposes of architecture, began to dominate the situation. The Kannon-do of Chikubu-shima Island, Biwa lake, and the Kodaiji temple of Kyoto best represent the technique of this period.

Ceramics also were greatly enhanced in technique. Impelled by the nationwide use of chinaware, due to the popularization of chanoyu, imported articles grew insufficient. As a natural consequence, home industry in this direction was greatly stimulated, resulting in Nagasaké Chojiro's invention of the rakuyaki style and Rokubéi Mikazuki's bizenyaki style of ceramic ware. In the realm of textile art, what is to be noted is that in the Tencho Era (1573) a new technique in weaving was introduced from Ming China, and reached Nishijin, Kyoto, where it appeared in the form of Yamato-nishiki, Ito-nishiki, karaori-nishiki, kinran (gold brocade), donau (satin damask), rinzu, and so on.

In conclusion it may be said of the art of the Momoyama period that, while developing such gorgeous and imposing structures as the Jurakudai and Momoyama Castle, it popularized the exclusive, austere and polite art of chanoyu. Thus two diametrically opposed arts developed all through the Momoyama period.

Yédo Period The Yédo period (1603-1867) started with the Tokugawa Shogunate in Tokyo, then called Yédo, and terminated with the downfall of that government just before the Meiji Restoration. During the 260 years of the Tokugawa Shogunate Yédo flourished, cultivating its own culture as against that of Kyoto, giving the country two centers of culture, one in the east and the other in the west.

In the early Yédo period communication with countries beyond the sea opened and foreign trade was thereby greatly stimulated. Whereas hitherto Japan had had little or no dealing with Europeans, save Spaniards and Portuguese, Japan now began to be visited by Hollanders and Britons who came to her shores for commercial purposes. Relations with neighboring countries also increased in intimacy, due to improved communication facilities. Nevertheless,

the people were not satisfied with official passivity but extended their trade with Siam, Cochin, Tonking, Luzon. Furthermore, Iyéyasu Tokugawa, the first Shogun of that line, even attempted to trade with Spain and Mexico, sending envoys for that purpose. By this improved intercourse with foreign countries traditional Japanese art was greatly influenced. In the Kan-éi Era (1644), Emosaku Yamada first produced pictures in Western style painting. Fortunately or unfortunately, however, the third Shogun, Iyémitsu, with a view to stamping out Roman Catholicism pursued and imposed an isolation policy by prohibiting the entrance of all foreigners except Hollanders and Chinese. Under this high-handed policy the infiltration of foreign influence was almost completely checked, and domestic genius again came into its own, developing another golden age of fine art.

(1) **Painting.** The Kanos, who had flourished since the Muromachi period, produced skilled artists like Yasunobu, Naonobu, Tsunénobu and Morinobu, all of whom had the honor of serving the Shogunate as official painters. But this special favor proved a cause of decline in the Kano school later. Among the foregoing four principal members of the Kano school, the last mentioned, Morinobu, was the most excellent, known by the pen-name of Tan-yu. Tsunénobu ranks next in artistic skill. The Tosa school, which had been waning in influence, recovered its laurels in the days of Mitsuoki who was promoted to the Emperor's service. In those days the Sumiyoshi school originated from the Tosa, and became firmly established under Jokéi, younger brother of Mitsuoki. Toward the close of this period an attempt was made for the revival of yamatoyé, by Totsugon Tanaka, Ikkéi Ukita and Tamétaka Okada, among whom the latter was pre-eminent. The yamatoyé of the Meiji and Taisho eras started from their work. Yosai Kikuchi is another painter of the group.

One of the greatest painters of the age was Korin Ogata whose art may be traced back to that of Sotatsu school which was originally a style of painting for decorative purposes. Under Korin were Kenzan, Shiko Watanabé and Hôtsu Sakai. Their work surprised foreign eyes as a revelation of the peculiar excellence of Japanese art. Being used for decoration the work of the Koetsu

school had close relations with textile, dyeing, ceramic and other technical industries of the time.

Ukiyôé, which for originality is one of the salient art products of the Yédo period, developed hand in hand with popular drama and popular literature. It is said that the Ukiyôé or genre style of picture, was started by Iwasa Matabé-shô; certainly he and Choshun Mlyagawa, Shunsho Katsukawa, Utamaro Kitagawa, Klyonaga Torii, and Hokusai Katsushika are known as the most accomplished ukiyôé painters. Of ukiyôé there are two kinds, namely, hand-painting and color-print. The latter form was most characteristic of the age. The black and white prints, started by Moronobu Hishikawa, were forerunners of beniyé, which is a colored print made on colored wood blocks, an engraved block for each color. Before this printing process was adopted for mass production, brushes were used for coloring. At first two colors, red and green, were used for printing from engraved blocks, but Harunobu Suzuki later invented an improved process of printing in five colors, starting the nishikiyé which met with popular favor as time went on. Later, in the hands of masters like Utamaro and Hokusai, the process of color-printing from wood-engravings saw marked improvement, until the finished pieces far surpassed the original hand-painted work in artistic value. Landscape prints in ukiyôé style were started by the famous Hiroshigé Ando. Some people may look down upon ukiyôé as vulgar art; but nevertheless it was art most true to the life of the Yédo period. In later years it was not seldom that European collectors of works of fine art were found ready to pay even several thousand yen for a sheet of mere color-print. This was not without reason.

Special mention should also be made of the arrival of Ifuchieu, a painter of the Ching dynasty in China; for it was through this artist that the Nan-Sung literary school of painting was first introduced into this country. In the early days of the Nan-Sung style of painting, Nankai Gion, Hyakusen Sakaki, Taiga Ikéno and Buson Yosano were its most excellent exponents. Later, with the rise of Chinese classics, the Nan-Sung literary school made great progress and its influence practically dominated the country, producing such noted names

as Unseo Kushiro, Daizen Hirose, Kai-aki Noro, Chikuden Tanomura, Kazan Watanabé, Aigai Takaku, Baikan Sugai, Hânko Okada, Chikudo Nakabayashi and Balitsu Yamamoto, among whom Chikuden Tanomura was reputed the most excellent. Kazan Watanabé and Balitsu Yamamoto enjoyed popular favor next to Chikuden.

Buncho Tani became the most brilliant artist of the age, both in Pei-Sung and Nan-Sung styles of painting; he was a pupil of Kangen Kitayama who learned technique from Fei Hün-yuan and Chu Ko-chin who entered Japan during the Ching dynasty of China. There were some other very important painters, too, namely, Rikyo Yanagisawa, Jakuchu Ito, Sosen Mori and Ganku. Especially popular were the pictures of domestic fowls by Jakuchu, and monkeys by Sosen.

An important event, moreover, was the appearance of the Maruyama school with Okyo Maruyama as its founder. Okyo's style was derived mainly from Ming and Ching paintings, and developed into what resembled sketches. His pupil, Goshun Matsumura, established the Shijo school, which in later years grew to be as popular as the Maruyama school. By these two styles the Kyoto world of pictorial art was dominated.

(2) **Architecture.** The Momoyama architecture of the preceding period developed into a far more elaborate style, and with more elegance. This elaborate rococo style of Yédo architecture had less value as fine art than as mere decoration. Examples of the architecture of this period are found in the celebrated buildings at Nikko, which, as everybody can recognize, are more worthy to be called an excellent decoration than an excellent example of fine art.

(3) **Sculpture.** Although there is not much to be said about the sculpture of this period there are yet two outstanding instances that exemplify the use of Chinese carving: there are the Mam-pukuji temple at Uji, Kyoto, by a Chinese, Ingenzenshi, and the art of Zen-shu-chokoku (Zen architecture), by a Buddhist sculptor, Fan Ton-sheng, from Foochow, China.

(4) **Industrial Art.** Both manual and industrial art greatly advanced in technique, and metal, textile, dyeing, lacquer and ceramic industries flourished like all sorts and varieties of flowers. A

Chinese introduced from Ming the progress of decorating ceramics with brilliant colors or in gold or silver. And through the efforts of Kakiemon Sakai and others the famous Arita and Imari potteries were founded. In this field of fine art the name of Jinsai Nonomura should be remembered, for he occupied the highest position. Cloisonné ware also experienced a remarkable promotion in technique, along with other branches of industrial art.

The time arrived at last when the people awoke from their age-long sleep, and the doors that had been closed to foreigners were opened. Besides Hollanders, came Russians, Britons, Frenchmen and Americans, in spite of the national agitation to keep the country shut against foreign intercourse. Already from Holland Western learning and art had percolated in through Nagasaki. Oil painting in Western style was attempted by Gennai Hiraga. The new style of painting spread far into the country even to Akita prefecture, and reached consummation under Kokan Shiba later. Thus towards the close of the Yédo period the urge of Western art reached Japanese shores in great force.

Meiji Art. The modern age in the history of Japanese fine art started over 60 years ago when the Emperor Meiji established the Imperial government in Tokyo. The Oriental fine art, which first originated in Mesopotamia, made eastward advance blending with Indian and Chinese art until it reached the Far East and established its central influence in Japan.

(1) **Architecture.** With the Meiji Restoration came a turning point in our history; the country was opened to free foreign intercourse, followed by the inflow of European culture like a flood. Western civilization soon began to exercise an overwhelming influence all over the country, and eventually everything foreign met with enthusiastic popular favor. This phenomenal change in the country directly influenced architecture; and European-style of structures sprang up here and there. Even in the Japanese style of building were mixed Western modes of architecture. These radical changes in the architectural world of Japan had no small influence on other branches of our fine art.

(2) **Japanese Painting.** In the early part of the period Nan-Sung literary

painting still prevailed, supported by Kyō Hoashi, Kosōki Nakanishi, Shōka Watanabé, Gōkaku Hirano, Rozan Yasuda, Soun Tasaki, Yukoku Noguchi, Alzan Taniguchi, Kwatēi Taki, Chokunyu Tanomura, Sēiko Okumura, Kampe Araki, Shōhin Noguchi and others.

It so happened that in the 11th year of Meiji Prof. Ernest F. Fenolosa, an American professor in the department of philosophy at Tokyo Imperial University, being charmed with Japanese paintings such as the ukiyō and Kano and Tosa work, proposed to start a movement for the preservation of these schools of art. In conformity with his suggestion, the Government, in the 21st year of Meiji, established the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts. As a result of the movement, the old schools of Japanese style of painting revived and a number of painters regained influence of whom the more distinguished were Hōgai Kano and Gaho Hashimoto of the Kano school; Kangyo Morizumi, Kangi Yamana, Mitatē Kawabē, Fūko Matsu-moto of the Tosa school; Zeshin Shibata, Kansai Mori, Bairō Yukino, Gyokusho Kawabata, Keinen Imao of the Maruyama school; Chikudo of the Kishi school; Honen Tsukitaka and Gekko Ogata of the ukiyō school.

In the 40th year of Meiji the first art exhibition was opened by the Education Office; and since that time it has been held once every year, greatly stimulating the resurrection of traditional Japanese art. The Tokyo circle of Japanese style painters was represented by Taikan Yokoyama, Kōzan Shimomura, Kōgyo Terasaki, Gyokudo Kawai, Tomonō Kobori, Jippo Araki, Sufun Komuro, Somēi Yuki, Kiyokata Kaburagi, Rēika Yoshikawa, Eikyū Matsuoka, Hyakusui Hirafuku and Kōgōtsu Matsuhayashi; while in the Kyoto circle were well-known painters like Kokyo Taniguchi, Hōbun Kikuchi, Sōho Takēuchi, Shunkyo Yamamoto, Kako Toji, Kōgōtsu Kikuchi and Suisho Nishiyama. All of these leaders displayed great activity in nurturing the Japanese style of painting as we see it today.

(3) Western Painting. Towards the end of the Yōdo Era the foundation of the Occidental style in painting had already been laid by Kokan Shiba and Denzen Aodo; and now came Togai Kawakami, Yūichi Takahashi, Horyū Gosōda, Hosui Yamamoto, Shinkuro Kunisawa, Chu Asai, Shotaro Oyama,

Kiyowo Kawamura and Naōjiro Harada, for whom the former foundation work became the basis for a new start. In the early Meiji days, English and Italian painters came to give lessons at the fine art department of the Tokyo Imperial University. Later, in the 21st year of Meiji, the Meiji Bijufukai was founded for the purpose of enhancing the Western style of painting. It was, however, not until Kiyōtōru Kuroda returned from France and opened a department for Western style painting in the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts, that the Occidental mode really became established. Important artists in the new style in those days were Saburokū Okada, Eisaku Wada, Takēji Fujishima, Kotaro Nagahara, Mankichi Kobayashi, Fusetsu Nakamura, Kunishiro Mitsutani, Sanzo Wada and Kunzo Minami. The models set by these great painters still prevail today, but will in future be more subjected to the influence of the Japanese style before reaching consummation, just as the Japanese style will assimilate Western motives and technique as it keeps on its forward march.

(4) Industrial Art. The ceramic industry made rapid advancement after the arrival of Wagner from Germany with a new technique; and with the help of Kozan Miyagawa, Yohēi Kiyokazé, Dohachi Takahashi, Rokubēi Shimizu and Sobēi Kinkozan. In recent years Hōzan Itaya, Rokubēi Shimizu and Ichiga Numata have won distinction in this sphere of art. During the Meiji Era, fine cloisonné was manufactured and exported in abundance. Metal work also developed to a remarkable extent, producing a number of skilled artists. In the domain of lacquer and dyeing industries no less improvement brought Japanese industrial art to the verge of its golden age.

The tendency of Western countries to vie with one another in holding Japanese art exhibitions amply endorses the international value of Japanese art.

(5) Sculpture. Upon opening the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts, Kyūichi Takēuchi and Kōun Takamura gave lessons in traditional Japanese wood sculpture. Western style sculpture was also taught, by an Italian instructor in the academy, side by side with lessons from Shukēi Naganuma who had returned from Italy, followed by Fumio Asakura, Taimu Tatēhata, Sēibo Kitamura. From Kōun Takamura and Kyūichi Takēuchi

we come down to Choun Yamasaki, Unkai Yonēhara, Dōchū Hirakushi, Shin Naito. In the Meiji Era the rise of ivory carving was also conspicuous, producing engravers like Gyokuzan Asahi and Komyo Ishikawa.

What helped the phenomenal ascendancy of all branches of art were the Buntens (Education Office's art exhibition) which later came to be called Tēien (Tēikoku Bijutsuin art exhibition), and the Inten (Nihon Bijutsuin art exhibition). Besides, there were and are exhibitions held by many other smaller groups of painters. From the viewpoint of art, it is not too much to say that Japan is to the Orient what France is to Europe.

Fine Arts During 1938-41

(See pp. 768-776, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41 and pp. 749-756, the Japan Year Book, 1941-42.)

Movement in Art Circles, 1941-1942

Introduction Following the trend of the previous year, Artistic circles in 1941-42 continued to be prosperous. The period covered by this review comprises the last half of 1941 and the first half of 1942, the latter including the period of the Greater East Asia War and the former being the gloomy months leading up to the outbreak of the war. Under this emergency period, one would imagine that the extraordinary period of warlike conditions should arrest the progress and development of art, but surprising as it may seem, artistic circles witnessed an atmosphere of unusual activity. Numerous art exhibitions were held throughout the country, the number of people who attended these exhibitions being twice that of the year before. New art societies made their appearance notwithstanding the restrictive measures. Publication of art books were well received and had wide circulation in spite of their prices being high. The popularity of these publications could not be attributed to want of other amusements, as the former can hardly substitute the latter, but should be ascribed to an increasing art-sense in the general public. As to the subject-matter of art creations and publications, it is noted that the contemporary trend of general affairs predominated.

A nation has no existence apart from the daily life of the people. Art is therefore tending to reach out to the

matter-of-fact life of the people in every branch of national activities. For example, there are frequent art exhibitions held in factories and work shops under the auspices of the Sangyo-Hokoku-Kai (Patriotic Industrial Association). There are also frequent exhibitions held on streets, displaying posters, cartoons, sketches, etc., relating to the campaign.

During the year before, exhibitions and art societies were mainly centered in Tokyo but during the current year there has been a tendency to hold exhibitions in small towns and villages as well.

A remarkable progress is noted in industrial arts, such as wood carving, bamboo ware, pottery, lacquer, and glass painting which are produced in greater quantities. Various kind of industrial art organizations such as lacquer artists league, wooden sculpture league have been combined, producing a favorable result in the organized production of art works.

The reason for this sudden development is to be attributed not only to the growing popularity of art and nationalistic expression through art which is evident in recent times, but also to the complete stoppage of foreign products of art as a result of the war.

So far we have referred to the practical aspect of art. Now turning to the research study pertaining to art, we notice a large number of publications on art subjects particularly on industrial arts. Reflecting the trend of the times, research into classical Japanese art has been stressed and good many books on the subject have been published. Representative among such works are—"Nihon Bijutsushi Taikō (Outline of Japanese Art History)" edited by Dr. Fujikake, "Toa Kobunka Kenkyū (Study of East Asia Classic Culture)" by Dr. Yoshihito Harada; "Nihon Bijutsushi Kenkyū" (Study of Japanese Art History), "Toyo Bijutsushi Kenkyū" (Study of Oriental Art History), and "Kōkogaku Kenkyū" (Study of Antiquities)."

All these by Dr. Kosaku Hamada, formerly the president of the Kyoto Imperial University.

A definite demarcation in the development of art during 1941-42 may be noted after the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War. The period preceding the war was largely centered on the classical Japanese Art, and the period following exhibited a sudden turn to the study of

the art of southern regions, on account of the need for the creation of a common art standard for the area comprising the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere.

Books on the subjects have been increasingly making their appearance.

Chief Features Chief features of art movements in the current year are, (1) paintings with maritime motif, such as the sea battle of Hawaii and the battles off Java, off Malay; (2) mural paintings showing the development of the Japanese race; (3) industrial arts, which have witnessed sudden development; (4) popularization of exhibitions; (5) paintings depicting the war front, by artists accompanying the fighting forces. We shall now review these features in greater detail.

Maritime Art Paintings of sea-battles come under this section, and were exhibited in a series of exhibitions under the name of Maritime Art Exhibitions. An outstanding exhibition of this category was held at the Bijutsu-kan (Art Gallery) in Ueno Park, in commemoration of the Navy Day, from May 25 to June 5. This was the largest exhibition of its kind to be held in Tokyo, and was held under the joint auspices of the Naval Association, Japan Maritime Art Association, Asahi News Paper, and with the support of the Navy Office. The exhibition was visited by the Navy Minister and was well attended by the general public. The Navy Office bought the following paintings for decoration at the Navy Ministry:

Western Style Paintings—Torazo Tanaka's "The Sea," Ikunosuke Shirataki's "The Morning Sea," Kunzo Minami's "Going Through the Twilight," Shigehiko Ishikawa's "Waiting the Tide at Twilight."

Japanese Style Paintings—Ikkel Kojima's "Port Mimitsu," Toyomaro Iwata's "Beach of Mitsu," Otohiko Muramatsu's "Sail-boat Yamahara."

Maritime Art exhibitions are not confined only to paintings of sea battles, the object of the exhibitions being to show the close connection existing between the growth of the Japanese nation and the sea. Many of the paintings deal with the maritime life of the Japanese people, and the old traditions connected with the sea. The object of the artist in this category of painting is to elaborate the maritime culture of the nation, and to arouse the appeal for the sea.

An art critic referring to the aspect of painting describes it as follows—"We must arouse the maritime spirit which lies deep in our blood. There may be various ways in which this could be done, but one of the most important is the role played by marine artists. The work of artists in this category is not complete by merely depicting the sea skillfully, but by aiming to arouse sea spirit among the people. For that the artist has to bring into play the peculiar native love and sentiment toward the sea."

Maritime civilizations of various peoples have a distinct stamp of their own, as, for instance, the Hellenic culture being closely connected with Aegean Sea, and British culture reflecting the early life of its buccaneers.

In point of maritime culture, the East shows characteristics which are peculiarly its own as against Occidental culture.

Owing to the strong influence exerted by the continental cultures, Japan in the past could not develop propensity to maritime civilization, but in recent times her native gift in this line has been aroused and she must give full expression to her latent abilities in this line. The Sixth Marine Art Exhibition was held from May 24 to June 4, 1942, at the Art Gallery in Ueno. The exhibition was held to commemorate the brilliant successes of the Imperial Navy in the Greater East Asia War. Among more than 1,000 paintings submitted for exhibition, 74 Western style and 16 Japanese style paintings were chosen for exhibition, in addition to 77 works of Member Artists and 167 invited works placed on exhibition. Among the exhibits were some of the works depicting the Malay sea battle, Hawaii sea battle, Coral sea battle and other scenes of the gallant sea eagles in action. Other subjects were warships, transport vessels, fishing villages on home front, ship yards, etc. The pictures rendered great service to arouse the national sentiment of the people. This exhibition attracted unprecedented number of visitors. Prizes were awarded as follows:—

Navy Minister's prize: (Japanese style painting) Shiro Kasamatsu's "Fishing." (Western style painting), Yutaka Yasuda's "Herring Caught in the Net."

Asahi News Paper prize: (Japanese style) Hiroyuki Matsuyama's "Ship Yard"; (Western style) Kumano's "Mending." Mitsuru Mano's "Prince

Yoshiro Takeru" and Kinsen Kubo's "Maniwa Rinzo"; all these are to be permanently exhibited in the Navy Museum.

Morals by groups of artists Works of this class were exhibited in the fourth exhibition by members of Insho Domoto's school, which is developing new trends in Japanese painting.

The above exhibition was held from May 15, 1941, at Dalmaru Department Store, Osaka; from May 20, at Dalmaru, Kobe; from June 6, at Art Museum, Kyoto.—all watched with keen interest. The exhibits consisted of 18 wall paintings, five feet long and twenty feet broad, by fifty-five artists. Reflecting the spirit of the emergency period "Wako (soft sunlight)" by Chosel Miwa, Aki Fujiki, and Heizo Seno, depicting a Japanese girl in company with girls of southern regions. It represents the peaceful relations of Asiatic races in an atmosphere of mutual cooperation. "Resting Place of Labor" by Mitsuo Togawa, Masashi Furukawa and Masachi Shimomura is a work showing a man of the south working in the beautiful setting of his native sea.

"Sewing People" by Miyoko Ohhi, Osako Miki, and Sozo Okuda, represents a number of young girls working at a sewing machine; "Enjoying with Soli" by Makoto Takai, Chosaburo Ikeda and Hakushin Tokumoto depicts a group of boys and girls, cows, houses, sheep, pigs, rabbits, and chickens, showing the beauty of farm labor in war time.

"Kan-ze-on (The goddess of Mercy)" by Insho Domoto, the leading artist showing the figure of Avalokitesvara among the Bodhi-sattvas.

These works were contributed to the Information Bureau which exhibited these works at the Art Gallery at Ueno to invite aid for the development of wall paintings.

Following the exhibition of Domoto school, the fifth exhibition of Japan Wall Painting Association was held from June 3 to 7 at Seijusha Gallery. The subjects of the paintings were all connected with East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere. "Traveller in Jehol," "Manufacturing Center" by Tsuruta are among the outstanding exhibits.

In October "A Picture of Modern Japan" was completed by Tetsuro Hashimoto, a member of Nika Art Society which was sent to Bangkok as a memento from Japan in connection with the Anniversary Celebration of the Constitution of Thailand.

It was a fine work, 20 feet long and 18 feet broad, representing a large scene of Tokyo. This was done at the request of Kokusai Bunka Shinko Kai (The Society for International Cultural Relations).

In 1942 Tokyu Sha held its fifth exhibition of the year from May 5 in Osaka, Kyoto, Nagoya and Kobe.

Their wall paintings in this year were monumental ones, much superior to those of the preceding year. They were, "The Sound of the Wheel," "Smoking Street," "Across the River," "A Unit in Dawn," "Rushing Through a Jungle," "Light in the South," etc. The first-mentioned of these, "The Sound of the Wheel" was the largest of them all and strikes a harmonious note. The object of these works being to instill a spirit of cooperation, it has a deep significance in the present emergency period.

Popular Art in Daily Life In May 1941 Nihon Shitsugei-in (Japan Lacquer Work Society) held its fifth exhibition at the Mitsukoshi, Nihonbashi. From the point of view of traditional technique and freshness of motif, the exhibits were valuable.

In June, the Glass-Work Artists in Tokyo formed an association and decided to hold a exhibition of their works once a year, in the same month, Rokubei Shimizu and Hazan Itaya, members of the Imperial Art Academy, the foremost pottery artists in Japan, and five exhibition of modern pottery art under the auspices of the art department of Takashimaya Department Store. Also, there was an exhibition of housewives' works, at Takashimaya. It was organized by Toshiko Hachisuka, Yachiyo Okada, Etsuko Ichijo, and twenty other noted women, for the purpose of promoting refined living.

In October, the third Export Design Art Exhibition was held, and 80 exhibits were on display and received favorably by the public.

In 1942—this movement made great strides. It was evidenced in the birth of the Welfare Art Association. This is a group formed by members of the Creative Artist Association for the purpose of bringing aesthetic joys to laborers in factories through art, and thereby promote industrial efficiency. A movement was started at the beginning for establishing dining room art in factories. The welfare department of Sangyo Hokoku-kai having noted the valuable effect produced upon labor by

this movement has begun to extend positive support.

The Japan Technological Artist Society held first exhibition in June 1942, at Takashimaya Department Store, under the auspices of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. The object of the society is to work for the cultural advancement of the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere, through technological art. The exhibition contained 430 articles from Tokyo, Kyoto, Kanazawa, Kagawa, Aichi and other centers noted for the production of art objects of this category. Among the special exhibits displayed were 100 interesting pieces from Thailand, French Indo-China, Java, Burma and other areas of Co-prosperity Sphere contributed by the Tokyo Art School, Imperial Museum, and the private collections of Fumio Asakura and Shigezo Okano.

These exhibits helped to promote considerable interest in southern culture.

In the field of technological art there were numerous exhibitions by private groups or individuals. For the promotion of prefectural arts, exhibitions were held in various prefectures.

In Ishikawa Prefecture, the Ishikawa Prefectural Art Society and Ishikawa Technological Culture Society were formed during the year; Ishikawa Prefecture has had a traditional reputation for its technological arts, its climate and customs having a bearing on its peculiar development in this line. Of recent times, however, it has become rather backward, on account of its conservative outlook. The Society is therefore laying stress on the development of modern trends to make the art fall in line with the new requirements of the nation under the emergency period. Hence a departure from the traditional standards in the object of the newly formed society.

Prefectural art circles witnessed particular activity in Kyoto and Nara, the two centers of classical or traditional art.

Plans for the Greater East Asia Art The problem of directing the development of the ideas and standards of art in the Co-prosperity Sphere, began to be taken up in earnestness with the occupation of southern regions. With the new fields opened up for artists through newspapers and exhibitions and the demand for front line pictures, rising

artists have turned away from the necessity of competing for a place in such high class exhibitions as Buntén, Nika or Dokuritsu, which were only open to the rigidly selected works of art.

South Seas Art Association was formed in June last year, under the presidency of Mango Kobayashi with twenty members, all of whom have direct knowledge of southern regions. This society embarked upon problems of active aim that popularizing southern art in Japan.

In November, an exhibition of Japanese paintings was held in French Indo-China under the auspices of Foreign Office and Kokusai Bunka Shinko-kai. A collection of 160 pieces of Japanese painting were exhibited in Haiphong, Saigon, Hanoi and other important cities with Tugui Fujita in charge.

During 1942, the Nitto Art Society collected new style Japanese paintings from the public, and exhibited their collection in Manchoukuo, China, Hongkong, Philippines, French Indo-China, Thailand, Malaya, East Indies, etc. The Society is planning to open its branches in some of the above-mentioned places and to dispatch some leading artists to these areas, commissioned with executing memorial paintings of the Greater East Asia War.

Memorial Paintings With the object of causing memorial paintings of the Greater East Asia War to be painted, the Navy Office selected 16 artists and sent them to the southern areas. The artists who were selected were as follows:

Japanese painting: Yukihiko Yasuda, Gengetsu Yazawa, Chosel Miwa and Kohel Ezaki; Western painting: Tugui Fujita, Ken-ichi Nakamura, Saburo Miyamoto and Kei Sato; Sculpture: Naondo Nakamura.

Besides, Navy Office caused 17 historic marine paintings to be painted from the reign of Emperor Jimmu to the end of Tokugawa period by renowned artists of historical themes. A selection of these paintings were shown at the 6th maritime art exhibition which was held in May this year, after which they were hung up in the Naval Museum. The works are as follows:—

"Emperor Jimmu's Expeditionary Ship" by Yukihiko Yasuda; "Empress Jingo's Expedition to Korea" by Gakuryo Nakamura; "Abé Hirao's Expedition" by Masami Iwata; "A Japanese

Mission sailing to China" by Tadao Komura; "The Naval Battle Between Genji and Heike" by Katsutoshi Araki; "Attack by Kublai Khan's Armada" by Tadashi Moriya; "Kitabatake Chikafusa's Eastward Advance from Ohminato" by Aritsuné Hattori; "Scene of the Medieval Sea Battle" by Kako Morito; "Pirate Ships" by Selson Maeda; "Sea Battle in Bouroku and Keicho" by Tényo Ohta; "Japanese Abroad" by Choshu Isoda; "Hasekura Tsunenaga Departure for Europe" by Kohel Ezaki; "Yamada Nagamasa's Feat" by Yasuo Kobori; "Yoshida Shoin's Attempted Voyage" by Seiho Ikeda; "Mamiya Rinso's Expedition" by Klaus Kubota; "The Coming of Black Ships" by Kyuho Noda.

The War Office also planned to have memorial paintings of the Imperial Army's exploits in the greater East Asia War and deputed 16 artists of first class calibre to the south. The works are to be exhibited by December 8, 1942, the first Anniversary of the Greater East Asia War. Artists are: Shin Kurihara (Malaya), Junkichi Mukai (Philippines), Kazuya Takamitsu (Southern Area), Masayoshi Minami (Java).

A notable exhibition was that held by Showa Manyo Kai during June last year, at Kojunsha, Ginza. The Showa Manyo Kai is an organization established by Tadao Yoshimura, Aritsuné Hattori, Masami Iwata, Gakuryo Nakamura, all authorities of Yamato school painting. The object of these paintings is to represent the spirit of Nara culture on the canvas; and by it to contribute to arousing the national sentiment under the emergency conditions. Notable works exhibited were: "Imamatsuribe Yasofu" and "Ohtomono-Yakamochi" by Yoshimura, "Kakinomoto-no Hitomaro" by Hattori, "Ohtomono-Yakamochi" by Iwata, "Yamabe-no Akahito" by Nakamura, etc.—being all portraits of famous men of letters of the Nara period. Among the exhibits were some representative pieces of earthen ware and tiles of the Nara period. Some of these exhibits were later contributed to the Kashwara Shrine.

Annual Exhibitions The 4th Buntén (Education Ministry Exhibition), 1941, was held from October 17 to November 20 at the Art Gallery, Ueno.

Works: (Japanese Section) Number of works submitted 1,194 about 100 less than in the previous year; paintings selected 135. (Western Section) Works submitted 1,620 also less than before; selected, 230. Sculpture: Submitted, 285;

selected, 117. Technology: submitted, 1,013 pieces, nearly double the number submitted the year before; selected, 170.

In spite of reduction in other sections, technological exhibits showed a two fold increase, an evidence of the increased public interest in this branch of art. Exhibits in all sections were marked by a depth of expression, apart from mere excellency in technique. The range of subjects covered by works is very extensive, although the historical theme was most popular. Ei Tsuji, head of the Western Section, Hanging Committee, remarked that on account of the transportation restrictions due to the emergency, there were few entries, but many of the works submitted were quite creditable. On the whole an atmosphere of dullness prevailed in the field of painting and sculpture while unprecedented activity was noted in the branch of Technological Art. Simplicity of design and strength of expression were the notable characteristics in this branch of art.

Prize-winning works are as follows: Japanese paintings: Kyuman Mukai's "A baby boy was born," Eiho Kitsuda's "A Blue Abyss," Shiro Terashima's "Just a bit cool," Kohel Ezaki's "Shoot!"

Western paintings: Tsuruo Hayashi's "Child and Grass," Takéo Watanabe's "A portrait of Mr. T.," Takuji Nakamura's "Girls Gather in a Group," Genchi Kotozawa's "Autumn Garden," Tatsuya Aoki's "Pampas Grass," Chi Kitamura's "Deva King," Katsumi Kinoshita's "Summer Night," Masayoshi Minami's "Grey Hair."

Sculpture: Kongo Wada's "Scarlet Sea," Tôru Watanabe's "The Earth," Kakuzo Tatehata's "Silence," Ryo Matsuura's "Tobacco," Masanori Kojima's "Hope," Jinso Sato's "A Man," Rokushu Mifunemachi's "Sculpture of Egawa Tarozemon," Gorô Suganuma's "A Woman."

Technological Art: A bronze flower vase by Shotaro Kimura, A box with herb design by Shun Kawai, A screen by Nenjiro Inagaki, an ornament by Hyakusei Yamamuro, Okada's prize for sculpture: Teizo Ito's "A Moment's Rest," Ichiro Tanizawa's "A Woman Who Held a Piece of Cloth."

Notable among the works by the judges were: (Japanese painting) Miss Shoén Uemura's "Twilight," the artist being a member of the Imperial Art Academy; Insho Domoto's "The Hour for Fighting"; Shinsui Ito's "Modern Women"; Kansetsu Hashimoto's "Summer Evening." (Western Painting):

Ken-ichi Nakamura's "A Seated Figure"; Ikuma Arishima's "Portrait of a Wife"; Ei Tsuji's "Still Life on the Carpet," Tsugujii Fujita's "A Girl," Shintaro Yamashita's "Seated Portrait of a Girl." (Sculpture); Elkichi Takahashi's "A Fisherman," Koyu Fujii's "Seated Woman." (Technology); Seizan Kawamura's white china with peony design, Einosuke Kawai's vase, Shushin Katori's incense burner, Waichi Kimura's screen.

Dairin-ga-in Exhibition: The fourth exhibition was held from September 1 to 28 in Japan Art Society building, 89 pieces were selected from among 216, showing the relation between Japanese painting and national characteristics.

Issui-kai's fifth exhibition, which consisted of works by leading artists in Western style painting was held from September 23 to October 4 at Ueno Art Gallery. 200 were chosen out of 1,324 submitted. Notable works were those of Hakutei Ishii, Sotaro Yasui, Ikuma Arishima, all of whom are member artists.

Dokuritsu Exhibition: The twelfth exhibition of Dokuritsu Art Society was held from March 5 to 23 at Ueno Art Gallery. Number of works which displayed were 531, being those chosen from 3,583 entries. The theme of the majority of these paintings were connected with the home front, such as the factory worker, Autumn harvest, fishing team, shipbuilding yard, etc.

Daicho-Kai Exhibition: The sixth exhibition of Daicho-Kai, an organization of drawing teachers of National schools and Middle schools was held from November 23 to December 7 last year, at Ueno Art Gallery, under the auspices of Education Ministry. There were 1,002 entries (Japanese 43, Western 959) from which 29 Japanese paintings, 356 Western style paintings were selected. The works chosen were mostly those connected with scenes in the home front.

Soldiers' Exhibition: This is an exhibition of works by soldier artists at the front, and was held in June, last year, at Matsuzakaya, Ueno. More than 150 were on view among them being 20 paintings by sick and wounded soldiers in the First Army Hospital, recording their personal impressions at the front.

Japan Water Color Exhibition: The 29th Exhibition of Japan Water Color Painting Society, which has among its members all the leading water color artists, was held in June, this year, at Ueno Art Gallery. Entries numbered

1,256, from which 160 were selected, while those by members were 187, the total exhibits being 355 in all.

Art Culture Exhibition: The third Exhibition of Art Culture Society was held in June this year at the Ueno Art Gallery. This society is composed of young, rising artists lead by Ichiro Fukuzawa, most of them belonging to abstract circle. The exhibition had a large number of interesting works to its credit.

Taihei Yogakai Exhibition: The 33rd Exhibition was held from February 11 to March 1 at Ueno Art Gallery. A room was specially devoted to paintings depicting scenes in Greater East Asia.

Nika and Inten, the two big exhibitions regularly held in Autumn. The latter devoted to Japanese paintings, the former to Western style paintings were held from September 1, at Ueno Art Gallery. The entrance on the opening day for both exhibitions was free of charge. Due to Tsugujii Fujita's retirement from membership on account of his entrance into the Imperial Art Academy, the Nika had lost one of its leading members. But the works of the other members were quite numerous and showed accuracy of technique and depth of suggestion. Inten exhibition contained many works by famous artists. Yukihiko Yasuda's "Battle of Kiso River" stood out as the most popular piece with excellent technique.

Miscellaneous Project to build a modern art gallery—Gyokudo Kawa, Takan Yokoyama, Eisaku Wada, Takeo Fujishima, Fumio Asakura, members of the Imperial Art Academy launched a plan to construct a modern Art Gallery and sent the plan to the Memorial Organization Bureau of Tokyo City Office. City Council approved the plan and appropriated a sum of ¥8,000,000 for its materialization. They are now engaged in selecting a proper building plot. The building is expected to be completed by 1947.

A monumental statue for Saburo Okada: A statue of Saburo Okada, the famous artist of Western style painting, by money collected from 700 disciples was executed by Fumio Asakura, and Itaru Tanabe at the Ueno Art School. The ceremony of unveiling was held on April 29, 1942.

Artists' League: Hitherto groups such as Shunyokai, Nikakai, Dokuritsu Art Society and others had formed a union but it was dissolved to form a new

Artists' League, the opening ceremony of which was held on May 4. The business of the League is to paint the portraits of war-dead, to teach in the factory, etc.

Government Administration of Artistic Works: This proposal has been presented to the Artists' League by Onichiro Tomita, member of Hakuji-Kai, in February this year. Tomita's project

involves the sending of a large number of paintings to southern areas through Government cooperation for the purpose of popularizing Japanese art in the South. The League is planning to push the plan with the help of the Government.

Art Museums

A list of the more important art museums follows:

1. Tokyo Imperial Household Museum: Ueno Park, Tokyo; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.
Departments: Art and History.
Officials. President: Eisaburo Sugi; Manager: Nagamitsu Asano
2. Imperial Household Museum at Nara: In Nara Park; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.; closed from Dec. 25 to Jan. 5.
Departments: History and Art. Director: Ki Yamaguchi
3. Kyoto Onshi Museum: In Shichijo, Kyoto; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.; closed from Dec. 25 to Jan. 5. Departments: Art and History.
4. Chokokan: In Uji Yamada, Mie.
5. Reihokan: At Koya-san, Wakayama.
6. Treasure house, Kanshin-ji: In Kanshin-ji-mura, Minami-Kawachi-gun, Osaka.
7. Treasure house, Koryuji: At Uzumasa-mura, Kadono-gun, Kyoto.
8. Reihokan, Ninnaji: At Omoro, Kadono-gun, Kyoto.
9. Museum of the Faculty of Letters, Imperial University, in Kyoto.
10. Kankokan: In Hiroshima.
11. Treasure house of the Itsukushima shrine: At Miyajima, Hiroshima.
12. Kokuhokan: At Kamakura.
13. Sanda Museum: At Sanda, Arima-gun, Hyogo.
14. Governmental Museum: At Keijo, Chosen.
15. Keishu Museum: In Keishu-gun, Keishu-hokudo, Chosen.
16. Prince Yi's Museum: In Keijo, Chosen.
17. Kanto-cho Museum: At Ryojun (Port Arthur), Kwantung Leased Territory.

MUSIC

The First Period: Primitive Music
The development of Japanese music may be divided into four periods. The first period originates in prehistoric times and ends about the reign of the Empress Suiko (592-629 A.D.). This is the music of the ancient Japanese (Yamato), and is here named, for convenience, primitive music. To regard the music of this stage as primitive may seem inappropriate, because towards the close of the 6th century Yamato civilization had advanced quite beyond primitive culture. The word primitive is applied here because, although music should show some development of artistic form, no such form was known in the music of this period.

The Second Period: Introduction of Foreign Music
The second period started about the end of the Suiko regime in the 7th century, and

continued till about the end of the Heian period, at the close of the 12th century. The characteristic feature of this period lies in the building up of Japanese music upon a foundation of Chinese, Korean and Indian music, which possessed a markedly advanced form and was then being freely introduced into Japan.

(1) The First Half. In the first half of this period imported music was imitated. Music was first introduced from Korea (Chosen), then from India and lastly from China. Of the three, only that from China continued to come freely thereafter. The Chosen music then imported was widely different from the music introduced from China and India, especially in the degree of its evolution. But even such undeveloped music as that of Chosen (then called Sankan), was far more advanced than Japanese music. It is, therefore, but

natural that there was a great gulf of difference between the standard of the Japanese music of the early period and that later imported from China and India. Moreover the early models were monopolized by the nobles; the masses could not share the privilege of enjoying the advanced art but had to be content with the same old primitive music. For two to three hundred years this state of things continued, until the reigns of Emperors Saga and Nimmyo when genuine Japanese Court music, called gagaku, came into vogue. But even gagaku was of foreign origin.

(2) **The Second Half.** During the second half of the second period, foreign and domestic music became harmonized, producing a new Japanese style in vocal music. Founded on the imported music staff, the vocal music of this period cannot be compared with the purely national music that prevailed in a later period. The varieties then developed were kagura, saibara, roei and imayo, all of which can be included in the following two groups:

(a) One group was modelled after foreign music but set to the key of Japanese music of the primitive age; and hence the reconstruction thus effected in ancient Japanese music was only in form. The most conspicuous examples are the kagura, Azuma-asobi, Kumé-uta and Yamato-uta. No doubt the kagura existed in the prehistoric age, as may be inferred from Japanese history, but not until past the middle of the Héian period did it appear in the regular form of music. The kagura is a sacred dance with music, practised on the stage of a shrine at village festivals. The kagura now observed, however, is fundamentally different from that staged in those days; it saw marked development in the Héian period. In the early days of the sacred Kagura dance it adopted so primitive a form of vulgar indecency that it could not be performed today.

During this latter part of the second period all the other three branches of music, namely, Azuma-asobi, Kumé-uta and Yamato-uta, were also practised at shrine festivals. Originally they had no relation with shrines, the first two having developed from folk-songs, and the third from a war-song sung during the triumphant expedition into Yamato under the Emperor Jimmu. The adoption of those folk-songs in the rites of

sacred festivals was made possible by the advanced music of foreign origin employed at Buddhist temples; better music also became indispensable at Shinto shrines in order to rival the advanced Buddhist music. Unlike Buddhist temples, the Shinto shrines hesitated to make use of the imported variety; and so they had no alternative in those days but to improve their music on the ancient models of the country. The principal instruments employed for this purpose were the six-stringed Japanese koto and the six-holed kagura flute, remodelled.

(b) Those modes that come under the category of the other group are the saibara, roei and imayo, which were combinations of imported and Japanese music then in vogue. As regards saibara, it is believed that it was a sort of folk-song that prevailed in the Nara period, but the saibara, a folk melody of the Nara period, cannot be compared with the saibara which was an artistic vocal song of the Héian period; in form they are widely apart. The saibara in the Héian period was in fact an artistic product. These branches of music served for the amusement and diversion of nobles, and had nothing to do with religious services. They were exclusively of foreign origin in form.

The Third Period: Seclusion of Domestic Music The third period begins with the Kamakura Era and terminates towards the close of the Tokugawa Shogunate, or from the beginning of the 13th century to the middle of the 19th century. A characteristic of the period was its seclusive tendency in music. By the term seclusive music, however, is not meant national seclusion, but that music, like other arts, throughout the period, was driven into seclusion in consequence of incessant civil war in Chosen and China, which prevented its development in Japan. Save for the material brought back by priests from China no foreign culture entered Japan during that age, and it is for this reason that the term seclusive represents the third period. Characteristic features of the third period are seen in the relations of music with literature.

(1) **Music and Literature.** As a natural result of the interruption of intercourse with continental civilization, the influence of the Japanese language made itself felt on music, so much so

that in form music seemed to belong to language, both evolving together; in fact, story and song became the essential requirements of music.

(2) **The Range of Influence.** Next, the range of influence of each school was narrowed, until such forms as kiyomoto, joruri, shinnai and itchubushi became representative during the third period, but each of them was cultivated in a limited locality and time. In this connection joruri was most conspicuous, because, based entirely on the national literature, it appealed only to the people who understand the language used. Kiyomoto music thrived in Yédo, joruri prospered in Osaka, and itchubushi flourished in Kyoto. Thus none of the music that was born and popularized in the third period was of national, far less of international, character, having been limited to a certain locality. This, however, is by no means a proof of retrogressive tendency in music; for the harmony thus realized between Japanese literature and music was of no meagre advantage. It was natural too, for, in the evolution of art, song is older than speech, poetry than prose.

(3) **Music and the Military.** Then there was the relation of music to military administration. The government was in the hands of feudal lords. In the preceding period music was regarded as a means of culture, and treated as such by the leisured class, because, among the nobles, proficiency in this art constituted an essential element in anyone aspiring to be a man of character. Under the feudal lords, however, asceticism rose to influence among the samurai class, and music was looked down on as no more than a mere luxury which military men should despise as effeminate. This trend of the times gradually transferred music from the control of the nobles down to the lower orders of the community. This is why samisen music did not develop among the upper class but the lower stratum of society, where it thrived. The exclusion of samisen music by the intelligentsia was a glaring defect of the military administration. Naturally all branches of music in those days had to develop on the basis of popular knowledge and common sense.

Although civil strife is a great deterrent to the art of music, this was not so true in Japan as in China, for in Japan the Imperial Household, whose

existence and dignity suffered practically no change on account of the new military government, music was encouraged in Court circles. Then again it was protected and cultivated by priests; new music was fostered especially by Kamakura priests. The Héiké Biwa originated and developed under priestly auspices; and the shakuhachi (a kind of bamboo flute) music was introduced from China and popularized in the Buddhist domain, and through its efforts. The shakuhachi music now in vogue had its origin in this period.

The Muromachi Era The Muromachi Era, sandwiched in between the Kamakura and Tokugawa eras, corresponds to a middle third period in the history of music. Between the Kamakura and Muromachi Shogunates a striking difference is noticeable in that, while a military administration was possible under the former, it was denied to the latter. Beginning with the Muromachi Era the Ashikagas removed the Shogunate from Kamakura to Kyoto. Since Kyoto was the seat of the Imperial Household, the officials who were military men could not do without etiquette in their association with Court officials of the Imperial Household. They had to be familiar with the art of flower arrangement, the tea ceremony and the yokoku music of the lyrical drama, or Noh dance. Thus from the necessity of studying these arts of social etiquette, military men had to approve and promote them. The introducers of the sarugaku dance were priests who returned from China, and used this sort of drama for moral or religious purposes, like the miracle and morality plays in England. The Noh dance was probably derived from primitive forms of sarugaku and other musical dances.

Early Yédo Era The last period begins and ends in the early Yédo Era. All through this period popular music prevailed; the samisen, a popular musical instrument introduced into the country at the end of the Ashikaga Era, rose to great influence. Naturally, therefore, such popular music as the joruri, nagauta, kouta and hauta developed rapidly; they were especially popular among merchants and artisans.

The samisen was not only a representative musical instrument throughout the Yédo Era but also occupies a most important position in Japanese music today. This three-stringed Japa-

nese guitar has now come to enjoy worldwide recognition as an advanced musical instrument. Nearly 400 years ago, toward the end of the Muromachi period, it arrived in the country through the Ryukyu Islands and is supposed to be of Spanish or Chinese origin. Compared with the sho and biwa, imported in the 5th or 6th century, the samisen is a thing of but yesterday. Yet it is found everywhere in Japan as an accompaniment to vocal music.

The Fourth Period: Internationalization of Japanese Music The fourth period covers the Meiji and Taisho eras (1868-1926) when domestic music rose to join the world current of music. The people awoke from their long slumber throughout the isolated Yedo Era, and exchanged anti-foreignism for free intercourse with the outside world. With this epochal open-door movement came the Meiji Restoration which eliminated the Shogunate and restored the old Imperial régime. In obedience to the august wish of the Emperor Meiji all welcomed the introduction of the supposedly more advanced European civilization. Music was no exception. European music then imported was enthusiastically imitated all through the period. Production of imitative art was not the only task assigned to that age, for side by side with the movement the reconstruction of native music occupied the serious attention of musicians. A similar tendency is noticeable in and about the Nara period in the 8th century, when advanced ideas, imported from the continent, afforded models on which the ancient music of the country was reconstructed. Yet, a great difference is evident between that and the movement now under review; because, whereas in that day home music still lingered in the primitive stage and imitation of alien models was effected only with extreme difficulty, improvement in the native music of the Meiji Era was so easy a matter that reconstruction could be carried out by mere importation of new staves. This fourth period, which corresponds to the Meiji and Taisho eras, can be studied from three points of view, with reference to the development of the art.

(1) Innovations in Traditional Music and Revival of Ancient Music. In the Yedo period the development of music in form was insignificant, because im-

portance was placed on expression of sentiment. People who realized this defect in the traditional Japanese music, agreed on the necessity of introducing radical innovations in this direction. This new movement was responsible for the stimulus given by the extensive introduction of European music, which in form was far superior to Japanese. Up to about the 16th year of Meiji considerable effort was expended towards eliminating this defect. As a practical attempt to attain this object, a movement was created for reconstruction work on the form of the music which had deplorably degenerated in the Yedo Era, due to the influence of samisen music then at the height of popularity. The rise of the Yamada school in Tokyo is an example. Shakuhachi music likewise could not escape being influenced by the reconstruction current of the times.

For revival of ancient Japanese music the Gagaku Bureau was created in the Imperial Household Office in the 3rd year of Meiji. A large number of authorities on gagaku became officials of the bureau and strove to effect reorganization of the ancient music of Japanese parentage. These Court musicians set about composing new music out of gagaku, for use in elementary schools. The national anthem, Kimigayo, is a product of that bureau. Precisely speaking, Kimigayo ought to be played in gagaku, but, instead, it has come to be rendered with European instruments; for in those days they were the only musical instruments in educational institutions. Kibigaku, which is still popular in the Kansai district, is a form of gagaku somewhat vulgarized, at the time, by Hoshu Rishimoto, an Okayama musician.

(2) Diffusion of European Music. One of the outstanding features of musical development in the Meiji and Taisho eras is that Japanese musical education was placed on the foundation of European music. The introduction of European music into Japan can be traced as far back as the entrance into Japan of Christianity. This, however, had been monopolized by the introducers themselves in their respective localities of influence, until in the 2nd year of Meiji it entered the capital for the first time. In this year Japanese soldiers learned military band music from an English naval band master at Yoko-

hama, which is perhaps the first instance of our official use of European music. Soon afterwards, in the 5th year of Meiji, both army and navy bands were inaugurated. Later, in the 12th year of Meiji, an investigation commission on school musical education was established in the Education Office. A commission, headed by Mr. Shuji Izawa, conducted inquiries as to the best method of teaching European music in Japanese schools. In the following year, the Education Department invited an expert from America, and, under his superintendence, made music a part of elementary school education. Three years after, the Tokyo Academy of Music was established. This is but a brief outline of the growth of European music in Japan during the Meiji Era. It was mainly due to Government encouragement that European music was popularized in Japan much earlier than generally expected. But, for sounder and more thorough instruction in European music we must look to the era of Taisho. Rapid progress of music in the Taisho Era was made possible principally in the following ways:

(a) Propagation by Gramophone. This invention enabled inhabitants of even the remotest corners of the Island Empire to appreciate the great foreign music masters.

(b) European War and Visiting Musicians. At the outbreak of the European War many well-known musicians of the West went to America and Oriental countries in order to avoid being involved in the turmoil, and to find appreciation of their music in more peaceful environment. These world-famous musicians gave a number of concerts in Japan, and thus afforded the people an opportunity to hear some of the outstanding musicians of the world. These chances of hearing the master musicians contributed much toward cultivating a taste for music in this country. Not long afterwards came radio, also from the West; and, like the gramophone, radio also greatly helped the public towards a more intelligent appreciation of European music. Radio, however, should be regarded as more properly belonging to the present era of Showa.

(3) Internationalization of Japanese Music. The diffusion of the knowledge of European music demonstrated to us the international qualities, systematized

form and aesthetic structure. The vast difference between this international music of the West and Japanese music which is but national, served to spur on the reconstruction movement among the Japanese interested in music. The movement originally started in the middle of the Meiji Era, but at that time it had no fixed goal at which to aim. Now, however, renewed ambition moved in three definite directions:

(a) The attempt to harmonize European instruments with the rhythms of Japanese music was laudable, but this seems to have been confined largely to Japanese students of European music.

(b) The movement to produce European rhythm with Japanese musical instruments, such as the samisen, sho and shakubachi, was the task of those musicians who specialized in domestic music and who were yet familiar with modern ideas.

(c) A scheme to create a grand symphony orchestra of mixed foreign and domestic instruments was studied and tried by a few accomplished musicians, but the success or failure of the attempt is a question of the future.

Western Music

Arrival of Western Music The exact date when Western music was introduced into Japan has not been determined. According to the work of a Frenchman (published in Paris in 1715), there is evidence to show that Western musical instruments were brought into Kagoshima by Christian missionaries during the Temmon period (in the middle of the 16th century). It may therefore be said that the arrival of Christianity coincided with the introduction of Western music into this country, music being a necessary part of Christian service. It may be supposed that at the outset, the music introduced was limited to the ceremonial motet at the best, but that it was later enlarged to satisfy the requirements of Mass and other forms of large-scale religious service which began to be conducted from 1556 when Nagasaki became the base of operations for Christian activity in the country, with a Christian cathedral erected in the city, while it was also the portal for all foreign trade.

The musical instruments which were introduced here in those days included viol, trumpet, charango, rebec and lute.

The players of the instruments, it might be supposed, were foreigners on all formal occasions, for it is unlikely that any Japanese could have learnt to play the instruments well at that time. Under the circumstances, the organ, a sort of automatic musical instrument, began to be popular. The use of this instrument later spread far and wide in the country and even today one comes across it here and there.

The Western musical instruments which had made their appearance together with Christianity in one corner of Kyushu began to excite the curiosity of the entire nation and to exert a new influence over the people.

Just then the Shogunate Government carried out its policy of seclusion banning all intercourse with Western nations, exception being made in the case of Holland which was allowed to communicate with the country under certain restrictions. In course of time, however, the conditions of the Western nations changed and Holland's days of glory had gone with England rising to take its place. The Hollanders living in Dejima in Nagasaki decreased gradually, their place being taken by the English and the French. During the 200 years of Japan's seclusion from the outside world, the art of music like all other arts had made marvellous progress in the West.

In June of the 6th Year of Kael (1853), Commodore Perry of the United States came to Uraga, being in command of a fleet of three warships. The appearance of this fleet, like a bolt from the blue, surprised the Japanese people who were not aware of the remarkable progress that had been accomplished by the Western nations. With the American fleet was a naval band which is supposed to have played the American national anthem. It played stirring pieces of music on the occasion of naval officers' interviews with officials of the Shogunate and during the dinners given in their honor.

As a result of the visit of Commodore Perry, Yokohama was made an open port and the gay music of the foreign land came to be heard every day from the foreign settlement in Yokohama. Occasionally, too, these foreign residents were observed to parade through the streets playing their instruments.

Thus were introduced foreign-style popular airs into Yokohama and Yedo

(Tokyo) and forms of the Western music were incorporated into Japanese music. As an outstanding example of these new airs may be mentioned the "kappore" (a burlesque dance air) which enjoyed great popularity, being sung to the accompaniment of samisen, although evidently a foreign-style air.

During the latter part of the Tokugawa government, i.e. about the middle of the 19th century, the various daimyos or feudal lords began to pay close attention to the military art of the Western nations and as they sought to emulate the new methods, the traditional war-bell and war-drum were replaced by the new type of drum and trumpet from Holland. This was the beginning of the military music of the Western type in this country.

The Satsuma clan ordered its band of 30 drummers to be trained in the foreign-style military music under the direction of John William Fenton in the 2nd Year of Meiji (1869) and the head of the clan ordered the necessary instruments from London through Fenton. In the course of the training, Fenton pointed out the need for having a song of praise for the Emperor, or in other words, a national anthem. When the text of the national anthem was determined, it was inaugurated with a composition by Fenton. Mention may be made here, however, of the fact that this national anthem was later revised to such an extent as to leave little resemblance to the original. The student musicians learned how to play the newly-composed "Kimi-ga-yo" and a number of English airs. The "Ishin" march (march of the Meiji Restoration), which is frequently played even now, is one of the English-style compositions of those days.

In the 4th Year of Meiji (1871), the military bands of the three clans of Satsuma, Choshu and Tosa were merged into an Imperial military band upon the creation of the Ministry of Military Affairs. The Imperial military band was also placed under the direction of Fenton.

In the meanwhile, the Christian devotional music which had been introduced by the missionaries had gradually been gaining ground in the country. During the early part of the Meiji period, the various Christian sections undertook to prepare Japanese versions of hymns and various publications of the kind appeared. This also made a

great contribution toward the development of Western music in this country.

Meiji-Taisho-Period

Military Band The 4th year of Meiji (1871) witnessed the amalgamation of the military bands of the Satsuma, Choshu and Tosa clans into an Imperial military band. Later, the Imperial military band was divided into two sections, namely, the military band and the naval band. The former changed from the English to the French style and a French bandmaster, D'achron, was appointed its director. D'achron continued in this post for nearly 10 years.

In the spring of the 12th Year of Meiji (1879), the naval band invited Franz Eckert to assume the post vacated by D'achron. Besides being the band director, Eckert held the post of instructor at the Musical Research Institute (Ongaku Torishirabe-dokoro) which had been recently established where he taught musical theories. Through his enthusiastic instruction, Eckert contributed so much to the musical advancement in this country that he is now regarded as the father of German music in this country. Eckert is particularly remembered by posterity because of his successful harmonization of the "Kimi-ga-yo" which is now the authorized national anthem. Eckert is also remembered for his famous compositions of the "Kimi-ga-yo march" and the "Kana-shimi-no-kiwami" (funeral march) specially composed for the funeral services of the Empress Dowager Yeshio (1897). The "Kana-shimi-no-kiwami" was also played at the time of the funeral services for the Emperor Meiji and the Emperor Taisho and is still preserved as a most treasured piece of music in the Imperial Household.

Under Eckert's able direction the naval band achieved rapid strides and gave concerts at various places. Indeed, it may not be too much to say that Eckert is the greatest among the naval band directors the country has ever known. When Eckert was relieved of the duty, Gustav Albe, a German musician, was employed as the music instructor.

The military band had the privilege of being trained under the direction of D'achron until the 16th Year of Meiji (1883) when he resigned. Charles Leleu who was a distinguished director

of military band in France in those days was appointed his successor. Maintaining that the success of the military music lies in personality, Leleu carried out a grand-scale renovation of the personnel of the military band and effected various other alterations, thus causing the military band to take on a new aspect. After remaining in office for four years, however, Leleu had to return to France under instructions from his home government. Leaving the future affairs of the military band to Yoshitoyo Shiraoto, Leleu went home, with many in this country feeling deep regret at his departure. Later, Eckert, the director of the naval band, was appointed to assume the concurrent post of director of the military band which thus added German technique of military music to its French technique and further consolidated its foundation.

During the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese wars, both the military and naval bands experienced a period of remarkable activity, both on the battlefronts and behind the guns. During the two wars, numerous military songs were composed, not a few of which are popular even to this day.

The Taisho period may be considered as the most important period for the development of military music in this country. Special mention in this connection must be made of the fact that the naval band, also including strings, visited England to attend the Royal Coronation and its excellent performance under the direction of Tokichi Setoguchi on the occasion gained great favor among the public there and was even praised as one of the first-rate bands of the kind in the world. The numbers played by the band included a piece of "nagauta" music entitled "kanjincho," a piece of "koto" music entitled "Rokudan" and a piece of "tokiwazu" music entitled "Kodakara" which won greater applause than the various numbers of Western music played by the band. The military band, too, showed great progress under the direction of Kenshi Nagai. There is no doubt the meritorious services thus rendered by Nagai will be remembered by posterity. The farewell party given in honor of Nagai upon his retirement from service as director of the military band was an unusually splendid one. Thereafter he continued his services for the growth of the military and naval bands, com-

posing marches and directing outdoor concerts.

The organizations of the military and naval bands at the present time may be summarized as follows:

The military band is maintained at the Toyama Army School and is therefore called the band of the Toyama Army School. At present, it has a staff of about 100 musicians and a standard division of the band is composed of 50 musicians which may be divided into two sub-divisions of 25 musicians each, this being the minimum unit. In addition, about 20 new recruits are admitted every year for training as student musicians.

The naval band is composed of a total of some 430 musicians who are separately attached to the naval stations and squadron. Conforming to the number of naval stations and squadrons, the naval band is divided into 8 units with about 50 musicians in each unit. In addition, about 60 new recruits are taken in every year to be trained for a period of one year and five months before being attached to the various units.

Tokyo Music School In the 12th Year of Meiji (1879), the Ministry of Education created a Musical Enquiry Commission with a view to (1) producing new compositions by blending the Eastern and the Western music; (2) promoting the national music by creating facilities for its instruction; and (3) creating a music course in the various schools. Shuji Izawa, the then principal of the Tokyo Higher Normal School, was appointed chairman of the enquiry commission.

In the following year, Luther Whiteing Mason who then held an important position in the musical educational circles in the United States was employed as musical instructor. Mason, a rare musical educator, devoted himself earnestly to solidify the foundation of the musical education in this country by his systematic method of instruction, and thus made himself a great benefactor to the cause of musical advancement in the country. In the same year, 20 students were assembled and systematic training in music was instituted. Simultaneously, a large number of pianos, organs and stringed musical instruments were provided.

The endeavors of the Musical Enquiry Commission bore their first fruit in the 15th Year of Meiji (1882) in the

form of a concert participated in by the students who had been trained under Mason. Mason returned to his homeland in July of the same year and one year later, Franz Eckert was employed as director of the military band. Eckert also gave lessons in orchestration, scoring and harmony.

The compilation of song books for use in primary schools was one of the primary tasks of the Musical Enquiry Commission. The work of the body progressed steadily with the result that three collections of songs were compiled and authorized as text-books for primary schools.

In October of the 20th Year of Meiji (1887), the Musical Research Institute (Ongaku Torishirabe-dokoro) was renamed the Tokyo School of Music. The first governmental school of music was thus brought into being and Shoji Izawa became its principal. For four consecutive years, Izawa devoted himself to the perfection of the equipment and improvement of the facilities of the school. He also wrote and published a book entitled Musical Education and the meritorious services which he rendered in bringing up the music school will remain on record permanently.

In November of the 21st Year of Meiji (1888), Rudolf Dietrich from Austria was appointed instructor at the Tokyo School of Music. Dietrich was a brilliant man, having graduated with honors from the conservatoire in Vienna. He was skilled in playing the piano, organ and violin. Furthermore, he was an affable man of character and as such was best fitted to assist in the bringing up of the music school which had been in existence only for a short time.

Among the graduates of the Musical Research Institute (precursor of the Tokyo School of Music) there were many who became distinguished musicians. In this connection, special mention must be made of Nobuko Koda, the first graduate of the institute who was sent abroad by the Government in the 22nd Year of Meiji (1889) for the specific purpose of studying music. Other excellent musicians included Sakunosuke Koyama, Gentchiro Yamada, Makoto Torii and Koshi Toyama, all of whom contributed toward the spread and development of the Western music in this country principally through their work at the Tokyo School of Music.

In the 26th Year of Meiji (1893), the Tokyo School of Music came to be deprived of its independence, the Government of the time deciding that it should be attached to the Higher Normal School. About that time, Professor Raphael von Cabell of the Department of Philosophy of the Imperial University was employed as pianoforte instructor. The duet with Dr. Cabell playing the piano and Dietrich playing the violin was praised as the grandest concert of the kind in those days. One of Dr. Cabell's foremost disciples is Mr. Kyoshige Tachibana who is now a member of the Academy of Art.

In April of the 32nd Year of Meiji (1899), August Junker, a noted violinist and conductor from Germany was appointed instructor at the Tokyo School of Music. Junker devoted 16 years to the training of Japanese musicians in violin and orchestration and won the reputation of being the father of orchestration in this country. He returned to Germany once but came again in 1934. In the 42nd Year of Meiji (1909), Hanka Petzold arrived here to assume the post of full-time vocal instructor at the Tokyo School of Music. She was born in Norway and studied under Liszt, Marchesi and Cosima Wagner, and made a name for herself through her performance in the role of Elizabeth in the "Tannhauser" of Wagner. She trained many vocalists and was one of the greatest benefactors to the vocalist circles in this country. The 2nd Year of Taisho (1913) witnessed the eminent musician, Paul Scholtz assume the post of pianoforte instructor of the Tokyo School of Music. Scholtz by his untiring zeal and effort rendered invaluable services to the pianist circles in this country, producing a number of able pianists.

Throughout the Taisho period and right up to the present year of Showa, the Tokyo School of Music has continued to function as the only government music school in the country and has sent out a large number of successful musicians, the institute being the chief organ for musical advancement in the country for the past half a century or so. The organization of the school as it stands at present, may be summarized as follows:

Instruction in school is divided into preparatory course, principal course, the normal-school course, the Japanese

music course, the postgraduate course and the elective course. The preparatory course and the principal course are each divided into three departments, namely the vocal department, instrumental department and composing department. The instrumental department has the sub-divisions of the violin, violoncello, piano, organ and wind-instruments. The Japanese music course has three divisions, i. e. "koto," "nagauta" and the "no" dance music.

The present principal of the school is Kaju Norisugi. Among the instructors are Eitchi Hagihara, Miyaji Takatori, Kisei Iguchi, Sueko Kokura, Leo Sirota and Leonid Kreutzer, of pianoforte department; Teigen Sawasaki, Tamotsu Kinoshita, Takeo Ito, Tsuruyo Takeoka, Wucherpennig and Ris von Hessert, of the vocal department; Jun Kawakami, Takeo Inoue, A. Moguirewsky, Willy Frey and Sachiko Ando, of the violin sub-division; Hozo Hirai and Duckson, of the violoncello sub-division; and Kiyoshi Shinji Heki Hosokawa, Kunihiko Hashimoto, Kanichi Shimofusa and Helmut Fermer, of the composing department.

The school keeps an orchestra composed of instructors and graduates, under the direction of Helmut Fermer and Kunihiko Hashimoto, and a chorus composed of students, under the direction of Teigen Sawasaki, Tamotsu Kinoshita and Helmut Fermer.

In addition to the Tokyo School of Music, there are several music schools in the country which, however, are not government schools but private institutions. Principal among them are the Musashino Music School (established in 1929), the Teikoku Higher Music School (established in 1935), the Tokyo Higher Music School (established in 1926), the Toyo Music School (established in 1907) and the music faculty of the Nihon University (established in 1931). Competing with the Tokyo School of Music, all these institutions are turning out many musicians of ability. In Osaka, there is the Osaka Music School (established in 1915) which is making its own contribution to the rather inactive musical circles in the Kansai. The private music schools also have their own orchestras and choruses which give a number of concerts every year.

General Musical Circles All the activities of the musical circles in this country during the Meiji period were

centered around the activities of the Tokyo School of Music as well as the military and naval bands. The principal musical entertainments in those days were, therefore, the graduation concerts of the Tokyo School of Music and public concerts by the military and naval bands. The former, in particular, attracted a great deal of public attention, the institution being held in the highest regard for its musical standards. Accordingly, these concerts were held in grand style. Needless to say the performances of foreign musical instructors attracted large audiences. Among the Japanese musicians who attracted a great deal of attention were Nobuko Koda, violinist; Genichiro Yamada, Benjiro Noshō, Sakunosuke Koyama and Kyoshige Tachibana, pianists; Sekitaro Shimazaki, Tamaki Shibata (who later came to be known as Tamaki Miura) and Kunihiko Toyama, organists. In the 19th Year of Meiji (1886), the Dai-Nippon Musical Association was organized which held frequent concerts. The organization was discontinued for a time but was revived under the stimulus of the inauguration of the Meiji Musical Association under the chairmanship of Rokushiro Uehara in the 31st Year of Meiji (1898). As private bodies both these associations contributed largely to the development of the musical culture in the country.

Even after the advent of the Taisho period, the Tokyo School of Music continued to be the center of the musical activities in this country. From the school went out many excellent musicians during the Taisho era and practically all the concerts held in those days were either by the instructors or by the alumni of the school, the signal growth achieved by the musical world in the country after the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese wars being chiefly due to them. Of the musicians who were active during the early part of the Taisho period, the following were the most prominent: August Junker, violinist; Werckmeister, violoncellist; Dr. von Cabell, pianist; Hanka Petzold, vocalist; Sachiko Ando, violinist; and Tamaki Shibata and Eikichi Funahashi, vocalists.

Among the composers of note, special mention must be made of Shikataro Taki, the young genius who left the immortal composition "Kojo-no-tsuki" behind him. It is a pity that he died at the young age of 25. Apart from

Tokichi Setoguchi, who was then the director of the naval band, and Kenichi Nagai, then director of the military band, both of whom have some fine military compositions to their credit, there were few composers worthy of mention in those days. Following the advent of the Taisho period, however, earnest efforts were made in the field of composition along with the development of the Western music in the country. Composers such as Kosuke Komatsu, Kosaku Yamada, Ryutaro Hirota, Tei Yanada and Chosai Motoori contributed much to the promotion of the composing world. However compositions in those days were confined to songs or airs and there were none that might be called great works, except those of Kosaku Yamada who presented the public with his symphonic works entitled "Ochitaru Tennyū" (Fallen Fairy), "Yami-no-tohira" (Door of Darkness), and "Mandara no Hana" (Flower of the Mandara), and who was the first Japanese composer to find a reckoning among European musicians.

Opera Movements The opera movement in Japan dates from the middle of the Meiji period. During the 35th Year of Meiji (1902), a society for the study of operas was established in the Tokyo School of Music with a view to the systematic study of operas. The first attempt of the society was the presentation of a part of Gluck's "Orpheus" which probably was the first instance of opera presentation in this country. Under the stimulus created by the society the opera movement in the country gained supporters and in the 39th Year of Meiji (1906) an organization named Gakuenkai was formed under the leadership of Kosuke Komatsu and Aio Kobayashi with the object of promoting opera compositions by Japanese. This organization, however, was destined to fall because the time was not yet ripe for such move. In the 40th Year of Meiji (1907), the Bandunan opera troupe of more than 30 members from England, visited the country and gave about 10 public performances during their stay but failed to arouse any great interest among the public. The visit of the opera company however served as a stimulus for composers like Sueharu Kitamura, Chosai Motoori, Ogai Mori and August Junker as well as Komatsu and Kobayashi to attempt opera compositions with Japanese themes and a number of

new works of the kind were produced. During the early part of the Taisho era, Rossi, instructor in the Western musical department of the Imperial Theater promoted Rossi's Opera Comic which staged a number of comic operas by Offenbach, with Nobuko Hara, Kinzaro Shimizu and Rikizo Taya and aroused much public interest.

In December of the 9th Year of Taisho (1920), Kosaku Yamada presented at the Imperial Theater Debussy's "L'enfant Prodigue" and Wagner's "Tannhauser," which was a unique event of its kind in the history of opera activities in this country because it constituted the first artistic and able presentation of an elaborate and difficult theme.

Plectrum Music The introduction of plectrum instruments into this country dates from the 16th century but the instruments of those days differ largely from the instruments of today. The mandoline music as it is played today was introduced into this country by Kempachi Hiruma who learned to play the instrument during his stay in Berlin in connection with commercial business. When he returned home, he caused the first mandoline orchestra of the country to be formed in the Ueno Art School. Mandoline music came to be liked especially by university students and mandoline clubs were formed in the Kelo and Doshisha Universities. Morishige Takel organized the Orchestra Sinfonica Takel in the 4th Year of Taisho (1915) and ever since has endeavored to facilitate the spread and development of the artistic plectrum music.

Orchestral Music The orchestra movement also progressed with the Tokyo School of Music taking the lead. August Junker, who was an instructor at the music school, made devoted efforts in directing symphony orchestras and thus came to be known as the father of orchestral music in this country. When he arrived in Japan to assume the post of instructor at the Tokyo School of Music in the 30th Year of Meiji (1897), the conditions of the musical circles here were such that it was well-nigh impossible for him to put his ideas into operation. The fact that symphonies were first played here by the members of the faculty of the Tokyo School of Music and its students

under the direction of Junker will alone suffice to make his name immortal in the musical world of the country. About the same time, the naval band created a stringed-instrument department for orchestral music, thus aiding in the development of military music. The naval band including stringed instruments was dispatched to England and the United States where their musical skill and technique won much appreciation.

With the progress of Western music in the country the musical section of the Imperial Household Department also created a place for Western music. Under the direction of Eckert, the section gave orchestral concerts frequently. It need not be said that the joint concerts given by the Tokyo School of Music, the military band and the naval band as well as the musical section of the Imperial Household Department were the most brilliant affairs in the musical world of the country during the latter part of the Meiji period.

Recent Times

Tokyo School of Music The Tokyo School of Music held a position of the highest authority in all branches of Western music in this country during the Meiji period and in the early part of the Taisho period. Its monopolistic position, however, came to be gradually encroached upon by various private musical organizations actively engaging themselves in an earnest study of Western music as a result of the remarkable development achieved by Western music from the middle of the Taisho period. The position of the Tokyo School of Music has not been affected by this fact and it has continued to operate as the only governmental music school and has sent out many able musicians who have been trained under its excellent instructors.

Some years ago, the orchestra of the Tokyo School of Music made remarkable progress under the enthusiastic direction of Professor C. Pringsheim and rendered a number of difficult compositions. Particularly, the orchestra made a great contribution to the musical circles of this country by giving the first performances of Mahler's Symphony No. 5 in 1932, Beethoven's Symphony No. 8 in 1933 and Bach's "Mathaus—Passion" in 1937. Professor Pringsheim was relieved of his duties at the Music School upon the expiration of his term

In 1937 and in the autumn of the same year, Professor Hans Schwieger of Germany was employed in his place. When Professor Schwieger departed for the United States in March 1938, arrangements were made for the employment of Professor Helmut Ferner from Germany who arrived to take up the post in April of the same year.

Professor Paul Weingarten of Vienna who had been a valuable asset to the pianoforte section of the Instrumental department of the Tokyo School of Music where he served as instructor for some time returned home in the spring of 1937 upon the expiration of his term. As his successor, Leonid Kreutzer who had been living in this country for some years past was invited to become instructor at the Music School. Maria Toll, vocal instructor, also returned home upon the expiration of her term in the spring of the same year to be succeeded in the post by Ria von Hessert from Germany.

Orchestral Music Following the lead by the Tokyo School of Music, the military and naval bands and the musical section of the Imperial Household Ministry in organizing orchestras, private circles in the country also launched a movement for the promotion of orchestral music after the middle of the Taisho period. At first, however, the movement failed to gain much ground on account of the lack of a systematic organization. During the latter part of the Taisho period, Kosaku Yamada for the first time introduced to the public orchestral music really worthy of the name by holding concerts jointly with the Russian orchestra from Harbin. This served as a great incentive to the promotion of a movement for symphonic orchestral music with the result that Kosaku Yamada and Viscount Hidemaro Konoé established the Japan Symphonic Music Association which created the first purely professional orchestra in the country.

The New Symphony Orchestra, under the impetus of the activities of the Japan Symphonic Music Association, a few symphony orchestras were brought into being but they failed to achieve any great result. Later, the Japan Symphonic Music Association was split into two bodies with Viscount Konoé leading the greater part of the members of the association in organizing the New Symphony Orchestra. The association

continued to function with Kosaku Yamada as its director. Ever since, the New Symphony Orchestra has been active as the leading orchestra in the country, giving 12 regular concerts every year. In 1936, Viscount Hidemaro Konoé quitted the New Symphony Orchestra for financial reasons and the latter invited Joseph Rosenstock from Germany to become its conductor.

Under the direction of Rosenstock, the New Symphony Orchestra made great strides during the 1936-37 and 1937-38 seasons by performing numerous difficult compositions. Particularly the body won the admiration of the lovers of music, young students of music and composers of this country by rendering for the first time the modern musical works of various nations during the 1937-38 season. The same members of the New Symphony Orchestra also form the Japan Broadcasting Association's Symphony Orchestra which has been broadcasting orchestral music through the JOAK. The conductors of the broadcast orchestras include Rosenstock, Masao Saitohara, Hideo Salto, Terunobu Hanzai and Kojiro Kobune.

In addition, there are various orchestras in the country including the orchestra of the musical section of the Imperial Household Department, the Central Symphony Orchestra (under the direction of Yazaemon Hayakawa), the Concert Popular (under the direction of Tadashi Hattori), etc. The various music schools also have their orchestras composed of instructors and students. Among the local orchestras, mention must be made of the Takarazuka Symphonic Musical Association and the Osaka Broadcasting Association's Symphony Orchestra which is composed chiefly of the musicians of the Takarazuka body and is under the direction of Emmanuel Metter. Unlike the New Symphony Orchestra, however, these organizations have been giving no regular concerts.

Brass-band Music The best brass bands in the country are the military band and the naval band which give public concerts, by turns, at the Hibiki Park's Band Stand from spring to autumn every year. The brass-band music has of late spread among the civilian circles with rapidity and small-scale brass-bands have been organized by middle schools, young men's associa-

tions and boy scouts. The development of the military music has become all the more pronounced under the influence of the China Incident which broke out in 1937 and brass-bands have become the most popular musical organizations. The local bodies including cities, towns and villages have long been maintaining their own brass-bands as a means of entertaining their inhabitants by giving outdoor concerts.

Since 1936, the organizers of the Musical Week have been sponsoring an annual brass-band concour. In 1938, a wind-instrument concour was held simultaneously, and all this gave a stimulus to the spread of the brass-band music.

Chamber Music Chamber music has been in a most neglected condition in this country. As principal chamber musical organizations in the land, the Jupiter Quartet (established in 1920) and the Suzuki Quartet (created in 1925) are to be mentioned. The two bodies have been giving a number of concerts every year.

Chorus Choruses are organized all over the country. Not only the various music schools but the various universities, colleges and secondary schools have their choruses. Choruses are also maintained by other civilian organizations and in Tokyo alone, the number of choruses reaches the neighborhood of 50, all of which are under the direction of well-known musicians and are active in giving concerts and broadcasting recitations.

The most notable among the numerous choruses are the Orion Choir, the Tokyo Lieder Tafel Philalme, the Vocal Four Chorus, the Mixed Chorus of the Tamagawa Gakuen, the Euphonic Chorus and the Brahms Choir. The Dai-Nippon Federated Chorus, which includes among its members some of the leading singers of the above choruses, as well as the Dai-Nippon Chorus which was formed in 1937, have been attracting considerable public attention on account of their large-scale organizations and the proficiency of their members.

Instrumental Music The piano is the most popular musical instrument in this country. In former times, every Japanese family with moderate means possessed a koto or samisen for the musical education of its daughters as the ability to play one of these instruments was considered an important feminine

accomplishment. With the progress of Western music in the country, however, the piano came to be adopted in place of the koto and the samisen. Indeed, the number of Japanese maidens receiving instruction in piano has increased so rapidly that it may be regarded as an unmistakable sign of the advance of the Japanese nation in the field of musical culture in recent years.

Consequently, the number of accomplished pianists in the country is considerable. In this connection, special mention must be made of Chieko Hara who won the first place in the Conservatoire de Paris in 1932 at the age of 17 and Miwako Kai who achieved excellent results at the international musical concour in Vienna. Other notable pianists include Professor Kisei Iguchi of the Tokyo School of Music, Sonoko Inoue and Noboru Toyozo who returned from Vienna in 1938. Among the resident foreign pianists in the country are the world-famous Leonid Kreutzer, Leo Sirota, Maxim Schapiro and Paul Schotz, who have been rendering inestimable service to the musical circles here by giving lessons and recitals.

Next to the piano, the violin is the most popular musical instrument in Japan and has also made its way into a great number of Japanese homes whose children are receiving musical training. The oldest violinist in the country is Sachiko Ando who studied under the noted Joseph Joachim and who has already retired from the first line of service. Kenshu Wanibuchi and Takeo Inoue are still active. Among the foreign violinists, Professor Alexander Moguirewsky of the Tokyo School of Music and Willy Frey have been contributing much in the field of violin music in the country. As yet no Japanese musicians have distinguished themselves as players of the violoncello. Mention might be made in this connection of Prof. Duckson, who is an instructor at the Tokyo School of Music, and who is contributing his share in training the young students by his ardent instruction at the school and by giving public concerts of the Piano Trio together with Leo Sirota and Moguirewsky.

Vocal Music It is in the field of vocal music that the Japanese musicians first appeared on the first-rate stage of the world. As early as in the beginning of

the Taisho period, Tamaki Miura distinguished herself as a vocalist and has since enjoyed great public favor as singer in the role of "Madam Butterfly" by appearing before the footlights of first-rate theaters in the capitals of the world. Returning home a few years ago, she again created an opera troupe bearing her name and is continuing her efforts for the musical education of the rising generation and for the promotion of the opera movement in the country. Next, mention must be made of Toshiko Sekiya and Yoshie Fujiwara, both of whom also appeared in the first-rate theaters in Europe and America as opera singers of world-fame.

Principal among other vocalists who are most active at present are Ayako Ohta (soprano), Miho Nagato (soprano), Taneko Seki (soprano), Kaneko Yanagi (contralto), Tamotsu Kinoshita (tenor), Keikichi Yatabe (bass), Takeo Ito (baritone), and others. Ria von Hessert who assumed the post of instructor at the Tokyo School of Music in 1938 has since been giving instruction in vocal music together with Wucherpfennig and Netke Loewe, also of the Tokyo School of Music.

Composition The composing branch of music in this country is still in its infancy. During the early part of the Taisho period, efforts at composition were made jointly by Kosaku Yamada and Kosuke Komatsu but later Kosaku Yamada alone continued the efforts for creation, being the only composer of note throughout the Taisho period. During recent years, however, considerable progress has been made in the composing field, a good number of rising composers making their appearance every year.

In 1934, Tcherepnin visited this country and with a view to encouraging promising young composers, created a prize bearing his name. The now defunct Jiji Shimpō organized a musical concour in 1931 and ever since a musical concour is being held every year. In 1936, the New Symphony Orchestra created a concour for compositions by Japanese, with Rosenstock acting as judge. The following year witnessed the creation of the Weingartner prize in memory of the visit of the world-

famous conductor Felix Weingartner to this land. All this served to stimulate the activity in the composing circles here with the result that young composers of talent and promise have appeared one after another.

Among the promising young composers, those from whom much is expected in the future are Saburo Moroi, Shiro Fukai, Masao Ohki, Kishio Hirao, Tomojiro Ikenouchi, Kunihiko Hashimoto and Heki Hosokawa. It may be mentioned in this connection that both Saburo Moroi and Heki Hosokawa have won great popularity for their works presented in Vienna.

Concours Along with the progress achieved by Western music in this land, various musical concours began to be organized. The musical concours sponsored by the Jiji Shimpō was held for the first time in 1931 and has since been repeated annually with remarkable results. The scope of the concour has been enlarged since 1937 when the Tokyo Nichi Nichi took up the sponsorship. The fact that the prize-winners at the concour have been much in the limelight as musicians of the new era is well illustrative of the useful purpose served by the concours. The concour for compositions by Japanese, established by the New Symphony Orchestra with Rosenstock acting as judge, won the reputation of being the highest concour for compositions in the country through its accomplishments in 1936 and 1937 but it failed to be repeated in 1938.

The Tcherepnin prize of 1934 and the Weingartner prize of 1937 also gave impetus to the young composers of the country.

The National Musical Association held its 12th chorus competition festival in 1938 for the enhancement of the level of choruses in the country. The 7th children's singing concour jointly sponsored by the Japan Educational Musical Association, the Dai-Nippon Musical Association, the Dai-Nippon Composers' Association and other musical organizations was held in 1938. Under the same sponsorship were held a concour for wind instruments and a concour for brass-band music. The said children's singing concour is held by the utilization of the radio broadcasting facilities.

Music in 1938-1940

(See the Japan Year Books, 1939-40, 1940-41, 1941-42.)

Music During 1941-42

This is a most memorable period in the Japanese musical world. This period witnessed the development of New Structure Movement in the vast field of national activities under wartime situation. The influence of the movement was naturally felt in the musical world. Though there was no effort for consolidation of musical activities, the musical circles witnessed rapid advancement. For example many Orchestra bands showed rapid progress comparing with the most famous bands of the world. Also there were many musicians who became famous in the various fields of music, and many excellent young artists made their debut during the year, holding forth a promising future to the Japanese musical world.

Western music was introduced into Japan more than a hundred years ago. It was, however, limited to a ceremonial one in the early days of its history in Japan. It was only sixty or seventy years ago that the Western music began to enlarge to satisfy the requirements of the general public. It is clear that when an art with a long history and tradition is introduced into a nation which is altogether a stranger to it, it takes a long time for it to take firm root. Western music in Japan has a history of only one century, and within this period it has shown remarkable progress. This was possible because Japan had already a high class music of her own.

For several years past Japan has been at war with China and now she is at war with the United States and Britain. As a result drastic changes had to be made in the vast field of Japan's cultural life. In the musical world epochal contribution is being made. A movement for the federation of musical circles was launched in 1941.

The Japan Musical Culture Association was inaugurated and the initial meeting was held with leading musicians and delegates of various musical groups under the auspices of the Information Board.

The foundation of the above mentioned Association was an epoch-making event in Japan's musical world. This association is in charge of guiding the various musical activities of Japan. The association is run on the following basis:

- Those eligible for membership are:
1. Composers, performers, and music critics.
 2. Those engaged in musical education.
 3. The delegates of non-professional musical bands.
- The Association is divided into the following departments:
1. Composition.
 2. Performance.
 3. Criticism.
 4. Education.
 5. National movement.

The Association is charged with the following work:

1. Promotion of national spirit and cultivation of sentiments through music.
2. Devising control plans and practices.
3. Development of a national movement.
4. To hold concerts, concours, lecture meetings, and to organize bodies for scientific study for the purpose of elevating the standard of musical culture.
5. To encourage and support excellent compositions, performances, and publications.
6. To build up music-loving sentiment and to promote the spread of music among the public.
7. Promotion of welfare movement by music and training the leaders of welfare music.
8. Sponsorship of international events concerning music.
9. To adjust institutions or facilities connected with music.
10. To issue publications on music.
11. To reward deserving persons with musical accomplishments.
12. Any other work connected with music.

The Association is headed by Baron Kishichiro Okura, and Kosack Yamada as vice-president. Soichi Tsuji assumed the post of chief director, but later Shimpel Nakayama was elected to that position, in September 1942. It is only a year since the Association was organized, and much is expected of it in the future.

Since the Imperial Rescript was released on December 8, 1942, Anglo-American types of music were completely eliminated. In their place Japanese compositions appeared in concert

programs. The demand for true Japanese compositions has given a great stimulus to Japanese composers. The Orchestra Bands also selected Japanese composer's works for their annual concerts. Important events during the year under review among musical circles are as follows:

Kosack Yamada, Kiyoshi Nobutoki, Koko Ando, Kelsbo Imai were appointed as members of the Imperial Art Academy. They are outstanding musicians in Japan and have been so for many years past, representing different branches of music. Kosack Yamada is a pioneer among Japanese composers. The Japan Symphonic Music Association was established by Kosack Yamada which created the first purely professional orchestra in the country. Opera compositions, with Japanese themes, were presents by him to the public and were received with considerable acclaim. He was the first to introduce musical notation to the Japanese public, and also popularized national songs. His greatest Operatic work "Dawn" at once elevated him to the membership of the Academy.

Kiyoshi Nobutoki was a professor at Tokyo School of Music for many years and has trained many musicians. His composition "Umi Yukaba" ("At sea be my body water-soaked," . . .) is perhaps the greatest work representing the national sentiment. "Cantata Kaido Tosel" was the memorial music composed by him in celebration of the 2600th anniversary of the founding of the Empire, and made a great impression, based on a story of the founding of the Japanese Empire. Unlike Yamada, Nobutoki was for long engaged in teaching so could not achieve brilliant results in the public eye. He is however the author of innumerable national songs and has organized many choruses, having achieved a great name for himself in this field of music.

Mrs. Ando is the first violinist in this country. She had also served as teacher in the Tokyo School of Music and has trained many excellent violinists. K. Imai is a famous player of Koto (Japanese harp), and has given a new spirit to Koto music which was in decadence during the Meiji Period, and is largely responsible for the popularity of Koto today.

Musical concourse The 10th concour under the auspices of the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Newspaper was held with a new feature. In this year, composition department was separated from the performance department, and the Chief of the Information Board Prize was awarded to the best composition. The musical concours have a great contribution to the musical world in recent years, improving upon the fine tradition set up in the past and selecting many promising young musicians for the progress of music among the general public.

The other important events of musical world are as follows:

Japan Chorus (formerly Vocal Four) celebrated its 10th anniversary with the performance of Gounod's "Faust" at the Kabuki Theater, Tokyo, for three days in April 1942, and was a great success. While the operas composed by Japanese composers continued to make progress, western Opera continued to be performed successfully, showing the all sided devlopment of Japanese music.

The Central Symphonic Orchestra changed its name into Tokyo Symphonic Orchestra, and made rapid progress in technique under the strict training of its director, Manfred Gurlitt, so that it can now compare with the New Symphonic Orchestra, which is the top-ranking Orchestra in Japan.

Finally reference must be made to Welfare Music which has undergone drastic changes in the world of music this year. The problem of a national music and music for workers was being discussed a great deal for some years past, but it was only since last year that the problems were taken up in right earnest for study by various public bodies as well as government institutions.

Among musicians a movement was set afoot for the cultivation of so-called welfare music and for the service of the service of the country through their profession, by offering musical consolation to the public. Accordingly many of the musicians stepped out to the street or make a tour of the provinces. As this movement has been launched only recently, it is too early to predict the trend of its devlopment.

CHAPTER XXXV

SPORTS

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CHAPTER XXXV

SPORTS

Japan in the World Olympics

Stockholm and Antwerp Japan participated in the World Olympic Games for the first time in 1912, at Stockholm, when only two athletes represented the country. They were Shizo Kanaguri, marathon runner, and Yahiko Mishima, short-distance runner, both of whom were miserably defeated. In the following Olympiad, which was held in Antwerp in 1920, 15 Japanese took part. Of these, 11 were track and field men, and the others were two swimmers and two tennis players. Neither the track and field men nor the swimmers placed. The tennis entrants won second place.

The Paris Olympiad Japan made its real debut in the Eighth Olympic Games in Paris in 1924, with 14 men participating. A third place in wrestling was the only official score, but Mikio Oda won sixth place in the hop, step and jump; the swimming team placed fourth in the 800-meter relay; Katsuo Takahashi came in fourth in both the 100-meter and 1,500-meter free style, and Kenkichi Saito took sixth place in the backstroke event.

At Amsterdam The year 1928 found 83 Japanese competing in the Ninth Olympic Games at Amsterdam. The late Miss Kinué Hitomi was the only girl in the Japanese delegation and the first Japanese woman to take part in the Olympics, made impressive performances. She won a 100-meter heat in 12.8 seconds and took second place in the 800-meter finals by negotiating the distance in 2 minutes 17.7 seconds. Mikio Oda not only scored for the first time but won Japan's first Olympic championship by taking the hop, step and jump event. In the swimming competition, an equally bright success was attained by Yoshiyuki Tsuruta, who took first place and the championship in the 300-meter breaststroke. Kazuo Kimura placed sixth in the running high jump; Yonétaro Nakazawa placed sixth in the pole vault; Kanésaku Yamada placed fourth and Sôichiro Tsuda placed sixth, respectively, in the mara-

thon; Katsuo Takahashi won third place in the 100-meter free style swim; Toshio Iriyé came in fourth in the 100-meter backstroke; the 800-meter relay team placed second. The swimmers won second place in competition with the United States, the championship winner. Japanese took part in the boxing, regatta and equestrian contests for the first time but lost.

At Los Angeles The results achieved at Los Angeles by 131 athletes were satisfactory. The delegation took seven championships, seven second places and four third places.

(1) **Aquatic Meet** Japan dominated the 1932 aquatic meet as no other nation had done in the past. Of 150 official points scored in the six races, 86 went to Japan and only 46 to all other nations together. The result was Japan 86 and America 33, with the rest outdistanced. Only one race was won by a non-Japanese champion, the 400-meter free style, in which Clarence Crabbe, of the United States, and Jean Taris, of France, upset expectations and finished ahead of the Japanese trio in new record time. The only team race, the 800-meter relay, went to Japan by a wide margin in almost incredible time, 8 min. 58.4 sec.

The Japanese swimmers produced both world and Olympic records in the Los Angeles meet. The Japanese 800-meter relay team produced a new world record with a time of 8 min. 58.4 sec. Shozo Makino set a new world mark when he swam the first 1,000 meters in the 1,500-meter free style, broke the Olympic record, 58.6 sec., set by the great American swimmer, Johnnie Weismuller, by negotiating the distance in 58 sec. flat. Others who broke Olympic records were Reizo Kolké, who won the 200-meter breaststroke in 2 min. 44.9 sec., and Katsuo Kitamura, 15-year-old boy, who won the 1,500-meter free style in 19 min. 13.4 sec.

(2) **Track and Field Events** In the track and field events, the Japanese did not show up so brilliantly as did their team mates in the aquatic events.

Thanks to Chubéi Nambu, however, Japan was able to defend the hop, step and jump championship which Mikio Oda had won at Amsterdam in 1924. With a mark of 15.72 meters, Nambu not only won the championship but established a new world record. Another outstanding performance was turned by Baron Takéichi Nishi, of the Japanese Army, who won the difficult equestrian contest, the Prix des Nations. By winning this steeplechase, Baron Nishi put Japan's horsemanship on a high plane in the eyes of the world.

The principal performances of the Japanese athletes of both sexes and their records are given on pp. 831 and 832, the Japan Year Book, 1939-40.

At Berlin Japan sent a delegation of 248 athletes and officials, including 19 women athletes, to the 11th Olympic Games held at the Reich Sports Field, Berlin, for 16 days starting August 1, 1936. The delegation was the biggest Japan ever sent to the Olympics, and was an increase of more than 50 athletes compared with the number it despatched to the Los Angeles Olympiad.

The Japanese contingent participated in 13 events: men's track and field, men's swimming, soccer, hockey, rowing, gymnastics, basketball, yachting, wrestling, equestrian, boxing, women's track and field and women's swimming. Japan won six championships, four second places and eight third places, and finished 8th in an unofficial standing which was far better than its performance in the Los Angeles meet.

1. Track and Field. Of the most outstanding success for Japan was the triumph in the marathon race by Son Kitei. Son, a young Korean runner who set an unofficial world marathon record in Tokyo the previous year, won the event with a time of 2 hours, 29 minutes and 19.2 seconds, a new Olympic record. It was the first victory by a Japanese in this event. Naoto Tajima, a Kwansai student, also lived up to his fame by winning the hop, step and jump for the third consecutive time for Japan in the Olympic Games. Tajima's winning leap, 16 meters, was a new world record. Other brilliant performers for Japan were Kohéi Murakoso who won fourth place both in the 5,000-meter and 10,000-meter runs, and Shunhei Nishida and Sueo Oye who tied for second place in the pole vault event,

after giving hard resistance to Earl Meadows of the United States, the winner. It was the second time Nishida placed second in the Olympic pole vault.

2. Swimming. Japan successfully defended its world supremacy gained in the Los Angeles meet by winning three championships, two second places, and five third places. Three events won by Japanese were the 1,500-meter free style, the 200-meter breaststroke and the 300-meter relay. Tetsuo Hamuro, competing in the Olympic Games for the first time, caused a sensation by winning the 200-meter breaststroke in a new Olympic record of 2 minutes and 42.5 seconds. Miss Hideko Maehata was the first Japanese woman to win the Olympic aquatic event. She won the 200-meter breaststroke for women and set a new Olympic record of 3 minutes and 3.6 seconds.

After the Games, the International Olympic Committee met and awarded Japan the right to sponsor the 12th Olympic Games in Tokyo in 1940. But on account of the Sino-Japanese Conflict Japan gave up plans for the proposed Tokyo Olympic Games in July 1938.

Details of the Japanese performances at the Berlin Olympic Games were given on p. 833, the Japan Year Book, 1939-40.

Development of Western Sports

The History Young When a Japanese refers to "sports," he usually means Western athletic sports, not the traditional sports of Japan. The tremendous interest of the Japanese in Western sports and the remarkable development that they have made in them have relegated Japan's own sports to the background. One may pay tribute to the athletic prowess of the Japanese and their adaptability and capacity for assimilation, but one strong reason for the great popularity of the sports from the West may be sought in the fact that most Western sports are played collectively, instead of individually as in the case of Japanese fencing and judo, and they appear to suit the race in their modern mode of life. Western sports, moreover, offer the Japanese an opportunity to compete with other athletic nations and demonstrate their ability. This gives more incentive for their enthusiasm for foreign sports.

Despite their remarkable growth

Western sports in Japan are of recent introduction, and their history is a matter of only half a century. Sixty years ago, no Western sport worth the name existed in Japan. The fact that Japan could send only two athletes to the World Olympic Games for the first time as late as 20 years ago and suffered a miserable defeat is indicative of the slight athletic progress the country had attained up to that time. Except for baseball, which was played zealously even in the earlier years, it is no exaggeration to say that Japan's participation in the World Olympics provided the real incentive for the growth of Western sports in general.

The Far Eastern Olympiad It should be added in this connection that, one year after Japan's first participation in the World Olympics, the Far Eastern Olympic Games were organized, with Japan, China and the Philippines as the participants. There is little doubt that this minor Olympics had a great deal to do with athletic development in Japan. As in the case of the World Olympics, Japan had an insignificant beginning as far as points go, but in 1930 the country so completely defeated the Philippines and China that one who was acquainted with the remarkable athletic progress in Japan doubted the usefulness of further competition in the Far Eastern Olympic Games. The first meet of this Junior Olympics was held at Manila in 1913, and since then successive Far Eastern Olympic Games have been held every other year. In 1930, when the last meet was held in Tokyo, it was agreed to hold the meet every four years so that it would not clash with the World Olympics. The last Far Eastern Olympic Games took place in Manila in May 1934. In addition to the World and Far Eastern Olympic Games, there have been from time to time frequent exchanges of visits between Japanese athletic teams and those of foreign countries, which not only offered the Japanese opportunities to learn valuable lessons but proved good for a closer international friendship.

Traditional Sports Of Japan's traditional sports, those which have remained from ancient times and which still hold the interest of the people include jujitsu (judo), known as the art of self-defense; kenjutsu (kendo), or fencing; sumo, or wrestling, and swimming (native styles). All these major

sports are still being practised throughout the country. Probably the most popular among them is wrestling. At the Kokugikan amphitheater at Ryogoku, on the bank of the Sumida River, which flows through Tokyo, a professional wrestling tournament is held twice a year, in January and May. H.I.M. the Emperor invites almost each year not only professional wrestlers but jujitsu and fencing masters of the land to the palace for matches in His Majesty's presence. In addition to these Japanese sports, there are others, such as archery and horsemanship of ancient origin, but they have suffered more or less decadence since the overthrow of feudalism.

Under Education Minister All sports in Japan are controlled either by the Ministry of Education or the Ministry of Welfare. All students' sports are under the jurisdiction of the Education Ministry, and such non-student affairs as Japanese professional wrestling and professional boxing are under the control of the Ministry of Welfare. Matters such as the maintenance of peace and order in and around the wrestling amphitheater or boxing ring are in the hands of the local police.

The Meiji Shrine National Athletic Meetings

The 12th Meiji Jingu Kokumin Taikui Taikai (Meiji Shrine National Athletic Meetings) which is annually held under the auspices of the Ministry of Welfare, opened on September 22, 1941, with the swimming meet at the Jingu Pool in Tokyo, and ended in success on February 8, 1942, with the skiing at the Ohwani, Aomori prefecture. It was divided into three seasons of summer (September 22 and 23), autumn (October 7—November 3) and winter (January 24 and 25, and February 3) and winter (January 24 and 25, and February 6-8, 1942).

The summer season was devoted to swimming, yachting and other races on the water at the Jingu Pool and Yokohama Sea Race Field. The autumn season was for baseball, basketball, volleyball, tennis, track and field games, sumo, jujitsu, gymnastics, etc., mostly in the outer ground of the Meiji Shrine. The winter season was for winter sports at Hachinohe and Ohwani fields in Aomori prefecture.

The leading athletic organization in Japan is the Japan Amateur Athletic Association, with Ryozo Hiranuma as

acting president. This is the organization which controls track and field games in Japan and selects athletes for international meets. There are other similar organizations, such as the Japan Amateur Swimming Federation and the

Japan Lawn Tennis Association.

Records

Various statistics of records made by Japanese athletes at the world Olympics, the national athletic meetings and other local meetings follow:

JAPAN'S AND WORLD'S TRACK AND FIELD RECORDS

Running

Event	Japan's Record	World's Record
100-meter	10:2s. Ryutoku Yoshioka (1937)	10:2s. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter	21:2s. Mutsuo Taniguchi (1934)	20:3s. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter	49.0s. Keiji Imai (1934)	46.0s. Rudoef Harbig, Germany (1939)
800-meter	1:54.0m. Kumao Aochi (1934)	1:46.6m. R. Harbig, Germany (1939)
1,500-meter	3:56.8m. Kiyoshi Nakamura (1936) (1936)	3:47.8m. Jack Lovelock, New Zealand (1936)
5,000-meter	14:3.0m. Kohei Murakoso (1936)	14:08.8m. T. Maki, Finland (1939)
10,000-meter	30:25.0m. Kohei Murakoso (1936)	29:52.6m. T. Maki, Finland (1939)
Marathon	2:26.42h. Kitei Son (1935)	2:26.42h. Kitei Son, Japan (1935)

Hurdles

110-meter high hurdles	14.6s. Tadashi Murakami (1935)	13.7s. Forrest Towns, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter low hurdles	24.3s. Iwao Annu (1930)	22.6s. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter low hurdles	54.2s. Toyoji Aihara (1936)	50.6s. Glenn Hardin, U.S.A. (1934)
3,000-meter steeplechase	9:25.2m. Takio Osawa (1940)	9:3.8m. V. Isohollo, Finland (1936)

Relay Races

400-meter	41.4s. Yoshioka, Sasaki, Taniguchi, Suzuki (1935)	39.8s. Owens, Metcalph, Draper, Wykoff, U.S.A. (1936)
800-meter	1:28.0m. Takano, Kondo, Taniguchi, Suzuki (1934)	1:25m. Stanford Univ., U.S.A. (1937)
1,600-meter	3:16.8m. Nakajima, Masuda, Oki, Nishi (1932)	3:8.2m. Fuqua, Alowich, Warner, Carr, U.S.A. (1932)
3,200-meter	8:20.4m. Kida, Nagatani, Hori, Hamada (1929)	7:35.8m. Hornbortel, Young, Williamson, Woodruff, U.S.A. (1936)

Walking

3,000-meter	13:13.0m. Zenichiro Yamamoto (1939)	12:23.8m. G. Brunn, Norway (1936)
5,000-meter	23:45.4m. Elji Wada (1939)	21:2.8m. G. Brunn, Norway (1937)
10,000-meter	43:49.6m. Yoshio Hirose (1938)	43:25.2m. G. Brunn, Norway (1937)
50,000-meter	4:42.57h. Elji Wada (1936)	4:26.40h. Edgar Brunn, Norway (1936)

Jumping

High jump	2:02 mtrs. Tetsuji Akima (1940) yet to be recognized	2.09 mtrs. Melvin Walker U.S.A. (1939)
Broad jump	7.98 mtrs. Chuhei Nambu (1931)	8.13 mtrs. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1935)
Hop, step and jump	16 mtrs. Naoto Tajima (1936)	16 mtrs. Naoto Tajima, Japan (1936)
Pole vault	4.35 mtrs. Sueo Oye (1936)	4.60 mtrs. Cornelius, Warmar-dam U.S.A. (1939)

Weight Events

Putting 16-lb. shot	14.13 mtrs. Shizuo Takada (1934)	17.40 mtrs. Jack Torrance, U.S.A. (1936)
Hammer throw	51.27 mtrs. Isao Abe (1935)	57.77 mtrs. D. J. Ryan U.S.A. (1913)
Discus throw	46.19 mtrs. Eijin Miyagi (1940) yet to be recognized	53.10 mtrs. Willi Schroeder, Germany (1935)
Javelin throw	68.59 mtrs. Saburo Nagao (1934)	77.23 mtrs. M. Jarvinen, Finland (1936)

Decathlon

7,469.595 pts. Tatsuo Toki (1932)	7,900 pts. Glenn Morris, U.S.A. (1936)
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WOMEN'S JAPAN AND WORLD TRACK AND FIELD RECORD

Event	Japan's Record	World Record
50 mtrs. run	6.4s. Kinuye Hitomi (1927)	6.4s. Walasiewicz, Poland (1932)
100 mtrs. run	12.2c. Kinuye Hitomi (1929)	11.5s. Stephens, U.S.A. (1936)
200 mtrs. run	24:7s. Kinuye Hitomi (1929)	23.6s. Walasiewicz, Poland (1935)
400 mtrs. run	1:1.6m. Kiyoko Itoda (1935)	57.6s. Walasiewicz, Poland (1935)
800 mtrs. run	2:23.8m. Kinuye Hitomi (1928)	2:12.4m. Koukova, Czechoslovakia (1934)
1,000 mtrs. run	3:23.3m. Michiyo Onishi (1935)	2:52.4m. Lunn, England (1936)
80 mtrs. hurdles	11.9s. Yoshiko Yamashita (1938)	11.3s. Clordea Testoni, Italy (1939)
400 mtrs. relay	50.1s. Yamauchi, Koshiyama, Yoshino, Itoda (1938)	46.4s. National Team, Germany (1936)
800 mtrs. relay	1:49.2m. Kato, Nakajima, Manabe, Itoda (1935)	1:45.8m. National Team, Germany (1932)
1,000 mtrs. relay	2:17.1m. Koya, Ueda, Nakamura, Niibayashi, Yamamoto, Okuno, Sakai, Kawashima, Kawahara, Takino (1935)	2:4.4m. National Team, England (1929)
High jump	1.61 mtrs. Riye Yamauchi (1939)	1.66 mtrs. Dorothy Adam, Eng. (1939)
Broad jump	6.07 mtrs. Kinuye Hitomi (1929)	6.2 mtrs. Christel Schulz, Germany (1939)
Shot put	12.99 mtrs. Fumi Kojima (1939)	14.38 mtrs. Mauermeyer, Germany (1934)
Discus throw	41.46 mtrs. Fumi Kojima (1938)	48.31 mtrs. Mauermeyer, Germany (1936)
Javelin throw	44.51 mtrs. Sadako Yamamoto (1936)	46.74 mtrs. Gindele, U.S.A. (1932)
Hop step & jump	11.66 mtrs. Riye Yamaguchi (1939)	

JAPAN'S AND WORLD'S BEST SWIMMING RECORDS

Men's Free Style

Distance	Japan's Record	World's Record
50-meter	25.8s. Shigeo Takahashi (1934)	
100-meter	57.2s. Masanori Yusa (1935)	56.4s. Peter Fick, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter	2:9.6m. Shigeo Arai (1938)	2:7.2m. Jack Medica, U.S.A. (1935)
300-meter	3:30.8m. Shigeo Arai (1938)	3:21.6m. Jack Medica, U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter	4:45.0m. Hiroshi Negami (1936)	4:38.7m. Jack Medica, U.S.A. (1934)
500-meter	6:7.2m. Gen Ishiwarada (1935)	5:56.5m. Flanagan, U.S.A. (1939)
800-meter	9:55.8m. Shozo Makino (1935)	9:55.8m. Shozo Makino, Japan (1935)
1,000-meter	12:33.8m. Tomikatsu Amano (1938)	12:33.8m. Tomikatsu Amano, Japan (1938)
1,500-meter	18:58.8m. Tomikatsu Amano (1938)	18:58.8m. Tomikatsu Amano, Japan (1938)

Men's Breast Stroke

100-meter	1:11.3m. Tetsuo Hamuro (1940)	1:7.3m. Hough, U.S.A. (1939)
200-meter	2:39.0m. Tetsuo Hamuro (1940)	2:37.2m. Jack Kasley, U.S.A. (1936)

Men's Back Stroke

100-meter	1:7.2m. Seiji Kiyokawa (1938)	1:4.8m. Adolph Kiefer, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter	2:30.8m. Yasuhiko Kojima (1938)	2:24.0m. Adolph Kiefer, U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter	5:23.2m. Kichiro Yoshida (1936)	5:13.4m. Adolph Kiefer, U.S.A. (1936)

Women's Free Style

100-meter	1:11.0m. Kazue Kojima (1936)	1:4.6m. Den Ouden, Holland (1936)
200-meter	2:42.8m. Kazue Kojima (1933)	2:21.7m. Ranghild Hveger, Denmark (1938)
400-meter	5:43.1m. Kazue Kojima (1936)	5:6.1m. Ranghild Hveger, Denmark (1937)
800-meter	12:31.8m. Hatsue Morioka (1935)	11:11.7m. Ranghild Hveger, Denmark (1938)
1,000-meter	15:57.0m. Hatsue Morioka (1933)	14:12.3m. Ranghild Hveger, Denmark (1936)

Women's Breast Stroke

100-meter	1:25.7m. Hideko Maehata (1933)	1:20.2m. H. Hoelzner, Germany (1936)
200-meter	3:0.4m. Hideko Maehata (1935)	2:56.0m. Lenk, Brazil (1939)

Women's Back Stroke

100-meter	2:52.1m. Misao Yokota (1932)	1:10.9m. Kint, Holland (1939)
200-meter	3:9.2m. Ai Oda (1936)	2:38.8m. " " (")

Baseball

Baseball is the most popular and most widely played game in Japan. Sumo, the Japanese style of wrestling, had been known for many years as the national game, but baseball came from the United States and caught popular

fancy. This American sport is now recognized as the de facto national game of this country. The Japanese are agile by nature and gifted with quick headwork and therefore are fitted to play baseball, although their weakness in batting is admitted. American professional players who have been to

Japan and played with the Japanese have said that the Japanese are good pitchers and good fielders, but poor hitters and have recommended that efforts be made to improve batting.

Its Inception Like track and field sports, baseball was brought to Japan in the early years of Meiji. It is recorded that baseball was introduced by two American teachers in 1872. Not much progress was made until after 1890. The First Higher School is known as the first school which organized a strong team. Kelo University and Waseda University also organized teams. Games began to be played between these schools with much zeal. In 1905, Waseda University sent its team to the United States. It played 27 games and won seven, but the team brought to Japan new tactics, such as winding and bunting, which had been unknown here until that time. Organized cheering was begun about the same time. From then on, American university teams, such as those of St. Louis, Wisconsin, Washington and Chicago Universities, came to Japan. At first, the American invaders were sure to win. As years went by, baseball in Japan developed greatly, however, and now it is admitted that Japanese university teams are on a par with American 'varsity nines. Hence the almost semi-annual exchange of university baseball teams between Japan and the United States.

Its Development The development of baseball in Japan owes much to the visits of American professional players. In 1913, Japan invited the leading players of the New York Giants and the Chicago White Sox to play with the

Japanese and to coach them. In 1931, a picked American professional team came under the management of Mr. Herb Hunter. Those Big League players not only impressed the Japanese with spectacular playing but also opened their eyes to the possibilities of further improvement in technique. In 1932, Mr. Hunter brought here Frank (Lefty) O'Doul and a few other Big League players for the purpose of coaching Japanese university players.

The University League The game was laid on a firm foundation in 1925 when the present Big Six-University Baseball League of Tokyo was organized among the universities of Waseda, Kelo, Meiji, Hosei, Rikkyo and Teidai (Tokyo Imperial University). Of the semi-annual league series, the most popular is the Waseda-Kelo series, the interest in which is high, as in the Cambridge-Oxford regatta, because of the historical background. Before the present league was formed, Waseda and Kelo had such keen rivalry that bloodshed was caused at one of the games and the series had to be abandoned for 20 years. The creation of the league revived the series, and they are now the "World Series of Japan." Each Waseda-Kelo game is usually attended by a capacity crowd of 55,000 at the Meiji Jingu (Shrine) grounds, Tokyo.

In the semi-annual league seasons, each university plays an one or two-game series with the others. The championship winners were formerly decided on the basis of the number of series won, but now on the number of games won.

The following tables show the final standing of the autumn season of 1941 and the spring season of 1942.

	1941 Autumn						
	Waseda	Kelo	Meiji	Rikkyo	Hosei	Teidai	Rate Gained
Waseda	X	1	0	0	0	0	80.0
Kelo	0	X	0	1	0.5	0	70.0
Meiji	1	1	X	0	0	0	60.0
Rikkyo	1	0	1	X	0	0	60.0
Hosei	1	0.5	1	1	X	0	30.0
Teidai	1	1	1	1	1	X	00.0
Won	4	3	3	3	1	0	
Tie	0	1	0	0	1	0	
Lost	1	1	2	2	3	5	

	1942 Spring						
	Meiji	Kelo	Waseda	Hosei	Rikkyo	Teidai	Rate Gained
Meiji	X	1	0	0	0	0	90.0
Kelo	1	X	2	0	0	0	70.0

	Meiji	Kelo	Waseda	Hosei	Rikkyo	Teidai	Rate Gained
Waseda	2	0	X	2	0	0	60.0
Hosei	2	2	0	X	1	0	50.0
Rikkyo	2	2	2	1	X	1	20.0
Teidai	2	2	2	2	1	X	10.0
Won	9	7	6	5	2	1	
Tie	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Lost	1	3	4	5	8	9	

Professional Baseball There are now eight professional baseball teams in Japan, four in Tokyo, one in Nagoya and three in Osaka. They are Asahi, Kurowashi, Nagoya, Hanshin, Nankai, Taiyo, Hankyu and Kyojin. The teams were formed during 1934 and early 1936, all possessing former leading baseball players from colleges and middle schools.

The Japan Baseball Association, a governing body for these professional teams, was founded in 1936, with leading men of each team in its official board. The league is headed by Marquis Nobutsuné Okuma, president of Kyojin. Each team is sponsored by leading newspaper or railway companies, and some of them are financed by a group of business men. The Kyojin (Giants) is the oldest among them, founded in the latter part of 1934, and is backed by the Yomiuri Shimbun, leading Tokyo newspaper. The team made a tour of the United States twice already in 1935 and

1936, each time their trip extending for three months. Most of the professional teams are stronger than those of the Tokyo University League and their future is very promising.

The 1941 series were divided into spring, summer, and autumn seasons with 112 games played each season, or a total of 336 games. The spring season opened on the 3rd of April at Korakuen Stadium, Tokyo and games followed at Koshien Stadium, Nishinomiya Stadium, Nankai Kumosu all in Osaka, and also at Nagoya. The series ended on the 17th of November Kyojin winning the spring season, Hankyu the summer, and Kyojin the autumn. However taking the percentage of the whole year, Kyojin came on top. The leading batter was Kawakami of Kyojin with a 338 average. Kawakami was also voted the most valuable player.

The following shows the standing for the year, and also the 10 leading batters during the season.

RESULT IN 1941

	Games Played									
	Kyo.	Hank.	T.	Nan.	Hans.	Nag.	Ku.	A.	%	
Kyojin (Giants)	X	6.5	3.5	4	3	1	2	3	.732	
Hankyu	6.5	X	6	5	5	3	4	2	.829	
Taiyo	9.5	6	X	3	6	6	2.5	3.5	.557	
Nankai	8	7	9	X	4	6	3	4	.511	
Hanshin (Tigers)	9	7	6	8	X	4	6	3	.488	
Nagoya	11	9	6	6	8	X	4	3	.440	
Kurowashi (Eagles)	10	8	10.5	9	6	8	X	5	.332	
Asahi (Lion)	9	10	7.5	8	9	9	7	X	.300	
Won	62	53	47	43	41	37	28	25		
Tie	2	1	3	0	0	0	1	1		
Lost	22	31	37	41	43	47	56	59		

Leading Batters

Name	Games Played	Times at Bat	Hits	No. of Bases	Percentage
Kawakami (Kyo.)	86	339	105	156	.309
Shiraishi (Kyo.)	79	313	83	107	.265
Nakajima (Kyo.)	85	342	87	117	.254
Mizuhara (Kyo.)	86	340	86	107	.253
Yoshiwara (Kyo.)	72	248	62	83	.250
Tsubouchi (A.)	81	317	75	83	.237
Yamada (Hank.)	85	304	72	88	.237
Nakagawa (Ku.)	84	301	71	77	.236
Chiba (Kyo.)	82	316	74	93	.234
Hirayama (Kyo.)	84	287	67	89	.233

Track and Field

The birth of track and field sports in Japan dates back to the Meiji Restoration in 1868. In the following year, a physical training course was added to the curriculum of middle schools, which consisted of gymnastics introduced by the Dutch. In the meantime, those who returned home to Japan from abroad, much impressed by athletics in foreign countries advocated the introduction of Western athletics. Several foreign teachers were invited to teach athletics as well as English. Running and jumping were taught, but progress was slow. The first Japanese track and field meet was held in Tokyo in 1884, but the first really systematic athletic meet was not held until 1886. At the latter meet, programs were printed. It was an epoch-making event. Track and field events about 1889 and 1890 were almost the same as they are now. There were the 100, 200, 400, 880 yards, the 100 yard hurdles, cricket ball throw, the three-legged race and so on. As for records, the best was 10.8 seconds for the 100-yard dash and 18 seconds for the 100-yard hurdles. From that time on, progress was gradual until 1912, when Japan took part in the World Olympic Games for the first time. An outline of the progress of Western sports in Japan in subsequent years is given in the first section titled "Japan in the World Olympics."

At the invitation of the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation, the American track and field stars, captained by Glenn Cunningham, the world famous distance runner, visited Japan in September 1934, for a series of contests against the leading Japanese athletes. They were the first and strongest athletic force ever to come to Japan from the United States, and staged one of the biggest track and field events in this country.

Track and Field Events in 1941

Covering the different meets held within the country during 1941, and jotting down the best performances made in the various events will give the following results.

Event

100 meters:	10.6s. Shigeo Iwasaki
200 meters:	22.1s. Toshihiro Nagata
400 meters:	49.4s Kozo Yamamoto
800 meters:	1:58.1m. Seishi Nagata
1,500 meters:	4:6.0m. Akira Seguchi

5,000 meters:	15:40.6m. Masaru Yamashita
10,000 meters:	32:20.2m Masaru Yamashita
Marathon:	2:35.9h. Yoshichi Katayama
110 meter high hurdles:	14.9s Akira Kawamura
400 meters low hurdles:	54.3s Akira Kawamura
3,000 meters steeple chase:	9:39.0m. Takio Osawa
Relay, 400 meters:	43.6s Matsuoka, Kanayama, Aoki, Iwasaki
Relay, 1,600 meters:	3:24.8m. Yamamoto, Kawakami, Yoshida, Miki
High jump:	1:95 meters Yoshihiro Suzuki
Broad jump:	7:20 meters Tepei Yuasa
Hop step & jump:	15:82 meters Gengon Kin
Pole vault:	4:10 meters Bunkichi Sawata
Shot put:	13:1 meters Hidematsu Mizukura
Discus throw:	41:35 meters Kyohei Honjo
Javelin throw:	48:56 meters Sadao Hiraishi
Hammer throw:	46:50 meters Shinbu Go
Decathlon:	5765pts. Bunkichi Sawata
Women's Track Record	
100 meters:	12:9s. Kinuko Hayashi
200 meters:	27.2s. Hasue Tasoe
80 meters hurdles:	13:7s. Umeko Kawagoe
400 meters relay:	52:3s. Ono, Nakamura, Shinoda, Hayashi
High jump:	1:45 meters Noriko Nishida; Umeko Kawagoe
Broad jump:	5:52 meters Rie Yamanochi
Shot put:	9:84 meters Fumie Koyama
Discus throw:	31:54 meters Yoshiko Miura
Javelin throw:	39:48 meters Sachie Maruyama

Tennis

Lawn tennis is the Western sport through which the Japanese nation won international recognition for the first time. The game was introduced into this country more than half a century ago, but real tennis, by which is meant the game as played in the West, began only 20 years or so ago. Until then the Japanese played the game with the "soft ball." Even now the Japanese have two sorts of tennis, the regulation ball and soft ball. Japan distinguished herself in tennis for the first time in 1915,

when Ichya Kumagai and Seichiro Kashio represented her in the Far Eastern Games held in Shanghai. Kashio dropped one singles match, but the rest were won by Japan.

Prominence at Antwerp Japanese tennis players figured prominently in the international athletic world in 1920, when the Japanese entrants in the World Olympic Games at Antwerp won second place. In the following year, the country entered the Davis Cup tournament for the first time and surprised the world by reaching the challenge round, in which, however, the Japanese dropped to the Americans and missed the honors. But this served to win for the country a high place in international tennis. Since then, the Japanese entrants have cut a good figure each year.

The Davis Cup Tournament The following tables show how each year the Japanese players advanced in the Davis Cup tournament in their attempt to win the tennis supremacy of the world:

1932 (Semi-finals, European Zone)
Italy 3, Japan 2

Kuwabara beat Palmieri 6-0, 6-2, 1-6, 6-3; de Stefani beat Jiro Sato 6-3, 6-4, 6-4; Palmieri beat Jiro Sato 4-6, 4-6, 6-1, 6-2; de Stefani beat Kuwabara 6-2, 6-2, 6-4. In the doubles, Jiro Sato and Miki beat Palmiere and Sertario 6-4, 6-4, 6-3.

1933 (Semi-finals, European Zone)
Australia 3, Japan 2

Jack Crawford beat Ryosuke Nunoi 6-2, 4-6, 6-3, 4-6, 7-5; Vivian MacGrath beat Jiro Sato 9-7, 1-6, 4-6, 6-4, 7-5; Jiro Sato beat Crawford 3-6, 6-3, 6-1, 1-6, 6-2; Nunoi beat MacGrath 6-4, 6-4, 6-8, 7-5. In the doubles, Adrian Quist and Crawford beat Sato and Nunoi 7-5, 7-9, 6-3, 3-6 and 6-3.

1934 (Second round of European Zone)
Australia 4, Japan 1

Jack Crawford beat Jiro Fujikura, 6-3, 6-3, 11-9; Vivian McGrath beat Jiro Yamagishi, 2-6, 7-5, 6-2, 6-4. Fujikura beat McGrath, 6-4, 5-7, 6-2, 8-6. Oswald Turnbull beat Yamagishi, 6-4, 7-5, 9-7.

In the doubles, Crawford and Adrian Quist beat Yamagishi and Hideo Nishimura, 6-1, 6-0, 4-6, 8-7.

1935 (Second round of European Zone)
Czechoslovakia 4, Japan 1

In the singles matches, Roderick

Menzel beat Hideo Nishimura, 6-3, 6-2, 8-6; Josef Zaska beat Jiro Yamagishi, 6-1, 8-6, 6-3; Zaska beat Nishimura, 6-2, 6-3, 6-8, 6-2; and Yamagishi beat Ladislau Hecht, 6-4, 6-1, 6-3.

In the doubles, Menzel and Josef Malacek beat Nishimura and Yamagishi, 2-6, 6-2, 6-1, 6-1. All matches were played at Prague on June 6, 7 and 8.

In 1936 Japan did not take part due to poor material and lack of fund for sending players to Europe.

1937 (First round of American Zone)
U.S.A. 5, Japan 0

In the singles matches, Donald Budge beat Fumiteru Nakano, 6-1, 6-1, 6-0; Frank Parker beat Jiro Yamagishi, 6-1, 2-6, 8-6, 6-1; Parker beat Nakano, 6-0, 6-3, 6-2; and Budge beat Yamagishi, 6-2, 6-2, 6-4.

In the doubles, Budge and Gene Mako beat Yamagishi and Nakano, 6-0, 6-1, 6-4.

1938 (First round of American Zone)
Japan 5, Canada 0

In the singles, Fumiteru Nakano defeated Wilson, 6-2, 6-3, 6-2; Jiro Yamagishi defeated A. Murray, 6-1, 6-3, 6-3; Fumiteru Nakano beat A. Murray, 6-4, 6-3, 6-0; Jiro Yamagishi beat Cameron, 6-4, 6-1, 6-0.

In the doubles, Yamagishi and Nakano beat Wilson and Watt, 6-3, 3-6, 6-3, 7-5.

(Second round of American Zone)
Australia 3, Japan 2

In the singles, Jiro Yamagishi beat P. Bromwitch, 6-0, 3-6, 7-5, 6-4; A. Quist beat Fumiteru Nakano, 6-3, 4-6, 9-7, 6-1; A. Quist beat Jiro Yamagishi, 6-4, 6-4, 2-6, 9-7; Fumiteru Nakano beat P. Bromwitch, 1-6, 6-1, 4-6, 6-3, 12-12 default.

In the doubles, Quist and Bromwitch beat Nakano and Yamagishi, 6-2, 6-4, 6-3.

Tennis Ranking in Japan Rankings are decided by a committee of the Japan Lawn Tennis Association on the basis of the results of matches played in Japan. It happens, therefore, that Davis Cup players who have had no chance to play in Japan, are barred from the ranking list. A new list is announced usually each January.

Since 1939 Japan did not enter the Davis Cup Tournament.

The ranking list for 1940 and 1941 in Japan are as follows:

Men's Singles

- | 1940 | 1941 |
|---|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Haruo Kodera (Kobe Comm. U.) | 1. So Taneda (Waseda U.) |
| 2. Yasuo Tsuruta (Kelo U.) | 2. Goro Fujikura (Kelo U.) |
| 3. Keiji Nakahara (Waseda U.) | 3. Jiro Kumamaru (Kelo U.) |
| 4. Yasushi Kimura (Waseda U.) | 4. Yasuo Tsuruta (Sankyo) |
| 5. Goro Fujikura (Kelo U.) | 5. Yasushi Kimura (Toyo Boseki) |
| 6. So Taneda (Waseda U.) | 6. Hiroshi Yamagata (Kansai Gakuin) |
| 7. Jiro Kumamaru (Kelo U.) | 7. Haruo Kodera (Kobe Comm. U.) |
| 8. Yasuo Murakami (Koshien) | 8. Shunsuke Hirai (Koshien) |
| 9. Gilchiro Konooka (Waseda U.) | 9. Keisaburo Yamakawa (Kelo U.) |
| 10. Eisaburo Yamakawa (Kelo U.) | 10. Keiji Nakahara (Toyo Boseki) |
| 11. Kiyoshi Wakamatsu (Kelo U.) | 11. Shinzo Okada (Kelo U.) |
| 12. Yasushi Washimi (Waseda U.) | 12. Gilchiro Kondo (Waseda U.) |
| 13. Hiroshi Yamagata (Kansai Gakuin) | 13. Shin Tanabe (Kelo U.) |
| 14. Fujio Yamagata (Kelo U.) | 14. Tamotsu Washimi (Waseda U.) |
| 15. Michihiko Kawazoe (Kansai Gakuin) | 15. Haruo Horikoshi (Koshien) |
| 16. Tomisaburo Fudemoto (Kansai Gakuin) | |
| 17. Shin Tanabe (Kelo U.) | |
| 18. Tetsuji Okazaki (Kelo U.) | |
| 19. Minoru Wakida (Meiji U.) | |
| 20. Takao Fukumochi (Waseda U.) | |

Men's Doubles

- | 1940 | 1941 |
|--|--|
| 1. Yasuo Murakami-Haruo Horikoshi (Koshien) | 1. Yasuo Murakami-Haruo Horikoshi (Koshien) |
| 2. Yasuo Tsuruta-Fujio Yamagata (Kelo U.) | 2. Kenzo Uhara-Chuji Kusumoto (Hidachi Selsaku) |
| 3. Yasushi Kimura-Keiji Nakahara (Waseda U.) | 3. So Taneda-Gilchiro Kondo (Waseda U.) |
| 4. Yasushi Kumura-So Taneda (Waseda U.) | 4. Shin Tanabe-Osamu Okada (Kelo U.) |
| 5. Keiji Nakahara-Gilchiro Konooka (Waseda U.) | 5. Keisaburo Yamakawa-Shinsaburo Okada (Kelo U.) |
| 6. Goro Fujikura-Eisaburo Yamakawa (Kelo U.) | 6. Goro Fujikura-Jiro Kumamaru (Kelo U.) |
| 7. Hiroshi Yamagata-Michiyuki Kurokawa (Kansai Gakuin) | 7. Hiroshi Yamagata-Michiyuki Kurokawa (Kansai Gakuin) |
| 8. Yasushi Washimi-Takao Fukumochi (Waseda U.) | 8. Yasushi Kimura-Keiji Nakahara (Toyo Boseki) |
| 9. Shin Tanabe-Jiro Kumamaru (Kelo U.) | 9. Tamotsu Washimi-Takao Fukumochi (Waseda U.) |
| 10. Tomisaburo Fudemoto-Kenzo Tatsuta (Kansai Gakuin) | 10. Kenzo Tatsuda-Haruo Kon (Kansai Gakuin) |

Women's Singles

- | 1940 | 1941 |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. Miss Sumi Sawata (Koshien) | 1. Miss Sumi Sawata (Koshien) |
| 2. Miss Junko Kamo (Denen) | 2. Miss Junko Nakamura (Denen) |
| 3. Miss Michiko Yamakawa (Koshien) | 3. Miss Michiko Yamakawa (Koshien) |
| 4. Miss Hisayo Wakamatsu (Denen) | 4. Miss Reiko Miyagi (Denen) |
| 5. Miss Toyoko Kizen (Nippon Seimei) | 5. Miss Keiko Tomonaga (Denen) |
| 6. Miss Sachiko Kamo (Denen) | |
| 7. Miss Reiko Miyagi (Denen) | |
| 8. Miss Itsuko Iwata (Koshien) | |
| 9. Miss Sueko Kuwana (Denen) | |
| 10. Miss Kiyoko Edani (Koshien) | |

Women's Doubles

1940	1941
1. Miss Junko Kamo-Miss Sachiko Kamo (Denen)	1. Miss Junko Nakamura-Miss Sachiko Kamo (Denen)
2. Miss Toyoko Kizen-Miss Sumi Sawata (Koshien)	2. Miss Sumi Sawata-Miss Michiko Yamakawa (Koshien)
3. Miss Sueko Kuwana-Miss Hisayo Wakamatsu (Denen)	3. Miss Naoko Oura-Miss Hisako Hara (Tokyo, Denen)
4. Miss Toda-Miss Michiko Yamakawa (Koshien)	4. Miss Toyoko Mokuzen-Miss Hanako Tanaka (Koshien)
5. Miss Reiko Miyagi-Miss Miyagi (Denen)	5. Miss Reiko Miyagi-Miss Akiko Miyagi (Denen)

The 19th annual national open championship tournament held at Denen courts, Tokyo, from August 28 to September 8 in 1940.

Singles: Semi-finals

Nakahara beat Tsuruta 6-3, 6-1, 6-2.
Kodera beat Kimura 5-7, 3-6, 6-0, 6-0, 6-2.

Finals

Kodera beat Nakahara 6-8, 1-6, 6-2, 6-3, 6-4.

Doubles: Semi-finals

Murakami and Horikoshi beat Nakahara and Konooka 6-1, 4-6, 6-3, 6-3.
Tsuruta and Yamagata beat Kimura and Taneda 7-9, 3-6, 6-4, 6-3, 6-4.

Finals

Murakami and Horikoshi beat Tsuruta and Yamagata 7-9, 6-8, 6-3, 6-2, 6-4.

The following list shows the winners in the annual National Tennis Championship tournament which takes place either in Tokyo or Osaka in November every year:

	Singles	Doubles
1933	Hideo Nishimura	Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi
1934	Jiro Yamagishi	Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi
1935	Jiro Yamagishi	Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi
1936	Jiro Yamagishi	Jiro Yamagishi and Reizo Murakami
1937	Cram (German)	Cram and Henkel (German)
1938	Jiro Yamagishi	Jiro Yamagishi and Yasuo Tsuruta
1939	Punchek (Yugo)	Punchek and Kukulavech (Yugo)
1940	Kodera	Murakami and Horikoshi
1941	(no game)	(no game)

Swimming

Swimming is one of Japan's major sports that has been handed down from time immemorial. Surrounded on all sides by the sea, the people of the Island Empire had easy access to water. It was but natural that the people became adept in swimming, and swimming masters turned out several distinct styles of swimming, some of which more or less resembled the Western crawl of the present day. Swimming in ancient Japan was a serious subject of study,

especially for the fishermen and warriors, to whom swimming was more a practical necessity than a healthful diversion.

The Western crawl was introduced into Japan about 1910. Since then the Japanese have not only copied but developed it into a more perfect stroke. The result was the remarkable showing made by the Japanese mermen at the Tenth Olympiad in Los Angeles in 1932.

The second Japan-America dual swim-

ming meet was held on August 17, 18 and 19, 1935, at the Meiji Shrine pool, Tokyo, ending in the former's victory by a close score of 36 points to 27. Climaxing three days of thrilling competition which held capacity crowds spellbound during the meet, the Japanese aces proved their supremacy and marked themselves as foremost contenders for the Olympic water crown at Berlin next summer.

The meet was close throughout. Before the final day, the score stood 22 to 20 in favor of Japan. All predictions pointed to the final relay as the deciding event. But in the 200-meter back stroke, Taylor Drysdale of the United States who finished first, was disqualified for what the judges considered an illegal turn at the 100-meter mark, giving Elichi Yoshida of Japan first place and the meet to Japan before the concluding event. Japan won seven events out of 12 held. Two world and three Japanese records were bettered during the meet.

The 1941 winners were:

Men's Events

50 meters freestyle, Shigeo Arai (Rikkyo) 28:3s.
100 meters freestyle, Shigeo Arai (Rikkyo) 58:4s.
200 meters freestyle, Shigeo Arai (Rikkyo) 2:11.4m.
400 meters freestyle, Shigeru Miyamoto (Waseda) 4:46.8m.
800 meters freestyle, Tomikatsu Amano (Nichidai) 10:4.6m.
1,500 meters freestyle, Sadao Takeuchi (Meiji) 19:43.6m.
50 meters backstroke, Yasuhiko Kojima (Kelo) 31:0s.
100 meters backstroke, Yasuhiko Kojima (Kelo) 1:18.2m.
100 meters breaststroke, Seichiro Oura (Rikkyo) 1:15.4m.
200 meters breaststroke, Seichiro Oura (Rikkyo) 2:43.8m.
200 meters relay, Arai, Honda, Ota, Sakamoto (Rikkyo) 1:46.8m.
800 meters relay, Arai, Ota, Shirayama, Homma (Rikkyo) 9:2.8m.

Women's Events

50 meters freestyle, Mutsuko Onishi 54:0s.
100 meters freestyle, Fumi Hatano 1:14.6m.
200 meters freestyle, Fumi Hatano 2:44.6m.
400 meters freestyle, Fumi Hatano 5:53.2m.

50 meters backstroke, Shitoko Kanamori 38:2s.
100 meters backstroke, Shitoko Kanamori 1:26.2m.
100 meters breaststroke, Noriko Kawano 1:31.2m.
200 meters breaststroke, Kimiko Kawauchi 3:17.1m.
200 meters relay, Kato, Ozawa, Sano, Hatano 2:21.6m.

Wrestling (Sumo)

Japan's traditional wrestling, known in Japanese as sumo, is another ancient sport of Japan. It is recorded in ancient history that Nomi-no-Sukune and Taema-no Kehaya wrestled before the Emperor Suinin. In feudal times each lord had under him the strongest wrestler of the province, and he made it a custom to arrange a match with the wrestler of another lord. Such being the case, the wrestler who was strong and won for his lord many laurels enjoyed warm patronage. Public estimation of wrestlers in those days was unusually high. During the Tokugawa era, which extended for nearly 300 years before the Meiji Restoration (1868), a wrestling tournament was organized, and in January and May of each year the best wrestlers of the Kwanto district (Eastern Japan) gathered for it at Ryogoku, Yedo (present Tokyo). Rankings were decided on the basis of the showing made at the tournaments, and the wrestlers exhibited great enthusiasm in their matches. This custom remains even to this day.

The semi-annual tournaments of the Japan Wrestling Association are held at the Kokugi-kan amphitheater at Ryogoku, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 15 days. The wrestlers are all professionals, and the majority of them have unusually well-developed bodies. Victory in a typical Japanese wrestling match is a matter of a minute or two. Very often it is a matter of a few seconds. The wrestler who forces his opponent to fall or even let any part of the body above the knee touch the ground or to jump out of the ring is declared by the umpire to be the winner. It is said that there are 48 different ways of defeating an opponent. Wrestling is also practised widely in schools, as are jujitsu and fencing.

The list of principal sumo wrestlers, in May 1942, follows:

In the order of seniority in the East camp, Futabayama and Haguroyama (Yokozuna, or Grand Champion); Maedayama (Ozeki, or Champion); Tamanoumi and Nayloriwa (Sekiwake, or Champion No. 2).

In the order of seniority in the West camp, Akinoumi and Terukuni (Ozeki, or Champion); Dewaminato and Kasagi-yama (Sekiwake, or Champion No. 2).

The winner was Futabayama.

Jujitsu (Judo)

Jujitsu, more popularly known as judo, is more a military art than a sport. In olden times, this art of self-defense was widely practised among the warriors, to whom it came next to kenjutsu, or fencing, in importance. One essential difference between wrestling and jujitsu is in the use of strength. The wrestler as a rule throws down his opponent by his own strength, but the jujitsu expert uses little of his own strength, rather taking advantage of the weight and strength of his opponent in hurling him to the floor. Action is unusually swift, and a good expert of jujitsu can easily dispose of a dozen non-jujitsumen in a fight.

This manly art of self-defense was developed to its present popularity and importance chiefly by the late Jigoro Kano, promoter of the Kodokan style of jujitsu and head of the Kodokan, the leading jujitsu training gymnasium in Japan. Since he established the Kodokan in 1886, he has turned out thousands of experts, and these experts in turn have popularized the art throughout the length and breadth of the land. After the Russo-Japanese War, jujitsu became popular in foreign countries, where Japanese instructors were invited to teach it.

At present jujitsu is practised in all middle schools and other higher schools in Japan for its value in physical and mental culture. Many schools have teams, and as with baseball and tennis these teams have seasonal clashes. Private clubs and training halls are found in all cities of Japan. Experts receive degrees chiefly from the Kodokan.

Year	Flyweight
1937	Hamaguchi (Kansai U.)
1938	Kin Jin (Chosen)
1939	—
1940	Takami (Kanto)
1941	(no game)

The list of Japan's outstanding jujitsu experts of the Kodokan includes Nagao-oka and Isogai, both holders of kudan, the highest rank, Izuka, Samura, Tabata and Mifuné, all holders of hachidan, a rank next to the highest.

Kendo (Japanese Fencing)

Together with Judo, the study of Kendo was carried on among the Samurai and several hundred forms of fencing were propagated throughout the country. At the present time, there are about 30,000 people who are taking up this sport, if we include those in the middle schools, colleges, universities, and in private life. This sport consists in holding the sword with both hands and striking the face, forearm, or torso of the adversary.

Boxing

Records show that boxing was first introduced into Japan by foreign sailors in the early years of the Meiji Era (1868-1912) at Yokohama, where they landed and held a few bouts among themselves. It is also recorded that a foreign sailor had a dispute with a Japanese samurai on the street and knocked him down in the clash which followed. The first boxing club in Japan was organized in 1910 by Mr. Kenji Kano. In about 1920, American motion pictures sent to Japan many scenes in which boxing was employed. In the meantime, Yujiro Watanabe, trained by the noted negro fighter, Turner, returned to Japan and established a club of his own to train young men in the pugilistic game.

Japanese boxers participated in the World Olympic Games for the first time in 1928 at Amsterdam. Of the two entrants, one lost the first tussle, but Kintaro Usuda, a welterweight, won two bouts before losing in the quarter-finals. In the Tenth Olympiad, held at Los Angeles, the Japanese boxers made an insignificant showing, not one winning a single bout. In 1931, the All-Japan Professional Boxing Association was organized to control professional boxing.

Winners of amateur championship in recent years were as follows:

Bantamweight
Kin (Chosen)
Kin Mei (Chosen)
—
Horiguchi (Kanto)
(no game)

Featherweight		Lightweight	
1937	Inada (Kansai U.)	1937	Sai (Meiji U.)
1938	Tel (Chosen)	1938	Kō (Rikkyo U.)
1939	—	1939	—
1940	Ryō (Chosen)	1940	Kō (Kanto)
1941	(no game)	1941	(no game)
Welterweight		Middleweight	
1937	Sayama (Dai Nippon)	1937	Amano (Imperial Club)
1938	Sai (Meiji U.)	1938	—
1939	—	1939	—
1940	Fumimoto (Kanto)	1940	—
1941	(no game)	1941	(no game)

Note: Names in parenthesis are those of bodies represented.

Football

Rugby Imported from England, this winter sport has gained much popularity during the past decade. The leading universities in Tokyo have a league, and their matches draw large crowds.

Japan and Canada have exchanged teams during the last few years. The all-Japan team which invaded Canada left a very impressive record, winning several matches and losing none.

Results of the Tokyo Inter-Varsity Rugby League in 1941 were as follows:

	Waseda	Meiji	Kelo	Rikkyo	Teldai	Nichidai	Bunridai	Shodai	Hosei
Waseda	×	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Meiji	1	×	0	0	0	0	—	0	0
Kelo	1	1	×	0	0	0	—	—	0
Rikkyo	1	1	1	×	0	—	0	—	0
Teldai	1	1	1	1	×	—	0	0	0
Nichidai	1	1	1	—	—	×	0	—	0
Bunridai	1	—	1	1	1	1	×	0	—
Shodai	1	1	—	—	1	—	1	×	—
Hosei	1	1	1	1	1	1	—	—	×
Won	8	6	5	3	3	2	—	—	×
Lost	0	1	2	3	4	3	5	4	6

Waseda won the championship.

Soccer Soccer is also fast gaining popularity here. The Football Association was organized in September 1921, in Tokyo, and since then an annual national championship game has been held. The Tokyo Collegiate Soccer League,

formed in 1923, now boasts of 33 members which are divided into six divisions.

Results of the first class matches of the League in 1941 were as follows:

	Teldai	Waseda	Kelo	Shodai	Rikkyo	Bunridai
Teldai	×	0.5	0	0.5	0	0
Waseda	0.5	×	0	0	0	0.5
Kelo	1	1	×	0	0	0
Shodai	0.5	1	1	×	0.5	0
Rikkyo	1	1	1	0.5	×	0
Bunridai	1	0.5	1	1	1	×
Won	3	3	3	1	1	0
Tie	2	2	0	2	1	1
Lost	0	0	2	2	3	4

Teldai and Waseda won the pennant.

Rowing

This is one of the Western sports introduced into Japan early in the Meiji Era. The Tokyo Imperial University

took it up first. Japan's rowing team did not fare well at the Tenth Olympic Games at Los Angeles.

Prior to its participation in the Berlin

Olympic regatta, the Japanese Olympic crew, Tokyo Imperial University eight, caused a sensation in England when it defeated the Thames Rowing Club by a length and half in the finals of the Marlow Grand Challenge Cup race, held on the 1,540-yard course on the River Thames on June 20, 1936. The Japanese crew's winning time was 4 minutes 9 seconds, a new course record. It eliminated the Cambridge Varsity crew by three-quarters of a length in the semi-finals on the same day.

Later, the Tokyo Imperial University crew took part in the Henley Regatta, started on July 1, and lost to the Zurich crew in the semi-finals on July 3. The Japanese eight lost to Zurich by 6 lengths.

The national eight-oared championship meet (2,000 meters) was held on the River Sumida course, on September 23, 1940. The First Higher School team in 6 minutes 48 seconds won the championship, beating the Doshisha University eight by 11 seconds.

The winners in this annual championship meet follow:

1936	Tokyo University of Commerce
1937	Tokyo Imperial University
1938	Tokyo Commercial College
1939	Tokyo Commercial College
1940	First Higher School

Horsemanship

Japan's horsemanship won international recognition at the Tenth Olympiad at Los Angeles when Lieutenant Baron Takeichi Nishi, of the Japanese Army, won the Prix des Nations and had the flag of the Rising Sun hoisted. Horsemanship was widely practised by the warriors of the feudal period as a military art. The Japanese army attaches importance to horsemanship and takes great pains in training officers and men. Horsemanship is also gaining popularity among college students and even women. There are at present about 15 clubs in large cities, and many universities and colleges have their own riding societies. Horse racing regained popularity with the use of pari-mutuel tickets under strict restrictions in 1923. The Government encourages racing by granting aids. There are more than a score of race clubs throughout the country, most of the races being held semi-annually.

Golf

Once a pastime of the wealthy, golf

is beginning to become popular with the opening of public courses. Clubs are to be found in practically all large cities and their environs. A group of Japanese golfers visited the United States in 1932 and participated in national and State tournaments. Although they failed to win any title, they made impressive records.

The following list shows the winners in the annual National Open Golf Championship tournament:

1937	Selsui Chin
1938	Mampuku Rin
1939	Tolchiro Toda
1940	Tomokichi Miyamoto
1941	Northaru Nobehara

National Amateur Championship Tournament

1937	Gilchi Sato
1938	Gilchi Sato
1939	Seiji Harada
1940	(No game)
1941	Gilchi Sato

National Professional Championship Tournament

1937	Iwakichi Ueno
1938	Tolchiro Toda
1939	Tolchiro Toda
1940	Tolchiro Toda
1941	(No game)

Skating and Skating

Introduced here only a decade or so ago, skating has become extremely popular. Japan abounds in good grounds in the northern districts, which accounts for the rapid strides skating has made. Numerous women are taking to it of recent years. In 1920, Hannea Schneider, prominent Austrian skier, visited Japan and exhibited his technique at various skating slopes at Akakura, Myoko, etc., making a great impression among Japan's ski lovers.

Skating is an older game than skiing in this country. As a sport for the general public, an exhibition was first given about 1907 on Lake Suwa, in Nagano prefecture. The All-Japan Skating Championship Meet for speed skating, figure skating and ice hockey is held there yearly. At Nikko, a rink of tremendous size was laid in the winter of 1932 to permit the public to enjoy the pastime. In 1934, Japan invited Miss Bruger, the figure skater and the Canadian Ice Hockey Team. She sent 11 skaters, 7 speedskaters, 3 figure skaters, 15 ice hockey players, and 13 off-

icals who all participated actively in the 11th Olympiad at Garmisch.

The Jingu national skiing championship meet held on February 6-8, 1942; Distance: Kenichi Yamamoto, 18km. 1:19.62h.

Jumping: Masami Ohara (59.00, 65.00)

Skating meet:

Speed: Kin Selkel, 500 meters, 47.2s. Miss Makiko Nawate, 53.8s.

Ice hockey: The Kwanto team

Hunting

Hunting is a traditional sport of the Japanese. In old feudal days hunting on a great scale was practiced by feudal lords in the fields and mountains. Especially, hunting at the foot of Mt. Fuji in the period of the Kamakura Shogunate was most popular.

At present there are many hunting grounds throughout the country. The hunting season opens on October 15 and closes on April 15 every year. On account of its geographical position, rich in mountains and forests and extending from the frigid zone to the tropical, Japan is favored by many migratory birds and small animals, and Japanese hunters mostly go hunting on foot.

The number of hunters during past 5 years follows:

Year	Number of Hunters	Licence Fee (in yen)
1935	87,810	1,418,460
1936	88,806	1,442,835
1937	84,545	1,372,670
1938	85,877	1,435,045
1939	108,448	1,822,490

The number of important birds shot down by these 108,000 hunters reached 1991,741. In 1939, including 2,025,705 thrushes, 811,030 wild ducks, 336,044 copper pheasants, 308,328 green pheasants, etc. That of important wild animals was 839,965, including 652,751 hares, 160,591 weasels, 17,445 wild boars, 4,391 badgers, 2,625 deer, and 2,102 foxes.

Other Sports

Basketball Basketball is very popular not only among boys but girls in secondary and higher schools. The Meiji University basketball team invaded the United States in the winter of 1932 and 1933, but it made an insignificant showing.

At the joint invitation of the Japan Basketball Association and the Hochi

Shimbun, an American all-star basketball squad of eight men headed by Clarence Anderson, assistant basketball coach of the University of Southern California, arrived in Yokohama May 5, 1935. The Americans stayed in this country for a month during which they played eight games and one exhibition match with the leading Japanese teams, winning all.

The winners in 1941 of the annual national championship games were Rikkyo University team (men's seat) and Girls' High School attached to the Tokyo Women's Higher Normal School (women's seat).

Volley-ball This sport came to Japan with basketball and is now quite popular among school girls. National championship games are held annually, but no game in 1941.

Hockey Hockey is more or less a novelty in Japan. It was in November 1920, that the first national tournament was held, when the Waseda University team captured the honors. At the Tenth Olympiad at Los Angeles, the Japanese team beat the United States squad and finished second behind the Indians.

The winner in 1940 of the 18th national championship game was the Kelo University team. No game in 1941.

Wrestling Wrestling in Japan has not shown sufficient progress but this country has sent representatives to both the Olympiad in Paris and Los Angeles and they have left excellent records. In 1934, with the establishment of the Japan Amateur Wrestling Association, this sport has been taken up by many universities and Japan sent 2 wrestlers in the bantam weight, 3 in the feather weight, 2 in the light weight, 1 in the welter weight, and one substitute each for the bantam and the welter weight respectively to the 12th Olympiad in Berlin.

The champions for 1941 were:

Fly weight—Ueki (Waseda)
Bantam weight—Younger Michiaki (Waseda)
Feather weight—Garai (Waseda)
Light weight—Elder Michiaki (Waseda)
Welter weight—Shimatani (Nichidai)
Middle weight—Ko (Meiji)

Fencing This sport is still in the ele-

mentary stage in Jauan. With Hosel University taking the lead, teams have been formed in other universities and women fencers are increasing in num-

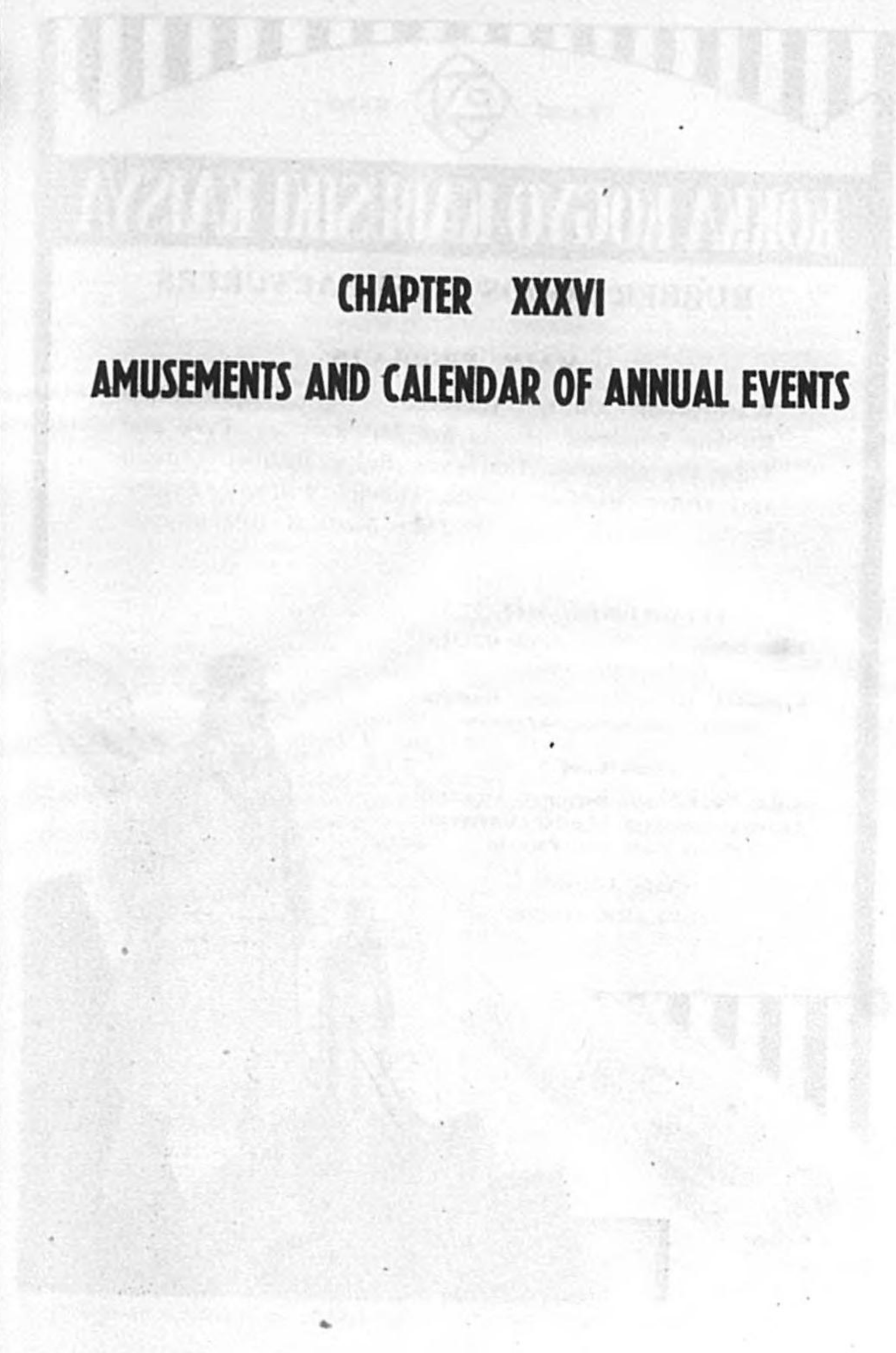
ber. The third national championship meet was held on November 23-24, 1940, and the winner was Sano of Kelo University.

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CHAPTER XXXVI

AMUSEMENTS AND CALENDAR OF ANNUAL EVENTS



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CHAPTER XXXVI

AMUSEMENTS AND CALENDAR OF ANNUAL EVENTS

AMUSEMENTS

Introductory Amusements, both Oriental and Occidental, meet in Japan as do the customs, manners, religions, beliefs and all other phases of cultural life of the East and West. And the Japanese people are blessed with the enjoyment of innumerable varieties of entertainment, old and new, including dramatic performances such as the kabuki, noh-drama, puppet show and modern drama; the "yose" or the place for story-tellers; popular music and songs; dances and sword play; cinema; entertainments through radio; horse racing; hunting; games of cards, "go," "shogi"; ehanoyu; such domestic delectations as "ikebana" or flower arrangement, "bonkei" or tray landscape, "bonsai" or dwarf trees; miniature gardening; all kinds of juvenile amusements; and cormorant fishing.

To begin with, Japan has a drama all her own. The popular stage is the "kabuki," essentially a product of past ages, which, with its enchanting beauty and gorgeous color, often captivates the fancy of foreign visitors. The kabuki drama is not old as age goes in Japan. It sprang spontaneously from the people, the tradesmen, the artisans and others who were excluded from the pleasures enjoyed by the aristocrats and samurai in olden days; but its forbears may be recognized in the stage art of Japan prior to its birth.

The religious dance that was the precursor of drama goes back through centuries to the mythological age of the gods. For centuries the dance remained, as in other countries, a religious rite, being performed in Shinto shrines by virgins. With the incoming of Chinese culture Chinese music came into favor and was introduced into the Imperial Court. At the time of the establishment of the first Shogunate, that at Kamakura in the 13th century, the Buddhist dance ritual and dramatic recitals made a great appeal to the warrior class, and from them was evolved the Noh drama, in which both actor and playwright are

subservient to the interpreter. But the common people had no part in either the religious or the Noh dance. These were exclusively for the upper classes.

Noh Drama

The Noh drama was as aristocratic as the kabuki drama was plebeian, and even now its performance and enjoyment are mainly confined to the upper classes. There are very few theaters or private houses, if any, where strangers are allowed to view Noh upon payment of admission. Most Noh enthusiasts form clubs, and members and their friends see the productions. In feudal Japan, the Noh was the principal form of entertainment among the aristocrats and the warrior class. It was often performed in the presence of the Emperor, and at one time it was the custom for the Tokugawa Shogun to invite the common people to Noh performances given in commemoration of some happy event. Noh was a feature entertainment on all formal state occasions.

The Origin and Stage The origin of the Noh dates back to the early part of the 15th century. Two men, Kiyotsugu Kan-nami and his son, Motokiyo Siami, revolutionized the "Sarugaku", an ancient form of dance, consisting of juggling feats and comic remarks with actions to suit, with the result that the Noh in its present form was developed. Not only did these two men build on what was best in their own Sarugaku, but they drew freely from the "Den-gaku", ancient music, which had much in common with the Sarugaku. What was graceful in them was ennobled to profundity in the Noh, while their comic elements developed into the "kyogen", comic performances, usually given on the same program with Noh pieces.

Unlike any other form of drama, the Noh is performed on a wooden stage of regulation size, built above the ground, 18 feet square, open on three sides.

with a narrow extension on one side for the singers and another at the back of the stage for the musicians and attendants. To that rear extension is attached almost a passage called a bridge. The players appear from under the curtain, to one end of which the passage slightly slopes down. The stage, too, is very slightly tilted to the front.

The Noh pieces, numbering more than 250, are repeated over and over again, but the interest of the spectators apparently never wanes. The pieces are classified into five groups for convenience: (1) "wakino," which generally deal with Shinto or Buddhist deities; (2) "shuramono," which commonly deal with ghosts of warriors; (3) "kazuramono," with noble ladies acting the main parts; (4) "genzaimono," or present-day pieces, dealing with various manifestations of human nature; (5) pieces dealing with demons or goblins as subjects, or those of congratulatory nature with gay and joyous elements.

For each program of the Noh, which generally lasts a good part of a day, one from each of the above five classes is given in the order mentioned, with a "kyogen" between each and generally a dance in ordinary dress in addition. The whole program is preceded by a piece called "okina," which is held in special reverence; the person acting its chief character is the okina, an old man.

The Construction The construction of the Noh piece is by no means uniform, but very often it is as follows: A "waki," who plays the secondary rôle, generally a monk or a Minister of State, first appears and tells who he is. Then he walks about the stage a while, singing, to suggest that he is travelling. Coming to a standstill, he announces his arrival at a certain famous spot and takes his place by the post at the front righthand corner facing the stage. Then the "mayé jité" (shité), the principal character in the first appearance, comes in the form of a farmer, fisherman or priest, describing the scenery of the place and telling of the heroes connected with it, or relating the origin of the temple or shrine as the case may be, thus furnishing the audience with a necessary background to the play. The "mayé jité" then suddenly retires from view. He was in reality a Shinto or Buddhist deity, or the ghost of a warrior, in disguise. While the "waki" is startled by this sudden disappear-

ance, there come on the stage common farmers or wood-choppers who give in plain language, spoken more or less in the ordinary way, all desired information concerning the place, generally reiterating what has already been chanted or intoned by the "mayé jité" and then retire. This allows necessary time for the principal character to change for his reappearance. While waiting, the "waki" sings, indicating a lapse of time. The song ended, the "nochi jité," the principal character in the latter appearance, in proper form and attire as a Shinto or Buddhist deity or the spirit of a hero, comes to the stage and dances as though wandering at night, revealing some spiritual attributes. In words and in action he recounts his bravery, his death struggle, or his suffering in the underworld, asking for the prayer of the "waki" for the peaceful repose of his soul. The "shité" tells his story as he performs, or he merely dances without any chanting. Generally there is a chorus who intone some verses either alone or with the performers. In the Noh drama, the action is symbolic, stately and dignified.

Generally several persons sitting on the side extension sing either in chorus, by themselves, or together with the performer. On the rear extension there are usually four musicians who play on the "fue" or flute, the tsuzumi, which is a small drum struck with the tips of the fingers and resting on the shoulder, the ohkawa, a slightly larger drum struck on the knee also with the tips of the fingers, and the drum beaten with two sticks.

The accessories used on the stage are very simple. A fan is much in evidence in the dance, the studied use of which is very effective with the manipulation of the dancer's big sleeves. The costumes used in the Noh are marvels of textile fabrics, refined taste being revealed in bold yet harmonious designs and colors. Above all, the mask to be worn by the principal character and the assistant is a very important part of the Noh performance. There have been great masters among carvers of Noh masks, many of whose works still remain.

Six Schools Ever since the great reformation at the beginning of the 15th century, the Noh has had four main acknowledged schools or houses: Kwanzé, Komparu, Hoaho and Kongo, all of which are still thriving. Later

another school, Kita, won official recognition, while still another, Uméwaka, also has many followers, the variation practiced by each school being but slight. On the whole, the Noh performance may well be compared to a masterful Oriental picture in monochrome, both being guided by highly idealistic aims and artistic aspirations with many points in common, possessing alike great impelling qualities that thrill the devotees but sometimes weary the uninitiated.

There are 19 Noh stages and three portable stages maintained by clubs or organizations in Tokyo.

The Kabuki

It was during the early part of the Tokugawa Shogunate that the popular stage in Japan came to birth, flowered and bore fruit. An era of peace was ushered in, and the Empire began to prosper in a material way. Not only the kabuki, but the ukiyoyé, or wood-block color print, and other genre date from this period. The people had leisure, money and the inclination for pleasure. It was but natural that forms of artistic expression to satisfy their taste should follow.

The germs of the popular drama may be found in society prior to this period, but they had not attained much development. About 370 years before, one of the Shinto shrine dancers, O-Kuni, performed in a public street in the capital city of Kyoto, after which she wandered from place to place for the entertainment of the people. Others followed her lead, until the government decreed that thereafter only men might give public entertainments, owing to the moral laxity which had ensued. The name kabuki was first applied to this pioneer form of dancing. Although the Chinese ideographs forming the word mean literally "singing and dancing art," Japanese scholars say that its true derivation is from an obsolete Japanese verb meaning "to be playful."

The Beginning The early kabuki actors were social outcasts, or kawaramono (river-bed folks), but as the aristocracy learned of the new art and its charms they secretly slipped away from their mansions and homes to enjoy it. Gradually the moral and social level of the stage was raised, until today there is no more social prejudice against the actor. The late Emperor Meiji's attendance of a performance by a troupe of

kabuki actors at the home of the late Marquis K. Inoué improved their status immeasurably.

The introduction of the samisen, or three-stringed guitar, into Japan from the Loochoo Islands constitutes another high-water mark for the drama, for in time the musical compositions for the Noh were adapted to this instrument of the streets, and there followed the puppet show, which has survived to this day. These marionette theaters called to their aid some of the best talent in the country, musicians, playwrights and puppet manipulators collaborating in the work. The kabuki emerged from the street dancing and the puppet show and yet as a separate and distinct art of a high order.

The kabuki is found to embrace four general classifications: historical dramas, plays of everyday life, fantastic, imaginative improvisations, and music-posture plays or dances. It is often difficult, however, to assign any particular drama to one of these four classifications, for the play with historical characters may also be a play dealing with their very human emotions.

The Technique The kabuki is primarily a picture for the eye, although dialogue is carried on and an orchestra-chorus seated on the stage plays very much the same rôle as was played by the chorus in classical Greek drama, aiding the action with explanations to the audience. The life and thought, costumes and manners of all classes of feudal society are well illustrated on the kabuki stage, while skilful color combinations in costumes, stage architecture and furniture tend to carry the spectators into a land of imagination and romance. From a purely dramatic standpoint it ranks with the best in the world. In stage settings and mechanics it has much to teach the rest of the world. Its gorgeousness of costuming and pageantry finds no equal. One of the features of the Japanese theater is the hana michi, or flowery way, which usually consists of two long narrow platforms on the same level which stretch through the audience from the stage to the rear of the auditorium. They are chosen by the actors for their best entrances and exits and are extremely effective when processions are used.

Kabuki Actors The profession of kabuki actors is in most cases hereditary. Sons of actors succeed their fathers in the profession, and actors without

sons usually adopt the sons of other actors or their best disciples and give them the stage names of their families. Kikugoro Onoyé, one of the most accomplished actors, is the sixth Kikugoro Onoyé, while the late Danjuro Ichikawa represented the ninth generation of the Ichikawa family. Kabuki actors are trained from childhood and because of the difficult conventions to which they must conform few men can become actors after the age of 20.

In kabuki proper, all rôles are taken by men. The onnagata, or woman impersonators, devote years of study to femininity, and in most cases they are more consistently feminine than women.

Kabuki actors are very well paid. Though the matter of salaries is kept a strict secret, it is well known that a high-class kabuki actor is given more than ¥10,000 a month. They still live and work according to the family system. A high-class actor has a troupe, all the members of which are his disciples. Only the head of the troupe receives wages directly from the theater, and he in turn divides the money among his disciples. Other feudal customs also survive among them.

Tokyo is the dramatic center of the country. Practically all first-class kabuki actors live here, though there are a few in Osaka. They travel all over the country from time to time. The more noted ones in Tokyo are Uzayémon Ichimura, Kikugoro Onoyé, Sadanji Ichikawa, Koshirô Matsumoto, Kichiyémon Nakamura, Sojuro Sawamura, Ennosuké Ichikawa and Mitsugoro Bando. The noted Osaka actors include Entaku Jitsukawa, Fukuaké Nakamura and Kaisha Nakamura.

The largest and most famous theater is the Kabuki Theater commonly known as the Kabuki-za, situated back of the Ginza, Tokyo. Other well-known theaters in the capital are the Tokyo Theater, Meiji-za, Shin Kabuki-za and Shimbashi Embujo. Osaka has the Naka-za and Naniwa-za, where Kabuki programs are given practically throughout the year. The theatres change programs once a month, and very seldom, if ever, are long runs given, no matter how popular a particular program may prove, although the pieces which prove popular are repeated from time to time as long as they hold public interest.

The Typical Program A typical

kabuki program has three to five offerings of different types and lasts six hours, usually 4 p.m. to 10 p.m. The majority of the spectators take dinner in restaurants in the theater during intervals. Tickets cost from 50 sen to as much as ¥7 or ¥8 a seat. All the playhouses are of Western style, at least inside, with chairs provided. Seats may be reserved 10 days in advance.

Modern Drama and Revue

Shimpa Shimpa or the new school of actors first appeared on the stage on February 5, 1891 at Sakai near Osaka. The Shimpa is quite independent of the Kabuki, and the actors, strictly speaking, were amateurs. The novelty of their enterprise, introducing something entirely new to theater goers, by presenting plays of modern life of classical events in a modern version, strongly appealed to the general public.

After passing through many trials, Shimpa has steadily cultivated its own ground and consolidated its foundation until today it has a dominion all its own. Many of the Shimpa actors are as prominent as those of the kabuki, with a large number of enthusiastic fans who give them support. Shimpa depends upon male actors to impersonate feminine characters on the stage. Takeo Kawai and Rokuro Kitamura are two of the most distinguished actors who appear in feminine rôles, followed by such highly promising players as Shotaro Hanayagi and Kunitaro Kawarasaki and others.

On Sept. 15, 1908, an institute for training actresses called upon those who wished to become actresses. This was the first move in this direction in the annals of Japan's theaterdom. Appearance of actresses on both kabuki and Shimpa stages has since become a commonplace affair.

Although the line between the classical and modern stage plays is drawn more or less rigidly, kabuki actors not infrequently throw in one act plays in their program that should properly belong to the Shimpa stage, while, occasionally, a troupe of young kabuki actors that had drifted away from the traditional circles would present a classical play.

The "Little Theater" movement was started about 17 years ago, led by the late Kaoru Osana, prominent dramatist and stage director. The group which performed at the Tsukiji Little

Theater, Tokyo, produced hundreds of Western plays in Japanese translation. (In regard to the present activities of Shimpa the readers are referred to Chapter XXXV, "Drama in 1939.")

The Revue The revue, a product of the West, is quite in vogue at present in Japan. The largest troupe is that of the Takarazuka Girls' Opera Troupe, with several hundred girls. Another one is the troupe of the Shochiku Theatrical Company. The former enjoys the distinction of being the oldest in Japan, having been organized nearly two decades ago. The performances of the latter group include operas and revues. Costumes and scenery in the revues are both Japanese and foreign. The Shochiku group gives occasional performances in Tokyo and Osaka, and the Takarazuka organization set up a new Tokyo Takarazuka Theater in 1933 at Hibiyu, Tokyo, commonly known as "Tôhō," and recently added boys in the troupe to give more life and variety to their performances.

The number of regular theaters in the country is 1,900.

The Puppet Show

The puppet show or doll theater, the precursor of the kabuki drama, has suffered so much decadence that now the Bunraku-za in Osaka is the only doll troupe of its kind in the country. The plays are kabuki in miniature. Each doll, slightly smaller than life-size, is held by a manipulator on the stage and made to act. The manipulators, who appear in ceremonial robes, put life and spirit into the wooden figures, and they have acquired world fame for their dexterity.

The "Joruri (Gidayu)," a dramatic recitation, is not only inseparable from the doll show, but enhances its effect. The Joruri reciter usually sits on a raised platform at the right corner of the stage and sings and recites to the accompaniment of the samisen, played by his side. Not infrequently several reciters and samisen players perform in unison, the reciters speaking their lines for the dolls. Both manipulators and singers are trained from childhood. The Joruri recital often accompanies the kabuki performance. The Joruri or Gidayu is also sometimes recited independently of the doll show or the kabuki.

Yosé

Yosé, a sort of variety show, is an-

other form of entertainment which has survived the vicissitudes of time.

The main actors on the yosé stage are story tellers who are divided into two groups, the hanashika and koshakushi. The former tell humorous stories of everyday life, crack jokes and play pun on words. A good many of these stories are years old and the popularity or otherwise of a hanashika depends upon the skill with which he tells these stories. The Koshakushi recite the heroic deeds of warriors of old or the chivalrous virtues of famous men of the locality, with a touch of refined humor to enliven the narration.

The program at a yosé includes, as a rule, popular songs, song-recitals, dances, music, jugglery, and other amusements, but hanashika is the outstanding feature. Formerly many of the theaters used to present yosé programs consisting exclusively of koshakushi recitals but these have practically disappeared. The number of yosé, in fact, has dwindled down considerably of recent years, due largely to the gaining popularity of movie shows among the younger generation.

There are five best known yosé in the regular, old fashioned style and two with modern equipment in Tokyo. The best known hanashika and koshakushi, with a few exceptions, live in Tokyo.

Dancing

Odori "Odori" means dancing and is usually applied to the Japanese form of dancing. The classical mode of dancing, such as is performed to the accompaniment of the classical songs of nagauta, tukiwazu and other popular ditties of old, is still as popular as ever. But odori by a group of dancers is a innovation, influenced by Western dancing. The oldest and most famous of the group dancing is "Miyako Odori" which was originated in Kyoto as early as 1886. Many years later, Osaka started "Naniwa Odori," "Ashibe Odori," and "Kobohana Odori" and Tokyo "Azuma Odori." These dances as a rule are performed by geisha and are intended as an annual booster of local business. Geisha dances, both classical and modern, may be viewed at private parties at any time of the year by appointment.

The Western forms of dancing such as ball-room dancing and exhibition dancing exercise a great appeal on the

public mind. There are many instructors of Western dancing, although the number of dance halls and taxi-dancers has perceptibly dwindled since the outbreak of the China Affair.

Sword Dance (and poem recital). Ken-bu or sword dance is a form of public entertainment peculiar to Japan. It is most popular among boy students and young men, and has gained a wider popularity since the outbreak of the China Affair, on account of the emphasis laid on the development of martial arts. A man in Japanese dress, with his sleeves tucked up, carrying a sword and a folding fan, performs an interpretative dance while another recites a heroic poem after the Chinese style. The recital of poems itself may be regarded as an independent art and there are many professional reciters of national fame. The recital of famous poems is considered to be a refined entertainment, and almost any Japanese knows the way it is usually recited. Sometimes, a kenbu performer and poem reciter together appear on a yosé stage.

The Cinema

Cinema houses are to be found in all parts of Japan, both in urban and rural districts, accommodating from 400 to 3,000 persons. The number of regular cinema houses in Japan is about 1,700 with 300 million paid admissions, per annum.

The government institutions, schools, newspaper companies, and public organizations, are giving free shows for purposes of propaganda, education and entertainment.

Domestic and Imported Films. According to the report of the Police Bureau, Home Ministry, the number and length of new films inspected by the Bureau in 1938 were as follows:

DOMESTIC AND IMPORTED FILMS INSPECTED in 1938

	No. of New films	Aggregate Length (In meters)
Japanese	42,250	22,609,175
American	3,560	2,388,534
British	77	125,024
German	498	454,894
French	194	254,926
Italian	88	90,815
Russian	5	2,732
Others (European)	38	44,748
Total	46,690	25,920,648

Of the total, plays numbered 11,007, and news pictures 28,585.

The largest and most influential motion picture producing and distributing companies in Japan are the Shochiku Cinematograph Company, Shinko Elga Company, Toho Elga Company, Japan Motion Picture Company and in addition the foreign, especially American, companies have their own offices in Japan.

On October 1, 1939, a new Cinema Law was put into force for strengthening the State control.

In 1941 the importation of foreign films has practically stopped on account of the gravity of the international situation and the State control of the production of Japanese films is further strengthened.

Radio

Introduced in 1925, the radio has become one of the two most popular means of entertainment in Japan, the other being the cinema. At the end of January 1940, 4,743,667 families in Japan proper had already become listeners-in which means that one home in every 3 has a receiving set.

Complex Program It is said that Japanese radio programs are more complex than those anywhere else in the world. The old and the modern exist side by side, the indigenous and the foreign. Programs, in consequence, must be arranged to meet divergent tastes, though ingenuity is sometimes taxed heavily to satisfy everyone daily. The divergence in taste is most marked in musical programs. Japanese music, both instrumental and vocal, has developed in a manifold form through many centuries and appeals to the older people in particular. It must be admitted that the music introduced from Europe and America is fast becoming popular. Young people who understand it generally prefer Western music, and old people, who do not understand it, would rather hear the music they have known since childhood.

Broadcasting in Japan is monopolized by the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan, activities of which are mentioned in Chapter XXIII, "Radio."

Horse Racing

It was after the Russo-Japanese War that the import of thoroughbred stud-horses and horse racing began to be encouraged for the improvement of horses in Japan. As a result a craze

for horse racing suddenly set in. At that time pari-mutuel tickets were sold at ¥5, and unlimited dividends and sweeps were allowed. The result was that many people became bankrupt and abuses were too apparent, so that in 1909 horse races at which pari-mutuel tickets were sold were prohibited.

But it soon became evident again that the decline of horse racing had an adverse effect on the improvement and propagation of horses in the country.

Ten years later, the Horse Race Bill was passed in the Parliament and became law in 1923. The law fixed the price of pari-mutuel ticket at ¥20 a sheet, payment being made on wins only, not on places. The number of pari-mutuel tickets a person may buy was limited to one sheet. The dividend was also limited to ten times the cost of the ticket. The race courses permitted under the law are eleven in all, the names and locations of which are as follows:

Name	Race Club	Location
Sapporo		Sapporo, Hokkaido
Hakodate	" "	Suburb of Hakodate, Hokkaido
Fukushima	" "	Fukushima City, Fukushima Prefecture
Niigata	" "	Niigata City, Niigata Prefecture
Nakayama	" "	Katsushika-machi, Chiba Prefecture
Tokyo	" "	Fuchu-machi, Tokyo Prefecture
Nippon	" "	Yokohama City, Kanagawa Prefecture
Hanshin	" "	Naruo-mura, Hyogo Prefecture
Kyoto	" "	Yodo-machi, Kyoto Prefecture
Kokura	" "	Suburb of Kokura City, Fukuoka Prefecture
Miyazaki	" "	Miyazaki City, Miyazaki Prefecture

All of these clubs are corporate judicial persons. These eleven race clubs hold race-meetings twice a year, in spring and autumn, each of which lasts from six to eight days. The money paid to the government, the commission on sales, and the surplus money are all used for the improvement and propagation of horses in the country as well as for the importation of the thoroughbred, Anglo-Norman and Arab horses. Since the losses of the betters were large with "win" alone, "place" payments were allowed by a change in the Horse Race Law, and horse-racing has been carried on now on that basis since 1931. In all horse-races in Japan, clubs themselves undertake the sales of pari-mutuel tickets by the totalizer and do not allow bookmakers. Horse-racing is operated under the complete control of the Agriculture and Forestry ministry.

The above are the so-called officially-recognized horse-races, or horse-races operated under the Horse Race Law. In addition to these, there are local horse-races operated under the local horse-race regulations.

There are 113 local horse-races permitted in the country. A pari-mutuel ticket costs ¥1. per sheet. Some of these are being operated on the combined basis of "win" and "place" tickets.

The Derby in Japan The Great Tokyo Derby, which was established in 1932

by the Tokyo Race Club, is modelled after the Derby in Great Britain. The time set for it is the latter part of April. The race course covers 2,400 meters, the horses entered being both males and females of four years old. The prizes offered are the highest in Japan. The regular prizes are ¥10,000 for the first horse, ¥3,500 for the second, and ¥2,000 for the third. In addition to this there are paid about ¥10,000 for the first, ¥4,000 for the second, and ¥2,500 for the third horse in stakes.

In the horse racing in Japan, flat races, steeple-chases, and trotting races behind sulky are held at each meeting. There is a distinction between non-subscription and subscription horses. Subscription horses are those horses which are distributed to those members of the clubs by lot, each member paying comparatively a small fixed sum for it. This was a system established in Japan at the time when the interest of the people in horse racing was not as keen as it is now, with a view to increasing the number of the people who own horses.

As to weights, the system is to fix it according to the amount of the prize. One kilogram is added to each non-subscription horse in a flat race for every ¥3,000, while for a subscription horse one kilogram is added for every ¥2,000. In each instance, the horse is withdrawn

from the meeting if the weight exceeds 77 kilograms.

For a trotter a handicap of from 30 to 40 meters is placed for every ¥1,500.

Indoor Games

Go Go, often with little appropriateness termed "checkers" by European writers, is the most popular of the indoor pastimes of the Japanese,—a very different affair from the simple game known to Europeans as Goban or Gobang, properly the name of the board on which the go is played. Clubs and professors of the art are found in all the larger cities, where, too, blind players may occasionally be met with. Go may with justice be considered a more difficult game than chess, its wider field affording more numerous ramifications. The game was introduced into Japan from China by Kibi no Maki, commonly known as Kibi Daijin, who lived in the reign of the Emperor Shomu (A.D. 724—756). In the middle of the 17th century, a noted player, called Hon-imbo, was summoned from Kyoto to entertain the Chinese ambassador then at the court of the Shogun, from which time onward special go players were always retained by the Shoguns.

Go is played on a square wooden board. Nineteen straight lines lengthwise and the same number of lines cross ways, crossing each other at right angles, make three hundred and sixty-one *mé*, or crosses, at the point of intersection. These may be occupied by a hundred and eighty white and a hundred and eighty-one black *ishi* or stones. The object of the game is to obtain possession of the largest number of *mé*.

This is done by securing such positions as can be most easily defended from the adversary's onslaughts. There are nine spots on the board, called *seimoku*, supposed to represent the chief celestial bodies, while the white and black stones represent day and night, and the number of crosses the three hundred and sixty degrees of latitude, exclusive of the central one, which is called *taikyoku*, that is, the primordial principle of the universe. There are nine degrees or classes of proficiency in the game, beginning with number one degree as the lowest, and ending with number nine as the highest point of excellence attainable. In playing, if the combatants are equally matched, they take the white stones alternately; if unequal, the weaker always takes

the black and odds are also given by allowing him to occupy several or all of the nine spots or vantage points on the board,—that is, to place stones upon them at the outset.

A description of how the game proceeds would be of little utility here, it being so complicated as to make the personal instruction of a teacher indispensable.

Renshu Renshu is more popularly known as "gomoku narabe." It is played with the black and white stone pieces the same as the regular Go games. The winner in this game is the one who sets his stones in such a way as to have five in one row, while preventing his opponent from achieving the same purpose. There are three organizations in Tokyo with a number of title holders. Scarcely much simpler than the regular Go game, Renshu, nevertheless calls for much skill and foresight and the ease with which even a child may play it makes it a most popular game. This game is played with 50 pieces of stone by each player and the less skilled, as in Go, starts the game with the black stones.

Shogi Japanese chess (*shogi*) was introduced from China centuries ago, and though it has diverged to some extent from its prototype, the Japanese and Chinese games still have one feature in common distinguishing them from all other varieties. It is this: The rank on which the pawns are usually posted is occupied by only two pieces called *hisha* and *kaku* by the Japanese. Also, on either side of the king are two pieces, called *kin* in Japanese. These perform the duty imposed on the *ferz* or *vizir* of the Persian *Shatranj*, which was the equivalent of the modern queen. Therefore, no queen or piece of similar attributes appears either in Japanese or Chinese chess. There are 81 squares on the Japanese board, and the game is played with 20 pieces on each side, distinguished, not by shape or color but by the ideographs upon them. Though the movements of the pieces resemble in most respects those followed in the European game, there are certain ramifications unknown to the latter. The most important of these are the employment of the pieces captured from the adversary to strengthen one's own game, and the comparative facility with which the minor pieces can attain to higher ranks.

Chess is understood by all classes in

Japan. O is the king, *keima* the knight, *hisha* the rook, and *kaku* the bishop— or pieces having movements like them. *Fu* is the pawn. The movements of the *yari* also resemble those of the rook, but are confined to the single rank on which it stands. *Gin* (silver) and *kin* (gold) are not found in Western chess. *Gin* moves one square diagonally only. The *kin*, besides having similar movements, has also the power of moving one square on each side of itself, but it cannot return diagonally. The *fu* advances one square forward, and captures as it moves.

When any piece moves into the adversary's third row, it may become a *kin*. This is indicated by turning the piece over. Every piece so promoted loses its original character, except the *hisha* and *kaku* to which the movements of the *kin* are added.

As already indicated, a captured piece may be employed at any time for either attack or defence. To checkmate with the *fu* is a thing vetoed—or at least considered "bad form"—in this non-democratic game, neither is stalemate permissible in Japanese chess. You wait until the adversary makes a move which admits of a free action on your part. The object of the game is to checkmate the king.

Card-Play

Hyakunin Isshu This is a collection of 100 Japanese poems of 31 syllables, written by 100 different people of prominence of olden days. On 100 cards are printed the first half of the stanza and on another 100 the second half. Cards containing the second half are divided among the players. Then a "reader" taking up the cards with the first half of a stanza, starts reading them slowly and aloud. As he reads the first half of a stanza the one who has the card containing the second half of the stanza will produce it. If one has not the particular second half of the stanza among his own cards, he may pick it out from among his neighbor's cards, and give him any of his own card in return. The winner is the one who clears his cards earlier than the others. One who is an expert in the game would pick up the corresponding second half of the stanza the instant the reader utters the first one or two words. There is no reason why this card-play should not be enjoyed at any time of the year, but as a

rule, it is played only during the New Year holidays. It has become an indispensable part of New Year entertainments. It is participated in by all the members of the family, old and young, and serves as ideal amusement at a time when all the family members and friends meet together. There are many clubs that make a systematic study of this game and hold public contests.

Hanagaruta (Flower-Cards) These cards number 48, and every four of them make a set presenting a flower. That is, there are 12 sets of fours presenting 12 different flowers or plants, as follows: young pine, plum blossoms, cherry blossoms, wistaria, iris, tree peony, lespedeza, grass hill, chrysanthemum, maple leaves, willow, and paulownia, one for each month of the year in the order given.

There are several ways of playing games with Hanagaruta: *solitaire*, *hachi-hachi* or "Game of Eighty-eight," "Six hundred," *Sudaoshi*, *Mushi* and *Kabu*. But the most popular and the most interesting of these is *hachi-hachi*. As in the case with bridge, the game may be played according to quite simple or elaborate rules.

Theoretically, a party of from two to six can play the game. It is most enjoyable when there are three to half a dozen players are at the table.

Twelve rounds complete one set and each round is sometimes referred to by the name of the month following the natural order. Twelve months or one year can be played in 20 minutes or less.

These flower-cards developed from the classical "flower contests" which were originated far back in the 9th or 10th century A.D. by the elegance-loving ladies and gentlemen of the Kyoto Imperial court. At first the game was played by each contestant choosing a spray of some flower and writing a 31-syllable poem on a piece of colored paper in praise of this flower and tying it to the twig. Then the flowers were collected and judged from the point of view of the beauty of the flower, the literary quality of the poem and from the general effect.

These sprays of flowers came later to be represented in pictures, and probably under the influence of the Western card games introduced to Japan by the Portuguese during the 16th century, the flower-cards came into being. They present sprays of various flowers

in the simplest but the prettiest design and coloring so characteristic of the art of the Tokugawa period, but at the same time they preserve all the poetic sentiments and associations of the courtly game of the flower contests.

Cha-no-Yu

Japanese people drink tea during and after each meal and it is customary to serve a cup of tea to callers at any time of the day. Cha-no-yu or tea-ceremony is, however, a peculiarly artistic way of serving tea as an entertainment for guests according to strictly-formulated rules of etiquette. A fine powder of choice green tea is used for it. The powdered tea is put in a bowl much larger than an ordinary tea cup and hot water is poured over it, and the mixture is beaten by means of a bamboo whisk. A party of guests are invited to enjoy this drink. They assemble in the "yoritsuki," a special waiting room for the tea party. The host appears and conducts them to the tea-room.

They walk along a garden path to the tea-room, which is about 20 feet away. At a basin filled with fresh water they wash their hands before entering the tea-room. This is usually four and a half mats in area, about three meters square, and is provided with a stationary hearth or portable firebrazier for the kettle. The entrance to the tea-room is so small that the guests have to stoop to enter.

On entering the room each guest kneels in front of the tokonoma or alcove, and admires the kakémono or hanging picture or inscription on the wall of the alcove, and the tiny incense-holder on a side shelf. Then refreshments are served as soon as the guests are properly seated. It is called "Kaiséki" and consists of the simplest dishes. The host waits on the guests himself and does not eat with the guests. After the "kaiséki" sweets are served, the first part of the ceremony is concluded.

Then at the host's suggestion the guests retire to the waiting-room or to another place where a bench is provided. A gong announces that the host is ready to serve the tea above mentioned. The formality of purification at the basin is repeated and the guests enter the room. The hanging scroll is gone and a flower arranged in a vase is in the alcove. The receptacles

for fresh water and the tea-caddy are placed in position before the host enters with the tea-bowl. The tea-whisk, tea-cloth and teaspoon are also brought in. The host retires once more to the adjoining room but soon reappears, this time with the receptacle for waste water, the dipper and a stand for the cover of the kettle or the dipper. All these articles are valued treasures which the host is proud of, and the guests are supposed to pass compliments on them in a proper way.

The host puts three spoonfuls of powdered tea in the bowl, then he puts the dipper deep into the kettle and takes it out brimful of hot water. About one-third of the hot water is poured over the tea-powder in the bowl, two-thirds being returned to the kettle. The mixture is vigorously stirred or beaten with the bamboo whisk until it becomes frothy. The host places the bowl of tea thus prepared in front of the principal guest. The guest makes a bow to his fellow-guests and puts the bowl on the palm of his left hand. Supporting one side of the bowl with the right hand he takes one sip, complimenting the host on the excellent flavor, right consistency and so on. After he has taken two or more sips the bowl is passed on to the second guest, thence to the third, and so on until all have partaken. When the bowl comes to the last one, he takes it to the principal guest who then returns it to the host. Then the chief articles of cha-no-yu, the bowl, caddy and spoon, are inspected and their workmanship admired by the guests, and when they are finally returned to the host in the prescribed fashion the cha-no-yu entertainment is over. When the party breaks up and the guests are gone the serious-minded host returns to the tea-room and sits alone in front of the kettle which is now his sole companion and listens to the sound of the boiling water. The whole procedure will take about four hours.

Cha-no-yu or tea-ceremony began with Shukō in 1483. In the north-eastern end of Kyoto there is the famous villa where Yoshimasa, 8th Shogun of the Ashikaga line, indulged in aesthetic pursuits. The historic tea-room built as specified by Shukō, father of the tea ceremony, is still preserved in sound condition in the villa which is called Ginkakuji, better known to foreign visitors as the Silver Pavilion.

The principles of tea-ceremony taught by Shukō were more concretely set forth by Jōwō (1503-1555), and then his mantle fell on Sen-no-Soyōki (1521-1591) who is better known by his court name, Rikyū, granted through the influence of his patron Hidéyoshi Toyotomi. The formula and etiquette instituted by Rikyū still remain the basic practices as taught by the various schools of cha-no-yu that have sprung up since his death in 1591. Many utensils bearing the stamp of his genius have come down to the present day, and those who lay out tea-rooms and gardens still adhere to the canons left by him. There are many schools of tea-ceremony represented by various tea-masters, but one is little different from another in their essentials. Harmony prevails, therefore, when persons of different schools meet at a cha-no-yu party.

Cha-no-yu was a pastime for warlords, monks and courtiers, but now it is enjoyed by all classes of people and taught to young girls in schools by private tutors as one of the best means for training them in Japanese etiquette, because it enables them to cultivate poise, grace, tranquillity and urbanity, all qualities making, for refinement in manners.

Flower Arrangement

Japanese flower arrangement is the art of arranging flowers and leaves in different kinds of vases so as to meet the requirements of Japanese taste in decorating their sitting rooms and parlours. The raison d'être of this Japanese floral art is the satisfaction of their instinctive love of nature by a scheme of decoration best fitted for the interior of Japanese homes. The beginning and development of Japanese flower arrangement, therefore naturally corresponds to the history of Japanese architecture and way of living.

The Japanese style of architecture which had completely emerged from the Chinese influence in the 14th century, and the comparatively peaceful life of the people in the 14th century under the Ashikaga régime, preparer favorable conditions for the development of flower arrangement which played an important part in enriching the refined mode of life of the upper classes of people such as Court nobles, warrior lords and monks.

The Ginkakuji Temple or Silver Pavilion, which was built in the latter half

of the 15th century, in the outskirts of Kyoto, is said to have been the birth-place of Japanese flower arrangement as an art, as well as that of the tea ceremony. Shogun Ashikaga Yoshimasa who lived at the Ginkakuji had several attendants, "chabōzu" or "tea-priests" who looked after the tea ceremony and flower arrangement for him. Among these attendants of Yoshimasa the one who was best versed in the art of flower arrangement was Sōami. One of the oldest documents on the floral art "Gojō Shikimoku" is attributed to his authorship, and it is most likely that the primitive flower arrangement which had been already in vogue took a definite shape with Sōami and schools of the art began to be established.

After Sōami came Ikénobō, priest of a temple called Rokkakudo, also located in Kyoto, who later so distinguished himself as priest and master of flower arrangement that he became the founder of the priesthood at Rokkakudō and the school of floral art, both bearing his name. The Ikénobō school of floral art has existed for more than four hundred years and is proud of having the longest tradition and probably the largest number of students throughout the country.

During the 17th century the Emperor Gomizunowo took great interest in the floral art, and courtiers, nobles and high officials gathered together at court for the study and occasional exhibitions of flower arrangement. A hall was provided in the court for the tea ceremony to which guests were invited and an exhibition of flowers arranged in vases by different hands was often held for them in a building which was temporarily built for that purpose in the palace garden. Such exhibitions of flower arrangement were held frequently during the following centuries.

There have developed many schools of flower arrangement in Japan during the past four centuries, but they may be roughly grouped into two; one is the "rikkwa" group which is more formal in style and the other is the "nagire" group which is more natural. The former was in the past regarded as the orthodox style whereas the latter was considered heretic or auxiliary. But today both styles have equal standing among the students of the art, each having characteristic merits and distinctive qualities of its own.

In Japan girls are taught the floral

art in schools and under private tutors as one of the accomplishments for women and carefully keep their certificates of graduation in the art in the "tansu" or Japanese chest-of-drawers for keeping kimono, one of the indispensable pieces of furniture which they take to their new home at their wedding. Japanese women find occasions for escaping from their household duties and chatting with their friends in attending flower arrangement parties, for as a rule they rarely go out for picnics or to dances.

Men, young and old, occasionally take up the study of the floral art, and though they are much fewer in number than the other sex they occupy the position of leadership in almost all schools of the art. It is no longer a monopoly of the aristocracy, and visitors to Japanese homes are charmed with the sight of flowers and leaves artificially yet most naturally arranged in vases put on the "tokonoma" or alcove shelves. On festival days passers-by are entertained by exhibitions of flowers most skillfully arranged and set in rows in the front rooms of houses facing the streets. Modern department stores attract customers with special flower arrangement exhibitions.

Bonkei As its name indicates (bon, tray; kei, scenery), bonkei is a miniature landscape scenery produced on a tray by means of fine grained sand and a few suitable sized rocks. Two or three rocks on a black lacquered tray, with a dash of snow-white sand arranged with a brush to resemble the rippling waves, would present a most attractive paraphernalia in a reception hall or a corner of a hallway. It calls for training under professional instructors but the technique is fairly easy to master, and many girls are skillful in the art as in flower arrangement or tea ceremony.

Bonsai Bonsai is better known among people abroad as dwarf trees. The art is peculiar to Japan. Many kinds of trees, full grown, are of small size. A real connoisseur of dwarf trees often has a large collection of quaint, charming variety of pines, bamboos, plums and so forth, their total value amounting to a fortune. At a public exhibition in Tokyo of rare dwarf trees some years ago, there was one pine tree barely two inches high, fully matured, reported to be 20 years old, which could easily be placed on one's palm. It is a necessary part of the decoration

in a Japanese parlor, especially on formal occasions.

(See "Dwarf Trees" by Shinobu Nozaki, Book Review section, Contemporary Japan, April (1940) number.)

Hakoniwa Hako-niwa (box garden) is one of the most popular pastimes among the Japanese. Even young children enjoy making them. A box of any size may be filled with pebbles, soil or any other material to represent a garden or a country scenery. A rivulet running through a village, dotted with thatch-roofed cottages, together with several farmers, peddlers, anglers, is one of the commonest type. Houses, bridges, stone lanterns, boats, people in various styles, are available at any shops, while small sized trees may be obtained cheaply from any plant-shop. The size and scheme of the box-garden depends upon one's fancy and the amount one is prepared to spend on it. With proper care, a box-garden will last for a year or more, with the tiny trees growing luxuriantly.

Popular Songs

The variety of popular Japanese songs may roughly be divided into the following five:

(1) Those of the pre-Restoration days; (2) those of Meiji era; (3) military songs; (4) school songs, and (5) those which may be termed modern.

(1) Pre-Restoration Songs, in this category are included those songs which have come down from the days before the Restoration. One characteristic of these songs is that they are suitable for being sung at small gatherings and at banquets to the accompaniment of samisen. They are not suited for being sung by a large group. The most favorite of them that have survived the vicissitude of years, even now sung to the accompaniment of a violin or harmonica and other western modeled instruments, are: Otsue, Tateyama-bushi, Tango-no-Miyazu, Kochae, Nogeno Yamakara, Fukagawa-bushi, Kappore, Yakkosan, Yarisabi, Yoneyama Jinku and Koupira-Fune. The most lively of these airs are Kappore and Fukagawa-bushi while Yarisabi is a quiet and tranquil tune.

(2) Meiji Era Songs: Songs of the pre-Restoration days continued to appear after the Restoration. The influence of the romantic sentiment that surrounds these songs remained fairly strong, although many popular ditties

in the later period of Meiji distinctly revealed the western influence in tune and rhythm. Some of the most famous of these songs, popular even today are: Enkalna (1873), Suteteko (1880), Oppeke (1887), Suiryo-bushi (1888), Kyo-no-shiki (The Four Seasons in Kyoto, 1895), Sanosa (1899, a variety from the famous Chinese tune Kiu Lion Kuan or Nine Linked Rings), Strike-bushi (1900), Kappa-Intshi (1904), High Collar-bushi (1909), Don-Don-bushi (1911) and Suto-ton (1921), Oryokuko-bushi (The Yalu River song, about 1919). It became popular in Dalren, in early 1912's and when brought to Japan in 1919, swept over the country. The tune is clearly modified further from Sanosa above referred to.

(3) Military Songs: Military songs may really be said as having blazed the trail for all popular songs of modern type. The very first military song, Miya-San Miya-San (1868) was a most crude affair as a musical piece, both in tune and composition, but it inspired men marching against the Shogunate forces. The best known military song is Battalion (1884). Equally well known is Tekiwa-Ikuman (1891), Michi-wa 680-ri (1892) was widely sung among young people and the Genko (1893) was a great hit among youngsters, one of the most stirring songs that dwelt on the heroic fighting of the samurai against the invasion of Kublai Khan. *Hobono-Taiakal* (the Battle of Fengtau), *Roel-no-Yume* (the Dream of a Camp), *Kokai-no-Taisho* (the Great Victory of the Yellow Sea) and *Yuki-no-Shingun* (Marching Through the Snow) which were most popular in 1894-95 at the time of the Sino-Japanese War, are well remembered.

The Russo-Japanese War inspired a large number of songs that stirred the patriotic fervor, their names being too numerous to mention.

(4) School Songs: By school songs is meant the songs that are sung primarily by pupils and students. The oldest and the most familiar among them is *Hotaru-no-Hikari* (The Light of Fire Flies). The tune is borrowed from Auld Lang Syne and its words express the sentiment of school days and the song is regularly sung at the formal farewell party when boys and girls at a primary school send off their graduating friends in March every year. From about 1888 songs primarily intended for pupils at lower grade and students at higher

schools began to appear, and some of the military songs as a matter of course were adopted in schools. Hundreds of school songs have been produced, suitable for the different grades of schools, including those for kindergartens.

The ones that caught the popular fancy and maintained popularity for years were *Minato* (1900), the *Song of the Railway* (1900), the *Beautiful Nature* (1900) and the *Round the World* (1901). *Minato* or the *Port* describes a moonlight scene at a port and the *Song of the Railway* is a description of the scenic spots and historical landmarks along Tokaido (Tokyo-Kyoto). *Minato* is more delicate in tune and words than the *Railway Song* and was favorite among all classes of people; the *Railway Song* won lasting public favor on account of the novelty of the theme and simplicity of tune.

(5) Modern Songs: One distinct feature of all popular songs that may be classed in this category is their decidedly western aspect. All are accompanied by an orchestra and their tune is practically that of western songs. A large variety has appeared and those that won enthusiastic reception everywhere were the *Dotonbori March* (1928), the *Tokyo March* (1929). *Kobe* came out with a *March* of its own but failed to catch up with the two in popularity. Then the *Tokyo Ondo* and *Osaka Ondo* competed for public favor and both gained a warm reception.

Colleges and schools have all their own songs which are yelled out at stadiums in boosting their respective teams or sung at meetings of fellow students or other public functions where the students gather. Some of them were taken up by the public outside the colleges and the songs of the dormitory of the First Higher School in Tokyo were especially prominent. The college songs of Waseda and Kelo Universities are some of the most familiar among them.

Mention should also be made about the juvenile songs. They are in great demand and excellent pieces have been produced by composers of national fame who specially devote themselves to composing songs that best appeal to the little folk.

It may be added here that the most well known popular songs with foreign titles were the following:

The *Sinking of the Normanton* (1887), an expression of national indignation over the inhuman attitude of Captain

Drake and crew of the British freighter *Normanton* (3,000 tons) which ran aground off Shionomisaki, Wakayama prefecture, October 24, 1887. The Japanese passengers, 25 in all, were left on board the sinking vessel while the captain and crew safely escaped ashore. The Japanese all perished. Washington (1897) that plays up the heroic struggle of the "Original 13," paying homage to the leadership of George Washington; *The Ripples on the Danube* (1902); *Song of Katusha* (1914) when Tolstol's Resurrection was much in prominence; the *Song of Gondola* (1915); the *Song of Carmen* (1918) in the days when operas were in great favor. The *Boatmen's Song of Venice* (1924), *Valencia* (1927), *Mon Paris* (1927) and the *Song of Arabia* (1928).

Of these the one about the English freighter was more like a military song while "Washington" was a school song. Others should be classed among those of modern category.

A large majority of those popular songs of the pre-Restoration days and Meiji era originated in the rural areas. Strictly speaking, they are folklore songs, favorite among the rural people. There are many of these folk songs of the olden days that are still in popular favor such as *Oiwake*, *Sado-Okesa*, *Yasuki-bushi*, *Kiso-bushi*, *Iso-bushi*, *Kushimoto-bushi*, *Ohara-bushi* and *Ise-ondo*. These represent, incidentally, the key provinces from north to south: Sado, Yasuki, Kiso, Kushimoto, Ohara and Ise are the names of either towns or provinces.

As example of a popular song which has a strictly religious appeal may be mentioned *Goeika*. The whole is a series of a number of short songs in praise of Buddhist virtues and benevolence. It is usually sung by pilgrims that make a round of visits among the 88 temples as traditionally designated. A pilgrim, chanting this *Goeika* in a slow drone, timing the chant with a tiny bell, makes a somber picture. The custom of singing *Goeika* is studiously preserved among the devotees.

The China Affair brought about a radical change almost overnight. Every phase of life showed a wartime aspect. Songs that cheered "boys" at the front and steered those proceeding to the front became popular. It should be noted that there is not a single song that expresses hatred of the enemy. Among those that became the rage of the day

were the "Message from Shanghai," "My Pet Horse March" and the "Song of Camping." Simple and straight in wording, lively and pleasant in rhythm, "Thank You, Mr. Soldier," captivated the soldiers at the front and the folks at home. It is destined to enjoy a record popularity.

Juvenile Amusements

The question of juvenile amusements is claiming the most serious attention of the authorities concerned. This is especially true in regard to urban centers where the problem of physical welfare of children is regarded as of the utmost importance, on account of the various forms of mental and physical tension to which children are subjected in city life.

All parks and public gardens in Tokyo and other cities of any size in the country have playgrounds with as many facilities for recreation as possible. Zoological gardens, museums, "luna" parks and other amusement quarters in and around the cities are as much for the benefit of children as they are for that of grown-ups. Boys and girls under 14 years of age are not admitted to a movie show that caters to the adult patronage, and there are movie halls that screen films officially approved as suitable for minors.

The time-honored *Hina-matsuri* (the Dolls' Festival) for girls (March 3) and *Tango-no-Sekku* (the Boys' Festival, May 5) are still popular. The joy of flying a kite in the New Year season has long been denied the boys in cities on account of the net-work of telegraph and telephone wires overhead. However, quite a number of boys may be seen enjoying this fascinating pastime on the open grounds at the parks. City girls do not fare any better in playing the age-old battledore games during the same season because of the danger from traffic.

Minors share the joy of almost everything that their elders enjoy, only in a more or less modified form. They are conspicuous in hiking, swimming, and in most other sports.

A new feature in the line of juvenile amusement was introduced in recent years in the shape of *Kami-Shibai* (paper-theater). An itinerant showman goes round alleys and side streets, carrying a frame of about 1½ x 1 ft. on a tripod. On the frame is put a num-

ber of pictures in succession, describing a series of exciting scenes of some well-known story. As the showman tells the story, he puts on the pictures one by one, illustrating the story. Each child pays a penny to the showman at the end of the show.

The *Kami-shibai* appealed to the youngsters so much (especially those in urban districts) that the authorities had to consider its moral effect upon the young people, and since the outbreak of the China Affair, it is put under strict control, many of these showmen disappearing to enter better occupations.

Cormorant Fishing

Cormorant-fishing always takes place at night and by torch-light. The method pursued is as follows: There are four men in each boat. One at the stern manages the craft. In the bow stands the master called *ujo*, distinguished by the peculiar hat of his rank, and handling no fewer than 12 trained birds with the skill and coolness that have made this fishing method on the Nagara river so world famous. *Amidships* is another fisher, of the second grade, who handles four birds only.

Between them is the fourth man, called *kako*, from the bamboo striking instrument of that name, with which he makes the clatter necessary for keeping the birds up to their work; he also encourages them by shouts and cries, looks after spare apparatus, etc., and is ready to give aid if required.

At the base of the neck of each cormorant is a metal ring, drawn tight enough to prevent marketable fish from passing below it, but at the same time time loose enough—for it is never removed—to admit the smaller prey, which serves as food. Round the body

is a cord, with a short strip of stiffish whale-bone attached at the middle of the back by which the bird may be conveniently lowered into the water or lifted out when at work; and to this whalebone is looped a thin rein of spruce fiber, 12 feet long, in preference to a string so as to minimize the chance of entanglement.

When the fishing-ground is reached, the master lowers his 12 birds one by one into the stream and gathers their reins into his left hand, manipulating the latter thereafter with his right as occasion requires. No. 2 does the same with his four birds; the *kako* starts in with his volleys of noise; and forthwith the cormorants set to their work in the heartiest and jolliest way, diving and ducking with wonderful swiftness as the astonished fish come flocking toward the blaze of light.

The master must handle his 12 strings so deftly that, let the birds dash hither and thither as they will, there shall be no impediment or fouling. He must have his eyes everywhere and his hands following his eyes. Specially, he must be on the look-out for the moment when any of his flock is gorged,—a fact generally made known by the bird itself, which then swims about in a foolish, helpless way, with its head and swollen neck erect.

Thereupon, the master, shortening in on that bird, lifts it aboard, forces its bill open with his left hand, which still holds the rest of the line, squeezes out the fish with his right, and starts the creature off on a fresh foray,—all this with such admirable dexterity and quickness that the 11 birds still bustling about have scarce time to get things into a tangle, and in another moment the whole team is again perfectly in hand.

CALENDAR OF ANNUAL EVENTS

Few countries, if any, possess more ceremonies and more festivities than Japan. An actual knowledge of them, especially their origin will reveal most of them to be delightful. In spite of the modern garb Japan wears today the life of the present-day Japan is still associated with many picturesque customs and poetical sentiments of Old Japan, which afford a glimpse into the days of feudalism.

Below is given in chronological order a list of important annual events in Japan, including ceremonies, festivals and other national customary observances. (Dates of festivals of representative shrines are given in Chapter, XXIX, Religion.)

January

January 1st. New Year's Day—New Year's Day means as much to the Japa-

ese as Christmas means to Western peoples, or probably more. It marks the beginning of new life in an atmosphere of quiet and gaiety, leisure and pleasure. It is a time to forget the cares of the past year and enjoy feasts and indulge in all sorts of amusement in celebration of the coming good and lucky year. The homes are decorated, both inside and outside; the people are clad in their best clothes, and they all look happy.

The Imperial Household observes a religious ceremony called *Shibohai* (worshipping in four directions) at the Imperial Sanctuary according to Shinto rites. The Emperor officiates in person, offering prayers to the gods for the peace and prosperity of the Empire. New Year's Day is one of the four most important national holidays of Japan, the others being the Imperial Birthday celebration, *Kigensetsu*, commemorating the founding of the Empire (Feb. 11) and *Meijietsu*, in honor of the birthday of Emperor Meiji (Nov. 3).

The time-honored custom of worshipping the New Year's sun-rise at shrine compounds situated in the "lucky direction" of the year is widely observed from the traditional belief that so doing will bring good luck. The compound of the Meiji Shrine in Tokyo, for instance, is always filled with worshippers at dawn on New Year's Day. Ceremonies celebrating the New Year are also observed at all Shinto shrines throughout the country. On this day and the following two days people call on their relatives and friends and exchange New Year greetings.

2nd. Beginning of Work—This day is known as *shigoto hajime* or beginning of work and is marked with ceremonies for the beginning of all sorts of activities which are to be executed properly and well in the right spirit, in the hope that everything will go on in the same happy way for the rest of the year.

On the night of the second day, people were supposed, in ancient times, to dream the first lucky dream of the year. To inspire such a dream, pictures representing the Seven Gods of Fortune were sold in the streets, to be placed under the pillow so that the sleeper might dream a desired dream. This custom has almost practically disappeared.

3rd. Genshi-sai, a national holiday, celebrating the auspicious origin of the Imperial Throne at the beginning of

the year, is observed on the third day before the Imperial Sanctuary in the Palace. The ceremony is attended by the Emperor, members of the Imperial family, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, high officials of the government and members of the peerage. In the morning the front of the Nijubashi, the bridge at the main entrance to the Imperial Palace, presents a glittering scene as the dignitaries of the nation arrive at the palace in their State uniforms to participate in the court function. The New Year holidays come to an end on this day.

4th. Functions Resumed—All normal functions of the State are resumed on this day and government and private offices re-open. The Ministers of State make various important reports to the Emperor, and the Minister of the Imperial Household also gives an account of the ceremonies performed at the Grand Shrine of Ise and the other government-managed shrines on the occasion of the New Year.

5th. The Shinnen Enkai, or New Year Banquet, is held at the Homéi Hall of the Imperial Palace, where the Emperor and Empress give a banquet to the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Ministers of State, foreign diplomatic representatives and a large number of other dignitaries. The people in general also hold New Year parties.

One of the most interesting features of Tokyo life on this day is the festival of the Suttengu shrine at Ningyo-cho. Here, right in the heart of the modern capital, a glimpse of old Japan reveals itself.

6th. Tokyo fire-brigades assemble in an open space in front of the Nijubashi for the New Year parade and give acrobatic performances on fireladders. The performance of acrobatics was initiated in olden days in Yedo to reassure the public by demonstrating the efficiency of firemen when confronted with danger. This firemen's parade is no more.

Cold Season begins—The so-called *'kan'*, or cold season, begins its conventional period of four weeks. The cold season is divided into two stages, the period of *'shokan'*, or lesser cold, and the period of *'daikan'*, or greater cold. During the period many male apprentices and artisans devoted to their work go out thinly clad in the evening to worship at their favorite temples, having the traditional belief that divine

power invoked by their enthusiasm will make them proficient in their callings. They go to the well in the temple compounds and pour cold water over their bodies to purify themselves before worshipping at the temples. The rite is practised for the whole period every evening without a break, irrespective of weather conditions. Such enthusiasts, dressed in white clothes and usually with tinkling bells hanging over their loins, can be seen in the streets during the cold season, running from temple to temple.

Decorations removed—All New Year decorations should be removed from the house fronts before nightfall, as the main New Year celebrations come to an end.

7th. The Seven Herbs—On this day, known as *'nanakusa'* (seven herbs), people eat rice gruel mixed with seven kinds of herbs. This custom originated in the days of the threatened Mongolian invasions under Kublai Khan. The herbs were deemed to give strength to the Japanese soldiers, and they are now supposed to give strength to all consumers against the nation's enemies. This custom is fast dying out.

8th. Military Review—The Emperor reviews the troops of the Imperial Bodyguard at the Yoyogi parade ground. The public may witness the review.

The 8th day of each month is set aside as the *"Tai-Sho Hōtai Bi"* or the "Day of Commemoration of the Imperial Rescript" of December 8, 1941, granted in regard to the declaration of war against the United States and the British Empire. The nation read the Imperial Rescript and renew their determination to fight the war through for the complete victory, holding prayerful gatherings at individual homes or in public.

10th. The Kōmpira Shrine holds its festival on this day. The shrine is located at Toranomōji in Shiba, Tokyo. A feature of the festival is a fair at which many talismans are sold.

Festival of Ebisu. Ebisu is one of the seven deities of luck and very popular among the merchant class. The festival takes place at the Ebisu shrines in Keuninji Temple, Kyoto, at Imamiya, Osaka, and other places, and shops hold special bazaars.

Second Sunday The Kodokwan, the celebrated judo training institution in Kōshikawa, observes the ceremony of beginning judo practice for the year.

The greatest experts in the art of self-defence participate in the ceremony, at which the finest matches of the year are seen.

12th. Sumo (Japanese wrestling)—The semi-annual tournaments of the Japan Wrestling Association are held at the Kokōdōkan amphitheater at Ryōgoku, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 15 days. (See Chapter XXXV.)

15th and 16th. Extra holidays for apprentices and servants called *"yabu-iri"* (return to country homes)—In old days apprentices and servants were given only two day's holidays a year, January 15 or 16 and July 15 or 16. Nowadays they are given at least one holiday a month by law, but in addition the old holiday-dates are still adhered to.

February

February 1st. There are people, usually in the country, who adhere either to the lunar calendar or one called "one month behind," and those observing one month behind calendar celebrate their New Year this day.

3rd or 4th. 'Setsubun,' or change of season, on which date winter comes to an end theoretically and spring begins according to the lunar calendar. *'Mamōmaki,'* or the bean-throwing ceremony, is widely practised throughout the country. People scatter beans in an attempt to drive out all the evil spirits in the house and call in good luck. The priests of leading shrines and temples observe this custom in the presence of thousands of worshippers. Usually popular actors and wrestlers are employed as bean-throwers.

11th. Kigensetsu, commemorating the accession in 660 B.C. of the first Emperor of Japan to the Throne, is one of the most important in the Japanese calendar. The Emperor observes elaborate ceremonies in front of the Imperial Sanctuary, attended by the Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, court functionaries and high officials of the government, and peers. An Imperial luncheon is given at the Homéi Hall of the Palace, to which are invited the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, State Ministers, members of the foreign diplomatic corps, etc.

March

March 3rd. Hina Matsuri or Girls' Doll Festival is sometimes known as the

peach festival, because it is associated with the peach blossoms which begin to open about this time. All families place decorated doll shelves in the guest rooms or alcoves with a set of dolls and accessories on them. The set of dolls is supposed to represent a miniature Court of ancient days with the Emperor, Empress, and their retainers. Some of the sets in wealthy families are very valuable, costing several hundred yen each. Dolls are displayed for sale at department stores and stalls for some weeks before the arrival of this festival. Considerable religious significance was originally attached to the doll festival, but later it became a mere pastime for children. It is said by some that the custom encourages happy family life, and by others that it encourages the spirit of filial piety and loyalty. Scholars declare that the custom originated during the reign of the Emperor Tsuchimikado (1189-1207).

6th. The Empress's Birthday—This day is known in Japanese as Chikyusetsu, and is a holiday for girls' schools.

10th. The Army Day, the memorial day of the victory of Japanese forces at the Battle of Mukden in 1905.

18th-24th or 19th-25th. Higan, the Week of the Equinox, is a busy time for Buddhist families. Usually, all members of the family visit the family graveyard during the week, attend to the tombs and offer prayers to the spirits of their ancestors. Higan, literally translated, means "yonder shore," or Nirvana. Various vegetable foods specially prepared for the purpose, are offered to the dead and sent as presents to friends and relatives. All Buddhist temples in the country hold special services during the period. In Tokyo old-fashioned Buddhist believers make special pilgrimages to the images of the six-faced Amida Buddha at 15 temples situated in the hilly sections of the city and suburbs.

21st or 22nd. Vernal Equinox Festival—On this national holiday, which is called Shunki Koré-sai, all schools and public buildings are closed. Shinto ritual services in memory of the Imperial ancestors and ancestresses are offered at the Imperial Sanctuary.

April

April 3rd. Anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Jimmu, national holiday—This day is the anniversary of the demise of the first Emperor Jimmu, who

reigned over the country for 70 years. The Emperor performs an appropriate ceremony at the Imperial Sanctuary.

8th. Birthday of Gautama Buddha—This day, kept as the anniversary of the birth of Gautama Buddha, is celebrated by all Buddhist temples throughout Japan. Leading temples arrange parades of young girls who are daughters of Buddhist families and hold memorial services in honor of the founder of their religion. Amacha, sweet tea, is freely given at the temples to all visitors.

29th. Emperor's Birthday—Commemorating the birthday of the 124th Ruling Emperor of Japan. A service is held at all elementary and second grade schools in Japan. At the Imperial Court the Emperor and Empress hold special ceremonies at the Imperial Sanctuary, offering prayers to the spirits of the Imperial ancestors for the peace and prosperity of the Empire. After the function, the Emperor reviews the army at the Yoyogi Parade-ground. An Imperial banquet is held, to which high officials of the government and foreign diplomats are invited.

30th. Semi-Annual Festival of the Yasukuni Shrine on Kudan hill, Tokyo, dedicated to the spirits of the officers and men of the army and navy and others who died fighting for their country in the wars since the Meiji Restoration, lasts for 3 days, beginning on April 30.

May

5th. Boys' Festival—This day is dedicated to the boys of Japan. All Japanese families having sons observe this classic festival. Appropriate dolls are on display in the alcoves of the guest rooms of the families, the festival being intended to bring health, success and prosperity to the boys. The sets of dolls displayed represent popular heroes of the Empire. The custom is of several centuries' standing and originated in a desire to encourage a martial spirit in boys. Large paper or cloth carp, often several yards long, are hoisted above the houses, symbolizing the idea that the sons of the families will be as strong as the spirited carp trying to swim up a waterfall.

15th. Aoi Matsuri in honor of Kamo Shrines in Kyoto. The procession starts from the Kyoto Imperial Palace and is famous as representing one of the oldest types of festivals in Japan.

27th. The Navy Day, the memorial

day of the victory of the Imperial Navy at the Battle of the Japan Sea in 1905.

June

June 1st. Ayu fishing season—The seasonal ban on Ayu fishing is formally lifted on this day. Anglers in Tokyo flock to the Tama and Sagami rivers to catch ayu, or sweet trout, a fish noted for its fragrance and delicious taste. A feature of the season is the picturesque cormorant fishing on the Nagara near Nagoya. (See "Cormorant Fishing" at the end of the section "Entertainments.")

17th. Annual Festival of the Great Shrine of Isé, Miyé prefecture, and the Itakushima Shrine at Miyajima, Inland Sea.

July

July 1st. Season for climbing Mount Fuji—A service is held at the Sengen Shrine on top of the sacred peak.

7th. Feast of Tanabata—This evening the Weaving-Lady identified with the Star Vega meets her lover the Cowherd or the Star Altair on the other side of the Heavenly River (Milky Way) on the only occasion in the whole year, according to tradition. This festival of the seventh eve of the seventh month is celebrated by some although the custom has of recent years been more or less neglected in Tokyo and other cities.

13th-15th. O-Bon Festival—During the "o-bon," or feast of lanterns, tradition says that the spirits of the family ancestors and other dead members of the family visit the family, and due welcome is given them according to Buddhist rites. The family tombs are visited and vegetable sacrifices are offered. People make small bonfires of stripped hemp stalks at their house fronts, and light lanterns to guide the spirits of their ancestors into their homes.

Bon Odori, or dance of the 'bon' season, is a simple folk-dance which is given in the compounds of temples or elsewhere in the rural districts, under the light of lanterns.

15th and 16th. Extra holidays for apprentices and servants—Semi-annual holidays are given apprentices and servants on either of these two days, as on January 15 and 16.

17th. Annual fête of Gion Shrine in Kyoto, a picturesque shrine festival, lasts for a week. This fête is characterized by an animated procession bearing "Yamahoko" (procession cars) of all

sorts of shapes and designs decorated with old draperies.

Last Saturday. On a Saturday in the latter part of the month, Ryogoku Kawabiraki, or the celebration of the opening of the River Sumida in Tokyo takes place at Ryogoku Bridge. A grand display of fireworks attracts hundreds of thousands of spectators.

August

August 10th. Annual festival of the Kitano Shrine in Kyoto.

16th. Annual Bon-fire Fête on Mount Nyô in Kyoto.

19th. Lantern Fête on Mount Atago in Kyoto.

September

September 1st. Memorial services for those who were killed in the great earthquake and fire of 1923 are held at the Earthquake Memorial Hall in Honjo on the bank of the Sumida River, Tokyo.

13th. Festivals of Kanda Myojin and Hikawa Shrines in Tokyo.

17th and 18th. Festival of the Great Shrine of Isé and the Toyokuni Shrine in Kyoto.

20th. Week of the equinox begins—the autumn 'higan' begins on September 20. As during the spring equinoctial week, Buddhist temples present busy scenes.

23rd or 24th. Festival of the Autumnal Equinox—A Shinto festival in memory of the Imperial ancestors is performed at the Imperial Palace, a national holiday.

26th. Moon-viewing Festival—The day of moon-viewing falls on or around this date (August 15th by the lunar calendar). Before twilight sets in, the house-wife brings a table to the veranda where it can catch the moon beams and spreads upon it a feast in honor of the moon. A vase containing autumnal flowers are placed on the left side of the table. As the moon rises, the members of the family sit around the table in the moonlight and spend the evening in merry-making.

October

October 10th. Annual fête of the Kotohira Shrine at Kotohira, Kagawa prefecture and also of similar shrines in Tokyo and elsewhere.

13th. Anniversary of the death of St. Buddhist demonstrations in Japan is held on the evening of the 12th, and the following day at the Hommonji temple

at Itégami, Tokyo, to commemorate the anniversary of the death of St. Nichiren—One of the most elaborate Nichiren, founder of the Nichiren sect of Buddhism. Thousands of believers and others march in groups to the temple, many beating drums so as to keep time, shouting all the time the Buddhist sutra, "Namu-Myōhō-Rengekyō." Large paper lanterns, all lighted, are carried at the head of those processions.

15th. Hunting season—The ban on hunting in all districts is lifted until April 15th of the following year. The ban on hunting pheasants is opened from November 1 to the end of February.

17th. Kannamesai (first harvest festival) on this national holiday the Emperor makes an offering of the new grain harvested to the Sun Goddess enshrined in the Great Shrine of Isé and to the Imperial ancestors. A special service is held at the Imperial Sanctuary, while the Emperor despatches a messenger to the Great Shrines to offer prayers on his behalf.

22nd. Festival of Yasukuni Shrine—its second semi-annual celebration, lasting for three days, begins.

Festivals of the Heian Shrine are held on April 15 and on this day. The shrine is dedicated to Emperor Kammu, founder of the present city of Kyoto. The festival held on this day is known as "Zidai Matsuri" in which a parade of men dressed in costumes of different periods of Japan's history passes through the streets of Kyoto.

November

November 1-12. Festival of Oh-tori shrines—the annual shrine festival known as 'tori-no-ichi,' is observed on the "Tori no Hi," or the day of birds, that may fall on one of the first 12 days according to the old calendar which counts days by the names of 12 animals, at various shrines of Oh-tori, a winged god of fortune and wealth in Tokyo and elsewhere. There are the second and third 'tori-no-ichi' in the month.

3rd. Meijietsu, the Emperor Meiji's Birthday—a national holiday and all schools and public buildings are closed in honor of the great Emperor, and the week is celebrated as a national athletic week.

8th. Festival of Bellows—This is celebrated in the household of every metal-smith, silver-smith, iron-smith, and the

like. On this day also takes place the annual bonfire fête of the Fushimi Inari Shrine in Kyoto and elsewhere.

15th. Celebration for children of 3, 5 and 7 years of age known as "shichi-gosan (7, 5, 3) festival." On this day boys who have attained the age of 5 years and girls who have attained 3 or 7 years of age are taken to the shrines of their tutelary deities. In their best clothes, and worship is offered at the shrines by way of expressing their gratitude for the protection of the guardian deities and their safe growth throughout the period of early childhood, at the same time beseeching future protection and happiness.

23rd. Niinamé-sai—The Emperor observes Niinamé-sai, a national holiday, with the ancient Court ceremony of offering new grain to the Sun Goddess and the Imperial ancestors, and partaking of it himself. The occasion is one of thanksgiving, when the Emperor and his subjects return thanks for the harvest.

28th. A religious fête in commemoration of the death of St. Shinran, founder of the Shin sect of Buddhism, is celebrated at the Honganji temples in Kyoto and Tokyo.

December

December 14th. The Gishi-sai, or the annual festival of the celebrated "Forty-seven Ronin," is held at Aki in Hyogo prefecture and at the Sengakuji Temple, Tokyo. During this month many theaters in Tokyo and elsewhere stage the drama depicting the cause, the development and the finale of the gallant undertaking carried out by the forty-seven ronin in 1702.

25th. Anniversary of the death of the Emperor Taisho, father of the present Emperor, a national holiday.

25th. Christmas—Although at first it was regarded by the general public as an event entirely foreign to Japan, it has now become a season of rejoicing for children in large cities, and the day is a regular annual feature, included in the Japanese calendar as such.

29th. Close of official business—All government and public offices close for the year-end and New Year holidays.

31st. Eating of noodles on the last day of the year—It being the last day of December, many businessmen eat noodles at their evening meal to bring the year to a happy conclusion. The noodle is regarded as a symbol of long life and continued prosperity.

CHAPTER XXXVII

PRINCIPAL CITIES AND NOTED PLACES IN JAPAN

AICHI Prefecture



Nagoya Castle with gold dolphins stands high, kissing the heavens

Industries in General:

Having the plains of Nobi extended far and wide within the boundary, this prefecture is noted for the rich agricultural produce.

Chemical as well as mechanical industries are active and brisk in the cities of Nagoya, Okazaki, Toyohashi, Seto, and Tajimi, where motorcars, bicycles, machine-tools, porcelains, etc. are being manufactured in large quantities. The city of Ichinomiya is famed both in Japan and abroad for textile manufactures, whose output being reputed highest in this country.

Scenic Spots:

Horai gorge, Horai temple, Karan gorge, Gama-gori beach, etc. Above all the Chita peninsula is noted for the wholesome climate and abounds in many scenic spots.

GIFU PREFECTURE

Staple Products and Sightseeing

Textile Manufactures: Gifu crepe, Silk cloth (undegummed), Pongee, Velvet, Woollen textiles, etc.

Chemical Products: Japanese paper (Mino size), Foreign paper, Medicine, etc.

Industrial Arts: Porcelain, Paper umbrella, Paper lantern, Unfolding fan, Cutlery, Tableware, Marbles, Woodenware, Japan work, Agricultural produce, etc.

Sightseeing: World-famous cormorant-fishing, Nippon Rhine, Ena Gorge and many others.

A forge of Japanese swords in Mino-seki-machi



A night scene of cormorant-fishing



Carpenters' tools, table and hard ware Niigata prefecture produces for markets overseas as well as inland.

NIIGATA PREFECTURE

Wealthy in Natural Resources the District Abounds In Important Industries

Rivers, large and small, which flow from the mountain ranges lying in the southeastern part of the prefecture and run through the Echigo Plain make the area fertile, giving rise to many industries: engineering, agriculture, marine, mining, sericulture, agriculture, textile, etc., each realizing for the prefecture a big annual turnover.

Blessed by natural conditions in addition to a plentiful supply of electric power and man-power, the prefecture offers many items of industrial importance for export, and this situation has been made all the more active and smooth by pertinent policies of encouragement and promotion adopted by prefectural authorities for the extension of markets for the many articles manufactured within the prefecture.

Metallic articles including agricultural implements, cutlery, locks, and cigarette lighters are manufactured together with carpenters' tools and implements, kitchen utensils, scissors, nail clippers, can openers, etc., which are all of good quality and marketed abroad, and inland.

Perhaps most attractive among the prefectural products is the Japanese ware including cigarette-boxes, service trays of varying kinds of materials and shapes of all kinds.

There are many items made either of wood or bamboo, mostly along the line of furniture: chests-of-drawers, both of Japanese and foreign style, small cabinets, coat-racks, desks, tables, chairs, etc., as well as bamboo baskets for flower arrangement and those for kitchen use and toys.

What makes the prefecture unique and outstanding perhaps is the output of bulbs of various flowers, which are being cultivated along the banks of the Shinano River.

CHAPTER XXXVII

PRINCIPAL CITIES AND NOTED PLACES IN JAPAN

YOKOHAMA

Yokohama is the fifth largest city in Japan with a population of 968,000 and an area of 66.8 square miles, being one of the foremost trade ports of the country, situated on Tokyo Bay. It is here that travelers to Japan from America get their first view of Oriental life as most of the trans-pacific liners make Yokohama their first port of call. Yokohama is also a terminal, or port of call, for steamers from Europe, Australia, India, South America, South Africa and South Seas ports, China, Manchoukuo and Siberia.

When opened to foreign trade in 1859 as the result of the treaty with America and other European countries, Yokohama was a mere fishing village of about one hundred families or 350 people, but its situation as an important port and as a gateway to the capital of the country established it during the following 50 years as one of the two foremost trade ports of Japan.

Hotels: Hotel New Grand, Bund Hotel, Center Hotel, Bluff Hotel.

Nogeyama Park, a hill near Sakuragicho Station, commands a wide view of the city and harbor. The temple close by is dedicated to Fudo-myoo, a Buddhist deity. The official residence of the mayor and the Earthquake Memorial Hall stand at the entrance of the park. On Kamonyama hill, a short walk from the Fudo temple, stands a bronze statue of Lord II Kamon-no Kami, premier of the Tokugawa Shogunate, who played an important rôle in opening Yokohama to foreign trade which led to his assassination in 1860.

The Silk Conditioning House and the Yokohama Commercial and Industrial Museum are interesting to those who are concerned with Japanese products. The Silk Conditioning House may be inspected upon presentation of a card of introduction from the Japan Tourist Bureau, the latter being open to the public.

Negishi, at the farther end of the bluff, is famous for its horse-races held yearly in the latter part of May and in early November. Golf links are situated inside the circular track.

Sankai-on Garden, reached after a short walk from the Hommoku tram-car stop, or by motorcar, is noted for its historic buildings, lotuses and flowering shrubs, being open to the public by its owners, a wealthy family. Hommoku bathing beaches are much frequented in the season. Hodogaya golf course, 15 min. by motorcar from Yokohama Station, is open to any visitor who is introduced by a member of the Hodogaya Country Club.

En Route to Tokyo: The principal places of interest on the way are: the Sōji Temple, at Tsurumi, the headquarters of the Sōtō sect of Buddhism; Daishi Temple, 5 min. by electric car from Kawasaki Station, is associated with the celebrated priest, Kōbō Daishi; The Honmonji Temple at Ikegami, one mile from Kamata Station, is a famous temple of the sect founded by Nichiren, the Japanese Luther.

TOKYO

From Yokohama Sakuragicho Station, Tokyo is reached in 30 min. by electric trains running every 3 min., or in 20 min. by frequent express and other trains from Yokohama Station.

Tokyo, the capital and the largest city of Japan, is situated at the head of Tokyo Bay, about midway between the northern and southwestern ends of the Pacific side of the Main Island. With a population of 6,800,000 and an area of 206.6 square miles, Tokyo ranks the second largest city in the world. The entire city is well served by trams, electric railways and motor buses running on asphalt roads, and a subway. A trip through streets affords glimpses of the daily life and the varied activities of the people whose number comprises nearly 10 per cent of the population of Japan proper.

Tokyo in olden times was called Yedo, meaning "entrance to the gulf." The first castle in Yedo was built by Ōta-Dōkan, in 1457 A.D. In 1590, Tokugawa-Iyeyasu, the first of the Tokugawa Shoguns, established his residence in the city, and after rebuilding the castle made it the seat of the Tokugawa Shogunate. Throughout 268 years of this government, and until 1868, Yedo was the center of national administration and finance, and became a thriving town with 2 million people when it was at the height of its prosperity between 1818 and 1844. After the Meiji Restoration in 1868, when the Shogun was deprived of his power, Emperor Meiji removed the capital from Kyoto to Yedo in 1869, changing its name to Tokyo, or "Eastern Capital." Tokyo is the center of all phases of national life, with the central offices of government, and headquarters of financial, business and industrial corporations located in the city. Tokyo beats Osaka even in industrial activities on account of the development of the key industries in and around the city in recent years.

Hotels: The Imperial Hotel, situated at Hibiya Park near the Imperial Palace, is unique in style and ranks among the best hotels in the world. The Dai-ichi Hotel, Tokyo Railway Hotel, Marunouchi Hotel, Sunno Hotel, are among the leading hotels. There are also numerous Japanese style hotels.

Theaters: The Kabukiza, Tokyo Gekijo, Meiji-za, Shimbashi Embujo, Yuraku-za, Nippon Gekijo, Tokyo Takarazuka Gekijo ("Tō-Hō"), etc. The Kokugikan at Ryogoku presents Japanese wrestling contests in the middle of January and May.

Noh Dance Stages: Hōshō Stage, near Suidō-bashi Station, Kita Stage, at Alzumi-cho, Yotsuya Ward, Kanzō Stage, near Ōmagari car-stop, Ushigomō Ward.

Places of Interest

Imperial Palace. The Palace is not open to the public, but its approach at Nijubashi (Double Bridge), the main entrance, is of interest, as also the encircling moat.

Hibiya Park, opposite the Imperial Hotel, is laid out partly in Japanese and partly in Western style. Many band concerts are given in the park, where in spring cherry blossoms and azaleas are viewed at their best and

in autumn a chrysanthemum show is held. The Tokyo Kalkan, or Hibiya Town Hall, located at the south-eastern corner of the park, is a center for public lectures, musical concerts and mass meetings.

Shiba Park, two-thirds of a mile south of Hibiya, is noted for the Zōjōji Temple, founded in the 16th century, where are the tombs of some of the Tokugawa Shoguns. Atago Hill, near the park, commands an extensive view of the city and the bay.

Sengakuji Temple, one mile south-west of Shiba Park, is famous on account of the graves of the 47 ronins of Akao, located within the precincts.

Yasukuni Shrine, on Kudan Hill, a little north of the Imperial Palace, is dedicated to the heroic dead who have given their lives for the country in the wars since the Meiji Restoration of 1868. Festivals are held in April and October. The Yūshōkan, military museum, in the shrine precincts, contains war trophies, relics, valuable swords, armour, etc.

Ueno Park, near Ueno Station, is a popular and beautiful park, where are located the Imperial Household Museum, Fine Arts Gallery, Imperial Library, academies of Music and Fine Arts, Science Museum, Zoological Garden, Tōshōgū Shrine, the Statue of Takamori Saigō, General Grants' Monument, etc.

Asakusa Park, 5 min. by underground railway from Ueno, is the "Coney Island" or "Earl's Court" of Tokyo. Sensōji Temple is noted for its Kwannon, the Goddess of Mercy.

Sumida Park on the east bank of the Sumida is noted for its cherry blossoms in season. In spring and fall, regattas are held on the river.

Meiji Shrine, dedicated to Emperor Meiji, comprises a group of buildings in pure Shinto style. Easily reached from Harajuku Station on the Yamato belt line, the shrine is one of the holiest centers of pilgrimage in Japan. The Outer Garden of Meiji Shrine contains the Stadium, Baseball Field, Swimming Pool and the Meiji Memorial Hall dedicated to Emperor Meiji and his Consort. In the greatest athletic enclosure are held, mostly in autumn and winter, track and field meets, football games, swimming contests and other sports.

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may be mentioned the Inokashira Park, historically famous with a pool which was the reservoir or spring of the water which supplied drinking water to the Yedo Castle at the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate, and the Asukayama Park noted for cherry blossoms. The Shinjuku Imperial Garden is one of the best cared for gardens noted for cherry blossoms, chrysanthemums and other flowers, although it is not open to the public, except on special occasions. **Korakuen,** located near Suidō-bashi Station on the Tokyo-Shinjuku line, is a typical Japanese home garden, being the site of the Tokyo residence of the Lord of Mito. **Shokubutsuen** at Koishikawa, the botanical garden of Tokyo Imperial University, has a great variety of flowering plants.

Kiyosumi Landscape Garden, at Fukagawa, is one of the best landscape gardens in Tokyo, particularly celebrated for its rocks which were gathered from all parts of Japan.

Ryogoku Bridge across the Sumida is the scene of the most beautiful display of fire works in June which is a customary event taking place every year from the days of Yedo.

Okutama Valley, with its beautiful narrow gorge and Mt. Mitaké, is one of the best places around Tokyo for mounting and picnic. By electric train from Shinjuku to Mitaké, changing cars at Tachikawa, 1.5 hours.

Imperial Mausoleum at Tama. The remains of the Emperor Taishō are buried at Tama near Asakawa Station on the Chuō Line, 1.25 hours from Tokyo. About two miles east of the Imperial Tomb rises Mt. Takao, noted for its autumnal tints. Cablecar available.

Murayama Reservoir, about 15 miles northwest of Tokyo, is the main source of the water supplied to Tokyo. With its scenic beauty, the lovely artificial lake has become a popular holiday place for Tokyo people.

Ōshima Island, located at the entrance to Sagami Bay, first welcomes the steamships which steer up to Yokohama, often capped with clouds even on a clear day, for these clouds are smoke formations emanating from Mt. Mihara, an active volcano, in the island. A good two days' trip may be made from Tokyo, taking a special steam boat of the Tokyo-wan S.S. Co., from Reigan-

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KAMAKURA

Kamakura, 20 min. by express electric train from Yokohama, abounds with historical remains of the Kamakura Period as it was the seat of the first Shogunate established by Minamoto-Yoritomo at the end of the 12th century A.D.

Hotels: Kamin Hotel, on the seashore called Yulga-hama, a summer resort.

Daibutsu, or Great Buddha, a superb, silently eloquent bronze image, erected in 1252. It was originally enclosed in a building which was damaged by a storm and finally carried away by a tidal wave in 1494, from which time the image has remained in the open. Its dimensions approximately are: height, 42 ft. 5 in., circumference at the base, 97 ft.; length of face, 7 ft. 7 in.; width of eyes, 3 ft. 4 in.

Hasō Kwannon Temple, near the Daibutsu, contains, at the back of the altar, a gilded image of Kwannon, the Goddess of Mercy, 30 ft. 3 in. high, which is said to have been carved from a huge camphor tree.

Hachimān Shrine, less than half a mile from Kamakura Station, stands in one of the most beautiful shrine precincts in Japan, and stores ancient swords, armour, and other relics of the Kamakura Period (1192-1337).

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Miura Peninsula. A motor ride around the peninsula, visiting Uruga, Icurthama which is known as the place-

of landing of Commodore Perry, Aburatsubo where the Marine Life Research Laboratory of Tokyo Imperial University is situated, and other places en route, is a good one-day outing.

Enoshima, an island with picturesque cliffs and inlets, is reached by tram, 4 miles, from Kamakura Station to Katasé, thence across a wooden bridge. An interesting visit may be made to the Dragon Cave, or the Benten Cave, reached by a broad path across the island. Near the Katasé car stop is the Ryūkōji Temple, built to commemorate the miraculous deliverance there of Nichiren, founder of the Hokkō Sect, from the executioner's sword. Zushi, 2.4 miles by rail from Kamakura, is a summer resort with fine bathing beaches and affords a beautiful view of Mt. Fuji in the blue sky beyond Sagami Bay. Hayama, 3 miles farther along the coast, is also good for bathing. The Imperial Family sometimes stays at the Imperial Villa there.

Yokosuka, 7 miles from Kamakura, is an important naval station. Here are the memorial tombs of Will Adams and his Japanese wife. Adams, a pilot, was the first Englishman to come to Japan (1600).

Uraga, 10 min. by electric car from Yokosuka, is the port into which Commodore Perry sailed with his expedition on July 8, 1853. On Kurihama beach, 2 and half miles farther down the coast from Uraga, is a monument marking the spot where on July 14, 1853, the representatives of the Shogun received the letter of President Fillmore to the ruler of Japan proposing the opening of the country to American intercourse and commerce.

HAKONE

Few visitors to Japan fail to visit the Hakoné District, noted for its mountain scenery, invigorating climate, hot springs and places of interest. Reached by train from Yokohama to Odawara within 35 min., then by motor car to Miyanoshita, the center of the district, passing through the hot-springs, Yumoto and Tōnosawa. The district, popularly known as Mt. Hakoné, is the crater of an extinct volcano. The Fujiya Hotel at Miyanoshita, with its hot-spring baths, superior cuisine and service, is the objective point of the majority of foreign visitors. From Miyanoshita, walking or motor-car trip can be made

to every part of the district.

Lake Ashinoko, alt. 2,386 ft., 13 miles in circumference, a crater lake, is famous for its reflection of Mt. Fuji under clear heaven. The route is through Kowakidani and Ashinoyu, both noted for their sulphur springs, and along the lake shore the road runs through a noble cryptomeria avenue, leading to the site of the ancient Hakoné barrier gate, where in older days the passports of travelers were carefully examined and the purpose of their journey ascertained.

Within short walks from Miyanoshita are many hot-springs scattered in the beautiful valleys. From the crest of the ridge of Owakidani can be had a superb view of Fuji and of Lake Ashinoko with Ubako hot springs half way down the slope. Otomé Tōgē, or Maiden Pass, and Nagao Tōgē, or Long-tail Pass, are other places for a magnificent view of Mt. Fuji.

ATAMI

Atami is a favorite, all-the-year-round hot-spring resort well patronized by foreign residents. Here the climate is quite salubrious and the scenery is fine, with the Tokyo Bay in front and the Hakoné mountains towering behind. It can be reached by train within 2 hours from Tokyo. Atami is also reached by motor-bus from Moto-Hakoné, on Lake Ashinoko, over an excellent mountain road via the Jūkoku Tōgē, or Ten Province Pass, 14 miles, in an hour. Itō is another prosperous spa on the eastern coast of Izu Peninsula. From Atami to Itō is a delightful 16 mile drive along winding and picturesque coast.

MT. FUJI AND LAKES

Mt. Fuji is known all over the world for its peerless beauty. Its perfect cone rises singly to a height of 12,467 ft. above sea level and constitutes the center of the Fuji and Hakoné National Park. Fuji is one of the easiest mountains to climb, and thousands of men, women and children climb it every summer. The summit commands a magnificent view, and the scene of sunrise above clouds is markedly impressive. There are six trails to the top, the Gotemba on the Gotemba Line, and Yoshida reached via Ōtsuki on the Chūō Line, being the most popular. Two to three days are required for the round trip from Tokyo. Stone huts

some holding 200 persons, are available along all the routes. Foreign visitors should better hire a gōriki, or mountain guide, available at moderate charges, who will carry a pack up to 25 lbs. Horses are available for varying distances up several trails.

Tour of the Five Lakes of Fuji. A trip to Fuji Five Lakes, Yamanaka, Kawaguchi, Nishino-umi, Shōji and Motosu, is enjoyable in all seasons, except winter. This excursion is best made from Gotemba. The Shōji Hotel on Lake Shōji is generally the objective point. Hotels: Fuji View Hotel, Kawaguchi-ko Hotel, first and second.

CHŪBU-SANGAKU NATIONAL PARK (The Japan Alps)

The title "Japan Alps" dates back to 1890 when the Rev. Walter Weston published his work "Mountainpeering and Exploration in the Japanese Alps." It consists of three lofty ridges, in Nagano prefecture, called respectively Southern, Central and Northern. The Northern Range, the most popular of these three ranges and deservedly selected as a national park, **Chūbu-Sangaku National Park**, comprises more than 100 peaks, 40 of which are over 8,000 ft. The range extends for a distance of 98 miles, with a breadth of 37 miles, and is dotted with volcanoes, both active and extinct. The principal peaks are those of Shirouma (9,620 ft.), Yari (10,450 ft.), Hotaka (10,208 ft.) and Tateyama (9,814 ft.). Among the spas on the slopes or in the valleys, Kamikōchi, about 28 miles up from Matsumoto, is most popular due to its location on a scenic mountain plateau, called Kamikōchi.

Kamikōchi, 4,725 ft. above sea level, is surrounded by lofty peaks and extends like a broad belt for a distance of about 10 miles from E. to W., with a maximum breadth of 1 mile from S. to N. The Kamikōchi Hotel stands in such a picturesque ravine of the plateau that visitors are able to appreciate the wild mountain scenery and the beautiful lakes lying nearby.

Among several routes to the Northern range, the most popular one is from Matsumoto, 156 miles from Tokyo, or 117 miles from Nagano, from which the base for the ascent is reached by motor or tarmacar.

NIKKŌ

"Don't say 'kēkkō' (splendid), until you see Nikkō," is a Japanese proverb.

Indeed, a trip to Japan is not complete unless Nikkō is visited. Nikkō, one of the great beauty spots in the Orient, is always included in the itinerary of well-informed foreign visitors. The magnificent shrines and temples of the Tokugawa Shogunate, the cryptomeria avenue, beautiful mountains, lakes, waterfalls, numerous walks and places of interest there are acclaimed by both foreigners and Japanese. The district is now made the Nikkō National Park. In May red wild azaleas adorn the countryside, while from late September to mid-October fall foliage shows a brocade of brilliant colors. In summer when the climate is temperate it is a favorite resort of those who are freed from regular pursuits in summer vacation.

Nikkō is about 91 miles from Tokyo, 2.40 hours trip from Uéno Station. Another route is via the Nikkō Line of the Tōbu Railway Co., which has frequent services from Asakusa Kami-narimon Station.

Hotel: Kanaya Hotel, one of the best resort hotels in Japan with an excellent skating rink open during winter.

The shrines, temples and the mausolea of Iyeyasu (1542-1616), founder of the Tokugawa Shogunate, and of Iyemitsu, his grandson and the third Tokugawa Shogun, are located here, presenting the skill of Japanese architect. Annually on June 1 and 2 the medieval shrine processions are held. Shinkyō, or Sacred Bridge, red lacquered, spans the Daiya River, in a graceful curve, on the way to the shrines. Gamman-gafuchi is a deep pool in the Daiya, about 1 mile upstream from the sacred bridge. On the river bank are rows of stone images of Amida Buddha.

Lake Chūzenji. The mountain walk to Lake Chūzenji, alt. 4,194 ft., is much favored by Nikkō visitors and is preferred to ascent by vehicles, because of the wonderful views one obtains by this means. Kégon waterfalls, the outlet of the lake, is one of the most beautiful sights in the district. The Lakeside Hotel caters for foreign visitors.

Nikkō hot springs, alt. 5,088 ft. The Chūzenji trip may be continued to Lake Yunoko where an overnight stay can be made at the Nannya Hotel, with private hot-spring baths. Kinugawa spa, 4 miles by rail from Nikkō to Imachi, thence 3.5 miles by electric tram or motor-bus. The six mile motor drive along the beautiful gorge of the Kinu-

gawa River up to Kawaji spa is splendid.

Motorcar drive from Nikkō to Shiobara, one of the noted mountain spas, 50 miles, is recommended during October on account of the beautiful autumn foliage.

BŌSŌ PENINSULA

Easily accessible from Tokyo, the Bōsō Peninsula is a favorite resort at all seasons of the year; in spring for shell-gathering on shores at the low tide, in summer for its bathing beaches and in autumn for its scenic effects, and at all times for its shrines and temples.

Among many summer resorts in the peninsula, the most popular are Katsura and Kamogawa on the east shores and Hōta and Hōjō on the west. Of the shrines and temples, Narita-Fudō is most celebrated as fortune-giver and attracts over a million pilgrims every year. Both Katori and Kashima Shrines, the oldest and holiest in the district, are reached from Sawara, 59.5 miles from Tokyo.

KARUIZAWA

Karuzawa in Nagano prefecture, with its invigorating climate and scenery, was first opened by Christian missionaries as a favorite summer retreat, then became a country town of foreign residents in general, but, in recent years, well-to-do Japanese began to take part in passing comfortable summer days with foreigners. During the season many conferences and conventions are held on church mission and educational or cultural subjects. Sports are prominent, including tennis, baseball, cricket, track and field events and golf.

There are many delightful walks, picnic and excursion points about Karuzawa, and it is the departure point for the climb up Mt. Asama, the largest active volcano on the Main Island whose smoke clouds are frequently seen, often with powerful explosions.

Hotels: The Mampel Hotel, Mikasa Hotel, Karuzawa Hotel, Green Hotel, New Grand Lodge and Park Lodge.

IKAO SPA

From Ueno, Tokyo, to Shibukawa, 70 miles in 2.5 hours by rail, thence motor-bus or electric tram.

Ikao, alt. 2,800 ft., one of the noted hot-spring and summer resorts near

Tokyo, offers a wide choice of scenery in neighboring districts.

MITO

Mito, 3 hours by rail from Ueno, Tokyo, is the old city of Tokugawa Mitsukuni, the celebrated lord who ordered the compilation of the "Da Nippon Shi," or A History of the Great Nippon, and was most loved and revered by his own people for his high personality, and whose story is staged oftener than any other historical stories of the Tokugawa Period, except that of the "47 Ronin." The city and vicinity abound with historical places and buildings connected with Mitsukuni and other Mito lords and Fujita-Tōko, a famous Japanese scholar. The city is divided into two parts, the Upper and Lower (or Down) Towns; the former being the section where the castle and retainers' residences were located, the latter the section of artisans and merchants, this demarcation being maintained to a large extent even to the present day. With the River Naka, Lake Senba and Tokiwa Park, Mito is one of the most beautiful castle cities. Tokiwa Park being the first park of plum blossoms in Japan. A day's trip from Mito to Ōarai is worth a trip. Mito down to Kominato by a river boat on the Naka, thence to the north along the sea coast to Hiraiso, a summer resort, then back to the south via Kominato to Ōarai Shrine by motor-bus, then return to Mito by electric car or bus. The whole coast line, with rugged rocks washed by the white waves of the Pacific presents a picturesque view of pine hills and breezy sea in summer.

MATSUSHIMA

Matsushima, or Pine Islands, so named from the hundreds of pine-clad islets in Matsushima Bay near Sendai, is one of the "Scenic Trio of Japan" in the singularity of the handiwork of Nature,—the others being Amanohashidate and Miyajima. The best season is from April to October, when the Park Hotel is open.

In the bay, 249 of the islets have been charted, some of them quaint and fanciful, and each has been given a name.

Radiating from the hotel, the places of interest, other than going around the fanciful islets on boats, are Zuisen Temple, Oshima, Kanrantel and Odaldō.

During the season express trains stop at Matsushima Station, 231 miles north from Ueno, Tokyo, thence 2.5 miles to the park. It is an interesting diversion, however, to change cars at Sendai for Shiogama, and then proceed by steamer, motor boat or sampan, 5 miles to the park through the welcoming islets. The park is also accessible in 50 min. by tram from Sendai.

SENDAI

Sendai, with a population of 238,000, the largest and most important city in North-eastern Japan, an educational center, the home of the renowned Daté-Masumuné (1566-1636), is of interest to sightseers who desire to visit the mausoleum of that celebrated Daimyo, the site of his castle, the grave of Hasekura-Rokuemon who, as an ambassador of Lord Daté, made a remarkable voyage to Rome in 1613 on board the first Japanese-manned craft to cross the Pacific, the parks, the Tōhoku Imperial University and the Tōhoku Gakuin. The Sendai Hotel stands opposite the station.

Near Hirazumi, 47 miles north of Matsushima, in olden days called the "Nara in North-eastern Japan," is the Chūsonji Monastery, once a large temple group, one mile from the station, its few remaining structures, timeworn, but still showing traces of their original decorations, are of great interest to students of art. About half a mile from the station are the two remaining edifices of the Mōtsuji Temple.

LAKE TOWADA

Three routes are available. One from Furumaki on the Tōhoku Main Line, 194 miles north of Sendai, by motor-bus to Nénokuchi, 33 miles, on the east shore of the lake, along the Oirasé River. Another route is from Ōdaté, on the Ōu Line, to Kémanai by rail and thence by motor-bus to Ōidé, 18 miles, via Ōyu spa. Ōidé is connected with Nénokuchi by motor-bus. Aomori, the terminus of the Tōhoku Main Line, is also the starting point for the tour of the lake, motor service between Aomori and Wainai on the lake, 49 miles, being maintained by the State Railways.

Lake Towada is a beautiful fresh-water lake, high up in a mountainous region on the boundary between Akita and Aomori prefectures. It is the largest of the Japanese mountain lakes, having an area of about 23 square

miles. The main features of the lake are the wealth of vegetation around its shores and surrounding mountains which are covered with woods of various plants of different botanical zones, on account of their different altitudes, the picturesque promontories and islets and exquisite beauty of the autumnal tints. In addition, the delicate sylvan beauty of the mountain stream, the Oirasé, outlet of the lake, with its many waterfalls and rapids, is an attraction in all seasons. The district has been named the Towada National Park. The famed Wainai trout, with which the lake is stocked, is a constant lure for anglers. There are good Japanese inns on the shores of the lake.

HOKKAIDO

A trip to Hokkaido, the northern island, the home of the Ainu, is very interesting for foreign visitors to Japan. In its topographical formation the island of Hokkaido, 30,499 square miles in area, is more like that of continental countries than any other part of Japan. Express trains, operated between Ueno, Tokyo and Aomori, 457.5 miles, 12 hours, then from Aomori to Hakodaté by the well-equipped steamers of the State Railways across Tsugaru Straits, 4.5 hours.

The principal cities in Hokkaido are Sapporo, Hakodaté, Muroran, Otaru and Asahigawa. After landing at Hakodaté, foreign visitors are advised, for a rest, to proceed by motor-bus to Yunokawa, a noted hot-spring resort. Inns at Hakodaté are Gotōken and Katsuda.

Hakodaté Park, south-west of the main station, from which can be had a comprehensive view of the city and bay.

Lake Onuma, the "Matsushima of Hokkaido," is picturesquely dotted with islands, large and small. Mt. Komagatake, 3,625 ft., towers on the far side. Railway from Hakodaté, 17.5 miles—a charming one-day trip. Inn: Kōyōkan.

Otaru is the most prosperous commercial center in Hokkaido its location and facilities enabling it to command a steadily increasing sea trade with northern regions. By rail it is about 1 hour from Sapporo, 5.5 hours from Hakodaté. Inns are Etchūya and Hokkai Hotel.

SAPPORO

The city of Sapporo, the administrative center of the Hokkaido Govern-

ment, is laid out in blocks and streets like a modern American city. The principal places of interest are: Nakajima Park, Botanical Garden and Museum, and Hokkaido Imperial University.

Hotel: Sapporo Grand Hotel.

Jōzankel, a sequestered and popular hot-spring resort, is easily accessible from Sapporo. Inns: Jōzankel Hotel, Shikanoya Club, etc.

DAISETSUZAN

Daisetsuzan, or Great Snow Mountain, represents a wide range of mountains, also called the Ishikari range, lying in the central part of Hokkaidō. It includes Mt. Asahidake, 7,511 ft., the highest mountain in the island and several other peaks, all snow-capped and possessing altitudes not below 6,500 ft. Mt. Asahi attracts numerous climbers every year because of the wonderful views obtainable from its summit and the abundance of rare alpine plants which grow on its slopes.

The River Ishikari, one of the longest rivers in Japan with a length of 250 miles flowing along the northern foot of the range forms a grand gorge called Sōunkyo Canyon, about 15 miles in length. The cliffs on this canyon, sometimes rising sheer from the river in columns and pinnacles, but more often with a gradual slope, are covered to the top with a thick growth of timber.

Daisetsuzan National Park includes the Ishikari range, Sōunkyo Canyon and other scenic points in the vicinity. The park is reached from Asahigawa, 86 miles from Sapporo, whence two routes, to the north and south of Mt. Asahi, lead to the peaks, the north route via Sōunkyo spa lying on the way to the canyon, and the south route via Matsuyama spa.

NOBORIBETSU

Noboribetsu, the most famous hot-spring resort in Hokkaido, should be visited by every foreign travelers to Hokkaido. The sight of a huge crater on the side of Mt. Noboribetsu filled with rounded mounds of sinter, the hot water spurting and bubbling, and the clouds of steam will live long in the memory. Access: by railway from Hakodate or Sapporo via Iwamizawa, or from Muroran; from Hakodate, 128.6 m., 5 hrs. by express; from Muro-

ran, 15.9 m., 40 min.; from Noboribetsu Station, by motorcar or electric train to the spa. Inns: Daichi Takimoto, Daini Takimoto, etc.

Shiraoi is the easiest available place on the island to see the life and customs of the Ainu, the aboriginal people of Japan which the Japanese Government is doing its best to preserve. By rail it is 11.7 miles from Noboribetsu Station and, if journeying via Sapporo the village may be visited on the way to Noboribetsu.

Lake Tōya, 24 miles in circumference, with three attractive islets in the center, is a picturesque tourist resort in Hokkaido. It is reached by electric tram from Abuta Station on the short cut line between Hakodate and Muroran.

LAKE AKAN

Lake Akan reposes in between the two peaks of Mō-Akan (4,060 ft.) and O-Akan (4,524 ft.) rising to the northwest of Kushiro, the district being designated the Akan National Park noted for its scenic grandeur and sublimity. The lake, 1,120 feet in altitude and 10.5 miles in circumference, is surrounded by thickly wooded hills and contains 4 wooded islets. Boats are available and there is good fishing for a species of salmon-trout.

Lake Kusharo, 35 miles in circumference and **Lake Mashu**, 12.5 miles in circumference, are also included in the national park, and both are celebrated for their noticeable features. There are several hot springs on or near these lakes, which are connected by a good motor road.

The usual route to Lake Akan is by Shitakara from Kushiro by the Yūbetsu Railway, thence to the lake by motorbus.

KARAFUTO

If it is desired to extend the journey farther north, Karafuto, or Japanese Saghalien, is now easily accessible from Wakkanai, at the northern end of Hokkaido, by the steamers of the State Railways, in 8 hours to Odomari, the principal port in the island, from where a railway runs to Toyohara, the administrative center, 1,080 miles north of Tokyo.

KŌFU AND MINOBU

Kōfu, on the plateau of Kōfu where the River Fuji-kawa gathers waters, 3

hours from Shinjuku, Tokyo and 7.5 hours from Nagoya, is an old castle city of Lord Takeda. The Kōfu Plateau grows grapes in abundance, the history of grape cultivation there beginning in early Kamakura Period (1192-1337). In the Meiji Era, American and Italian grapes were transplanted and crossed with old ones to give the fame of the Kōshū grapes and wine. The site of the old castle, the Takeda Shrine and the tomb of Lord Takeda-Shingen are the chief places of interest in the city.

Mitakō Shosen-kyō, gorge of naked granite rocks along the clean stream of the Arakawa, can be reached by motor-bus 5 miles from Kōfu.

Along the Minobu electric railway from Kōfu to Fuji station on the Tōkaidō Main Line, there are the Kuonji Temple and the Fujikawa valley for a good excursion. The Kuonji Temple in Mt. Minobu, the head temple of the Nichiren or Hokkō Sect, located at the side of the mountain, is one of the most sacred places of Buddhism and draws thousands of pilgrims from all parts of Japan; the main building is reached by a high flight of 300 stone steps in a thick wood of old cryptomerias. The beautiful temple garden is a representative work of the middle Yedo Period. The River Fuji is one of the three rapid streams of Japan and its valley is full of picturesque points. The excursion down-stream from Kajikazawa to Iwabuchi at the mouth of the river by Japanese river boats has become a story, but the Minobu Line serves with its 3 excursion boats for the convenience of sightseers.

ALONG THE CHUO MAIN LINE

Leaving Kōfu, the Chūō Main Line of the State Railway runs to the northwest to Shiojiri, in Nagano Prefecture, through the valleys of the Japan Alps. At the western foot of Mt. Yatsugatake there are many mountain spas, among which Tadashina is best known for its medical efficacy and good accommodations, 8 miles northwest of Chino Station by motorcar.

Lake Suwa, at Kami-Suwa, alt. 2,489 feet, 11 miles in circumference, is noted for skating.

Kiriga-miné, 4 miles northeast of Kami-Suwa, comprises a beautiful plateau of green grasses, commanding a grand view of Fuji and the Japan Alps. It has a popular skiing ground

and draws, in combination with Lake Suwa, thousands of winter sportsmen from Tokyo. Kiriga-miné has become more popular in recent years as the best drill ground for the gliders.

Okaya, on the west shore of Lake Suwa, constitutes, together with adjacent towns, the center of the Japanese silk industry.

The Tenryū Valley, in between the peaks of South Japan Alps and the Kiso mountain range, is famous for its picturesque gorge, near the city of Iida, with granite rocks, rich foliage and mountain azaleas. Japanese boats on the rapids of the River Tenryū will carry you down to the towns near the mouth of the river, through numerous scenic spots. The beauty of the Tenryū Valley was first discovered by Sakatani-Rōro in 1847.

At Shiojiri, the Chūō Main Line turns southwest, and running along the River Narai enters a ravine, goes through a tunnel under the Torii Pass to turn south along the eastern bank of the famous River Kiso-gawa and reaches the town of Fukushima in the Kiso Valley. The district is renowned for its forests, owned by the Imperial Household, one of the three most beautiful forest areas in Japan. Here thick woods of cypress, oak, fir, pine, beech, etc., grow in abundance the most stately being the cypresses, hundreds of years old.

Nézaméno-toko, about a mile south of Agématsu Station, accessible by motorcar, lies in the streams of the River Kiso-gawa, consisting of black granite rocks which are naturally arranged in the form of bedsteads to give it the name of "Nézaméno-toko" or the Sleepy Bedstead. The stone beds are surrounded by stone walls that stand 21 feet high, on both banks of the Kiso-gawa the lower reaches of which comprise the part called the "Rhine of Japan."

KUROBE GORGE

Kurobé Gorge, in Toyama Prefecture, starts in the mountains a little northwest of Mt. Yarigadake in the Northern Japan Alps and runs down 40 miles northward to Unazuki hot springs, south of Mikkaichi Station on the Hoku-riku Main Line which runs along the Japan Sea. The gorge is the longest and deepest of the kind in Japan, being created by waters from the high moun-

tains of the Northern Japan Alps. The trip may be better started at Unazuki and proceed up-stream to Kanetsuri spa, Sarutobi, Babadani hot-springs, along a good road or by electric car for 12 miles to Aso-hara, then up to Hirano-goya through Shimo-rōka, the gem of the Kurobē Gorge. Three days are required to complete the trip from Unazuki to Hirano-goya; the safest season is July-October. Daring alpinists may continue the trip to climb the ravine up to Harinoki Pass and end the thrilling excursion at Ōmachi on the South Ōito Line. The entire course, especially the scene at Shimo-rōka ravine at the foot of Mt. Tateyama, impresses one with the mystery of Nature which leaves one with the most enduring memory.

ALONG TOKAIDO MAIN LINE (Tōkyō-Kōbē)

The Tōkaidō Main Line of the State Railways starts from Tōkyō and passes through Yokohama, Kōzu, Atami, Shizuoka, Nagoya, Kyōto, Osaka, until it terminates at Kōbē. At Kōzu, there runs a branch line and meets the main line at Numazu via Gotemba, the principal departure point for the ascent of Mt. Fuji. Beyond Atami a long Shimizu tunnel is bored through the Hakoné mountains to a point near Mishima, one of the entrances to the historic Izu peninsula with a group of hot springs.

Izu Peninsula. Numazu is another entrance to the peninsula. From Shuzenji, which is connected by a private railway to Mishima and Numazu, motor-buses run via Itō and other noted hot-spring resorts to Shimoda, historically associated with American effort to make contact with Japan, from where a motor service over excellent roads is maintained along the eastern and western coasts of the peninsula.

Shizuoka, the largest city between Yokohama and Nagoya, is the center of a large tea growing district, the tea being exported from Shimizu, its port. Historically, the city is associated with Iyeyasu, the founder of the Tokugawa Shogunate, who here passed his last years in retirement. The resplendent temple on Mt. Kunō is the small model of some of the Nikko temples.

Bentenjima is a small island in Lake Hamana, on which is enshrined an image of the goddess, Benten.

Gamagōri is a noted sea-bathing resort facing Atsumi Bay, with picturesque views seaward. A comfortable trip is made from here to Toba across the Bay of Isé.

Hotel: Gamagōri Hotel.

NAGOYA

Nagoya is the third largest city in Japan with a population of 1,300,000 and the industrial center between Tokyo and Osaka. Of interest to sightseers are the Nagoya Castle, one of the best remaining examples of these feudal structures in Japan, celebrated for the two gold dolphins on its roof; the former Imperial Detached Palace in the grounds, the Commercial Museum, Hōnganji temples, Nissenji Temple, Gohyaku Rakan near by, and Ōsu Kwanon in the center of an amusement quarter.

Atsuta Jingu in the southern part of the city, modelled on the Isé Shrine, is held sacred because of its treasure, the sacred sword forming a part of the Imperial Regalia of Japan.

From Nagoya, the one hour trip by express tram to Inuyama, noted for the white castle, and the Kiso River, the "Rhine of Japan," where the pleasure trip up and down the river can be made in 4 hours, is worth while. Cormorant Fishing may be enjoyed in the river during the season, June-October.

Hotels: Mampel Hotel, Nagoya Hotel and Inuyama Hotel.

From Nagoya a railway runs to Ujiyamada where are the Grand Shrines of Isé, the most venerated shrines in Japan, to Futami-no-ura, with the famous "Wedded Rocks," and to Toba, noted for its magnificent views and cultured pearl fisheries near by—a one day trip, although it is advisable to spend two days, staying overnight at Futami, proceeding thence to Nara via Ujiyamada.

The Grand Shrines of Isé consist of the Nai-Kū, or Inner Shrine, dedicated to the Sun Goddess who is regarded as The Ancestress of the Imperial Family, and the Gō-Kū, or Outer Shrine, dedicated to the Goddess of Farms, Crop, Food and Sericulture. In the former is enshrined the Sacred Mirror, one of the Three Sacred Treasures, which form another part of the Imperial Regalia of Japan. It is one of the dearest wishes of every Japanese to visit the Isé Shrines once in his lifetime, so that millions of devotees make a pilgrimage

to the sanctified spot every year. The two shrines are 4 miles apart the distance being covered by tram, motor-bus or ricksha.

Continuing on from Nagoya, Gifu is noted for its paper- and bamboo-wares and its cormorant fishing in the Nagara River, a sport and industry practised there for over 1,000 years. Here the rail line runs westward to Maibara, the junction for Tsuruga and other places along the Hokuriku Line, thence along the shore of Lake Biwa. At Ōtsu steam boats are taken for the trip to the "Eight Sights of Biwa-ko."

Hotels: Nagara-gawa Hotel at Gifu, Biwako Hotel at Ōtsu.

KYOTO

For over a thousand years until 1869 Kyoto was the Capital of Japan. The city and vicinity are rich in historical associations with the mediaeval life of the Empire, and the hundreds of old temples and shrines still remaining attest the glory and splendor of those days. The city now comprises about 1,200,000 people and is the fourth largest city in Japan.

Kyoto is the center of a vast recreation region and there are countless spots of interest, of which Mt. Hiei, Lake Biwa, Hozu Rapids, Momoyama and Uji are the favorite haunts of sightseers and pilgrims. It is the city of the fine art industries of the country and the home of famous painters and artists, old and new, its hand-made products being renowned: lacquer, silk embroidery, "Tsuzure-no-Nishiki," brocades, kimono, cloisonné, damascene, porcelains, bronzes, fans, dolls, bamboo wares, etc. Some of the shops selling these artistic goods invite inspection of their factories and the processes of manufacture.

Kyoto is the second educational center in Japan, next to Tokyo, with Kyoto Imperial University, Doshisha College, Buddhist colleges, colleges for art education and other schools.

With so many shrines, few days in the year pass without a festival being celebrated somewhere in Kyoto or vicinity. The quaintest spectacular festivals are the Aoi-Matsuri on May 15, Gion-Matsuri on July 16-17, and the mediaeval Jidai-Matsuri (historical pageant) on October 22.

The beautiful Miyako Odori, or Cherry Dance, is given yearly in April and Kamogawa Odori in May.

The Palaces: The old Imperial Palace, the home of the Imperial Family down to the Restoration of 1868, is situated in the northern part of the city. The park outside the palace is open to the public. Nijō Detached Palace with its interior elaborately decorated, dates from 1569. It was the abode of the Tokugawa Shoguns when in Kyoto, but, at the time of the Restoration movement, Yoshinobu, the last Shogun, left Nijō for Osaka on December 12, 1867, never to return. Katsura Palace and Shōgakuin Palace are celebrated for their excellent gardens and rare works of old Japanese architecture.

In the northern and eastern part of the city:

Shimo-gamo and Kami-gamo Shrines: The shrines are noted for their chief festival "Aoi-Matsuri" (Hollyhock Festival), held on May 15, the origin being traced back to the 6th century. It is a court festival conducted in purest Shinto style.

Ginkakuji, or Silver Pavilion, modelled on the Kinkakuji, or Gold Pavilion, as mentioned later, was built by Shogun Ashikaga-Yoshimasa in 1479 as a place of retirement. Its landscape garden is one of the best in Japan.

Héian Shrine, in Okazaki Park, a replica of a part of the first Imperial Palace, is noted for its buildings and attractive garden.

Butoku-Den, or Hall of Martial Virtues, near Héian Shrine, is a training institution for Japanese fencing, jūjitsu, archery, etc., open every day except Sundays and holidays.

Commercial Museum, Public Library, Zoological Garden, all in Okazaki Park.

Nanzenji, one of the five head temples of the Rinzai Sect, possesses valuable paintings and other art objects.

Shōrén-in, or Awata Palace, had, down to the Restoration, a prince of the blood as its abbot, the last of these prince abbots being the grandfather of the present Empress. The garden was laid out by Sōami and Enshū, famous landscape designers.

Chion-in, a great Buddhist monastery, is the head temple of the Jōdo Sect, and its furnishings, paintings and decorations are most interesting for the lovers of the Japanese arts.

Maruyama Park, Kyoto's principal park, is particularly celebrated for its "Shidaré-Zakura", or willowy cherry tree, over 400 years old, which, when in bloom, is illuminated at night with torches and colored lights. Throngs crowd Yasaka Shrine in the park, when on New Year's eve the priests hand out straw rope lighted at the holy fire, for the purpose of starting the good luck fire on which in individual homes is cooked the customary New Year's dish, *Ozōni*, a sort of broth containing mochi, or rice-cakes, and vegetables.

Kiyomizu Temple commands a fine view of the city and adjacent country. Its approach is along a street lined with crockery shops, known to foreigners as "Tea-pot Lane." The cherry blossoms and the maples below the temple are beautiful in their season.

Municipal Museum, originally erected by the Imperial Household and donated later to the municipality, contains rare and valuable art objects.

Sanjūsangen-Dō, or 33 ken Hall, so called because of the spaces between the front pillars of the temple measure 33 (*sanjūsān*) ken (ken=5.95 feet), is celebrated for its 1,001 images of the Goddess Kwannon.

In the southern part of the city:

Nishi Honganji, headquarters of the influential Shin Sect and **Higashi Honganji** of another branch of the same sect. The buildings and gardens of the former are quite old, while the latter was built in Meiji Era, though the latter is much grander than the former. Both temples contain priceless art and religious objects, and are splendid examples of Japanese Buddhist architecture.

In the north-western part of the city:

Kinkakuji, or Gold Pavilion, built in 1397 by the Ashikaga Shogun, Yoshimitsu, is so called because its interior was once entirely covered with gold foil. On its upper story, part of the foil, restored in 1906, still gives evidence of its past glory. Its garden is celebrated for its natural beauty.

Myōshinji and **Ninnaji** temples, and **Kitano Shrine**, all in the vicinity of the **Kinkakuji**, are historic edifices, noted for their art treasures and paintings.

Arashiyama, or Mist Mountain, at the foot of which runs the Ōi River, is much visited for its cherry blossoms in

dark green pine woods in spring, shady groves in summer, brilliant tints in autumn and snow scenery in winter. It is reached from Saga Station, or by electric cars from Kyoto in 20 minutes.

Out-of-town trips:

Shooting the **Hozu Rapids**, from Kameoka to Arashiyama, 7.5 miles in 1.5 hours. The charming country scenery is enjoyed throughout the whole journey. Train to Kameoka, then 10 minute walk to the river.

Lake Biwa, motorcar or tram to Ōtsu, where steamers start for the round of Chikubu-shima and other islets on the lake or the "Eight Sights" along the lake shore. Lake Biwa is the largest of the Japanese fresh-water lakes, with a circumference of 146 miles.

Mt. Hiei, alt. 2,799 ft. Take tramcar from Demachi-yanagi to Yasu, thence cable railway up to the peak. From its summit there are wide views over Kyoto and Lake Biwa. After visiting Enryakuji Temple, the descent may be made by another cable line to Sakamoto on the lake and return to Kyoto by electric car via Ōtsu. An interesting half-day trip.

Mausoles of Emperor Meiji and Empress Shoken at Momoyama by railway or electric tram.

Takao, **Makino-o** and **Togano-o** lie close together along the ravine at the foot of Mt. Atago on the northwestern outskirts of Kyoto. They constitute the historic places for maples which are the glory of the hillsides and dales in autumn.

Uji, where grows the choicest green tea, is a popular spot for excursion from Kyoto by motorcar. The Phoenix Hall of the Byōdō-in Temple, built in the 11th century, stands on the Uji River as a sample of the best religious architecture of the period when the Fujiwara Family was in its glory.

KYOTO TO SHIMONOSEKI by San-in Line

The country traversed by rail between Kyoto and Shimonoseki along the Japan Sea, a distance of 422.5 miles, has numerous places unfrequented by the general traveller, called the "Holiday Land" because of its excellent sea-lake and hot-spring resorts, its fishing and sailing and other diversions including mountain climbing. From the

NARA

Nara was an ancient capital of Japan during seven reigns, from 710 to 784, regarded as the period in which Japanese arts, crafts and literature were born and during which were compiled the first written histories of Japan. The temples and shrines in its eastern part have remained, in spite of the ravages of fire and time, practically as they were originally, and in Nara are found many rare old treasures. Visitors enjoy the quiet and restfulness of the old capital, and foreign visitors miss much if they omit Nara from their itinerary.

Hotel: Nara Hotel.

Nara Park, the largest of city parks in Japan, about 1,250 acres in area, and richest in classical memories, contains most of the relics of the ancient city. In the park there are the Shōsō-in Museum (see Chapter on Literature, Arts and Music), Imperial Household Museum with rich collections, Industrial Bazaar, Mt. Wakakusa, Uguisu Waterfall, and the ancient Kasuga Shrine situated in a grove of old cryptomerias. Deer strolling in the park are the favorite of all visitors.

On the way from the railway station to the hotel, the first pond noticed is Sarusawa-no-iké, fringed by willow trees. Kōfukujī, above the pond, is conspicuous with its two pagodas. Other temples and shrines near by are Tamukeyama Hachiman Shrine, Sangatsudo and Nigatsudo minor temples, Todaiji Temple, one of the seven great temples of Nara, noted for its big bell, beyond which is roofed the colossal bronze image of Daibutsu, or Great Buddha, 53.5 feet high. It was cast in 749 A.D. and is the largest of its kind in Japan.

Hōryūji, 3 miles from Nara, built about 1,300 years ago, is the oldest existing Buddhist temple in Japan, some of its buildings being probably the oldest wooden structures in the world. It contains priceless art treasures, best seen in the treasure house.

Among the other noted old temples and shrines in the vicinity are Hokkēji, Saidaiji, Tōshōdaiji, Yakushiji, Hasedera Temple, Ōmiwa Shrine, Shigisan Temple, the **Mausoleum of Emperor Jimmu**, the founder of the Japanese Empire, and **Kashiwara Shrine** dedicated to him.

OSAKA

Osaka, the second largest city in

trains are picturesque views of the bold coast-line, rocky islets, small bays and sand beaches in succession.

Among numerous spas along the railway line, **Kinosaki**, the first spa reached from Kyōto, has been known since the 7th century for the curative efficacy of its hot mineral water. Near the spa stands **Genbudo**, the famous grotto, 78 to 100 ft. in depth, and filled with thousands of basalt pillars, giving the cave the appearance of a colossal beehive.

Matsue, on the east bank of Shinjiko Lake, is the largest city in the region; it was in the Matsue Middle School that Lafcadio Hearn first taught in Japan; the house in which he stayed for about two years is preserved in his memory.

The **Daisen National Park** and the **Great Shrine of Izumo** are in this region.

AMANO-HASHIDATE

Amano-hashidatē, or Heavenly Bridge, one of the "Scenic Trio of Japan", a sand-bar about 2 miles long, covered with pine trees, which extends from the mainland into Miyazu Bay, on the Japan Sea, has been famous from time immemorial as a scenic point, the combination of pine-trees, white sand and blue water appealing strongly to the esthetic nature of Japanese. Reached by rail from Kyoto, Kobe, or Osaka to **Amano-hashidatē Station**.

MT. DAISEN

Daisen, alt. 5,693 ft., selected as a National Park, is best reached from **Hōki-Daisen Station** on San-in Main Line, 199 miles from Kyoto, 10 hours. Bus available from the station up to the mountain side where stands the famous **Daisenji Temple**. The ascent from the temple is a severe one, taking 3 hours to cover only 4 miles. An extensive virgin forest of beech trees belting the upper half of the mountain constitutes a special attraction.

Great Shrine of Izumo, 244.7 miles from Kyoto, 12 hours, one of the oldest shrines in Japan, dedicated to Prince Okuninushi who founded a state which he surrendered into the hands of the Imperial Ancestors. The present shrine, built in 1874, is approached by an avenue of magnificent pine trees. It is built in the earliest style of architecture known in Japan and on that account the most dignified.

Japan with an area of 72.3 square miles and a population of 1,850,000, is the largest commercial center of the Empire, its industrial activities embracing many lines of business. Located at the mouth of the River Yodo and on the coast of Osaka Bay it is interlaced with numerous canals and is known as the city of canals and bridges.

Hotels: Hotel New Osaka, Osaka Hotel, Dōbiri Hotel, Takarazuka Hotel.

Osaka Castle, built in 1585 by Toyotomi-Hideyoshi, was one of the greatest and strongest castles in this country. Most of the old structures having been destroyed by fire, there now remain the elevated site and two deep moats with stately stone walls. The huge donjon has recently been rebuilt on the former site to revive the old glory of the castle.

Tennoji, or Shi-Tennoji, a temple founded in the 6th century, is noted for its architecture. From Tennoji, Sumiyoshi Shrine can be reached in 20 min. by electric railway.

Dōtombori and **Sennichi-mae**, near Minatomachi Station, are amusement quarters with theaters and other places of entertainment. **The Bunraku Theater**, noted for its historic puppet show, should not be missed. **Shinsabashidori**, running north from Dotombori, is the best shopping quarter of the city.

Sumiyoshi and **Hamadera Parks**, both favorite sea-bathing resorts of Osaka residents, are reached from Namba Station by electric railway running to Wakayama.

Mino-o Park is noted for its landscape beauty, water-falls and colorful foliage in the fall.

Takarazuka, 40 min. by electric railway, is noted for its mineral baths, and the "Paradise Hall," a large theater where operatic and other performances are given by the famous Takarazuka team of girl players.

Mt. Kōyasan, alt. 2,833, 2.5 hours by electric railway from Osaka, is celebrated for the great Buddhist monastery founded in 816 by Kōbō-Daishi. The holy precincts, surrounded by magnificent trees, cover about 24 square miles.

KII PENINSULA

Kii Peninsula, its south-western portion in particular, best reached from Osaka by O.S.K. steamers, or by combined service of railway and motor-

buses, is considered one of the best tourist points in Japan, owing to its mild climate, beautiful coast views, numerous spas, ancient temples and shrines. **The Kumano district** of the peninsula and some of the Yoshino mountains in Nara prefecture have been designated as a National Park.

Nachi Waterfalls, the highest in Japan running down 430 feet, is within easy reach from Katsura, a pretty seaport. **Doro Gorge**, on the upper reaches of the River Kumano, is considered the finest of the kind in the country. Reached from Shingu by boat, 28 miles in 3 hours.

YOSHINO-KUMANO NATIONAL PARK

Yoshino and Kumano districts extend over the three prefectures of Nara, Wakayama and Mie and cover an area of 168,560 acres. Yoshino was the seat of the Imperial court for some 60 years, in the 14th century, under the Emperor Godaigo and his successors. It is therefore associated with many romances, heroic and tragic, which make the spot particularly famous. There is, moreover, the surpassing beauty of cherry blossoms which almost entirely cover the valleys and mountain-sides in the season, usually April 10-25. Yoshino is best reached from Osaka by electric railway in 2 hours. Among the peaks of the Yoshino mountain range, **Saōjō (Ōminé)**, **Shaka** and **Bukkyō** are most prominent. The first named Ōminé is a sacred mountain with a temple on its summit. To the east of Ōminé stands **Mt. Odalgahara** which affords a wonderfully extensive view, including, on a clear day, even **Mt. Fuji** about 150 miles to the east. These peaks and historical places attract a vast number of pilgrims and excursionists not only in cherry time but in all other seasons.

Kumano is a sacred region in South Kii Peninsula, embracing the three holy places of Hongū, Shingū and Nachi; the last being noted for the Nachi waterfalls mentioned above. **Kumano's** claim, however, for its celebrity mainly lies in its attractive scenery; especially of **Doro** and other gorges, coastal views around **Kushimoto**, **Katsu-ura**, etc., and because of its rich vegetation found in the district in profusion, some being found only in the semi-tropical regions. **Doro Gorge** is situated on the upper reaches of the River Kumano which rises in the Yoshino mountains and

empties into the sea at Shingū. The clearness of its water; fantastic rock formation and mountain scenery combine to display ever-changing views for several miles, the beauty culminating in May and June when azaleas and rhododendrons in bloom on the cliffs are reflected in the liquid mirror below. For about 17 miles upstream from Shingū boats are available. The coastal views of Kumano are of exquisite beauty, especially in the vicinity of **Katsu-ura**, a picturesque harbor with many islets adorning the mouth. A group of hot springs around **Katsu-ura Bay** is comfortably reached by motor-boat from the pier. **Kumano** is not so conveniently situated as **Yoshino**, but the well-accommodated steamers of O.S.K. will take one comfortably from Osaka to **Katsu-ura** in less than 15 hours.

KOBÉ

Kōbē, the sixth largest city in Japan with a population of over 967,000, situated on the Inland Sea and landlocked by the **Rokkō** hills at the back, is one of the two greatest trade ports of the country. **Kōbē** is also a travel center, railway and steamer services radiating from it in every direction. All the wares of the Orient can be purchased here.

Hotels: Oriental Hotel, Tor Hotel, Kōshien Hotel.

Suwayama Park, on the hillside close to the Tor Hotel, is sometimes called "Venus Hill", from the story that a Frenchman in 1873 made observations of the transit of Venus at this spot.

Nunobiki Waterfalls, the celebrated twin falls located in a thickly wooded hill, are favorite objectives of the citizens' outings.

Ikuta Shrine, near Sannomiya Station, is said to have been founded by the Empress Jingō in the 3rd century.

Minatogawa Shrine, near Kōbē Station, dedicated to **Kusunoki-Masashigē**, a loyal hero of the 14th century.

Mt. Rokkō, alt. 3,062 ft., reached from Kōbē by one hour's drive, or by cable line or ropeway from the foot, is a favorite summer resort for foreign residents of Kōbē, many of whom have cottages there.

Arima, a well-known hot-spring resort, is reached in about 1.5 hours by motor-car through strikingly beautiful scenery via **Mt. Rokkō**, or directly from

Kōbē by electric railway in 45 minutes. **Arima** is of great antiquity and has a delightful location. Various kinds of mineral water are noted for their medical efficacy.

Suma, Maiko and Akushi. A delightful motor trip can be made to these seaside resorts over a splendid road. They are charmingly situated along the Inland Sea with fine sand beaches and parks embowered in aged pine trees.

INLAND SEA

(Sēto Nankai)

The **Inland Sea**, or **Sēto Nankai** in Japanese, extending for about 230 miles along the south-western coast of the Main Island, from **Kōbē** to **Shimonoseki**, is dotted with 950 islands of all shapes and sizes, and the seascape view is ever changing as one voyages on its historic waters. The sea varies 8 to 40 miles in width in between the Main Island and **Shikoku Island** or **Kyushu Island**. On a bright day, the daylight steamer trip through it from **Kōbē** is a memorable event. Another worthwhile trip is on board special steamers from Osaka to **Beppu Spa** in **Kyushu**. Most of the trans-Pacific liners cross the sea. Occasional glimpses of its beauty can be seen from the trains running between **Kōbē** and **Shimonoseki**. The district extending from **Shōdoshima Island** on the east to **Tomo** and **Tadotsu** on the west, in which are many beauty spots, has been selected as a National Park.

Okayama Among many cities and towns on **Sanyo Main Line** from **Kōbē** to **Shimonoseki**, **Okayama** is particularly noted for its castle and historic landscape garden, the **Kōrakuen**. **Okayama** has been the educational center in the district west of **Kyoto** since feudal days. On the way from **Kōbē** to **Okayama**, another castle must not be missed. It is the **Hakuro Castle**, or **Snowy Heron Castle**, of **Himéji**, which has a singular beauty of its own among the Japanese castles.

Hiroshima is the largest city in this part of the Main Island; its beautiful landscape garden, the **Sentel**, owned by **Marquis Asano**, is open to the public.

SHIKOKU ISLAND

Shikoku, one of the four greatest islands of Japan Proper, has many places of interest, including **Ritsurin Park** at **Takamatsu**, an attractive landscape

garden; Yashima, off which a great naval battle was fought between the Taira and Minamoto clans in the 12th century, Kotohira Shrine, venerated by the seafaring people; all lying in or not far from Takamatsu which is reached by steamer from Uno, a short railway ride from Okayama on the opposite coast. Dōgo Hot Springs are reached by steamer from Onomichi or from Ujina, near Hiroshima, to Takahama, thence 6 miles by railway and electric tram, or directly from Takamatsu by rail.

MIYAJIMA

Miyajima, or Shrine Island, one of the "Scenic Trio of Japan", is considered one of the most beautiful shrine sites in Japan, and reached by ferry from Miyajima Station. It is widely known for its Itsukushima Shrine which at high tide appears to float upon the water, for its singular torii in the sea, and for the crimson richness of its maple foliage in the autumn. With its cool nights, sea-bathing, delightful sylvan walks and restreets, abundant pines, good drinking water, disintegrated granite soil and untilled land, the island is an ideal summer resort.

The Shrine, an open square in shape, is a unique sight at night when its lanterns are lighted. Kagura, or sacred dances, are performed by shrine maidens for a stipulated offering to the shrine. Tame deer wander freely about the precinct. Senjō-kaku is a time-worn building dedicated to the shrine by Toyotomi-Hideyoshi in the 16th century, who is said to have built the structure out of the wood of a single camphor tree. Mt. Misen, the highest point on the island, is easily climbed in less than 2 hours. From the top there is a splendid view of the Inland Sea. Circuit of the island by motor launch in about 2 hours is an interesting excursion.

Hotel: Miyajima Hotel.

SHIMONOSEKI

Shimonoseki, situated at the western end of the Inland Sea and the Main Island, is the gateway through which the majority of travelers from the Asian continent enter Japan via Fusan in Chosen. It is an important railway and steamer center, being the terminal of the Main Island system of railways along both the Pacific and the Japan Sea coasts, and the terminal or port of call for many steamship lines, including the State Railway steamer service to

Fusan. A frequent ferry service is operated between Shimonoseki and Moji, 2 miles in 15 minutes.

Hotel: Sanyō Hotel, located on the station premises.

Akamagū, a shrine dedicated to the infant Emperor, Antoku, who drowned in the desperate sea-fight between the Minamoto and Taira clans off Dannoura in 1185. Dannoura, is the left beach along the shore.

Chōmon-kyō Valley, 2.5 hours by the Sanyō Line, changing cars at Ogōri, is celebrated for its scenic beauty, peculiarly shaped peaks, fantastic rocks, ravines and tumbling streams.

Shūhodō, 18 miles from Ogōri, is the second largest stalactite cave in the world to be fully 1.2 miles long.

KYŪSHŪ

Kyūshū, the westernmost of the four large islands forming Japan Proper, was the first to be settled by the Japanese race, and contains much that is of historic interest.

Off Hakata, now a part of the city of Fukuoka, the great Mongol fleet sent by Kublai Khan in 1281 to subjugate Japan was completely defeated, civilization in the Asiatic continent entered into Japan through Hirato and Hakata in North Kyūshū in older times, while Western civilization gradually filtered into Japan through Nagasaki in South Kyūshū for several hundred years down to the restoration of 1868. In North Kyūshū are the largest coal mines in Japan. Some of the Kyūshū hot-springs Unzēn, Obama, Aso, Beppu, Kirishima, etc., are visited by many foreigners resident in China and other overseas countries.

Moji. Together with its sister city, Shimonoseki on the opposite side of the channel, Moji is a most important travel center, being an open port for steamship lines and the terminal of railway lines on Kyūshū Island. The expansion of the coal mining industry in the island assisted its growth, and together with Wakamatsu and other neighboring cities, Moji constitutes the largest manufacturing center in Kyūshū.

Fukuoka, the largest city in Kyūshū, 2 hours from Moji by rail, lies on the head of Hakata Bay. Hakata now forming a part of the city is the oldest port for foreign trade in Japan. The city is the center of the famous Hakata

weaving industry and the manufacture of Hakata dolls. Sumiyoshi Shrine, Ohori Park, the site of Lord Kuroda's castle in the park, etc. are places of interest in the city. The site of Dazaifu, or the government seat of Kyūshū of old, famous for its connection with the loyalist scholar Sugawara-Michizane, may be visited by motor-bus from Futsukaichi southeast of Fukuoka, on the Kyūshū Line.

Kumamoto, 2.5 hours from Fukuoka to the south or 4 hours from Kagoshima to the north by rail, is one of the oldest castle cities in Kyūshū. The Kumamoto Castle was built by Katō Kiyomasa, one of the most powerful generals under Toyotomi-Hideyoshi, in 1601-1607. It is the castle which the Major-General Tani-Tateki of the Imperial Army defended in a deadly battle against the siege by the forces of General Saigo in the Southwestern Civil War in 1877. Other places of interest are Hanaoka Hill noted for its connections with the history of the Protestant Church in Japan, the Udo castle, the Katō Shrine, the Honmyō Temple, the small, but beautiful Suizenji Park, 3 miles by electric car from Kumamoto, etc.

NAGASAKI

From Moji, 150 miles, express 5 hours; reached also from Kōbē by N.Y.K. express steamers of the Kōbō-Shanghai service—a charming daylight trip through the Inland Sea each way.

Hotel: Hotel du Japon.

Nagasaki has the distinction of being the first port of the Empire to be opened to foreign trade, being one of the best harbors in the country. It is the first port of call in Japan for steamers from Australia and China, and overland travelers leave their ships here. The city is famous for its annual fêtes: Suwa Shrine Festival, October 7-9, Bon-matsuri, or all souls' day, July 13-15, and Hata-agé, the kite-flying festival, held for several days in April.

Sawa Park, the Commercial Museum and Suwa Shrine, adjoining the park, are to be visited. The Catholic Cathedral at Urakami is the largest in Japan and contains many relics associated with the Christian persecution in the 17th century.

Among the many delightful trips in the vicinity are those to the waterfalls of Takino-Kwannon, to Moji, a seaside

town on Chijiwa Bay, to Michino-o, a little spa much resorted to by Nagasaki folk, and to Obama, a well-known hot-spring resort at the foot of Unzēn.

UNZEN

The renowned sulphide hot-springs of Unzēn, alt. 2,400 ft., discovered in 1661, annually attract many foreigners and Japanese. It is regarded as the best summer resort in Kyūshū and is also visited for its wild cherry blossoms in spring, its splendid azaleas in May, its tinted foliage in the fall, and for its celebrated Silver Thaw in winter when trees and shrubbery are coated with ice. The Unzēn district has been selected as a National Park.

Hotels: Kyūshū Hotel, Yūmei Hotel, Shinyu Hotel, Unzēn Hotel, Midoriya Hotel, Takaki Hotel, Unzēn Kanko Hotel.

Access: From Nagasaki, rail to Isahaya and thence by motor-bus to Unzēn via Obama, or by motor-car all the way from Nagasaki. From Kumamoto, rail to Misumi, steamer connection to Shimabara, thence motor-car or bus to Unzēn.

BEPPU

Natural hot water is so abundant at Beppu that it is provided at the railway station for travelers' hand-washing, and besides baths in many private houses, bathing facilities are installed in almost every school, police station, and even in the prison. Extraordinary sights are the ten or more solfataras or pools of boiling water in the district which bubble and steam. The sand baths are also renowned for their miraculous cures.

Hotel: Kaménoi Hotel, and Japanese inns.

Besides the hot-springs in the city of Beppu there are six spas in the district. The largest pools of boiling water, popularly called Jigoku, or Hell, are Umi, Chinoké, Hōzu, Hachiman and Kōya.

Yabaké is known for its fantastic rocky heights and varied vegetation, which, with the meandering stream, form gardens of striking beauty. Train, Beppu to Nakatsu, 43 miles, change to Rakanji, 10 miles, thence bus, ricksha or on foot for the views.

MT. ASO

Mt. Aso, alt. 5,238 ft., recently selected as a National Park, is a general name for 5 volcanic peaks, of which

Nakadake is active. Its original crater, over 70 miles in circumference, is the largest in the world. The shortest and easiest ascent is made from Bôchû on the Ôita-Kumamoto Line, thence motor-bus to the summit. Other routes are via the Kagoshima Main Line and from Nagasaki. The trip to Mt. Aso, with its wonderful active crater, the hot-springs in the district and natural beauty in the valleys, will live long in the memory.

KAGOSHIMA

From Moji, 248.5 miles, express 8 hours; from Beppu, may be reached by railway running for the most part along the east coast of Kyûshû Island.

Kagoshima, the picturesque southernmost city of Kyûshû, is noted as the birthplace of Takamori Saigô and many other statesmen, generals and admirals renowned in the modern history of the nation. The city and vicinity produce the famous Satsuma porcelain.

Sakurajima, a volcano in Kagoshima Bay, once an island but now a peninsula, is reached in 30 minutes from the city.

MT. KIRISHIMA

Mt. Kirishima is a collective name for the two volcanic peaks, Takachiho and Karakuni, facing each other. In the vast area around the peaks, selected as a National Park, are found all the features of volcanic mountain scenery; wonderful craters, lakes, cascades, forests, hot-springs, rare trees and flowers. These peaks have associations linked with the dawn of the Empire. Kirishima hot-springs are 9.7 miles from Makizono Station, 29 miles from Kagoshima.

TAIWAN

(Formosa)

The foremost port of the island is Keelung, or Keelung, 990 miles from Kôbô, thence weekly steamer service via Moji being maintained by the O.S.K. and other steamships.

Taihoku, 18 miles from Keelung, the seat of the Government-General, is the political and economic center of the island. Among places of interest are the Museum, Botanical Garden, Central Research Institute, Taihoku Imperial University, the Market and the Taiwan Shrine dedicated to Prince Kitashirakawa.

Hotel: Taiwan Railway Hotel.

Hokuto and Sozan are delightful spas in the vicinity of Taihoku.

Jitsugetsutan, a beautiful mountain lake, 10 miles in circumference, is best reached from Gaihatel on the Shûshû Line.

Mt. Niitaka, or Mt. Morrison, is the highest mountain in Japan with an altitude of 13,000 feet.

At Kagi, the center of the sugar industry in Taiwan, is handled a large quantity of timber from Mt. Arisan, 21.8 miles by train from Kagi. The heart of the mountain is Numano-taira, alt. 7,500 ft., a favorite resort of foreign visitors. The ascent of Arisan, with its scenic grandeur, is quite enjoyable.

CHŌSEN

(Korea)

Fusan, a thriving seaport, is the southern entrance to Chōsen.

Tōrai is the finest hot-spring resort in the peninsula and is reached from Fusan in half an hour by motor-car.

Kalundai, not far from Tōrai, is a delightful seaside resort.

Talkyû is a flourishing commercial and industrial city. Exceptionally interesting is a big fair held in spring and autumn, when the city is thronged by tens of thousands of people from neighboring districts.

Kéishû had its glorious days over 1,000 years ago as the capital of Shyragi, the most powerful of the three kingdoms of Korea. Today, the pagodas, mausolea of kings and other historic edifices are of antiquarian interest. Bukkokuji, 7 miles by rail from Kéishû, is an ancient Buddhist temple noted for its architectural beauty. Sekkutsuan, the "Cave Temple", on the hill at the rear of Bukkokuji, contains many stone images of Buddha, masterpieces of the Shiragi period.

Keijo, or Seoul, is the seat of the Government-General. Flourished as the capital of Yi Kings for over 5 centuries, the city has many places of historic interest. Keifuku-kyû Palace has many magnificent buildings such as the Hall of Administration, the Audience Hall and the Banquet Hall. Pagoda Park is a charming little park on the north side of Shôro Street. Shotoku-kyû Palace, in the northeast of the city, is the private residence of Prince Yi. The beautiful gardens in the residence, and

the Botanical Garden, the Zoological Garden and the Museum, in the adjacent enclosure, are worth a visit. Nan-ko Park is a pine-clad hill on the southern city boundary, where stands the Chosen Shrine, a memorial shrine dedicated to Emperor Meiji.

Hotel: Chōsen Hotel.

Kaijô, an important town between Kôjô and Héijô, is the producing center of ginseng. The city was the metropolis of the Koral, or Kouri, Kingdom for nearly five hundred years until 1700.

Héijô is the second largest and most picturesque city and the industrial and religious center in Chosen. Chinnampo is the nearest port to Héijô, at the mouth of the Daidô. Those who have an archaeological interest will be repaid by a visit to the old Kôsêi tomb and the Rakurô ruins, both near the city.

Kongô-san, or Diamond Mountains, is situated in Kôgên province near the eastern coast and is part of the great mountain range forming the backbone of the peninsula. The mountain, about 50 miles in circumference, consists of a large cluster of countless rocky peaks reputed from of old to number "twelve thousand." All the peaks are very

rugged and fantastic in form, towering sharply into the sky from a wild growth of primeval sylvan vegetation below, and embrace numerous ravines and canyon through which run crystal waters amid huge rocks of grotesque shape.

The mountains are divided into three sections. The western side facing inland is called Inner Kongô, the eastern side looking toward the sea Outer Kongô, while the extension jutting into the sea in broken masses near Kôjô is known as Sea Kongô.

The mountains have been famous in Chinese literature for nearly 2,000 years, though their history has only been known since the arrival of the 33 sages who settled at Yûtenji in the 4th century, which temple still retains the title of principal monastery and is indeed still the largest. The name Kongô is taken from the Buddhist "Diamond Sutra," the gospel most read in Far Eastern Buddhism.

The routes to Kongôsan are: To Outer Kongô, Kéijô to Sotokongo via Anpen by rail, 103 miles. To Inner Kongô, Kéijô to Chôanji via Tetsugen by rail, 140 miles. The best season to visit there is from May 1 to October 31, during which period the hotels, motor-bus, etc. are operated.

TOURIST INDUSTRY

The tourist industry in Japan may be classified under the following three heads:

1. Publicity
2. Tourist accommodation
3. Handling of tourists

By publicity is meant the making known abroad of various features Japan possesses, which are attractive to prospective tourists in foreign parts, so as to induce their travel to this country.

In the inducement of foreign tourists, the first thing to be done is the development and improvement of tourist points. Though well favored by nature and enjoying modern accommodation, a tourist point will fail to attract foreign tourists unless it has adequate special provision for them. Means of transit must also be improved to facilitate access to tourist points. Again, hotel accommodation at tourist points and elsewhere has to be amplified and made more efficient. The improvement of

these provisions covers an extensive scope and involves various activities. And the carrying out of the improvement has an important bearing on the inducement of foreign tourists.

By "handling" is meant direct service to foreign tourists. It is one of the important points in the inducement of foreign tourists that people in general should treat them in a spirit of hospitality so that they may forget that they are strangers in a strange land.

The Board of Tourist Industry of the Government Railways frames the fundamental policy for the guidance, direction and support of the triple activities of the tourist industry. This central tourist organization forms part of the Government Railways for practical convenience. For the full functioning of the central organization the Kokusai Kwanko Inkai (a Committee for the Tourist Industry), has been organized with persons prominent in the public eye as its members. There are

organizations that act as executives for the Board of Tourist Industry. Publicity work is assigned to the Kokusai Kanko Kyokai (Japan Travel Publicity Association), while the work of affording travel facilities is in the hands of the To-A (East Asia) Tourist Bureau, formerly known as the Japan Tourist Bureau.

Thus, in the three sister organizations, the Kanko Kyokai takes charge of the work of general publicity; the To-A Tourist Bureau, the work of affording travel facilities; and the Board of Tourist Industry, the work of direction, control, and support of the tourist trade. With a view to the harmonious and efficient working of the three organs, the director of the Board of Tourist Industry is at the same time a director of the Kanko Kyokai and also of the To-A Tourist Bureau, while the managing director of the To-A Tourist Bureau is also a director of the Kanko Kyokai, and connected with the committee for Tourist Industry in the capacity of an executive secretary.

The To-A Tourist Bureau organized

in March 1912, is a juridical person, maintained by a fund contributed by its members, about 180 all told, including the Government Railways, the principal private railway companies, shipping companies, automobile companies, cities and towns, chambers of commerce and industry, tourist associations, hotels, theaters, banks, and firms. The business is conducted by officials selected from among the members, as well as by the Bureau's employees.

The headquarters are at Marunouchi 1-chome, Kojimachi, Tokyo and in front of Kanda Station with branches in Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, Hiroshima, Moji, Niigata, Sendai, Sapporo, Keijo, Mukden and Taihoku. Besides these are 57 offices in the principal cities of Japan proper (including four summer offices), 13 in Chosen, four in Taiwan, 35 in Manchoukuo, and 21 in China. It also has offices in Los Angeles, New York, Paris, London, Hongkong, and Manila. In addition to these are 29 agencies scattered through the chief cities in Europe and America.

FOREIGNER'S ENTRY TO JAPAN

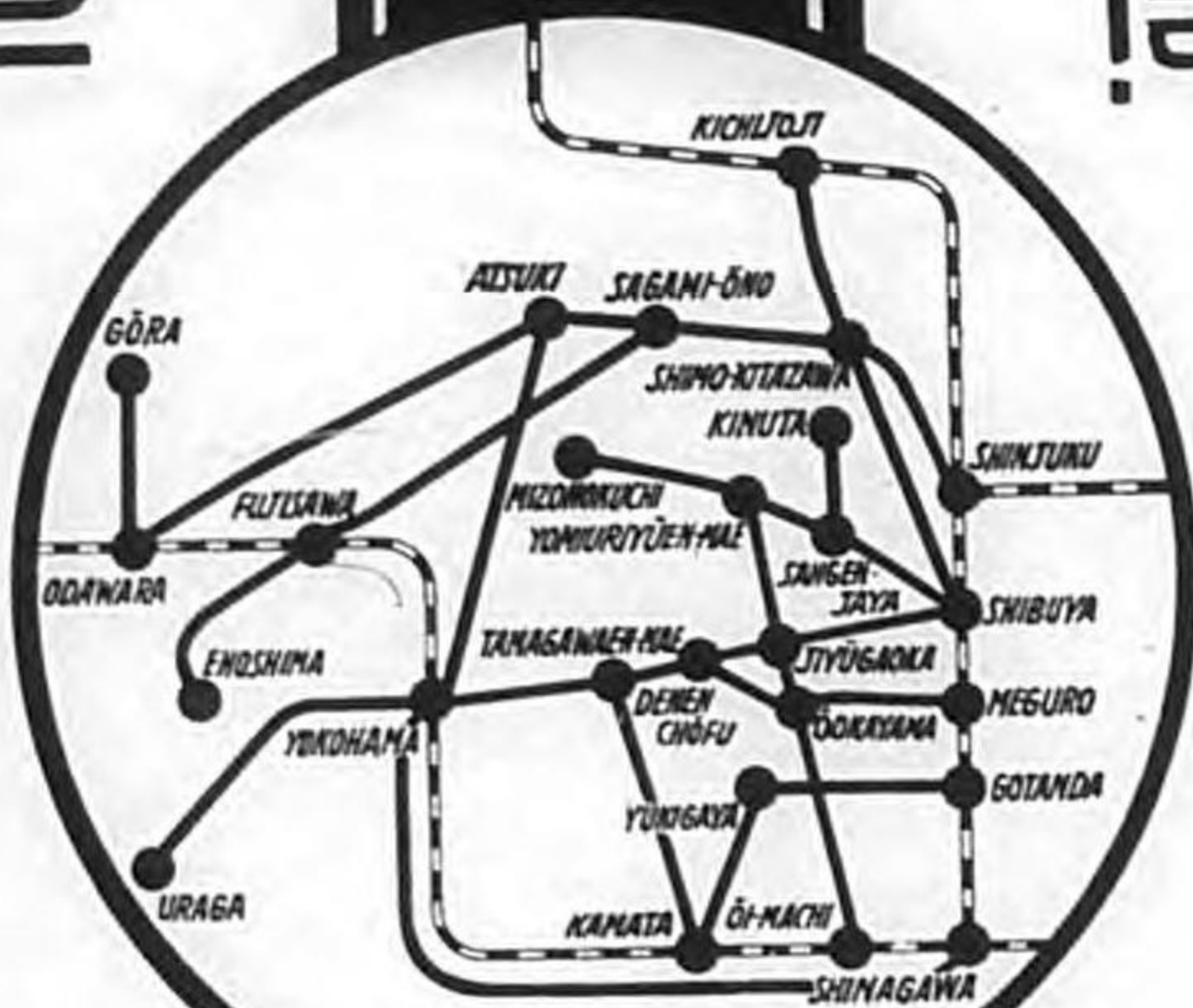
Year	British	American	German	French	Russian	Chinese	Others	Total
1912	2,411	3,382	1,087	375	2,120	5,502	587	15,964
1916	3,604	4,225	9	242	4,803	6,256	759	19,908
1921	2,857	3,772	363	245	2,983	13,082	1,839	25,041
1926	3,624	6,704	536	429	849	10,977	1,587	24,706
1930	3,705	7,586	746	378	1,139	14,160	1,888	29,605
1931	3,103	6,739	735	457	851	8,866	1,841	22,492
1932	3,586	5,075	697	496	963	7,039	2,220	20,076
1933	5,515	6,091	1,154	705	1,060	8,167	3,766	26,458
1934	6,882	8,030	1,325	939	1,315	10,499	6,208	35,198
1935	7,293	9,111	1,523	894	1,280	14,260	8,268	42,629
1936	6,992	9,655	1,446	920	1,315	11,398	10,842	42,568
1937	6,097	10,077	1,816	882	1,562	8,275	11,593	40,302
1938	3,209	5,148	1,861	511	1,648	4,021	11,674	28,072
1939	4,012	6,711	2,585	532	157	7,325	15,922	37,244
1940	3,189	5,983	5,442	550	444	9,968	17,859	43,435

CHAPTER XXXVIII

TOKYO

TOKYO-KYUKO ELECTRIC RAILWAY CO., LTD.

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CHAPTER XXXVIII

TOKYO

Historical Sketch

In 1192 Yoritomo Minamoto (See Chapter III, Kamakura Period) established a military régime at Kamakura, 56.33 kilometers south-west of the present Tokyo, and it was at this period that the name of Yedo was recorded in the report of a local war in which a son of Lord Shiro Kanetsugu Yedo took part, and the name seems to have been given before he became the lord of the district. Yedo literally means "entrance to the gulf."

After the fall of the Yedo family the district was occupied by a feudal lord called Sadamasa Uyesugi; and Dokan Ohta, one of his retainers, discovering the strategic importance of Yedo constructed the Yedo castle which was completed in 1457. After changing hands a few times, it fell, in 1590, into the possession of Iyeyasu Tokugawa, who settled down there to be the over-lord of the eight provinces of Kanto. From that time it gradually expanded until it became not only the capital of Kanto but the seat of the Tokugawa Shogunate during 15 generations. During the 268 years of the Tokugawa Shogunate the obscure village of Yedo became a thriving town and it is said that 2 million people lived there in the height of its prosperity in the Bunsei (1818-1830) and Tempo (1830-1844) eras.

In 1869 the Emperor Meiji transferred the Imperial capital to Yedo and renamed it Tokyo, or Eastern Capital. Then came still further growth and prosperity. Contact had just been made with Western countries and as Tokyo was serving as the gateway for Western civilization much attention was given to building the city on modern lines.

The 50 years of Tokyo culture met with a terrible catastrophe in September 1923, when earthquake and fire, unprecedented in history, dealt the city an almost fatal blow. Nearly one-half of the entire city was completely reduced to ashes. But with hard work and the enthusiastic support of the whole country and the citizens of Tokyo, as well as the sympathy of the world, a new

and better Tokyo has arisen from the ashes in but a decade.

Location and Climate

Tokyo is situated at the south-east corner of Kanto plain in 35° 31' 59"—48' 50" N. latitude, 139° 33' 56"—55' 22" E. longitude. The climate of the city is generally mild; the annual mean temperature is 13° 9' C (57° F); the mean temperature in July is 24° 2' C (75° 5' F), in January 3° 1' C (37° 5' F); the annual average precipitation is 1,555 mm.

Population and Area

Growth of Population According to the 1940 census the population of Tokyo was 6,778,804 at the time when the census was taken on October 1. It increased 903,137 or 14.6 per cent during past 5 years, and represents 9.2 per cent of the total population in Japan, proper.

Year	Population	Household
1878	813,400	235,943
1888	1,298,661	287,833
1898	1,425,366	316,527
1908	1,626,103	376,428
1920 (census)	2,173,200	456,816
1923 ¹	1,527,489	340,278
1924	1,920,310	417,833
1925 (census)	1,995,507	429,852
1930 (census)	2,070,913	414,710
1931	2,103,880	421,620
1932	5,314,700	1,112,640
1933	5,495,460	1,138,470
1934	5,682,370	1,164,890
1935 (census)	5,875,667	1,191,939
1936	6,085,800	1,236,500
1937	6,274,000	1,275,800
1938	6,457,600	1,313,400
1939	6,581,100	1,339,100
1940 (census)	6,778,804	—

¹ Earthquake year.

Buildings and Dwelling Houses At the end of 1938 there were 1,057,921 buildings and dwelling houses in the city, of which dwelling houses numbered 682,751, shops 223,552, governmental

offices 8,924, and schools and libraries 6,078.

Area The total area of the city of Tokyo in January 1939, was 535,668 square kilometers. The classified ownership in January 1939, follows:

Ownership	Area (In square kilometers)
Total	535,668
Imperial household	6,397
State	78,795
Tokyo prefecture	1,161
City	14,617
Private persons	434,695

Tokyo Enlarged

The development of modern Tokyo is best endorsed by the giant growth of the adjoining towns and villages.

Socially and economically the towns outside the city area have been closely connected with the city itself. The position regarding Tokyo during the 10 years ending 1930 was that the 32 adjoining towns and villages increased in population by 1,720,000, while the city of Tokyo lost 100,000, within the same period. In road construction, extension of communication facilities and in the execution of various municipal regulations the city experienced enormous difficulties due to the existence of over

80 different self-governing bodies surrounding the city area.

As is generally the case with great cities, a large number of people living in adjoining towns enter the city to earn their living. They are placed on exactly the same footing with the citizens in so far as the utilization of metropolitan facilities is concerned. Besides, as most of them are salaried men belonging to middle or intelligent class, to let them stand aloof from city government means an enormous loss to both.

It was after taking into careful consideration all these practical phases of administration that in October 1932, new Tokyo was founded by amalgamating 20 more wards. The newly annexed suburban towns then had 3,211,580 inhabitants and 469,029 sq. km., a density of 9,034 persons to the square kilometer.

The enlarged Tokyo now covers 570,337 square kilometers divided into 35 wards.

Commerce and Industry

Retail Business At the end of July 1939, the number of retail shops in the city was 156,831. Sweetmeats shops numbered 14,887, rice shops 7,768 and vegetables and fruits shops 6,536. Retail price index numbers based on the prices of December 16, 1929, as 100 follow:

RETAIL PRICE INDEX NUMBER IN TOKYO

(Of 100 Kinds of Commodities)

(The average retail price on Dec. 16, 1929 taken as 100)

	Foodstuffs	Clothing, etc.	Fuel	Building Materials	Miscellaneous	Gross Average for Tokyo	Average for 13 Cities
1935	90.0	87.7	92.3	100.7	89.7	90.4	90.5
1936	96.2	89.5	93.4	103.9	89.2	94.5	94.8
1937	98.1	105.8	108.6	147.7	105.4	104.7	104.2
1938	110.3	135.5	124.6	179.1	125.2	122.9	121.0
1939	125.2	148.9	125.6	174.3	135.6	133.8	138.7
1940	—	—	—	—	—	157.6	162.2

Wholesale Price The wholesale average price index number for 100 kinds of commodities in 1940 was 173.1 against

100 of the average wholesale price index of December 1929. Below are given detailed figures:

WHOLESALE PRICE INDEX NUMBER

	Foodstuffs	Textile Goods	Metals	Building Materials	Chemicals	Fertilizers	Fuel	Miscellaneous	Aggregate Average in Tokyo	Average in 13 Cities
1935	96.0	96.6	109.2	93.0	87.0	99.3	90.1	115.9	98.7	97.4
1936	103.0	98.8	114.8	96.1	72.3	103.8	93.9	118.0	102.3	101.2

	Foodstuffs	Textile Goods	Metals	Building Materials	Chemicals	Fertilizers	Fuel	Miscellaneous	Aggregate Average in Tokyo	Average in 13 Cities
1937	107.4	117.4	193.7	122.5	90.0	126.5	114.3	158.8	128.2	123.8
1938	116.1	135.7	227.8	137.3	127.0	132.0	140.9	163.9	145.1	140.2
1939	141.1	134.8	192.0	166.6	120.0	164.8	145.1	167.5	153.9	153.7
1940	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	173.1	165.2

Banks At the end of 1938 there were 24 banks domiciled in Tokyo and 331 branch offices. Three were special banks, i.e. semi-governmental banks. The number of ordinary commercial banks was 16, with 259 branches in the city. Savings banks numbered 5 with 65 branches. The aggregate capital of the special banks was ¥250,920,000 of which the amount paid up was ¥211,796,062. The aggregate of deposits was ¥985,521,000 and the aggregate amount of advances and discounts was ¥2,902,988,000. The aggregate capital of the ordinary banks was ¥510,488,500, the amount paid up was ¥341,147,000, deposits ¥6,615,213,000 and advances and discounts totalled ¥4,203,631,000. The aggregate capital of savings banks was ¥15,535,000 of which ¥11,922,500 was the total sum paid up, deposits ¥1,238,389,000 and advances ¥171,783,000. In 1937 there were 95 branches of banks domiciled in other cities, and the total number of banks and branches in the city was 355, with aggregate deposits of ¥4,695,687,698 and advances of ¥3,333,170,808.

Industry At the end of 1938 there were, in Tokyo, 30,154 small working shops, where less than 5 operatives were employed, with 48,240 workers, and 15,419 factories, where more than 5 operatives were employed, with 482,939 workers.

FACTORIES IN TOKYO

(At the end of 1938)

Kind of Industry	Factories	Operatives	Production (In yen)
Textile	2,490	39,513	189,563,000
Metallic	6,127	81,331	731,546,000
Machine and Tool	9,195	238,123	1,153,492,000
Ceramics	769	10,123	32,316,000
Chemical	2,354	50,963	603,614,000
Sawing and Wood-work	3,200	13,817	52,603,000
Printing and Book-binding	3,243	29,031	136,679,000
Foodstuff	13,935	23,590	245,653,000

Kind of Industry	Factories	Operatives	Production (In yen)
Gas and Electric	4	737	14,062,000
Others	4,256	43,951	168,376,000
Total	4,260	44,688	182,438,000

Companies At the end of 1938 there were 18,239 companies in Tokyo, with an aggregate capital of ¥14,954,279,000.

COMPANIES IN TOKYO CLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRIES

(At the end of 1938)

Industry	Number	Aggregate Capital (In Yen)
Agriculture	115	116,178,000
Aquatic	27	196,170,000
Mining	511	1,759,919,000
Manufacturing	7,445	7,542,091,000
Commercial and Banking	9,654	4,516,915,000
Traffic	487	823,007,000
Total	18,239	14,954,279,000

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1940 the total mileage of public roads in the city was 8,710,055 meters covering an area of 51,210,737 square meters or 8 per cent of the total city area.

Railway Service In the fiscal year 1937, ending March 31, 1938 there were in aggregate 446,803,432 boarding passengers and 444,278,442 alighting passengers at 65 different governmental railway stations in the city, and the earnings in these 65 stations totalled ¥66,717,384 which was ¥6,893,886 more than in the previous year. The business results of 15 private railway companies in the year under review, exclusive of their bus services, were: the aggregate number of passengers, 331,221,292 and the aggregate amount of earnings ¥21,475,607, and the total length of lines in operation 235.9 kilometers.

TRAFFIC SERVICE OF STATE RAILWAYS FOR TOKYO

Fiscal Year	Stations	Passengers who got in	Passengers who got off	Earnings (In Yen)
1932	63	335,659,845	334,105,799	47,353,680
1933	66	359,549,090	357,644,525	51,364,964
1934	65	374,591,543	373,084,109	54,050,989
1935	65	394,021,234	393,414,451	56,503,686
1936	65	420,627,220	419,349,144	59,823,498
1937	65	446,803,432	444,279,442	66,717,384

Tramway Service The business results of municipal tramways in the fiscal year ending March 31, 1938 over the average daily mileage of 352,742 kilometers were: the total number of pas-

sengers, 402,704,000 or 68,040,311 more than in the previous year and the aggregate amount of earnings ¥23,839,000, a gain of ¥3,801,863 as compared with the previous year.

TRAFFIC SERVICE OF THE MUNICIPAL TRAMWAYS

Year	Passengers	Daily Average	Fees (In Yen)	Daily Average
1934	287,459,000	789,000	18,024,000	49,381
1935	294,189,758	803,000	18,475,817	50,479
1936	309,841,146	848,880	19,079,203	52,272
1937	334,663,689	916,887	20,037,037	54,895
1938	402,704,000	1,103,000	23,839,000	65,211
1939	451,656,000	1,234,000	26,654,000	72,827
1940	507,526,000	1,390,000	30,031,000	82,278

Motor Bus Motor bus service in the city is being rendered by 36 firms besides the Municipal Bus Service and Tokyo Bus Company.

BUS SERVICE IN TOKYO

(1937-38)

	Mileage in K.M.	No. of Buses	Passengers	Fees (In Yen)
Municipal	192.4	1,032	109,311,909	6,995,779
Tokyo Bus	67.0	553	77,429,625	4,714,143
Others	876.2	1,272	162,476,369	9,533,783
Total	1,135.2	2,857	349,217,903	21,243,705

Underground Railway The urgent need of a high speed underground communications to relieve the congestion and pressure of surface traffic has long been felt necessary. A private company opened its first section of an underground railway, from Asakusa to Ueno, in the latter part of 1927, and is pushing forward its line under the very center of the city to Shinagawa. It completed the construction of the line to Shimbashi in June 1934, and the distance in operation now is 8 kilometers. The construction of the underground railway between Shibuya and Shimbashi was completed in the spring of 1939 by the hand of the Tokyo High Speed Railway Company and the traffic

was opened on April 1, the mileage of the new tube is over 6 kilometers.

Bridges The city of Tokyo has a network of rivers and canals and the beauty of the city is greatly enhanced by the bridges of manifold designs which traverse them. Before the earthquake the bridges under municipal management numbered 668, of which 426 were of wood. At the earthquake 259 bridges collapsed or were reduced to ashes. By the cooperation of the Reconstruction Bureau of the Government and the Municipality new bridges were built in their place. At the end of March 1937, there were 5,193 bridges in Tokyo, 1,126 of which were of stone, 469 concrete, 1,061 reinforced concrete,

537 iron, 5 iron and wood, and 1,990 wood.

Rivers and Canals The city is served with a veritable network of canals and rivers many of which are used for transportation purposes. Dredging has to be carried out continuously to keep them navigable. At the end of 1938 there were 65 rivers with the total length of 85 kilometers.

Harbor At the time of the great earthquake in 1923 the city of Tokyo keenly felt the necessity of better facilities for maritime transportation, and when rebuilding of the city took place it was decided to construct a pier, sheds and warehouses at Shibaura, Tokyo. A sum of ¥18,000,000 was appropriated for the work and construction was completed in April 1935. The length of

the reinforced concrete Hinode-cho pier is 564 meters and six steamers of 1,000 to 3,000 tons can be moored alongside at a time. Another pier of Shibaura has a length of 910 meters and can moor 7 steamers of 6,000 tons. Furthermore, there are 12 mooring buoys and 8 sheds. The total area of the harbor is 8,591 square kilometers. Steamers outgoing from and incoming to Tokyo and goods carried out from and into Tokyo follow:

INCOMING OF VESSELS IN TOKYO HARBOR

(In 1937)

Kind	Number	Tonnage
Steamers	17,854	6,649,578
Sailing Vessels	250	22,061
Total	18,104	6,671,639

GOODS CARRIED OUT FROM AND INTO TOKYO

(In metric tons)

Outgoing Goods

Year	By Railways	By Steamers	Through Rivers	Total
1933	2,647,049	102,415	61,960	2,811,424
1934	2,967,012	105,437	64,874	3,137,323
1935	3,385,452	62,773	69,002	3,517,227
1936	3,583,885	1,634,327	95,330	5,313,542
1937	3,815,000	—	131,000	3,846,000

Incoming Goods

Year	By Railways	By Steamers	Through Rivers	Total
1933	6,342,816	58,675	57,306	6,458,797
1934	6,573,974	90,054	79,642	6,743,670
1935	6,614,397	55,619	81,844	6,751,860
1936	7,380,876	9,086,196	107,409	16,574,481
1937	8,539,000	—	419,000	8,958,000

Waterworks

The construction of modern water reservoirs was first commenced in 1890 and it was 20 years before the Yodo-kashi water reservoir was completed. But this proved inadequate to meet the ever growing water consumption and the Murayama water reservoir was constructed in 1916. It consists of two reservoirs, upper and lower, and the upper reservoir has a capacity of 3,576,000 cubic meters while the capacity of the lower one is 12,148,000 cubic meters. In 1934 another reservoir at Yamaguchi-mura was completed and it has a capacity of 18,824,000 cubic meters. The total volume of water which can actually be maintained by these reservoirs at

any given moment reaches 30,056,000 cubic meters. The total number of hydrants in Tokyo in March 1937, was 863,400, and the total quantity of water distributed during 1936-37 was 333,740,073 cu. m. In March 1935, the city bought all rights of the Tamagawa Waterworks which had been supplying water to the six southern wards.

Sewerage Works

General Conditions Until half a century ago waste water used to be discharged into moats, navigable canals and rivers. In 1876, there was a violent outbreak of cholera which impressed upon the Government the urgent need of a general water and sewerage

system, but it was not until between 1883 and 1885 that Tokyo prefecture laid the first sewers, with a government subsidy. The subject of sewage disposal was not undertaken in earnest until 1911, and it was not until ten years later that the modern Mikawajima Disposal Works were opened. Extensions and modernization are still going on. At present there are 7 sewage siphons at Sunamachi and Mikawajima.

Within the old city limits there are no longer any open street drains visible, the same, unfortunately, cannot be said of the new city area, though further development of the sewerage system is being planned.

In 1937 there were 594,055 square meters of undergrounds in use for the laying of iron pipes and the aggregate length of iron-pipes laid down was 1,791,092 meters. Moreover, 203,315,911 cubic meters of sewerages were the aggregate volume that were siphoned in the year under review and the water volume disposed of totalled 160,528,573 cubic meters.

SEWERAGE WORKS IN TOKYO

(At the end of 1937)

Area covered in sq. m.	594,055
Length of sewers in m.	1,791,092
Sewerage siphoned in cu. m.	203,315,911
Sewerage disposed in cu. m.	160,528,573
Sewerage washed out in cu. m.	1,474,785

Parks

Parks The absolute necessity of parks is more keenly felt in Tokyo than

in other cities in Japan because many lives were saved through the existence of parks on the occasion of the terrible earthquake of September 1923.

In January 1938, Tokyo had 143 parks with an area of 3,284 square kilometers.

In the old city area there are three large parks: Sumida, Kinshi and Hamacho and 89 others of about 2,682,136 sq. m., whereas before the earthquake the city had only Ueno, Hiblya and 32 other parks. Within the newly annexed quarters of the city there are two at Shinagawa covering an area of 3,900 tsubo.

Sumida park has an area of 174,400 sq. m., Hamacho park 36,000 sq. m. and Kinshi park 56,000 sq. m. All of the numerous small parks are laid out adjoining for the most part elementary schools. They serve as local parks, the largest being 4,700 sq. m. and the smallest 1,700 sq. m. in area.

Education

In the fiscal year 1937 there were 315 kindergartens in Tokyo of which 124 were in the old city limits. The number of elementary schools was 633, of which 218 were in the old city limits. Schools equivalent to elementary grade numbered 79, of which 44 were in the old city limits; blind, deaf and dumb schools numbered 9; middle schools 33 and girls' high school 78. Various schools of middle grade numbered 32; business and technical schools 139, normal schools 3, young people's schools 258 and various private schools 307. As for higher education there were 1 higher normal schools, 3 business teachers' institutes, 72 professional schools (colleges), 5 higher schools, and 22 universities.

KINDERGARTENS, ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

March 1, 1937

	No.	Instructors	Pupils	Graduates
Kindergartens	315	947	19,425	11,896
Elementary schools	633	16,237	790,869	148,227
Elementary evening schools	79	133	6,277	2,124
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	9	189	1,329	294
Middle schools	53	1,452	41,163	6,635
Girls' high schools	78	1,926	53,254	9,839
Other schools of middle school grade	32	556	16,360	2,970
Vocational, business and technical schools	139	2,622	72,078	15,809
Young people's schools	258	356	48,696	15,842
Normal schools	3	103	1,745	548
Various private schools	307	3,502	67,203	42,660
Total	1,906	28,023	1,118,399	56,844

SCHOOLS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

March 1, 1936

	No.	Instructors	Students	Graduates
Higher Normal schools	2	156	1,597	417
Temporary teachers' institutes	3	5	282	77
Temporary teachers' institutes	33	5	282	77
Professional schools	72	4,299	54,267	14,658
Higher schools	5	340	3,712	1,019
Universities	22	3,798	47,444	14,491
Total	104	8,598	107,302	30,662

Public Libraries There are 32 libraries in Tokyo, of which 28 are owned by the city, 1 by the Government and the rest by private persons. In the fiscal year 1939 the number of books held in all these libraries was 2,343,015 of which 908,005 were held by the Imperial Library at Ueno and 590,738 by the 28 municipal libraries.

Religion (See p. 839, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.)

Administration and Government

History In July 1868, the Emperor Meiji granted an Imperial message on the proposed removal of the capital to Tokyo. It was the beginning of the regeneration of Tokyo. At the same time the downfall of the Shogunate régime was announced and new Japan was born.

The Tokyo prefectural office was established soon after the issuing of the Imperial Rescript. In 1871, the city was divided into 6 large wards, but seven years later these wards were abolished and 15 smaller wards established. In 1879, as the governor of the prefecture saw that these 15 wards were firmly established, he issued a decree concerning the formation and functions of ward assemblies, and thus instituted the first representative government system in this country.

Legislative Body To control municipal business the city has a city council and board of aldermen with a mayor as the head. Further, there are several

departments, bureaux, sections, etc., for the execution of municipal affairs and office work.

Membership of the city council is an honorary position, the term of service being 4 years. The membership at present is 144, but owing to resignation of and death of members, the actual membership at the end of 1934 was 139. The principal functions of the council are the enactment and reorganization of city regulations, decisions as to finance, approval of settled accounts, imposition and collection of city taxes; and the right of proposing any bill, except the budget for annual revenue and expenditure. The board of aldermen of Tokyo once was the executive body, but in 1911 it became a legislative body. It is composed of 15 honorary aldermen to whom the mayor is added as chairman. The functional powers include the right of proposing any bill or expressing opinions on other matters.

Executive From 1889 till 1898 the function of the mayor of Tokyo was entrusted to the governor of Tokyo prefecture, but on October 1, 1898 the city became self-governing. The mayor is elected by the city council. Under the mayor there are three deputy mayors, a city counsellor, a treasurer, directors of departments, chiefs of bureaux, ward heads and other numerous offices. There are various kinds of committees as consultative bodies. The organization of the municipality is as follows:

THE DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION OF THE TOKYO MUNICIPALITY

Sections	Functions
Private secretariat	Secret matters, keeping of seals, ceremonies and reward
Personnel	Personnel administration
General secretariat	General affairs, municipal research, elections, legal affairs, etc.

Sections Bureaux	Functions
Supervising Finance	Supervision and inspection of municipal affairs Budget, loans, public land, taxation, purchasing, etc.
Industrial	Industry, promotion of industry and commerce, agriculture, fisheries and stock raising
Education	Management of schools; education, libraries, museums, etc.
Social Work	Protection and correction. Management of lodging houses, housing, labor exchanges, commercial training, etc.
Public Health	Management of hospitals, social hygiene, refuse disposal, park and playgrounds, auditoriums, cemeteries, zoological gardens, etc.
Water Works	Water supply and extension
Public Works	Roads, bridges, harbors and rivers, sewage disposal, buildings, etc.
Electric	Supply of light and power: electric cars, motor buses, subways, etc.
Divisions	
Harbor	Care of Tokyo harbor
Municipal Office Building	Building the City Hall at Tsukishima
Miscellaneous	
Central Wholesale Market	Wholesale of provisions
Poor Asylum	Protection of helpless persons, aged or young
Hygiene Laboratory	Investigations on epidemics, bacteria, etc.
Electric Laboratory	Examination of meters and scientific research on electricity.

Finance

The 1941-42 municipal budget was ¥406,776,539 for revenue and ¥406,776,539 for expenditure. The following

table shows the settled accounts for 1934-35 to 1938-37 and budgets for the following years. Among the enterprises tramways, bus, gas and water works are included.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF TOKYO

Fiscal Year	(In Yen)		Ordinary Account	
	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure
1934-35	210,754,644	215,615,254	108,255,864	70,971,473
1935-36	196,497,423	180,086,912	107,457,241	78,877,884
1936-37	221,397,619	210,281,781	104,334,055	78,764,403
1937-38 (Budget)	239,728,780	238,455,096	124,657,897	97,942,072
1938-39 (Budget)	267,408,145	268,301,506	148,717,857	119,281,544
1939-40 (Budget)	256,394,000	256,003,000	132,108,000	101,348,000
1940-41 (Budget)	386,871,230	386,871,230	143,254,000	143,254,000
1941-42 (Budget)	406,776,539	406,776,539	127,440,000	127,440,000
Fiscal Year	Enterprises		Others	
	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure
1934-35	94,383,118	89,649,688	8,115,662	54,994,093
1935-36	81,370,835	36,590,431	7,669,347	64,618,597
1936-37	103,684,809	49,474,800	13,378,755	82,042,578
1937-38 (Budget)	97,501,889	61,983,377	17,568,994	78,529,647
1938-39 (Budget)	102,993,656	67,769,892	15,696,632	81,250,070
1939-40 (Budget)	95,114,000	67,783,000	29,172,000	86,872,000
1940-41 (Budget)	243,617,230	243,617,230	—	—
1941-42 (Budget)	279,336,539	279,336,539	—	—

CHAPTER XXXIX

FIVE BIG CITIES

OSAKA CHAMBER OF COMMERCE & INDUSTRY

OSAKA, NIPPON



President: DR. Y. KATAOKA
 Vice-President: MR. C. YUKAWA
 Vice-President: MR. M. SUGI
 Director: MR. K. HAMANO

*The City of Osaka is the Commercial
and Industrial Center of Nippon*

Enquiries regarding merchandise made in
Osaka will be promptly attended to.

CHAPTER XXXIX

FIVE BIG CITIES

OSAKA

General

Geographical Position The city of Osaka was founded 1,600 years ago and is situated approximately in the center of Japan proper, near the eastern entrance of the Inland Sea with easy access to the Pacific Ocean, while on the other sides extend the fertile plains in the valley of the Yodo River. The city of Kyoto, the ancient capital of Japan, is situated 43 kilometers to the northeast, and the city of Kobe lies 32 kilometers to the west. The River Yodo runs through the city, and with the numerous canals that connect with it affords excellent transportation facilities by water. The Yodo rises in Lake Biwa, the largest fresh water lake in Japan, and branches off into the Shin Yodogawa, Okawa, Dojmagawa, Tosaborigawa, Ajikawa, Kizugawa and the Shirinashigawa, which in turn connect with numerous

canals, the most famous being the Dotombori Canal.

Area The area of the city of Osaka is 187.37 square kilometers which means it ranks third so far as the area is concerned exceeded by Tokyo and Kyoto, but in point of population it is the largest, next only to Tokyo. Its city limits were extended twice in its history, the first time in 1897 and the second in 1925. The city is divided into 15 ku (wards) which are: Kita, Nishi, Minami, Higashi, Konohana, Minato Taisho, Tennoji, Naniwa, Nishiyodogawa, Higashiyodogawa, Higashinari, Asahi, Sumiyoshi, and Nishinari.

Population The census population of Osaka was 3,252,340 on October 1, 1940, an increase of 262,474 or 8.7 per cent over the figures of 1935 census. The comparison of the last 6 years follow:

October 1,	Population, 1935-1940			
	Men	Women	Total	Households
1935 (Census)	1,594,151	1,395,716	2,989,866	630,232
1936	1,654,900	1,447,000	3,101,900	653,900
1937	1,715,100	1,497,900	3,213,000	677,800
1938	1,773,500	1,547,700	3,321,200	700,100
1939	1,812,900	1,581,300	3,394,200	—
1940 (census)	—	—	3,252,340	—

Each of the 15 ku (wards) is inhabited by a population of more than 100,000, with the Minato-ku 361,400, Higashinari-ku 372,500 and Sumiyoshi-ku, 348,900 among the largest.

The population of Japan could be dividable in 1935 between 22,666,307 (32.7%) of urban districts and 46,587,841 (67.3%) of rural districts and the population of Osaka was 13.2% of the entire urban population.

In 1938 births numbered 76,919 (23.2 per 1,000 of population) of which 39,649 were male and 37,270 female, a decrease of 10,225 (11.7%) and of 3.9% in the rate of birth in comparison with the previous year. In the same year deaths numbered 48,735 (14.7 per 1,000

of population) of which 26,103 were male and 22,632 female.

In the same year still-births totalled 5,075 (1.53 per 1,000 of population) of which male numbered 2,754 and female 2,228.

As for the causes of deaths, 96.4% were illness and 1.2% suicide. Of the diseases 13.0% were pneumonia and 12.8% tuberculosis.

Residents from Overseas Territories and Foreign Countries. Chosenese residing in Osaka at the end of 1937 were 234,188 (137,250 being men and 96,938 women), an increase of 9,439 over 1936. Taiwanese numbered 268 (173 being men and 95 women). Foreign nationals in 1939 run as follows: Man-

choukuo 93; China 2,207; British India 21; the United States 80; and others 96; totalling 2,498 and Chinese occupying 88%.

Industries

Osaka is an important industrial and

FACTORIES IN OSAKA AT THE END OF 1938

Principal Industries	No. of Factories	No. of Employees	Production (in ¥1,000)
Textile	1,591	25,879	189,025
Metallurgical	2,879	74,823	959,395
Machinery	4,013	102,395	617,688
Ceramics	371	13,370	53,111
Chemical	1,005	28,205	297,843
Milling and wood work	1,007	9,081	45,158
Printing and book binding	785	11,048	45,158
Foodstuffs	1,013	11,318	87,960
Gas and electric work	10	1,025	—
Miscellaneous	3,003	29,655	123,739
Total	15,677	316,799	2,541,680

Commerce

Business Companies At the end of 1939 there were 9,462 business companies domiciled in Osaka, an increase of 222 from the previous year. The aggregate paid-up capital amounted to ¥4,142,320,000 against ¥3,770,509,000 of the previous year, an increase of ¥371,811,000. Of these companies 4,689 (49%) were commercial companies and 4,196 (44%) industrial companies.

Banks At the end of 1938 there were 8 banks domiciled in Osaka, and 95 banks domiciled in cities other than Osaka were found represented in the city by their branches. The aggregate paid-up capital of the 8 Osaka banks was ¥167,075,000, the aggregate deposits ¥4,464,387,000 and advances ¥2,293,546,000. Bills cleared at the Osaka Clearance House in 1938 amounted to ¥28,535,903,000, an increase of 0.6% over 1937.

Exchanges In Osaka there are 4 exchanges, viz., Osaka Stock Exchange, Osaka Dojima Rice Exchange, Osaka Sanpin Exchange and Osaka Sugar Exchange. The Osaka Stock Exchange is a rival of the Tokyo Stock Exchange in the transaction of stocks. The Osaka Rice Exchange is the forerunner of rice exchange business in Japan. In the Osaka Sanpin Exchange were cotton yarn and raw cotton only could be transacted, in February 1938, artificial silk was admitted for the clearance

commercial center in Japan surpassed only by Tokyo excelling the latter in many respects. The aggregate 1938 production in all factories, excluding those where less than 5 operatives are employed, was valued at ¥2,541,680,000. Further particulars follow:

transaction. But the transaction of cotton yarn was stopped for a while since March 27, 1939.

The Osaka Sugar Exchange is operated upon membership basis, but the other three are joint stock companies of limited liability. Transactions made at the Osaka Stock Exchange in 1937 were valued at ¥15,886,705,000. Rice was transacted up to 27,889,000 koku for ¥918,602,000. Cotton yarns were contracted up to 10,710,000 bales valued at ¥2,680,049,000. Rayon was transacted for 1,416,000 bundles against ¥113,621,000. Sugar dealings were booked for 12,350,000 sacks valued at ¥249,826,000. Transactions made at any of these Osaka Exchanges in 1936 exceeded those in any of the 5 other big cities.

Warehouses At the end of 1937 stocks in all the warehouses belonging to the 7 leading warehousing companies were found to be 6,332,351 units valued at ¥190,137,000, stocks brought in during the year being 27,597,090 units valued at ¥871,014,000 and those taken away 26,300,310 units valued at ¥805,050,000.

Commodity Movements The aggregate quantity of commodities taken away from Osaka in 1937 was 15,863,000 tons for ¥5,436,889,000 and those brought into 27,539,000 tons for ¥5,243,506,000. The net result was the excess of influx in quantity by 11,676,

000 tons but the excess of out-going movements by ¥193,383,000. The following table shows this trend in the 5 classified leading commodities:

PRINCIPAL INCOMING & OUTGOING COMMODITIES

	1937		1938	
	Quantity (1,000 tons)	Value (¥1,000,000)	Quantity (1,000 tons)	Value (¥1,000,000)
Foodstuffs	956	217	2,878	582
Raw materials	3,678	555	13,236	738
Manufactures as raw materials	4,397	1,005	7,025	1,561
Finished manufactures	6,767	3,653	4,200	2,360
Others	64	10	200	34
Total	15,863	5,437	27,539	5,244

Central Wholesale Market The aggregate amount of sales made at the Osaka wholesale market in 1938 was valued at ¥100,447,000, the average daily sales being ¥286,993. This market was inaugurated in 1931, and it deals only in daily necessities of life such as fish, meat, eggs, vegetables and fruits, and there are 7 more central wholesale markets in the whole country.

Municipal Retail Markets There are 53 retail markets operated by the Municipality. Sales made at these muni-

cipal markets in the whole city of Osaka in 1938 totalled ¥24,298,289, an increase of ¥948,000 over 1937. The average monthly sales in 1938 resulted in ¥2,025,000 and the average daily sales showed ¥71,676.

Foreign Trade

The 1939 foreign trade returns of Osaka showed ¥1,034,351,000 in exports and ¥611,086,000 in imports, the excess of exports resulting in ¥423,265,000.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS BY KINDS AND COUNTRIES

1938 (In ¥1,000,000)		
Exports		
Kinds	Amount	Countries
Cotton tissues	243	Dutch East Indies (30) Manchoukuo (34) British India (42)
Cotton yarn	29	British India (14) Dutch East Indies (6) Manchoukuo (3)
Machinery	60	China (19) Kwantung L.T. (23) Manchoukuo (13)
Rayon tissues	37	Kwantung L.T. (16) Dutch East Indies (2) British India (1)
Iron manufactures	30	Kwantung L.T. (15) Manchoukuo (7) China (4)
Imports		
Kinds	Amount	Countries
Cotton and ginned cotton	104	U.S.A. (39) British India (20) Brazil (15)
Wool	16	Australia (10) South Africa (1) New Zealand (1)
Materials for oil yielding	12	Manchoukuo (5) China (5) Dutch East Indies (1)

FOREIGN TRADE OF OSAKA IN 1939 BY COUNTRIES

Countries	Exports		Imports	
	Amount	%	Amount	%
Manchoukuo	221,680	21.4	51,969	8.5
Kwantung L.T.	280,743	27.1	11,601	1.8
China	178,726	17.2	92,769	15.1
British India	96,810	9.3	37,766	6.1
Straits Settlements	4,775	0.4	9,234	1.5
Dutch East Indies	75,773	7.3	7,198	1.1

Countries	Exports		Imports	
	Amount	%	Amount	%
England	2,758	0.2	4,276	0.6
The United States	12,160	1.1	225,796	36.9
Egypt	3,394	0.3	16,501	2.6
Australia	10,693	0.9	10,260	1.6
Other countries	147,439	14.2	143,716	23.5
Total	1,034,351	100.0	811,086	100.0

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1940 the total road area of Osaka was 15,984 square km., 7.7% of the entire area of the city and the total road length was 2,668,321 meters. The total area of paved roads in 1939 was 6,421 sq. km. an increase of 2.2% compared with the previous year.

Rivers, Canals and Bridges Osaka may be called the Venice of Japan on account of its many canals, and to that fact it owes much of its development as a big commercial and manufacturing center. Rivers that run through the city number 12 and canals 4 which are serving the city as effective means of transportations. The total length of rivers in 1938 was 182,928 meters and the total number of bridges was 1,299 in the same year.

Tramway and Bus Lines At the end of March 1939 the business kilometerage of street tramways was 212 kilometers. The total number of passengers in 1939 was 358,606,000 (14% increase from 1938) and the total revenue ¥19,889,000 (14% increase from 1938). All tramway lines and some bus lines are operated by the Municipality.

The subway work was first started in 1930 and its operation between Shinsabashi and Umeda was inaugurated in 1933, and the line was extended southward from Shinsabashi to Namba in October 1935 and then from Namba to Tennoji in April 1938, the total business kilometerage being 7.5. The total number of passengers in 1938 was 23,575,000 with fares totalling ¥1,987,000. The subway lines are also operated by the city.

Suburban Electric Railways On March 31, 1939 there were 9 private companies operating suburban electric lines to various suburban points with a total kilometerage of 949 carrying 639,126,000 passengers, fares being ¥72,631,000.

These companies are the Nankai Railway Company, Hanshin Electric

Railway Company, Hanshin Express Railway Company, Keihan Electric Railway Company, Osaka Denki Kogyo Company, Sangu Electric Railway Company, Osaka Railway Company, Hansu Electric Railway Company.

Sea Transportation The Osaka Harbor is one of the three largest ports in Japan and steamships that entered the port in 1939 numbered 17,488 (14% decrease from 1938). Sail boats numbered 167,526 (7% decrease from 1938).

Airways Osaka is an important airway point in Japan. The Japan Airway Company is operating its regular airway passenger service with Osaka as a center-point, Tokyo to Osaka and Osaka to Fukuoka, thence to various points of Chosen and also southward to Taiwan. The Nippon Air Transport Institute is operating the airway service between Osaka and Beppu and between Osaka and Shirshama.

Education

On March 1, 1938, there were kindergartens and schools in Osaka totalling 1,015 against 941 of the previous year; teachers, professors and nurses numbering 16,898 against 15,885 of the previous year; and pupils and students 548,775 against 517,953 of 1937. Schools and kindergartens established by the Municipality numbered 537; schools alone established by the Prefecture and the Government 30; and private schools and kindergartens 448.

Kindergartens numbered 128 on March 1, 1938, children enrolled numbering 16,400 and nurses 560. Attendants in elementary schools totalled 371,500, on March 1, 1938, with their teachers numbering 7,374. Middle schools and schools of the same grade totalled 127, with pupils numbering 77,512. Institutions for higher and university education were 10 in number, faculties totalling 774 and students 8,017.

Furthermore, there were on March 1, 1938, Young Men's Schools number-

ing 356 in all, with teaching forces of 3,006 and pupils counting 48,289.

Educational expenditure of the Municipality for 1937 was ¥24,491,000 an increase of ¥3,272,000 (15.4%) over 1936. Of this expenditure for education 35.4% was for salaries.

Universities and colleges in Osaka are the Osaka Imperial University (governmental), the Osaka University of Commerce (municipal), Osaka Higher School (governmental), the Osaka School of Foreign Languages (governmental), the Kansai University (private), Naniwa Commercial College (private), Osaka Girls' School (prefectural), etc. At the end of March 1937 there were 12 libraries, 1 being under governmental maintenance, 6 under municipal maintenance and 5 of private ownership. In the governmental library there were 283,303 books on March 31, 1938.

Social Welfare Works

Relief of the Poor Since the institution by the Government in 1874 of the relief regulation, the municipality of Osaka has active interest in the relief of the poor, old-aged and deserted children. More recently it has undertaken to institute various social works directed for the prevention of poverty. In 1937 three municipal maternity homes received 5,766 expectant mothers of small means and births numbering 4,608 were obtained, still-births numbering 382.

Protection of Infants & Children At the end of 1937 there were 44 nurseries, 13 poor children educational homes; 8 blind and deaf protection homes; 10 minors protection houses; and 16 chil-

dren health consultation offices. Infants who were received in the 44 nurseries totalled 2,684.

Employment Exchanges The municipality also maintains 28 employment exchanges and 2 training places for workseekers. The employment exchanges gave work to 95,133 men and 17,531 women during 1937.

Medical Relief On March 31, 1938 there were 62 relief hospitals. The total number of patients treated in all the relief-hospitals was 4,492,165 (out-patients) and 15,010 (in-patients) in 1937.

Social Education Work In 1937 there were 19 institutes for the social education work, of which 8 were under municipal management. Protection of infants and children, assistance to advice-seekers on matters of health, law, etc. and holding of necessary lectures for social educational purposes etc. are the works that are being carried on by the 19 institutes.

Municipal Finance

The fiscal year 1941 budget was formulated, taking into consideration the need of meeting all that was urgent for the healthy expansion of the city and the promotion of the welfare of the citizens and it was balanced at ¥372,634,000, 5% increase each in revenue and expenditure compared with the previous year. The main items for which the expenditure was allotted cover the following: ¥22,581,000 for education work; and ¥14,571,000 for sanitation work.

The municipal loans aggregated ¥596,290,000 on May 31, 1938.

KYOTO

Kyoto, known in antiquity by the name of "Heian" (the city of peace), was for about a thousand years the metropolis of Japan. At the Restoration, the Emperor Meiji moved his capital to Tokyo, but Kyoto retained its position as a cultural center, and today it is looked upon as "the classic city" and the leader of culture in the western part of the country. The city, lying in what is called the Kyoto basin, is surrounded by many famous hills and mountains such as Arashiyama, Atago-yama, Kuramayama, Hietzan and Higashiyama. The area of the city is

288.65 square kilometers, the greatest length from N. to S. is a little over 26 kilometers and the greatest breadth is about 25 kilometers, the form being roughly rectangular. Osaka lies 43 kilometers to the southwest.

Boundaries The boundaries of the city have undergone considerable changes since 1888. At that date the first annexation of adjacent villages was made, a second extension was made in 1902 and a third in 1918. In 1929 three wards, Nakakyo-ku, Sakyo-ku, and Higashiyama-ku were newly added to

the city. In 1931 the last annexation was made and two more wards, Ukyo-ku and Fushimi-ku, were constituted.

Population The population grew from 717,100 in 1927, to 736,000 in 1928, to 755,200 in 1929, and due to the above mentioned extensions in the boundaries, was found in 1930, to be 952,397. On October 1, 1935 the total population of Kyoto was 1,080,593, the number of households being 224,663. According to the census taken on October 1, 1940, the population was 1,089,726, an increase of only 9,133 in the past 5 years.

Industry and Commerce

In 1938 the conditions of factories in Kyoto were as follows:

	Facto- ries	Opera- tives	Produc- tion (In yen)
Textile	1,471	29,670	101,039,000
Metallurgical	159	3,332	37,148,000
Machinery	292	14,004	55,355,000
Ceramics	75	1,775	6,301,000
Chemical	130	2,673	48,548,000
Caw milling & wood work	160	1,264	10,008,000
Printing & binding	107	1,661	7,493,000
Foodstuffs	332	4,327	37,943,000
Electric & gas	26	346	7,501,000
Miscellaneous	124	1,550	4,475,000
Total	2,876	60,702	316,111,000

PRODUCTION OF PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES IN 1938

(In yen)

Bleaching and dyeing	34,470,321
Textiles	78,082,761
Artistic bags, etc.	10,023,464
Spinning	16,954,462
Lacquer-ware	3,916,385
Soaps	5,876,465
Machinery	23,312,773
Ceramics	7,482,385
Metallics	25,769,586
Brewery	23,818,763
Total	229,763,365

Banking Statistics Figures concerning the banks in the city are quoted below:

At the end of	No. of Banks	Deposits	Loans
1932	88	453,702	156,344
1933	85	474,504	178,553
1934	80	494,295	208,386
1935	80	535,330	179,773
1936	71	680,692	185,964

Commercial and Industrial Corporations At the end of 1939 there were 2,529 companies in Kyoto. Their capital amounted to ¥452,289,000. Of the total number, 1,008 were industrial companies and 1,440 commercial companies.

Transportation

Municipal Tramways In 1940-41 the total length of the lines was 71.6 km. and carried 144,851,000 passengers, while the bus ran on 74.7 km. of the lines and carried 18,941,000.

State Railways In 1936-37 the number of passengers who moved through Kyoto and other seven stations in the city was 21,346,437.

Suburban Electric Railways On the north the Eizan Electric Railway extends from Demachi Bridge to Kurama and Mount Hiei; on the northwest the Arashiyama line starts Shijoomiya and goes to Arashiyama and connects with the Atago Electric line. To the south Kyoto is connected with Osaka and Nara by three electric railways, i.e. Keihan Electric, Shin (new) Keihan Electric and Nara Electric. The Keihan line extends to the east from the terminal of Sanjō to the city of Otsu by Lake Biwa.

Rivers, Water-Power Works

Rivers Almost all the rivers that meet in the Kyoto Basin, rise in the Tamba tableland. The Hozu River, which later changes its name into the Katsura River, touches the western side of the city; the Kamo River and the Takano River, rise in the southern part of the tableland, join together and flow across the city to empty into the Katsura River. The Uji River, starting from Lake Biwa, and the Katsura River meet in the southern suburbs of the city to form the Yodo River which flows south-westwards, through Osaka, into Osaka Bay.

Canal and Water-power Work The first Biwa Canal, completed in 1895 at the cost of ¥1,838,317, was designed for the conveyance of passengers and goods and for the supply of water power, while the second canal, completed lately at the cost of ¥4,477,805, supplies water for drinking, fire-brigades and for producing electricity, etc.

The waterworks were started in 1908 and 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 mentioned above and supplies water to 500,000 people. Further work, to cater to the needs of 200,000 people, is on the way. The supply in 1939-40 was 52,598,964 cubic meters to 165,604 households.

Education

Governmental and Prefectural: Kyoto

Imperial University, the Third Higher School, Kyoto Higher Industrial and Art School, Kyoto Higher Sericultural School, Kyoto Sangyo Koshujo (School of Sericulture).

Municipal schools: Kyoto Painting School.

Private schools: Ritsumeikan University, Doshisha University, Ryukoku University, Otani University, Shingonshu University, Buddhist School, Military Arts School.

NUMBER OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTES

(At the End of March 1940)

	No. Instruc- tors	Stu- dents
Kindergartens	62	204 5,612
Elementary schools	145	3,266 142,063
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	2	53 404
Girls' high schools	15	541 13,289
Middle schools	17	511 11,286
Technical schools	16	616 13,241
Normal schools	2	101 959

(October 1939)

	No. Instruc- tors	Stu- dents
Higher school	1	70 812
Colleges	13	390 5,246
Universities	6	555 8,010
Young Men's Schools	134	933 12,245
Miscellaneous schools	42	624 8,279

Libraries and Museums There are also in Kyoto other institutions for educational purposes as the Imperial Gift Museum, Kyoto Municipal Library, Kyoto Fine Arts Museum, and the Memorial Zoological Garden.

Shrines and Temples In 1939 the numbers of Buddhist temples and Shinto shrines for which Kyoto is

famous were 405 shrines, 356 preaching places of sectarian Shinto sects, 1,429 Buddhist temples, while Christian churches numbered 47.

Social Work

Conditions of social undertakings under municipal management in 1939-40 were:

	No. of Establishments		
Public markets	16	Sales account	¥2,758,876
Housing	5 places	No. of houses	357
Public baths	6 houses	Floorage (tsubo)	334.46
Labor exchanges (1938)	3	{ Cases handled	60,297
Lodging houses	1	{ Employed	16,348
Lunch-room	1	Capacity	200
Pawn shops	6	Meals (1938)	94,713
		Loans	¥535,943

Finance

The annual revenue and expenditure, both general and special, of Kyoto amounted to:

Fiscal Year	Revenue	Expendi- ture
	(In ¥1,000)	
1935-36	28,527	42,869
1936-37	30,608	43,945

Fiscal year	Revenue	Expendi- ture
1937-38	45,187	49,753
1938-39	63,797	63,797
1939-40 (Budget)	62,868	62,868
1940-41 (")	63,775	63,775
1941-42 (")	66,878	66,878

Municipal debts outstanding on March 31, 1940, totalled ¥66,594,475 or ¥56.57 per capita of population.

NAGOYA

Nagoya is situated in the very center of the main island. Facing Isé Bay on the south and bordered by the fertile plain of No-Bi on the north, the climate is always mild. Nagoya castle, with its famous golden dolphins, speaks of the glorious history of the city. Old and historically important as the city is, she fills today a more important role

than of old, for she is a distributing and industrial center for the middle part of Honshu, a role that will grow in importance as time goes on.

Area and Population

The increases of population and area during the past 11 years, 1930-1940, are shown in the following table:

On October 1,	Population	No. of Households	Area (sq. km.)
1930 (census)	907,404	190,379	150.733
1931	934,400	198,000	151.044
1932	961,800	203,700	151.044
1933	989,600	209,700	151.044
1934	1,017,700	215,600	151.044
1935 (census)	1,082,516	219,737	151.093
1936	1,119,500	231,200	151.210
1937	1,186,900	243,200	160.000
1938	1,224,100	252,900	160.000
1939	1,249,100	—	160.000
1940 (census)	1,328,084	—	160.000

Buildings Number of buildings at the end of 1938 was as follows:

Concrete buildings	361
Brick buildings	301
Wooden buildings	315,402
Others	10,638
Total	326,702

Commerce and Industry

Companies and Banks At the end of 1939 the number of business corporations in Nagoya was 3,101 with an aggregate paid-up capital ¥634,746,000, and that of banks 8. At the end of 1939 their deposits amounted to ¥999,546,000, outstanding loans to ¥481,086,000.

Domestic and Foreign Trade Foreign and home trade values in recent years were as follows:

	Exports	Imports
	(In yen)	
Home Trade		
1934	47,397,255	137,081,837
1935	57,205,175	149,122,814
1936	65,839,889	168,466,005
1937	80,242,407	215,705,847
1938	83,957,100	238,679,555
Foreign Trade		
1934	115,515,093	88,526,000
1935	129,478,126	95,528,520
1936	131,500,961	108,777,074
1937	147,909,395	148,328,796
1938	115,100,000	74,130,000
1939	144,872,000	76,705,000

Exports **Imports**
(In yen)

Totals of Home and Foreign Trades	Exports	Imports
1934	162,912,348	225,607,543
1935	186,683,301	244,651,334
1936	197,340,550	277,243,079
1937	228,151,802	364,034,643
1938	199,057,100	312,866,353

Exchanges Nagoya has three exchanges, i.e. the Stock Exchange, Rice Exchange and Cotton Yarn Exchange. In 1938, the turnover of the Stock Exchange was 20,451,000 shares long term transaction valued at ¥2,851,539,000. The Rice Exchange handled 2,188,000 koku (¥77,183,000) while the Cotton Yarn Exchange handled 477,930,000 bales.

Industry Commodities that are brought into city are foodstuffs and raw materials such as rice, sugar, timber, coal, ginned cotton, iron, wool, etc., while those sent out are mainly lumber, coal, cotton piecegoods, porcelain and pottery, beer, cement and other manufactures. Nagoya has been from olden times a famous place for porcelain and pottery and in 1939 the output totalled as much as ¥37,219,000. It is only since the growth of the cotton spinning industry in the city that the value of the annual output of pottery has been challenged. The total

production of the cotton spinning industry reached ¥183,926,000 in 1939. An equally significant development is that of the machine and tools. In 1939 the total output of the machine industry reached ¥429,546,000, an increase of 17.1

per cent as compared with the previous year.

Number of Factories and Production Number of factories and productions of various industries in 1939 follow:

Kind of Industries	Factories		Operatives		Output (In ¥1,000)	
	1938	1939	1938	1939	1938	1939
Textile	880	1,268	30,135	31,490	169,738	183,926
Metallic	631	743	12,365	16,680	75,936	115,944
Machine and tool	1,505	1,683	86,314	104,966	355,738	429,546
Pottery and porcelain	212	209	9,659	9,995	27,726	37,219
Chemical	189	187	6,019	6,785	65,350	71,402
Saw mills and wood works	765	722	7,390	9,197	38,098	48,397
Printing and bookbinding	246	220	2,703	2,750	11,747	15,271
Conestibles and beverages	515	570	4,711	5,885	63,575	83,010
Gas and electric	3	4	352	533	—	5,575
Others	917	542	6,164	4,380	55,478	34,761
Total	5,863	6,166	165,812	191,061	863,386	1,025,051

Transportation

Railways Lying as it does between Kyoto, the old capital, and Tokyo, the present capital, Nagoya is known as Chukyo (middle capital). It is an important intermediate city on the Tokaido highway. The Kwansai line, which starts from Osaka, passes through Nara and Miyé prefectures and connects at Nagoya with the main Tokaido line to Tokyo. The Chuo line, which runs through Gifu, Nagano, Yamanashi and other prefectures to Tokyo, has Nagoya as its other terminus. Nagoya is thus one of the most important railway centers of Japan. The railway station and the harbor are directly connected by rail and the importance of the city as a distributor of goods is thereby enhanced. There are 10 stations, viz., Nagoya, Nagoya-Minato, Atsuta, Chikusa, Ozoné, Satta, Shiratori, Maizuru, Sasajima, and Srikawaguchi. The annual passenger traffic passing through these 10 stations is estimated at about sixteen million persons, and goods traffic amounts to approximately four million tons. The city is provided with an extensive network of electric railway lines to connect with outlying districts. Since 1935 the city bought several private electric railways, and now only two private lines are left, i.e. the Seto Electric Railway Co. and the Nagoya Electric Rail-

way Co., and most of electric car business is run by the municipality, the total kilometerage open to business being 84.5 kilometers.

At the end of 1939 the total length of roads in Nagoya extended to 3,562 kilometers, the number of bridges 724.

Harbor Works Nagoya has a splendid harbor well protected by Chita Peninsula from typhoons. Construction of the harbor was started in 1896 and the third stage of the entire plan was completed in 1928 after a total outlay of ¥15,490,000. The area of the wharves is 1.52 square kilometers, with anchoring space for thirty-eight steamers of ten thousand tons or so. The fourth stage of construction was undertaken at an estimated expenditure of ¥20,120,000. When the work is finished the area of the wharves will be increased to 2.23 square kilometers and there will be anchoring space for fifty-two steamers of ten thousand tons. At present direct trade is carried on with the American continent, Europe, China, the South Sea Islands, Australia and Africa. The number of ships which entered the Nagoya harbor in 1938 was 117,472 with an aggregate tonnage of 16,103,854.

Education and Social Work

Social Work Social undertakings in the city in 1937-38, were as follows:

	Establishment	Beneficiaries
Lodging houses	7	152,291
Public pawnshops	5	{ Loans ¥266,080 Persons 53,195
Labor exchanges	10	Cases handled 433,411
Public markets	14	Amount of sale ¥2,920,157

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS

(March 1939)

Kind of Schools	No.	Instructors	Pupils
Imperial University	1	69	388
Higher School	1	47	619
Colleges	7	248	2,351
Elementary schools	120	3,462	171,324
Middle schools	11	—	8,974
Girls' high schools	14	—	10,371
Business schools	31	—	10,305
Normal schools	2	—	888
Young Men's schools	128	3,451	42,758
Kindergartens	42	166	4,208

Total public educational expenditure including others ¥8,328,876.

Finance
Revenue and Expenditure The annual revenue and expenditure of Nagoya

city has shown a marked increase in late as it is clear by the following table:

Year	Revenue ¥	Total Expenditure ¥
1936-37	99,418,901	94,212,486
1937-38	86,839,151	73,838,716
1938-39	65,744,570	51,022,070
1939-40 (Budget)	55,302,997	55,302,997
1940-41 (")	65,047,000	65,047,000
1941-42 (")	74,426,000	74,426,000

Municipal Loans At the end of March 1939, the total indebtedness of

Nagoya city amounted to ¥111,984,833 or ¥442.72 per capita of household.

YOKOHAMA

General

History Yokohama, in the Bunroku Era, about 1587, was a hamlet of twelve families and by the time it became an open port, July 1, 1859, it was only a small fishing village of one hundred families or 350 people. The real growth began with the arrival of the foreigners. The commercial treaties Japan entered into with the United States of America, the Netherlands, Russia, Great Britain, and France stipulated that Kanagawa should be an open port, because it stood on the open harbor nearest Tokyo, then known as Yedo and the seat of the Shogunate Government, but

as that village was already very crowded the Tokugawa Shogunate opened the village of Yokohama instead.

In the beginning four streets were laid out, but as more and more Western, Chinese and Japanese merchants gathered there the area was quickly extended. The population in 1877 was 30,000, five years later it had grown to 52,000, and five years after that there were more than 94,000 in the town. At the end of September 1932, the population was 661,500. Yokohama received the status of a municipality on April 1, 1889. In 1901, the once thriving port of Kanagawa and other adjoining villages and towns were absorbed

by the newly risen Yokohama, and in 1911 and 1927, further extensions took place.

Location Yokohama is situated in the south-eastern part of Honshu, the main island of Japan, on the western shore of the Bay of Tokyo about 22 miles from the entrance to the bay, in latitude 35° 27' N., longitude 139° 38' E. It is the seat of government of Kanagawa prefecture, of which it is also the largest population center. It is surrounded by hills on which the better class residential districts are located.

Area and Population At the end of March 1937 the area of Yokohama was 173.18 square kilometers. The population of Yokohama was 968,091 on October 1, 1940.

POPULATION

October 1,	Men	Women	Total	Households
1930 (Census)	321,415	298,891	620,306	135,929
1935 (")	360,363	343,927	704,290	148,545
1936	377,200	361,200	738,400	155,785
1937	387,500	372,200	759,700	—
1938	395,800	381,700	777,500	—
1939	440,000	426,200	866,200	—
1940 (Census)	503,199	464,892	968,091	—

Foreign Residents Foreign population in Yokohama numbered 4,602 at the end of December 1937, against 5,484 in 1936, the decrease being 882. Chinese increased by 169 during the same period, Hindu 78, German 45, American 19 and English 18.

Commerce

Banks At the end of December 1936, the number of banks in Yokohama including branches of those banks having their head offices in cities other than Yokohama counted 16 of which 1 were foreign banks. The banks which are carrying on foreign exchange business extensively are Yokohama Specie Bank, Dai-ichi Bank (branch), Industrial Bank of Japan (branch), Bank of Taiwan (branch), Bank of China & Shanghai Banking Corporation (branch), Bank of India, Australia & China (branch) and National City Bank of New York (branch). The banks domiciled in Yokohama numbered 5 in December 1936, the most powerful one being the Yokohama Specie

Bank, Ltd. The 16 banks showed the following accounts in aggregate as outstanding in 1939. Aggregated capital ¥108,100,000, reserves ¥145,830,000, and deposits ¥619,863,000. 12 out of the 16 banks were on Dec. 31, 1936, member banks of the Yokohama Clearance House.

Companies. At the end of 1939 there were 1,638 commercial and industrial companies in Yokohama of which 960 were for trade and 557 for industries.

Warehouses At the end of 1936 stocks in all warehouses in Yokohama were balanced at ¥79,465,634 as against \$113,368,674 at the end of 1935. Stocks stored in during 1936 were valued at \$62,900,988 and those withdrawn ¥67,677,236.

Foreign Trade Goods exported from the port of Yokohama for foreign countries in 1936 amounted to ¥950,977 and goods imported in the same year were valued at ¥929,127, the adverse balance being ¥21,850.

FOREIGN TRADE THROUGH YOKOHAMA
(In ¥1,000)

	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of
1932	400,659	355,358	756,017	ex. 45,031
1933	500,888	456,354	957,242	" 44,534
1934	490,201	537,316	1,027,517	im. 47,115
1935	626,017	616,588	1,242,605	ex. 9,429
1936	678,323	687,012	1,365,335	im. 8,689
1937	800,002	1,047,600	1,847,602	im. 247,598
1938	681,063	877,981	1,559,044	im. 196,918
1939	950,977	929,127	1,880,104	ex. 21,850

EXPORTS

(In ¥1,000)

Articles	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Wheat flour	27,173	14,112	23,151	30,890	30,075
Canned crab	18,362	15,753	18,525	15,154	29,671
Raw silk	283,771	296,601	307,590	279,134	386,512
Silk crepe	17,550	13,001	14,578	9,988	6,631
Electric lamps	5,763	8,330	8,802	5,221	799
Toys	17,945	20,285	23,659	13,815	13,917

IMPORTS

(In ¥1,000)

Articles	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Wheat	30,789	21,912	20,624	5,382	3,084
Crude oil & heavy oil	47,751	63,797	—	—	—
Rubber	11,944	17,781	22,695	21,168	22,972
Cotton	52,210	50,632	55,467	29,166	37,737
Wool	40,715	49,169	—	—	—
Coal	11,785	12,303	15,051	14,495	17,164
Automobiles & parts	20,581	20,020	—	—	—
Lumber	14,483	16,861	19,278	9,392	9,932
Soya beans	13,393	13,596	18,731	19,648	29,035

TRADE BOATS ENTERED YOKOHAMA DURING 1937 AND 1938

Year	Number of Ships	Tonnage
1937		
Japanese	1,588	6,030,000
Foreign	1,384	6,269,000
Total	2,972	12,299,000
1938		
Japanese	1,301	8,521
Foreign	1,219	9,150
Total	2,520	17,671

Industries

Factories and Production At the end

of 1938 there were 178 factories for the spinning industry, 107 for the metallic industry, 234 for the machine and tool manufacturing industry and 89 for the chemical industry, all showing expansion compared with 1937. Both the number of workers and the amount of production also showed a corresponding increase, workers increasing from 64,920 to 77,432 and production from ¥689,142,403 to ¥786,612,298, an increase of 17 per cent.

FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION IN YOKOHAMA

(In 1938)

Kind	Factories	Workers	Production (In yen)
Spinning	178	6,395	24,002,184
Metallic	107	9,115	116,021,079
Machine & tool	234	42,906	326,522,774
Ceramics	18	2,458	13,524,239
Chemical	89	7,985	203,557,272
Wood works	75	1,254	6,428,750
Printing & book binding	58	656	2,224,800
Commodities	112	3,849	62,008,283
Gas and electricity	2	294	—
Miscellaneous	170	2,490	32,262,902
Total	1,044	77,432	786,612,298

Note: This table excludes small factories operated by less than 5 workers.

Transportation

Ships The total tonnage of vessels

that entered the port of Yokohama in 1937 was 12,299,000, and in 1938 was 17,671,000. Details in 1938 follow:

SHIPS ENTERED AND LEFT THE PORT OF YOKOHAMA IN 1938

	Clearance		Entrance	
	No. of Vessels	Tonnage	No. of Vessels	Tonnage
Total	72,132	29,987,669	72,071	29,896,663
S. S.	Foreign lines	3,009	2,970	19,927,154
	Domestic lines	3,034	3,059	7,637,830
	Others	1,940	80,711	1,941
Small S. S.	223	2,933	224	2,946
Motor boats	24,588	644,111	24,540	644,133
Sailing boats	Foreign lines	15	11	23,366
	Domestic lines	6,413	220,984	6,411
Lighters	32,930	1,362,866	32,915	1,360,786
1935	67,377	29,080,389	66,860	29,073,880
1934	66,176	26,294,088	65,989	26,396,672

Passengers Passengers by ocean-going vessels who landed and called at Yokohama in 1938 totalled 47,136 of whom 15,415 were those whose sea journeys ended at Yokohama and 31,721 were those who just called.

Below are given the nationalities of the passengers in 1938:

Nationalities	Number	
	Those who landed	Those who called
Japanese	12,261	6,388
Chinese	1,823	15,974
British	2,673	3,331
French	121	118
German	422	396
American	4,809	12,053
Other foreigners	1,280	4,890
Total	23,409	43,150

Railway Passengers In 1938 the Government railway passengers who left and arrived at Yokohama, Sakuragicho, Tsurumi, Higashi-kanagawa and Hodogaya stations numbered 52,369,890.

Electric Tramways Tramways were first installed in July 1904, by a private company and later were purchased by the municipality. There are now over 92 kilometers of lines and carried 68,978,000 persons in 1939. There are five private tramway companies attending to the suburban services, viz., the Keihin Electric Tramway, the Tokyo-Yokohama Electric Ry., Tsurumi-Rinko Ry. Co., Shonan-Electric Ry., and the Jinchu Electric Ry. The number of passengers of these private tramways for 1939 was 74,527,000.

Education

Schools and Colleges At the end of March 1940, there were 100 elementary schools maintained by the municipality. The number of children at these schools was 138,124.

There were 22 kindergartens with 1,239 children.

The number of middle grade, higher, and special schools and their pupils follows:

	No.	Students or pupils
Middle schools	6	4,606
Girls' high schools	8	6,067
Technical schools	13	6,715
Young people's schools	41	8,459
Blind, deaf and mute schools	3	195
Colleges	5	3,373
Prefectural normal school	1	230
Miscellaneous schools	41	6,929

Libraries The library statistics as of March 1, 1938 were as follows:

	No.	Books	Visitors
Prefectural	1	10,012	1,580
Municipal	1	42,515	260,547
Private	2	22,560	10,654
Total	4	75,087	272,781

Religion At the end of 1939 the number of Shinto shrines was 224. Buddhist temples 283, and Christian churches 45.

Social Works In 1936 the conditions of social works in Yokohama were as

follows:

	Establishments	Beneficiaries	Establishments	Beneficiaries
Employment exchanges	4	372,153	Lodging houses	2
Lunch halls	5	348,670	Poor relief	17,508
Pawnshops	12	46,568		
Dwelling houses	2,014	¥713,885		
			Finance	
			Revenue and Expenditure	
			The estimated revenue and expenditure of the city of Yokohama for the past 4 years were as follows:	
	Total	Ordinary Account	Enterprises	Miscellaneous
		(In yen)		
Revenue				
1938-39	57,022,000	18,117,000	—	—
1939-40	55,529,000	15,799,000	—	—
1940-41	59,730,000	16,426,000	43,303,000	—
1941-42	65,877,000	18,486,000	47,391,000	—
Expenditure				
1938-39	57,022,000	18,117,000	—	—
1939-40	55,529,000	15,799,000	—	—
1940-41	59,730,000	16,426,000	43,303,000	—
1941-42	65,877,000	18,486,000	47,391,000	—

In 1940-41 budget of Yokohama the total amount of ordinary expenditure was estimated at ¥16,426,000. Itemized details follow:

Items	Amount in yen	Percentage
Municipal office	1,595,000	9.8
Education	4,515,000	28.0
Industry	527,000	3.2
Hygiene	828,000	4.9
Social works	915,000	5.6

Items	Amount in yen	Percentage
Public works	1,984,000	12.0
Loans and others	6,061,000	38.1

Note: The total differs from that given in the preceding table because of some overlappings with other accounts.

Bonded Indebtedness At the end of 1936, the total bonded indebtedness of Yokohama city amounted to ¥176,968,346.

KOBE

General

Located between the Osaka Bay and the Rokko mountain range, Kobe covers an area of 83.06 square kilometers, stretching 14.4 kilometers from east to west and 13.5 kilometers from north to south. With a population of 964,000 including about 8,030 foreigners, Kobe is one of the six largest cities in Japan. It is the "City of Wonders," as an international trade center in the world. It ranks second in the revenue of bill-of-lading freight, London coming first.

Before the Restoration of Meiji in 1868, there were less than a thousand houses in Kobe, fishermen's village. In 1867 Hyogo harbor (Hyogo village) was first opened to foreign trade and then the foreign settlement came into existence near the East Recreation Ground in Kobe village and Kobe harbor has

since been gradually turned to advantage. Since then Kobe has increased in population. Accordingly, Kobe village grew into the "Town" of Kobe in 1863. Hyogo and Sakamoto villages being annexed to it in 1879, the city of Kobe was born in 1889. Recently neighboring villages being annexed again, Kobe has become a "Prosperous Greater Kobe."

Geographical Position and Area The city of Kobe lies on the southwest coast of Hyogo prefecture in the Kansai district of Honshu, situated at 135° 5' 15" E. long. and 34° 38' 45" N. lat. The greatest length from west to east is 14.47 kilometers and the greatest breadth from north to south is 13.5 kilometers, the total area being 83.06 square kilometers, of which about 80 per cent is occupied by mountains and hills, and

(the rest by farms and the city proper. The form of the city is like a long band, and is divided into eight wards known as Nada, Fukiai, Kobe, Hyogo, Soto, Minato, Hayashida, and Suma.

Population The following are the results of the national census for the year 1935 and 1940:

1935: Families	198,018
Population	912,179
1940: Population	967,234

Foreign Residents The total number of foreign residents in Kobe was 7,445 at the end of 1939.

Houses With the exception of public and municipal buildings and the houses of foreign residents, the total number of houses in the city was registered as 86,615 at the end of 1927, among which one-storied houses numbered 44,473, two-storied ones 41,185, and three-storied ones 957. There were 84,507 buildings of wood, 98 per cent of the total number; of brick 1,651; of concrete 402; and of stone 11.

Waterworks The waterworks were at first designed in 1909 to supply 3 cu. ft. per capita a day to 250,000 inhabitants, but the plan was later altered to provide for 100,000 families, 25 cu. ft.

a day. The work lasted until 1923 and cost ¥12,858,720, of which state grants amounted to ¥3,403,000. In 1926, the municipality increased its water supply by laying pipes in the eastern suburbs to draw water from the Sengari pond behind Mt. Rokko. In 1935 the city supplied 52,803,380 cubic meters to 167,576 households and other uses.

Police Stations The total number of police stations in the city at the end of 1940 was 11. Policemen numbered 1,808.

Commerce and Industry

Movement of Commodities The movement of commodities through the Kobe harbor and railway stations in 1934 within Japan proper and Chosen was as follows:

	Value (in yen)	
Tonnage	Japan	Chosen
(in 1,000 tons) proper		
Outgoing	2,436	477,315,042
Incoming	4,916	357,710,973
Total	7,352	835,026,015

Foreign Trade The grand total of exports and imports in 1939 reached ¥1,646,443,000, and Kobe stood first among all ports open for foreign trade in Japan proper in recent years, but it was beaten by Yokohama in 1939.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF KOBE

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Exports	Imports	Grand total	Excess of
1932	499,303	535,647	1,034,950	im. 36,344
1933	650,539	641,122	1,291,661	ex. 9,418
1934	790,601	791,544	1,582,145	im. 943
1935	910,899	821,641	1,732,540	im. 89,258
1936	970,784	958,220	1,929,004	ex. 12,564
1937	1,107,552	1,119,515	2,227,067	im. 11,963
1938	774,038	706,257	1,480,295	ex. 67,781
1939	959,909	686,534	1,646,443	ex. 273,375

Warehousing At the end of 1936 number of principal warehouse companies in Kobe was 9 and the aggregate floor area covered by the warehouses was 146,803 tsubo. In 1936, goods received by these warehouses were valued at ¥713,410,635, while ¥682,664,177 worth of goods was delivered. Goods stored at the year end amounted to ¥127,696,298.

Electricity and Gas At the end of 1937 the number of electric lamps in the city was 1,182,502 and electric mo-

tors 117,422 k.w.

In 1934, gas was supplied to 138,448 families with 347,633 spouts.

Banks and Business Firms At the end of 1939 the total number of banks and branches was 60, in exception of savings banks. The deposits of ordinary banks and branches outstanding at the end of 1939 amounted to ¥10,307,246,000 and advances and loans ¥8,013,605,000.

At the end of 1939 the number of companies was 3,166 with the authorized

capital amounting to ¥1,218,194,000.

Factories and their Workers At the end of 1939 there were 1,896 factories. The total number of workers was 103,939 and the total production was valued at ¥810,535,000.

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1940 the total length of roads in the city reached 789,425 m.

Sea Transportation In 1939 the number of steam ships which entered the Kobe harbor was 23,749 with 40,230,000 gross tons.

Of the total number 20,031 were vessels calling home waters and 3,718 on international courses.

VESSELS ENTERED KOBE

	Number of vessels	Tonnage
1934	97,170	49,481,808
1935	105,642	52,359,980
1936	107,042	32,389,306
1937	104,279	30,531,245

TRADE VESSELS ENTERED KOBE

	Number	Tonnage
1934	4,145	15,649,444
1935	4,421	16,752,490
1936	4,603	17,289,371
1937	4,254	16,266,031
1938	3,603	23,060,000
1939	3,718	23,470,000

Railways In 1936 the total number of passengers who left from and arrived at 12 stations in Kobe was 53,334,000.

Electric Tramways The tramways within the city limits are operated by the municipality, the total open mileage being 32.578 km. at the end of 1940. Attending to the suburban service, there are private companies, the Sanyo Electric Tramway (Hyogo-Himeji), Han-Shin Electric Ry., (Kobe-Osaka), Han-Shin Express Electric Ry., (Kobe-Osaka), and the Shin-Yu Electric Railway (Kobe-Arima). Han-Shin Kokudo Ry. was laid along the national road between Osaka and Kobe in 1927 and opened business in 1932, forming a parallel line to the state railway.

Education, Religion and Social Works

Schools In March 1941 the number

of municipal elementary schools was 72 with 2,737 teachers and 125,926 pupils. Middle schools numbered 32, of which 9 were prefectural schools and 17 were private schools, with 1,011 teachers and 25,609 students in 1940. Kindergartens numbered 42 with 180 nurses and 4,010 children. Young people's schools numbered 49, of which 13 were private schools, with 579 teachers and 17,178 students. There is a government university of commerce and a technical college. Above these schools there are 40 miscellaneous business schools with 475 teachers and 9,113 students. Budget for educational expenditure for 1937 was ¥11,781,231.

Shrines, Temples and Churches At the end of 1939 there were 99 Shinto shrines, 153 Buddhist temples, 388 Tenrikyo and Shinto churches, 284 Buddhist halls, and 57 Christian churches.

Social Welfare Work At the end of 1937 municipal establishments for social welfare work were as follows:

Markets, 11; cheap eating-houses, 6; employment exchanges, 4; public nurseries, 2; lodging-houses, 4; child consultation office, 1; municipal dwelling-houses, 2; municipal pawnshops, 3; relief houses, 2; peoples' hospitals, 3; sanatorium, 1.

Finance

Budget for 1941 of Kobe was ¥76,447,000. It shows a decrease of ¥1,140,000 compared with the previous year. The revenue and expenditure of the municipality for the past five years follow (in yen):

	Revenue	Expenditure
1937-38	84,641,000	62,254,000
1938-39 (budget)	63,292,000	63,292,000
1939-40 (")	72,574,000	72,574,000
1940-41 (")	77,587,000	77,587,000
1941-42 (")	76,447,000	76,447,000

The total amount of the city loans standing at the end of May 1937, was ¥114,739,200. The loans and the sum borrowed in cash in the fiscal year 1936-37 was ¥125,752,000 while the sum refunded was ¥11,013,400.

CHAPTER XL CHOSEN (KOREA)



President
MASASUKE ITANI



Managing Directors:
YOSIKUMA KAWASAKI
YASUSADA YOSIOKA
SYUITI MATUMURA

WORKS: SHIPBUILDING and ENGINEERING WORKS
PLATE and SHEET MILLS
STEEL WORKS

KAWASAKI HEAVY INDUSTRIES LIMITED

HEAD OFFICE: KOBE, JAPAN

CAPITAL ¥ 200,000,000

CHAPTER XL

CHOSEN (KOREA)

General Description

Chosen, a peninsula extending southward from the north-eastern side of the continent of Asia, is washed on its eastern and western coasts by the Sea of Japan and the Yellow Sea respectively, and borders Manchoukuo and the Maritime Province of Siberia on the north, from which it is separated by the two rivers, the Yalu or Oryokko and the Tumen. Between the upper waters of these two rivers there is a mountain range which separates and turns them in opposite directions, the former flowing through Antung into the Yellow Sea. On the south the peninsula faces the Island of Kyushu and the western coast of Honshu, across the Chosen Straits, with the Island of Tsushima and Iki about midway. It lies between the parallels of 33°06' and 43° north and 124°11' and 130°56' east, having a total area of 220,788 square kilometers which is about one-third of the area of the whole empire.

Surrounded thus by sea on three sides, Chosen has a long coast line extending in all to 8,674 kilometers. It has many good harbors on the south and west coasts, such as Fusan, Relsui, Moppo, Jinsen and Chinnampo. The tides rise far higher on the west coast than on the east, the difference between the highest and the lowest tide-mark on the former reaching over 10 meters, while on the east coast near Gensan it is less than half a meter. The country is as a whole mountainous, the eastern side steep and rocky, but sloping down more gently on the western side toward fertile plains traversed by large rivers such as the Daido, Kan, KIn and Rakuto. The northern half of the peninsula is comparatively level and fit for agricultural work, whilst the southern half is rich in timber and minerals indicating good possibilities for future industrial development. The climate in Chosen is continental running to extremes of both heat and cold, the spring and autumn seasons being very short but highly delightful. One needs hardly add that the climate is decidedly

rigorous in the north and milder in the south. Moreover, the eastern coast has on the whole a milder climate than the western, the average temperature being some 2° C. higher, except in the middle of summer.

Flora and Fauna Plants in Chosen are classified into 160 families, 883 genus, 3,070 species and 550 varieties. Of these five genus and 550 species are peculiar to the country. The pine, larch, spruce, juniper, oak, willow, maple, alder and birch trees are found over the whole peninsula, the spruce, larch and birch mainly in the north, and the pine, oak, maple and alder in the south. Large specimens of old sophora, ginko biloba and spruce are also scattered over the country, especially in the central district; they are remnants of ancient forests and old temple sites. The poplar trees of Chosen type exist, but the Lombardy poplar and the acacia have been imported and both are found widely scattered as aids against erosion. Flowering shrubs such as azalea, cherry lilac, syringa and spiraea are numerous and grow profusely on hill sides. The beech, maple and paulownia found on Dagelet Island are peculiar to that place. The soil and climate of Chosen have proved most suitable for the cultivation of fruit trees, and large orchards for imported apples, pears, peaches and vines have been set up. The walnut, chestnut, pinenut and persimmon are indigenous and yield good crops.

Fauna of Chosen is of the Palaearctic geographical distribution. Animals commonly found are the bear, deer, wildcat, wolf, hare, weasel, tiger and leopard, (the number of the last two is now much reduced). Native horses are small, but strong and wiry; the cattle are large and useful and are widely distributed. Among birds are the crow, magpie, jay, kite, heron, crane, oriole, lark, sparrow, robin, tit, pheasant, and quail, while the goose, bustard, duck, teal, swan and snipe are migratory, passing Chosen in spring and in autumn. The variety of aquatic

animals is extensive, comprising the mackerel, sardine, herring, sea bream, plaice, cod, pollack, whale, oyster, crab and lobster. Various kinds of snakes are found in the country, but few are venomous. Insect life has been well studied, as many are harmful to trees

and crops. Among butterflies over 200 species have been identified.

Population

According to the report of the Ministry for Overseas Affairs, the population of Chosen was as follows:

POPULATION OF CHOSEN

1935-1940

At year end	Total	Male		Female		Japanese		Per Household	Men to 100 Women
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female		
1935	21,891,180	11,116,144	10,775,036	299,760	283,668				
1936	22,047,836	11,205,940	10,841,896	313,211	295,778				
1937	22,355,485	11,352,056	11,003,429	322,412	307,100				
1938	22,633,751	11,489,113	11,144,638	323,187	310,101				
1939	22,800,647	—	—	—	—	650,104			
1940	24,326,327	12,266,230	12,060,097	—	—	—			
At year end	Chosenese		Foreigners		Per Household	Men to 100 Women			
	Male	Female	Male	Female			Household	Men to 100 Women	
1935	10,769,916	10,478,948	46,468	12,420	5.28	103.2			
1936	10,842,097	10,531,475	50,632	16,649	5.28	103.4			
1937	10,997,432	10,685,423	32,212	10,906	5.29	103.2			
1938	11,128,074	10,822,542	37,852	11,995	5.29	103.1			
1939	22,098,310	—	52,233	—	5.30	—			
1940	—	—	—	—	—	101.7			

BIRTHS AND DEATHS

	Births	Per 1,000 of Population	Deaths	Per 1,000 of Population	Natural Increase	Per 1,000 of Population
1933	590,035	29.20	392,668	19.43	197,367	9.77
1934	615,579	30.01	398,482	19.43	217,096	10.58
1935	625,979	29.46	421,444	19.83	204,535	9.63
1936	615,381	28.79	424,063	19.84	191,318	8.95
1937	628,205	28.97	386,733	17.84	241,472	11.13
1938	792,975	36.13	384,179	17.50	408,796	18.63

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE GROUPS

(1935 Census)

Ages	Total	Unmarried		Married		Parted by Death or Divorce	
		Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
	22,899,038	6,074,011	4,957,199	5,016,503	5,194,592	572,143	1,084,590
0	894,077	454,876	439,201	—	—	—	—
1	768,601	389,027	379,574	—	—	—	—
2	744,578	376,430	368,148	—	—	—	—
3	720,987	367,380	353,607	—	—	—	—
4	631,481	320,743	310,738	—	—	—	—
5	667,042	339,153	327,889	—	—	—	—
6	600,852	306,740	293,913	—	—	—	—
7	596,437	305,379	291,058	—	—	—	—
8	583,305	298,735	284,557	1	12	—	—
9	509,734	263,651	245,959	50	74	—	—
10	554,189	284,330	268,960	269	623	1	6

Ages	Total	Unmarried		Married		Parted by Death or Divorce	
		Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
11	520,785	266,516	252,024	611	1,619	6	9
12	491,711	249,822	236,405	1,673	3,753	23	35
13	522,730	263,414	241,718	4,937	12,493	70	98
14	499,903	247,542	210,338	11,355	30,284	153	231
15	446,062	211,137	158,170	19,250	56,646	289	570
16	418,899	185,457	109,260	30,541	91,992	637	1,112
17	408,941	163,091	66,952	46,923	129,207	1,008	1,760
18	454,505	159,446	41,752	71,254	177,624	1,851	2,578
19	432,373	131,215	22,721	87,674	185,061	2,593	3,109
20	391,221	100,905	13,956	95,555	174,562	3,082	3,161
21	423,073	96,117	11,124	119,532	188,538	4,086	3,676
22	395,732	70,702	8,201	127,663	180,915	4,519	3,732
23	372,337	49,065	5,495	133,861	174,631	5,267	4,018
24	404,498	40,699	2,953	158,470	191,001	6,797	4,578
25	338,378	25,779	1,948	138,690	161,709	6,106	4,146
26	368,511	21,364	1,541	157,854	175,641	7,180	4,931
27	337,358	14,826	1,100	150,156	159,434	6,897	4,945
28	299,703	10,669	874	133,908	142,578	6,621	5,053
29	344,499	8,724	705	158,992	161,949	8,059	6,070
30	299,689	5,784	482	139,886	140,827	6,895	5,815
31	242,352	4,486	395	113,443	112,751	6,108	5,169
32	264,638	4,056	382	124,539	122,816	6,669	6,177
33	261,871	3,558	342	123,501	120,804	6,842	6,824
34	279,146	3,424	271	132,089	127,586	7,969	7,807
35	283,894	2,690	258	135,669	128,598	7,910	8,769
36	251,116	2,570	196	118,335	114,014	7,318	8,683
37	286,448	2,537	233	136,062	127,920	8,870	10,826
38	274,533	2,271	180	130,039	121,079	9,030	11,934
39	264,031	2,066	184	125,030	114,047	9,809	12,895
40	245,475	1,538	144	117,236	104,269	9,803	12,985
41	228,550	1,535	151	108,477	95,781	9,404	13,202
42	207,607	1,077	136	97,920	86,945	7,964	13,565
43	242,183	1,325	121	113,710	99,712	10,233	17,082
44	229,390	1,211	120	105,855	93,472	10,530	18,202
45	224,661	993	123	104,430	90,434	9,744	18,937
46	203,458	906	122	94,113	79,664	10,036	18,617
47	231,562	942	121	106,962	88,429	11,753	23,355
48	199,771	842	94	91,327	74,519	10,964	22,025
49	165,969	723	86	75,358	58,773	10,648	20,381
50	152,936	531	80	69,560	53,983	9,316	19,466
51	167,565	466	87	75,989	57,425	10,592	23,006
52	161,497	426	93	72,667	53,954	10,479	23,878
53	163,164	493	113	71,434	53,615	11,349	26,160
54	177,993	562	145	77,601	55,800	13,520	30,365
55	148,471	390	112	63,293	45,716	11,344	27,616
56	181,269	445	106	77,649	52,789	14,524	35,756
57	124,627	315	106	51,587	35,746	10,786	26,087
58	106,591	382	142	42,641	29,154	9,922	24,350
59	122,706	349	142	48,845	31,571	11,956	29,843
60-64	513,378	1,120	468	194,523	115,251	58,282	143,734
65-69	387,134	621	317	124,183	64,900	57,419	139,694
70-74	250,662	262	147	66,166	28,629	48,186	107,272
75-79	147,095	136	93	28,582	10,567	34,378	73,339
80-84	49,668	37	43	7,000	2,226	12,906	27,456
85-89	12,868	6	19	1,293	340	3,441	7,769
90-94	2,084	—	4	205	95	458	1,322
95-99	537	2	—	71	42	110	312
100 and above	146	—	—	14	4	31	97

POPULATION OF CHOSEN ACCORDING TO PROVINCES

(At the end of 1939)

Province	Japanese	Chosenese	Foreign	Total
Keiki	167,807	2,416,057	6,138	2,590,002
North Chusei	9,297	890,469	345	900,111
South Chusei	25,949	1,498,509	921	1,525,379
North Zenra	35,287	1,507,239	900	1,543,426
South Zenra	44,015	2,446,678	520	2,491,213
North Keisho	43,967	2,387,285	423	2,431,675
South Keisho	88,274	2,120,499	362	2,209,135
Kokai	24,321	1,695,197	2,009	1,721,527
South Helan	43,130	1,490,584	4,483	1,538,197
North Helan	26,684	1,607,415	21,639	1,655,738
Kogen	19,839	1,571,502	577	1,591,918
South Kankyo	59,308	1,602,642	5,581	1,667,531
North Kankyo	62,226	864,234	8,335	934,795

POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION

(At the end of 1939)

Occupation	Japanese	Chosenese	Foreign	Total
Agriculture	33,257	16,486,959	11,188	16,531,404
Fisheries	9,540	337,310	70	346,920
Mining	18,604	322,988	2,169	343,761
Industry	111,808	611,958	8,650	732,416
Commerce	144,647	1,601,548	19,027	1,665,222
Transportation	37,705	225,264	2,586	265,555
Public service and profession	246,967	666,782	1,425	915,174
Miscellaneous occupations	24,932	1,559,101	6,922	1,590,955
Others	22,644	386,400	196	409,240
Total	650,104	22,098,320	52,233	22,800,647

On October 1, 1940, the density of the population average was 110 per square kilometer. The average is 89 per square kilometer less than in Japan proper.

Origin of the Native Race

Though no conclusive opinion has ever been given as to the origin of the Chosenese, it is evident that they are of the Mongolian family, and it is generally admitted that their cradle was in the neighborhood of Changchun, Manchoukuo, in and around the place now called Petna on the River Sungari. It seems, therefore, but natural that they should have a profound liking to emigrate and settle in those parts of Manchoukuo. From various historic relics it appears that they were of the same stock as the Manchurians and those Japanese dwelling in the western half of Japan. In course of time much intermingling of blood seems to have taken place among the Chosenese and the Chinese ever since Chinese colonies

were first established along the north-western coast. But the latter did not supersede the native Chosenese race to any appreciable degree. This is clearly seen from the fact that the two races today have a distinctly different facial appearance, though both alike have black straight hair, dark oblique eyes and a tinge of bronze in the skin. The Chosenese language belongs to the Turanian group; it is poly-syllabic and possesses an alphabet of 11 vowels and 14 consonants, and a script known as Eunmonn. In grammatical construction it is almost identical with Japanese, though in sound and vocabulary it is quite dissimilar. From all these and other facts and evidences it may be concluded beyond any doubt that these two peoples were closely related to each other from very remote times.

Administrative Organization

Chosen is administered by the Government-General which was inaugurated on August 29, 1910, and has 8 main

administrative offices and two departments, viz., (1) Governor-General's Secretariat, (2) Home Affairs Bureau, (3) Financial Affairs Bureau, (4) Industrial Bureau, (5) Agricultural and Forestry Bureau, (6) Judicial Bureau, (7) Educational Bureau, and (8) Police Bureau, and the Department of Foreign Affairs and the Department of Planning. There are also many affiliated offices such as (1) Central Council, (2) Communications Bureau, (3) Railway Bureau, (4) Monopoly Bureau, (5) Provincial Office, (6) Revenue Superintending Bureau, (7) Custom House, etc.

Position of the Chosenese For a number of years since the establishment of the Government-General in Chosen all Chosenese in government service were placed under different regulations from those applying to Japanese officials. Gradually, however, almost all discriminative features in treatment and salary have been wiped out and in October 1919, Chosenese officials were finally placed on the same footing as the Japanese and came under the same regulations. Moreover, prior to March 1920, in the courts Chosenese judges were allowed to try only those civil cases in which both parties were Chosenese and the criminal cases where the accused were Chosenese, but now they are allowed to try all cases in which people of any nationality may be involved. Moreover, prior to 1919 the freedom of the press had been rigidly restricted. No newspaper except the few already in existence was allowed to be issued. Now, however, more daily papers are issued, and the restrictions placed on the holding of public meetings have been partly removed.

The Central Council As the highest consultative body there is the Central Council which is convened by the Governor-General several times a year to discuss such measures as may be presented by him. This Central Council consists of 5 advisors, 65 councillors, 1 chairman and 1 vice-chairman. One of the characteristic principles by which the Japanese administration in Chosen is guided is respect for the old Chosenese customs and manners, and the work of investigating these old customs so dear to the native people is entrusted to the Central Council. Chosenese attach great importance to their ancestral tombs as a form of ancient worship,

and the selection of a burial site is always made with great care. This, coupled with their age-old superstition that the fate of one's family would be greatly affected by the position of its grave, has resulted in the devastation of a large area of land; wherefore the Government-General in 1912 issued an order requiring all people to use the public cemeteries for the disposal of their dead. This order, however, was revised in 1919 so as to allow the people to follow their old customs.

Local Autonomy and Suffrage

In establishing local administrative system due consideration was given to the system obtaining under the old régime and also to Chosenese culture and customs. Revisions have been made from time to time to suit changes in local conditions, and the system has finally developed into what it is at the present day.

The main principle upon which revisions were made was to prepare the way for laying foundation for local autonomy. The establishment of advisory organs in the revision of the local administrative system effected in 1920 had this object in view. During the 10 years following progress in the preparation for self-government was made to such an extent that the time was considered ripe to effect further important reforms in the local system. An ordinance was, therefore, promulgated on October 1, 1930, the substance of which was as follows:

Administration of Province The former provincial advisory council (Do-Hyog-Kwal) was changed into the provincial council (Do-Kwal) which is vested with administrative power. Two-thirds of members of the council are elected by members of the municipal councils, "yu" councils and "men" councils in each province, and one-third appointed by the Provincial Governor.

The Provincial Governor acts ex officio as Speaker of the council and the Vice-Speaker is elected from among members of the council. The term of members of the provincial council is four years.

Municipal System Each municipality has two bodies of the first and second educational sectional councils. The former is composed of Japanese and the latter of Chosenese members of the municipal council.

Yu-Men System The "men" (township) system (men-sei) has been substituted by the yu-men-system, and the yu (town) council was established in each yu and made an executive organ. The "men" council, composed of elected members, remains as an advisory body. The term of members of the yu and men councils is four years.

Administration of County and Island Counties and islands have county and island councils, the councillors of which are elected by the members of the yu and men councils. The term of the councillors is four years.

Supervision of Local Bodies As in Japan proper the right to reverse, to cancel, or to reconsider any decisions reached by local administrative organs is reserved to the Government-General, which may suspend or dissolve meeting when necessary.

Those portions of the ordinance that apply to the municipal system, yu-men system, county and island councils were enforced on April 1, 1931, while other parts which apply to the administration of provinces were enforced on April 1, 1933.

Suffrage Since conditions have not yet adequately improved and the sense for civic responsibility is not yet sufficiently strong or wide-spread to abolish the franchise qualification, which is payment of local rates of five yen the subject is still left untouched. This may be reduced, as conditions improve, to one yen for the yu-men council election. A course in civics has lately been added to school curriculum which will aid in impressing upon the people the importance and benefit of franchise.

Finance

Budgetary System Introduced Under the old Chosenese régime there was no clear distinction between the court and the government in the use of money collected from the people in the form of various taxes. Moreover, most of the state revenue was from the ginseng monopoly, leasing of state lands, and granting of concessions of various sorts. Accordingly, therefore, there was no means of framing a yearly budget. This state of affairs, more than anything else, called for speedy remedies. When, therefore, a Japanese financial adviser, Baron Megata, took up his duties in August 1904, his first task was to bring order out of this financial confusion

and his work was quickly done during the protectorate period. He drew up necessary plans for introducing the modern budgetary system, and the gold standard with a central bank to act as a state treasury and empowered with a right to issue convertible notes. A rigid taxation system was brought into existence, with the burdens of the people more equitably distributed. The former method of tax collection which gave rise to many serious abuses was quickly corrected. All the monopolies, such as that of ginseng, were turned over from the Imperial court to the government, and a clear distinction was marked between the finances of the court and of the state.

Japan in Chosen Upon the establishment of the Japanese hegemony in Chosen the Government-General took on its shoulders the heavy task of developing the country in every possible way so as to promote the welfare of the Chosenese people to the utmost extent. It necessitated starting new enterprises and increased expenditure, and the government outlay for the year 1911 reached over ¥48,740,000, an amount twice that of the preceding fiscal year. Since that time the tendency had always been upward, till it reached ¥246,852,843 in 1929, the highest mark ever seen in the budgetary history of Chosen. In 1930 a slight decrease was seen; the figures fell to ¥239,729,783, with a further slight reduction in each year until it reached ¥219,132,671 in 1932. Mention must be made of the fact that the determination of the Government-General to do its utmost for the economic development of the country and the promotion of the welfare of the people is shared by the Japanese government at home, for the latter is yearly advancing a subsidy of more than ¥12,000,000 from the national treasury to the Government-General. The budget again took an upward turn in 1933, and in 1942 it reached the highest mark of 1,014,942,507. Below is given a budget table showing the trend of steady expansion of expenditure:

BUDGETS 1937-1941

	Revenue	Expenditure
	(In yen)	
1937	427,653,964	425,123,781
1938	527,814,250	528,245,954
1939	656,099,928	656,099,928
1940	837,786,717	837,786,717
1941	996,725,094	996,725,094

BUDGET FOR 1942-43

Revenue

(In yen)

Items	
Ordinary Revenue:	
Taxes	208,658,024
Stamp receipts	30,884,551
Receipts from government undertakings and properties	544,443,261
Miscellaneous	10,759,774
Total	794,745,610
Extraordinary Revenue:	
Temporary profits tax and juridical person special tax	35,239,636
Proceeds from the sales of government properties	100,000
Receipts anent the compensation systems	259,200
Replenishment from the National Treasury	12,948,792
Transfer from the Gold Fund Special Account	10,948,856
Public loans	145,827,615
Miscellaneous	1,343,670
Brought forward from the balance of the previous year	13,529,128
Total	220,196,897
Grand total revenue	1,014,942,507

Expenditure

Ordinary Expenditure:	
Shrines	100,600
Prince Yi's Household	1,800,000
Government-General Office	16,940,846
Justice	5,670,822
Prisons	11,350,094
Provincial offices	35,260,217
Meteorological observatory	922,415
Keijo Imperial University	4,350,708
Schools and libraries	5,906,465
Agricultural experimental stations	1,899,511
Cattle disease serum manufacturing plant	1,272,828
Inspection offices	4,436,438
Monopoly Bureau	65,950,865
Railways	243,273,895
Forestry Bureau	21,429,981
Communications	37,166,061
Tax Superintending and Tax offices	10,078,526
Social work	1,895,554
National debt adjustment fund	54,446,485
Pension	9,370,105
Miscellaneous	1,105,566
Reserve fund	19,000,000
Total of ordinary expenditure	553,627,982
Extraordinary Expenditure:	
Pension for soldiers under the old regime of Chosen	30,114
Investigations and experimentations	2,451,916
Subsidies and encouragement	72,183,082
Buildings and repairs	6,720,000

Communications	3,861,082
Public work	27,330,601
Railways	104,392,420
Forestry	2,461,999
Adjustment of title-deeds, etc.	142,861
Improvement of lands	9,797,683
Aid to local finances	17,494,109
Revision of land price	1,998,503
Training of teachers and the young people	87,087
Training of volunteer soldiers	728,736
Protection of Chosenese abroad	7,693,852
Arbitration of matrimonial troubles	42,701
Temporary police measures	4,309,207
Construction of salt fields	1,579,447
Development of northern Chosen	1,098,474
Promotion of the production of gold and important minerals	22,336,761
Improvement of farm villages	2,060,388
Fisheries	446,608
Promotion of rice production	3,333,015
National general mobilization	861,618
Emergency measures	29,054,188
Promotion foreign trade	575,741
Levy of Temporary Profit Tax	443,621
Transfer to the Special Account for Military Expenses	127,000,000
Allowances to frontier guards	520,221
Calamities	480,404
Preparation for improving the elementary education system	99,593
Rewards anent China Affair	49,900
Temporary allowances to officials	2,010,600
Temporary allowances to families of officials	5,621,052
Transfer to the necessities fund of railways	2,000,000
Total of extraordinary expenditure	461,314,525
Grand total of expenditure	1,014,942,507

ACTUAL RECEIPTS FROM TAXES IN RECENT YEARS

(In yen)

Description	1938	1939	1940
Income tax	5,139,797	8,191,546	10,788,559
Land tax	13,431,822	13,502,268	13,190,531
Business tax	2,541,279	3,027,123	7,774,700
Unearned increment tax	1,180,535	1,395,293	3,364,458
Corporation tax	811,589	783,455	3,335,444
Foreign currency loan special tax	1,577	2,162	1,870
Mining tax	2,146,532	2,577,016	3,897,276
Inheritance tax	475,775	765,340	1,197,365
Temporary profit tax	2,663,780	4,850,838	5,401,188
Dividend tax	175,138	775,593	466,967
Public loan and debenture interest tax	70,682	74,135	65,650
Transit tax	1,017,923	1,029,447	1,750,397
Admission tax	131,750	195,729	470,027
Tax on goods	4,441,483	9,867,699	14,419,074
Building tax	—	172,514	82,492
Liquor tax	21,854,363	24,086,253	24,133,550
Non-alcoholic beverage tax	329,670	565,752	836,862
Tax on eating & drinking for pleasure	—	3,030,128	7,590,400

Description	1938	1939	1940
Sugar consumption tax	4,165,969	4,108,959	5,547,059
Volatile oil tax	1,553,112	1,580,924	2,420,731
Exchange tax	844,035	875,396	543,424
Bank of Chosen note emission tax	24,531	24,268	24,268
Total	63,002,342	81,483,838	107,301,481
From customs duties	16,760,693	17,231,496	—

Government Monopolies

Several industries are being carried on as monopolies by the Government-General under direct control of the Financial Affairs Bureau; they are the manufacture or preparation of ginseng, tobacco, salt and opium. Net profit from the Government monopolies amounted to ¥50,484,915 in 1939-40.

Ginseng This medical herb is regarded as a wonderful cure for many diseases in China and Chosen. The drug is obtained from the root of the plant carefully tended for six years. The principal customers for this plant are the Chinese, who are ready to pay a high price for it. Figures relating to its production follow:

Year	Raw Prepared			
	Area (tsubo)	Root (kin)	Product (kin)	Receipts (yen)
1911	14,345	7,719	2,300	119,000
1926	230,368	109,759	29,369	2,768,000
1927	332,102	154,237	41,540	2,444,000
1928	327,491	197,340	50,901	3,067,000
1929	334,479	165,897	54,099	2,482,000
1930	336,918	170,709	62,097	2,449,463

Year	Raw Prepared			
	Area (tsubo)	Root (kin)	Product (kin)	Receipts (yen)
1931	350,243	161,952	59,302	2,039,541
1932	565,090	165,172	58,789	2,099,819
1933	350,623	142,686	49,525	1,339,941
1934	357,600	142,577	49,829	1,567,061
1935	357,947	142,662	62,125	1,703,788
1936	379,124	152,063	55,368	1,832,462
1937	377,564	151,390	53,502	1,812,963
1938	302,401	121,247	43,872	1,454,000
1939	—	99,077	36,136	1,723,515

Tobacco As practically all Chosenese smoke, the tobacco industry is a great source of income to the Government. Three kinds are grown in Chosen, namely, Native, Japanese and American. There are four tobacco manufacturing centers, these being Keijo, Heijo, Tai-kyu and Zenshu, the annual production reaching over 5 million kan valued at 6 million yen.

In 1939 the output of cigarettes was 7,882,959 pieces, and that of cut-tobacco 15,348,519 kg. Tobacco amounting to ¥83,579 was also imported from Japan and foreign countries.

AREA, PRODUCTION & SALES OF TOBACCO

Year	Area (cho)	Production of Leaf Tobacco (kan)	Sales in yen		Total
			Native Product	Imported	
1932	13,637	5,309,923	32,076,449	91,290	32,167,739
1933	13,558	4,414,268	35,227,038	87,148	35,313,186
1934	14,692	4,107,358	38,941,646	84,030	39,025,676
1935	16,367	5,845,627	42,835,698	90,588	42,926,286
1936	17,533	5,500,360	47,575,664	230,170	47,805,824
1937	18,672	7,433,022	—	—	55,110,488
1938	19,704	7,806,893	61,886,518	491,044	62,377,562
1939	21,032	—	76,737,651	83,579	76,821,230

Salt The yearly salt consumption in Chosen amounts approximately to 350,000,000 kg. Production capacity in Chosen is 282,050,000 kg., so that 78,000,000 kg. has to be imported. The demand for industrial use has increased recently and about 300,000 kg. is im-

ported to supply the need. The Chosen Government-General is making efforts to bring about the time when it can supply the total demand of 350,500,000 kg. with domestic production. The following shows production and the area of salt-fields in 1939:

PRODUCTION AND AREA OF SALT-FIELD IN 1939

	Area (cho)	Production (1,000 kg.)
Koryowan	993	92,838
KiJo	1,335	74,501
Shuan	6,664	230,356
Nanshi	483	33,660
Total	9,675	431,355

Opium Owing to the strict control of the Government-General the number of opium smokers has in recent years greatly decreased, but at the same time the number of those indulging in morphine-injection has increased. The use of morphine has of course been prohibited by the Government, but owing to the activity of cunning dealers all the efforts of the Government to put an end to it have been fruitless. The Government thereupon has come to the decision to monopolize the manufacture and sale of morphine so as to more effectively control the spread of its use. Accordingly, in March 1930, the Gov-

ernment's manufacture of morphine was started at Keijo, its production being sold to certain designated pharmacies to be used for medical purposes only, and since 1937 no morphine for opium smokers was produced.

MORPHINE MANUFACTURE IN 1939

Raw opium Manufacture	26,702 kg.
Morphine (salt)	141,565 g.
Diacetyl morphine (salt)	4,100 g.
Opium for medical use	45,380 g.
Total	191,045 g.
Sale	
Morphine (salt)	145,400 g.
Diacetyl morphine (salt)	4,335 g.
Opium for medical use	35,875 g.
Total	185,610 g.

Economic Progress

The following table shows the progress during recent three years as compared with the conditions in 1910.

	1910	1936	1937	1938
		(In ¥1,000)		
Paid up capital of corporations	15,909	663,569	853,988	1,022,022
Value of agricultural products	157,158	830,321	1,134,114	1,104,488
" forest products	19,240	118,065	138,709	156,750
" marine products	8,466	79,879	89,923	87,080
" mineral products	6,068	110,429	150,145	—
" manufactures	30,964	730,806	959,308	1,140,118
Trade	59,696	1,355,730	1,545,753	1,935,530
Bank deposits	17,855	415,530	462,454	624,316
Bank loans	40,912	845,831	957,914	1,053,349
Bank exchange received	28,227	2,132,886	2,481,659	2,935,977
Bank exchange drawn	23,907	2,146,385	2,556,437	3,064,395
Amount of bills cleared	20,489	1,782,369	1,961,472	2,342,820
Price index (Average in Keijo)	100.00	190.62	206.16	237.12
Wage index (Average in Keijo)	100.00	161.15	181.11	196.80

N.B. In the column of agricultural products only rice, barley, wheat, oats, rye, pulse and miscellaneous grains are included.

Overseas Trade

Prior to its annexation by Japan the overseas trade of Chosen amounted to about 50 millions of yen a year. Now

it is approximately put at ¥1,876,969,000 based on figures for January to September 1940. The following figures indicate its development:

OVERSEAS TRADE

Year	Exports (In ¥1,000)			Imports (In ¥1,000)		
	Foreign Countries	Japan	Total	Foreign Countries	Japan	Total
1922	17,489	197,915	215,404	95,798	160,247	256,045
1932	29,210	282,144	311,354	61,686	258,670	320,356
1933	52,773	315,854	368,627	64,368	339,817	404,185

Year	Exports (In ¥1,000)			Imports (In ¥1,000)		
	Foreign Countries	Japan	Total	Foreign Countries	Japan	Total
1934	57,674	407,693	465,367	79,527	439,622	519,149
1935	64,903	485,893	550,796	44,185	558,813	659,403
1936	75,265	518,047	593,313	114,499	647,918	762,417
1937	113,098	572,445	685,543	128,139	735,414	863,553
1938	169,067	710,540	879,607	134,583	921,346	1,055,929
1939	269,911	736,883	1,006,794	159,031	229,417	1,388,448
1940 (Jan.-Sept.)	150,708	550,140	700,848	169,097	1,007,023	1,176,121

OVERSEAS TRADE BY COUNTRIES

Countries	Exports (In ¥1,000)			
	1936	1937	1938	1939
Japan proper	518,047	572,445	710,539	736,882
Kwantung L.T.	9,901	20,616	18,737	22,952
Manchoukuo	55,533	71,527	122,003	205,149
China	3,702	4,842	22,155	33,566
British India	388	750	429	475
Dutch Indies	265	1,021	477	634
Germany	10	2,261	1,062	336
The U.S.A.	993	1,474	1,280	3,645
Africa	—	6,923	1,401	985
Others	4,474	3,363	1,421	1,864
Total	593,313	685,542	879,606	1,006,794

Countries	Imports (In ¥1,000)			
	1936	1937	1938	1939
Japan proper	647,918	735,813	921,345	1,292,417
Kwantung L.T.	6,642	6,928	10,157	8,181
Manchoukuo	59,402	62,227	58,050	80,459
China	15,148	10,367	12,217	10,334
India	208	255	10,788	8,845
Dutch Indies	9,726	8,534	4,260	3,392
Germany	1,042	1,973	1,888	3,939
The U.S.A.	9,151	21,311	17,775	23,521
Philippines	—	1,871	2,335	3,422
Others	13,180	14,273	17,104	16,937
Total	762,417	863,552	1,055,928	1,388,448

VALUE OF PRINCIPAL EXPORTS AND IMPORTS

In Jan.-Sept. 1939 and 1940

Articles	EXPORTS (In ¥1,000)		Articles	IMPORTS (In ¥1,000)	
	1939	1940		1939	1940
Cow	7,697	8,443	Rayon tissues	9,393	5,217
Rice	139,785	9,079	Pulp	7,030	6,891
Beans	15,653	29,793	Coal	9,000	17,067
Fresh fish	7,471	10,715	Fish powder	7,202	14,157
Dried fish	5,340	9,444	Fertilizer	35,966	38,393
Dried laver	8,976	15,849	Others and total	749,707	700,848
Other marine products	7,226	11,594			
Soap	5,545	5,709			
Carbide	2,446	6,251			
Glycerine	2,465	6,251			
Ginned cotton	9,145	15,078			
Raw milk	13,217	21,201			
Cotton tissues	10,482	5,523			

Articles	1939	1940
Raw silk	12,509	6,540
Woolen tissues	17,144	11,671
Silk tissues	25,435	44,288
Rayon tissues	32,280	8,060
Staple fiber tissues	24,650	15,967
Clothes	16,251	10,910
Papers	17,244	20,213
Coal	27,570	38,311
Cokes	8,447	7,930
Ceramics	8,666	10,358
Nails	7,249	7,119
Electric wire	6,085	7,570
Machinery	101,721	129,276
Fertilizer	21,279	19,747
Others and total	1,007,488	1,176,121

Banking

Banking on a modern system was first introduced into Chosen in 1878 when the Dai Ichi Ginko of Tokyo established a branch office at Fusan. Later on, the Juhachi Ginko of Nagasaki opened branches at Jinsen and Gensan. After the China-Japan War these banks opened their branches in Keijo and other centers, while two native banks, the Chon-Il (later renamed the Chosen Commercial) and the Hansong, came into being in Keijo.

In 1902 the Dai Ichi Ginko was authorized to issue bank notes for circulation within Chosen. In 1906, to promote economic development in the provinces, agricultural and industrial banks were formed in several of the principal towns, the Government taking shares in them or granting them loans free of interest, and in the same year a third native bank called the Han-Il was founded in Keijo.

In 1909 the Bank of Chosen capitalized at ¥10,000,000 was founded in Keijo as a de jure central institution, and to it was transferred all the functions belonging to a central bank hitherto performed by the Dai Ichi Ginko. After the Annexation the bank was renamed the Bank of Chosen and branches were opened by it one after another in important places. Nor was its sphere of activity confined to the peninsula, for

many branches were opened in Manchuria where it enjoyed free circulation of its notes, and its activity even penetrated North China and East Siberia. The Bank also made loans to China, and opened an agency in New York with a view to facilitating exchange operations and to utilizing the American money market for the development of Chosen and Manchuria. Stimulated by the steady expansion of its business, the Bank increased its capital to ¥40,000,000 in 1918, and to ¥60,000,000 in 1920, while authority was given to increase its maximum limit of note issue as occasion demanded; but owing to continued business depression the Bank suffered severe losses and was compelled in 1925 to reduce its capital by one-half. (See Chapter IX, the Bank of Chosen.)

Since then, encouraged by the economic development in general, and especially influenced by the war-time boom, many local banks were established in the country. During this time, however, the agricultural and industrial banks in existence were found much too weak to cope with the increasing demand for funds, their capital all told being only ¥2,600,000, so in 1918 they were all merged into the Industrial Bank of Chosen under special Government protection, with a capital of ¥10,000,000, which has since been increased to ¥40,000,000.

The first clearing house was opened in 1910, and banks in Keijo became its members. Later additional clearing houses were established in Jinsen (Chemulpo) and other large commercial centers—the total number being nine at the present time.

In 1911 there were in Chosen 11 banks with 59 branches. The total aggregate capital was then ¥12,350,000, with total reserve funds amounting to ¥366,000 and the deposits totalling ¥18,335,000. At the end of 1939 the number of banks was 9, together with branch offices of 3 banks in Japan proper. The following gives a more detailed account of the 9 banks:

CONDITIONS OF BANKS IN CHOSEN

(In ¥1,000)

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Capital subscribed	100,075	99,175	99,175	99,175	97,175	127,175
Capital paid-in	61,731	65,912	65,981	72,731	71,931	79,431
Reserve funds	22,673	23,529	27,276	29,944	32,106	36,931
Deposits	567,754	609,028	386,191	462,454	624,316	1,550,586
Loans	1,047,339	1,013,140	712,380	957,914	1,053,350	1,915,778

The banking institution which is utilized most by the native people is the Post Office Savings Bank. In 1921 there were about one and a half million depositors at this bank, their aggregate deposits reaching ¥18,726,338. On March 31, 1940 the number of depositors increased to 6 millions, with the aggregate deposits expanding to ¥112,802,101. The following figures show the annual expansion:

March 31	P.O. DEPOSITS	
	Number of Depositors	Amount (yen)
1931	2,118,178	38,852,866
1932	2,283,871	41,432,670
1933	2,494,062	40,939,391
1934	2,840,656	44,807,154
1935	3,156,074	52,631,553
1936	3,571,237	54,820,710
1937	3,861,105	60,422,961
1938	4,247,123	68,303,285
1939	5,381,152	87,270,254
1940	6,066,378	112,802,101

Local Credit Associations Local credit associations were first organized in 1907 by virtue of the Local Credit As-

sociation Regulations promulgated in the same year. The object of the organizations is to assist the Agricultural and Industrial Banks in the capacity of their auxiliaries, accommodate small Chosenese farmers with funds, and look after their interests in several other ways so as to ensure a healthy development of agriculture. Membership is confined to those who engage in agriculture, and each association is organized as a corporate juridical person. The Government endows each association with ¥10,000 as foundation fund or grants subsidy to encourage its development.

Principal business of the associations is to loan funds to the members, and store crops for them. In addition they distribute and loan seeds, seedlings, and fertilizers to their members, and also undertake consignment sales of products for the members.

At the end of June 1940, there were 723 associations with 2,036,434 members and an aggregate paid capital of ¥15,232,000. The progress of these associations is illustrated in the table below.

Year	Associa-tions	Members	Paid-up Capital	Deposit Advance		Reserve Fund	Govern-ment Grant
				(In ¥1,000)			
1929-30	621	588,560	8,561	76,892	104,931	12,295	3,777
1930-31	622	606,813	9,010	80,128	123,368	13,131	3,777
1931-32	663	726,322	9,279	88,755	123,842	13,556	3,970
1932-33	674	831,805	9,362	103,752	127,832	14,316	4,027
1933-34	685	1,003,648	9,871	124,284	133,897	15,647	4,092
1934-35	692	1,178,769	10,580	139,417	150,107	17,779	4,132
1935-36	698	1,363,537	11,496	153,417	179,325	19,070	4,162
1936-37	709	1,563,391	12,462	162,355	228,464	20,809	4,217
1937-38	719	1,637,523	13,644	179,515	232,178	23,200	—
June 1939	723	1,793,610	14,477	244,652	271,029	28,860	—
" 1940	723	2,036,434	15,323	323,625	362,278	32,864	—

Agriculture

Chosen, though mountainous, is essentially an agricultural country. In 1939, more than 72 per cent of its entire population was engaged in agricultural pursuits. Though the soil is not very fertile, it is sufficiently so to produce enough foodstuffs to support its entire population.

In 1910, the year of annexation, the value of production scarcely reached ¥250,000,000, but in 1939 it reached ¥1,644,404,479.

Grains In 1910 the rice fields covered a total area of 1,350,000 cho, yielding 10,400,000 koku, which rose in 1941

to 1,645,877 cho and 24,885,642 koku. This wonderful development has been achieved by the improvement made in cultivation, in the selection of seeds and manure, and in irrigation and reclamation. Next in importance come barley, wheat and rye, which are, however, mostly cultivated for home consumption. In almost every province these grains are raised in the paddy fields, after the rice crop is harvested, production of these in 1939 being 7,570,488, 2,491,564 and 2,995,688 koku respectively. Owing to the help in various ways given by the authorities to aid in the cultivation of these three cereals, their production has been on

the increase year after year. Third in importance comes soya bean. In earlier times it was far from being an important produce owing to ignorance on the part of native farmers of the proper method of preparation, such as drying and assorting. It is now, however, in high esteem on the Japanese market where there is a demand for it not only as food, but for chemical and industrial purposes, and thus the amount exported to Japan is yearly on the increase. In 1939 the total area under cultivation was 737,815 cho and the amount produced reached 2,332,782 koku. German millet is for most Chosenese what rice is for the Japanese people. They depend more upon it than upon rice on account of its cheapness in price. The Chosenese farmers sell their rice, but use their millet crops for their daily diet, so that the supply of the grain hardly suffices to meet the entire demands of the Chosenese people. In 1939, the native production of the grain reached 5,029,171 koku.

Cotton Cotton is another important agricultural produce in modern Chosen. The present scale of its growth is owing to the encouragement given by the Government-General. It was in 1906 that the first trial plantation of American cotton was carried out in the neighborhood of Moppo. As its superiority over the old native cotton was sufficiently demonstrated, soon its cultivation was vigorously encouraged in all parts of southern Chosen, so that the cotton acreage was increased from 1,200 cho in 1910 to 222,231 cho in 1939, and the crop expanded from 860,000 kin in 1910 to 191,463,222 kin in 1939. If the production of the native plant is added, the total cotton production in 1939 amounted to 210,330,949 kin from the total area of 253,185 cho, as against 21,000,000 kin from 60,000 cho, in 1910.

Fruit Farming Fruit farming has also become a thriving industry of the erstwhile hermit kingdom. Soil and climate alike are suitable, especially for the growing of apples, and the Government authorities are extending their assistance in this direction likewise, with the object of improving the quality of the fruit and gaining for it a world-wide market.

Many new varieties of apples, superior to the old native ones, are now cultivated, the quality being in some cases better than that of the fruit grown in

Japan. The value of fruits produced in 1939 reached ¥21,467,325, including apples, pears, grapes, peaches, persimmons, etc.

Sericulture By 1910 the Government-General had done everything in its power to improve the native methods of cultivating the mulberry trees and raising silk-worms after the Japanese fashion. In 1919 a new system was instituted for carrying on a compulsory examination of egg-cards and for giving adequate care to the growing of good mulberry trees. All this paternal care and effort on the part of the Government-General for the advancement of the economic welfare of the Chosenese farmer was by no means thrown away. In 1910 the cocoon production was 14,000 koku and the number of households engaged in the work was figured at 76,000. In 1939 the number of households was 823,412 and the output was 657,928 koku. The production of raw silk amounted to 598,668 kan valued at ¥43,227,644.

Stock Farming As Chosenese beef is very palatable, the demand for it is rapidly increasing in Japan and Manchoukuo as well as in Siberia. In 1910 the cattle in all Chosen numbered only 700,000 head, which in 1939 increased to 1,705,462. The export of cattle and hides totals ¥14,350,000 a year. The raising of both pigs and poultry has been greatly encouraged by importing from Japan animals and birds of superior quality, with the result that in 1939 the former totalled 1,400,038 and the latter 8,976,821, both more than doubling the numbers found in 1910. Sheep were unknown in the old days in Chosen. Efforts were made since 1919 to raise them but the results were not satisfactory. Since, however, it is of great importance to make Japan self-sufficient in respect to supply of wool, a new plan for encouragement of sheep was formed in 1934. Carriedale, which is suited to the climate and soil of Chosen, has been decided upon as the kind to be raised in Chosen. Subvention will be given to private undertakings, and the national sheep breeding grazing ground has been located at Ama, Melsen county of North Kankyo Province. In 1939 the number of sheep reached 37,957.

Conditions of Farm Households. In 1939, the total number of the farm-

households in Chosen was 3,023,133, consisting of 539,629 landed ones, 719,232 semi-landed, 1,583,358 tenanted, 68,280 "fire field," and 111,834 hired; divided into nationalities as 3,013,593 Chosenese households, 8,895 Japanese, and 2,645 Manchoukuoan, Chinese and European. The type and size of farm households in Chosen vary to a large extent. The average size of farm land is about one cho six am (about four acres), which is larger than the average in Japan proper where the size is just over one cho (2½ acres). However, in Chosen, due to poor methods of cultivation, the yield per tan is only slightly over one koku (5 bushels) while it is two koku in Japan. Supplementary products are as yet hardly worth mentioning. The large ownership of farm land by a few landlords is one of the roots of the difficulties. The majority of farming population have to hand over a greater portion of crops as interest at rates ranging from 2% to 4% per month on borrowed foodstuffs or money in addition to farm rent which is also high.

A farmer working one cho eight tan is regarded as a fairly good farmer in the central or southern Chosen. His annual cash income is, however, as small as ¥100. A farmer less favorably fared obtains ¥48 per year. Majority of farmers are in similar conditions and they form a poverty-stricken community.

Expenditure is always greater than income, as is shown in the table below. The farm household generally suffers from shortage of foodstuffs. It will be seen that deficit is ridiculously small but even a shortage of ¥10 or ¥20 is a great burden to a petty farmer who is altogether unable to make out any plan for covering it.

Eighty per cent of the farming community may be regarded as having debts, bearing interest at 3% or 4% per month.

A Chosenese farmer works from 70 to 100 days a year while a farmer in Japan works from 200 to 250 days. The margin of difference is too great and might be made good use of by Chosenese farmers.

CONDITIONS OF REPRESENTATIVE CHOSENESE FARMERS

Name of farmer	A.—	B.—	C.—
Number of family	6 persons	5 persons	5 persons
" capable of work	2.9 "	2.1 "	2.4 "
Kind of farming	Partly landed	Tenant	Tenant
Area of cultivated land	1 cho 8 tan (4½ acres)	1 cho 2 tan (3 acres)	8 tan (2 acres)
Cash income per year	¥ 98.50	¥ 52.70	¥ 48.40
Expenditure " "	¥121.70	¥ 69.60	¥ 59.20
Deficit " "	¥ 23.20	¥ 16.90	¥ 10.80
Debts " "	¥130.00	¥ 49.00	¥ 52.00
Shortage of foodstuffs	8 "to" of unhulled rice	1 koku of rice	1 koku of unhulled rice
	2 "to" of millet	3 to of millet	6 to hulled rice
Number of days open for further work	290	260	240

In 1939 the total cultivated area was 4,026,757 chobu (a chobu=2.45 acres) including watered field 1,762,774 chobu, inland 2,763,983 chobu and "fire field" (farm land in the mountains) 431,750 chobu. This total area represents about 33 per cent of the total area of Chosen. The average area of farm land for each household is 1.44 chobu. It is larger than in Japan proper, but the productive power of land is much less.

Rural Revival To alleviate the severe agricultural depression, the Government-

General devised a plan in 1932 for recovery of the farm through the effort of farmers themselves. The results have so far been good and farmers regained hope. With improved economic conditions the relation between the Chosenese and Japanese became more harmonious, and the industry more active and living conditions of farmers as a whole improved. The concrete result of the plan has been that 4,695 villages comprising over 120,000 households have enlisted in the movement.

Measures Taken for Improvement of Condition of Farmers

Since 1912 steps have been taken to prevent possession of large estates by individuals. Uncultivated state-owned lands were leased to farmers who were willing to personally cultivate it and if the land were properly reclaimed it was given to them gratis. These measures were taken with a view to increase the number of independent farmers.

Tenant farmers, of course, predominate and form the bulk of the farmers. Their lives are miserable, and they have been driven into poverty, by their landlords and their agents. In view of this fact ordinances were put in force in 1920 with a special reference to the method of payment of rent. The ordinances were revised in 1928. In the new ordinances provisions were made for lease contract, farm rent payment, transport of crop, payment of taxes, improvement of yield, supervision of landlords' agents, etc. In 1932 regulations on mediation on tenancy disputes which had as their aim quick settlement of such disputes and lowering of the cost of law suits through simplification of the procedure were issued. Finally in 1934 the Chosen Farmland Ordinance was promulgated by which the safety of tenure of a tenant farmer and the right of his family or heirs were ensured. In accordance with provisions in the Ordinances local tenancy committees settle all questions regarding matters on tenancy, and actions of agents of landlords are subjected to control. This ordinance provides for: (1) the appointment and dismissal of "Saom," or landlord's agent to obviate abuses these agents make of their power; (2) term of lease, which has been made three years at the minimum for ordinary crops and seven years for perennial crops like mulberry, fruit, China grass, paper mulberry, etc.; (3) inheritance of privileges and liabilities of the lease by heirs of a tenant; (4) protection of the landlord against sub-lease; (5) payment of farm rent, and reduction of its payment on its postponement in case of crop failure; (6) appointment of tenancy committee and its duties, etc. The Ordinance was put in force on October 20, 1934.

Agricultural experimental stations have been established with staffs of experts and their assistants. Many model villages have been selected and they are shown to farmers in other villages as

models. Many young men have been trained also to get the best out of their farms and to employ their own time most profitably.

Special agricultural courses are now given in common schools to infuse love of work in the mind of young people. Lastly the widespread self-help movement for the improvement of agriculture has been launched to make farmers endeavor to improve their conditions on their own account.

The native farmers are still obliged to sell their produce during harvest time on account of poverty and the lack of warehouses. Large quantities of Chosenese rice are exported to Japan proper in a rush for the period of four or five months after harvest. The Government-General established agricultural warehouses to aid the producers from selling their crops at harvest time, to encourage them to wait for more favorable prices, and to stabilize the exportation of rice. In 1930 the warehouse plan was enlarged, and in addition to the agricultural warehouses in places of production, export warehouses were established at the ports. At the end of August 1940, there were 67 agricultural warehouses and 13 export warehouses with a capacity of 1,285,804 koku and 2,447,911 koku respectively. It is hoped that these warehouses will be instrumental in safeguarding the interests of the rice producers, and in regulating the export.

Forestry

At the end of 1939 the area of forest in Chosen covered 16,313,194 cho which corresponds with 73 per cent of the entire area of the land. But there existed before 1910 nothing like a forestry policy in Chosen, and except a few protected ones, all forests were allowed to be devastated by ignorant and superstitious people. Therefore, before 1910 nearly all the mountains in Chosen were treeless. As a matter of fact, only one-third of the so-called "forest" areas was covered with standing trees, the remaining two-thirds being only thinly wooded, although in the basins of the northern rivers, the spruce, birch, larch, etc. are to be found, and in those of the central and southern part the red and black pine, oak, alder, bamboo, etc.

In 1939, the total value of forestry production reached ¥192,604,000.

Afforestation Work Undertaken in

1908, however, the Chosen government, by the advice of the Japanese, promulgated a forest law aiming at the protection of forests, and when the new régime was established the Government-General issued a new forest law providing, among other things, for the letting of forest lands to any interested party for the purpose of afforestation and, if the work were successfully carried out, the ultimate transference of them to the lessee. The total area thus leased by the end of March 1940 reached 1,673,518 cho of which 910,363 cho has been transferred to the successful planters. Of the entire forest lands 5,480,000 cho is owned by the state, and 120,000 cho is reserved for university research and as national parks, the rest being owned by private persons. The number of seedlings planted by 1939 reached 5,500, millions. Nor is this all. Schools are given suitable pieces of ground whereon to plant trees, and the Third of April, the anniversary of the death of Jimmu Tenno, the first ruler of Japan, is fixed as Arbor Day, a day on which universal plantation of trees is encouraged throughout Chosen.

Fisheries

Since 1910 all sorts of encouragement have been given to the Chosenese fishermen for the development of the fishery industry in Chosen, with the result that improvements in one way or another have been introduced in the building of fishing-boats and in the method of catching. Thus, while before 1910 the total value of catches was only about ¥8,000,000 a year, by 1939 it increased to ¥151,098,000, and other aquatic products in the meantime advanced from ¥2,650,000 to ¥167,916,692. The first fishery law in Chosen was issued in 1909, and this was replaced three years later by a new law providing for the definite establishment of fishing rights over a certain area of waters, the prohibition of certain actions harmful to fishing in specified areas and the prevention of individual monopolization of any fishing area. Trawling within special zones was also prohibited, and certain restrictions were made to the number of whaling-boats and to the diving apparatus carried. Mention should be made in this connection of famous "hanyo" (woman divers) of Quelpart Island. There are 7,000 of these women and they are engaged in

catching sea-ears and many kinds of shellfish, and gathering laver and other sea-weeds by diving into the deep sea. The total earnings of these women amount to one million yen a year.

The following shows the marine products for two years, 1938 and 1939, the value of each of which exceeds ¥2,000,000:

Kind	1938	1939
	Value	Value
	(In yen)	
Mackerel	5,816,872	8,166,884
Sardine	22,862,512	54,780,078
Sclaena	5,289,537	8,192,117
Herring	2,664,616	4,582,341
Hair-tail	3,045,297	4,729,961
Shrimps	2,095,407	3,758,934
Mintal (Alaska pollack)	10,237,994	21,026,752

Besides these, there are sea-bream, plaice, cod, isinglass, yellow-tail, glue, shark, grey, mullet, rays, oyster, sea-ueel, conger-eel, etc., valued each at between ¥500,000 and ¥2,000,000. The important manufactures of sea products in 1939 were sardine-oil ¥34,181,266, sardine-cake ¥36,896,248, dried mintal ¥22,152,572, fish-meal ¥18,579,721, and dried laver ¥7,633,732.

Mining

The present mining law, enacted in 1916, provides that mining rights can be granted only to Japanese citizens or to legal corporations under the Japanese law, and mining rights are treated as a form of real estate. As for mining rights secured by foreign citizens under the old régime, they are well respected. Of all minerals produced in Chosen gold occupies by far the most important position, the largest gold mine being the Unsan Mine operated by an American syndicate called the Oriental Consolidated Mining Company. Next in importance are the Shojo Mine worked by Frenchmen, the Sulan Mine by Englishmen, and Sansel and Koyo Mines by Japanese. Formerly the mining industry in Chosen was carried on in a very primitive way except in those mines operated by foreign concerns. Soon after Chosen had been brought under Japanese protectorate rule in 1906 the Government tried hard to induce Japanese capitalists to invest capital in the mining industry of Chosen, but it was only in 1910 that Japanese capitalists

began to display their energies in that lucrative undertaking. As, however, most of the more promising gold fields were already under operation by foreign capitalists, Japanese capitalists turned their attention to the exploitation of other minerals such as iron and coal. Iron ores in Chosen hitherto found were mostly of hematite and limonite, the former being found in South Kankyo and Kokai provinces and the mixture of the two in South Helan and Kokai provinces. The amount of these ores stored, the purity of which is about 50 per cent, is estimated at about 20,000,000 metric tons. In 1933 about 570,000 metric tons of these ores were mined, of which about 394,000 metric tons were sent to the Kenjiho Iron Works and the balance of 176,000

metric tons to Japan proper. Fortunately a much greater store of magnetite ores is found in North Kankyo province. The purity of these magnetite ores is about 40 per cent on average.

As regards coal, almost unlimited quantity of brown and anthracite coals are stored in Chosen, the quantity of the latter stored being especially large. Anthracite is mostly produced in the Heijo coal-field, and in South Kankyo North Keisho and South Zeura provinces.

It must be mentioned that in Chosen nearly all kinds of minerals except sulphur, petroleum and asphalt are found in appreciable quantities, gold, coal, and iron preponderating. The following shows the value of the mineral products of Chosen:

MINERAL PRODUCTION

(In ¥1,000)

	1911	1921	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Gold	3,744	2,992	17,809	26,066	33,214	38,320	49,909
Pig iron	—	4,819	4,114	5,605	7,722	7,321	7,866
Coal	388	3,192	5,970	7,205	9,940	11,925	13,300
Iron ore	421	1,716	749	1,287	1,123	1,279	1,429
Copper	—	17	307	417	933	1,535	3,272
Gold and silver ore	262	584	944	1,906	2,511	6,502	9,373
Graphite	153	208	255	465	524	1,207	1,010
Placer gold	821	359	1,823	3,327	5,323	7,136	9,443
Silver	6	4	552	721	1,468	2,558	2,630
Lead	—	—	64	120	306	388	703
Tungsten ore	—	—	29	117	734	1,388	2,293
Zinc ore	21	4	—	97	85	80	240
Steel	—	—	—	—	4,178	6,764	6,533
Others	21	374	487	961	1,111	1,636	2,212
Total	6,069	15,767	33,746	48,301	69,172	88,038	110,508

Note:—The publication of figures has ceased since 1937. The total amount of mineral production in 1937 was valued at ¥150,000,000.

Manufacturing Industry

It is only since 1916 that there has been any manufacturing industry worthy of the name in Chosen, and in 1939 the total value of manufactures reached ¥1,169,716,551, being over 38 times as large as that in 1911, in which year the total output was valued at ¥30,000,000. As the land has abundance of materials and a good labor supply, Chosen may be looked upon as a promising land for the future expansion of various industries. In 1911 there were in all the land only 252 manufacturing plants employing about 14,575 workers, but in 1939 the number

of factories was 6,953 and the total number of employees 270,439.

Total of industrial production of Chosen for the year 1939 was as follows:

INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION

FOR 1939

(In ¥1,000)

Textile industry	150,491
Metallic industry	131,715
Machinery and tools	48,612
Ceramics	36,257
Chemical industry	461,966
Wood works	10,770

Printing and book binding	19,373
Gas and electric	30,462
Foodstuffs	177,808
Others	96,260
Total	1,168,716

Of the total 1,140 million yen in 1938, ¥282,000,000 was the production by the so-called household industries, outside factories managed by industrial companies or where more than five operatives are employed.

Justice and Police

Chosen has now a judicial system similar to that of Japan. That is to say, in addition to the supreme court there are courts of appeal and local courts, the last-named having detached and sub-detached courts widely located. Both civil and criminal cases are first tried by local courts, while appeals against the decisions of local courts are made to the courts of appeal. The supreme court handles those appeals made against judgments rendered by the local courts or complaints against decisions or orders rendered in the second instance by the courts of appeal. Grave crimes of one sort or another have greatly diminished owing to the improvement in the work of maintenance of order and security. On the other hand, what might be called intellectual crimes such as fraud, forgery, and perjury have yearly increased. Prior to the establishment of the Japanese administration flogging was a common form of punishment. In 1912 its application to aged persons, women and children was prohibited, and in 1920 it was finally abolished as it was unsuited to modern ideas of penology. The number of persons kept in prisons was 17,546 at the end of July 1940.

Police The police service in Chosen had been under Japan's direction for some years even prior to the establishment of Japan's protectorate in 1906. But the system which had been in force at that period proved unsatisfactory. Accordingly, in June 1910, a new system was introduced by which the commander-in-chief of the military police was appointed chief of police, and gendarmes and civil policemen were separately stationed as local needs required. In 1919, however, that semi-militaristic police system was displaced by the one now in force. This new and present police system is modelled on that in Japan proper, with its headquarters en-

trusted with the entire administration of police and sanitary affairs. The police force in 1938 was 21,782.

Education

In the old days Chosenese children were taught in school nothing but Chinese writing and classics, but soon after the new régime was introduced they began to receive a more modern education, with such new subjects as arithmetic, geography and the Japanese language. The parents at first objected to the introduction of these revolutionary methods, and specially to the forcible teaching of the Japanese language, believing that this was a deliberate attempt on the part of the government to deprive the Chosenese children of their national and inherited traditions. It was due to this misconception held widely among the Chosenese people that the educational authorities found much difficulty in enrolling pupils despite the fact that no tuition fee was charged and all textbooks were supplied to the pupils free of charge. In 1930 the Government-General, animated by a desire to respect the wishes of the native race and to foster Oriental morals developed by Confucius, reopened the old Meiringakuin (Confucian Institute) at the Keigakuin (formerly known to Chosenese as the "Songkyun Kwan"), the oldest and highest seat of learning in the country for the study of the Confucian classics.

Important Reforms But many more reforms of far-reaching importance were made in 1920, when the present educational system was introduced. By it not only was the standard of educational attainment raised, but the principle of equality was laid down firmly though no compulsory features were adopted with regard to elementary education, as in Japan. The following differences, however, were made and are maintained out of respect for Chosenese sentiment.

(1) The Chosenese language is made an obligatory subject in schools for Chosenese children exclusively, while it is optional in schools for Japanese children in Chosen.

(2) The teaching of Chosenese history and geography is to be particularly emphasized in schools for Chosenese children.

(3) Different text-books, though of an equal standard, may be used in view of the difference of language and cus-

toms of the two races. That is to say, schools for Japanese children may use text-books compiled by the Education Ministry of Japan, but schools for Chosenese children those compiled at the Education Bureau of the Government-General. Chosenese are mostly educated in common schools, higher common schools and girls' common schools. The term of the common school is six years while that of the higher and girls' higher common schools is two years. Chosenese children who prefer to receive education at the Japanese school may enter the elementary or the middle school as they chose. The system proved very efficacious in develop-

ing the education in Chosen. With the gradual increase of elementary schools more teachers, especially women, are in demand; therefore in April 1935 the Keijo Women's Normal School was established, and the training course at the Keijo Normal School was closed.

In April 1936 a new Government Normal School was established in Zensyu, and in April 1937 the Kanko Normal School, in April 1938, Koshu Normal School and Koshu Women's Normal School, and in April 1939, Shunseon Normal School were opened.

The table below shows clearly the development of educational work in Chosen since 1937:

	1937		1938		1939	
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students
Kindergartens	333	19,998	337	21,104	348	21,792
Elementary schools	3,106	890,993	3,220	1,143,362	3,372	1,311,470
Short course elementary schools	927	60,077	1,145	76,192	1,327	86,797
Middle schools	43	23,407	50	25,822	53	27,567
Girl's high schools	51	19,072	54	20,716	57	22,277
Business schools	62	20,323	77	22,331	83	23,868
Elementary industrial schools	125	6,325	135	7,413	143	8,091
Normal schools	6	3,758	8	4,959	10	5,563
Colleges	15	4,252	15	4,373	18	4,915
University preparatory school	1	461	1	514	1	542
University	1	516	1	501	1	558
Total	4,670	1,149,182	5,043	1,327,287	5,413	1,516,025

Christian mission and other private schools are included in this table.

There are still a large number of Sohtang, which are old fashioned Chinese style schools where Chinese classics and brush-writing are taught. At the end of March 1940, the number was 4,686 with 164,507 pupils. These schools are now utilized by the Government as agencies to foster public education and are controlled by regulations on Sohtang.

Short Course Elementary School Two million Chosenese children of school age are still unable to attend school, most of them living in remote agricultural and mountainous districts where it is not yet possible to provide educational facilities. To give some education to these children the Government introduced a plan to establish short course elementary schools with a two year course, which was put into force in April 1934. The plan has been very

popular in the country districts and the number of these schools established was very great. In May 1939, they numbered 1,327 with 86,979 pupils.

Chosenese Students in Japan The Chosenese students in Japan proper numbered 11,007 in October 1939, most of them being in Tokyo. Those sent by the Government-General are comparatively few. The students sent by the Government-General are not only supplied with necessary funds by the Government during the period they stay in the colleges to which they have been sent, but are after graduation given official or educational positions.

Reform in 1938 In view of the advance of Chosenese education in recent years and the advisability of raising the position of the educated Chosenese to the same standard as the Japan-

ese, the Government-General of Chosen made a general revision of the Chosen Education Law in March 1938, according to which all the people in Chosen, Chosenese and Japanese alike, are educated in elementary and secondary schools just as in Japan proper, and the former differences in courses of study between Chosenese and Japanese were altogether wiped out.

Chosenese for Defense Service

Chosen has been defended by the Chosen Army which solely consisted of Japanese officials and soldiers. But the present China Affair gave Chosenese an opportunity to show their loyalty to the Government-General and the Emperor, and their earnestness in requesting their share in defense services and in other relative works has been much appreciated by the authorities and the people of Japan in general. And to comply with the request an Imperial Ordinance was promulgated in February 1938, according to which Chosenese are allowed, for the first time, to enter military service as volunteers.

The Chosen Government-General announced, in April, to receive 400 Chosenese volunteers, for which as many as 3,000 Chosenese young men immediately responded. The required number was chosen from among the three thousand and 200 of whom were first enlisted as military students in the Chosen Government-General Institute for Training Military Volunteers, which was established near Keijo, the capital. They were graduated from the Institute at the end of November 1938, after 6 months of training to be the pioneer Chosenese constituent in the Imperial Army. In 1940-41, the Government-General announced to increase the number of Chosenese volunteers to 3,000, for which the responses reached 84,400 in number; two were killed in action in the Sino-Japanese hostilities in September 1939.

Religion

Buddhism Buddhism first entered Chosen about 370 A.D. It was introduced from China by a priest who brought with him a Buddhist image and the "sacred books," and it flourished greatly in the peninsula during the days of Silla and Koryu. Under the dynasty of Yi, however, it met with persecution. The number of priests was limit-

ed and members of good families were forbidden to enter the priesthood, with the consequences that it soon lost its hold among the masses to a large extent. Things remained so until Japan extended her rule throughout the country. Then in September 1911, an ordinance on religions was promulgated giving freedom of preaching and full protection to temples, and also raising the status of the priesthood. Since then Buddhism has been revived to a marked extent, so that there were, at the end of 1939, 1,666 temples and preaching places, 6,662 monks and nuns and 198,200 Chosenese adherents. There are several native religions not recognized by the Government-General, among which the most influential one is the Tendokyo, which is a mixture of Confucianism, Buddhism and Taoism. This religion has followers numbering 82,200. Apart from Chosenese Buddhism and allied sects, we find Japanese forms of Buddhism lately established in the peninsula, priests of the Shin sect being the pioneers. Later three others, Jodo, Soto and Nichiren sects, entered the new religious field in competition with other sects and religions. At present nine sects of Japanese Buddhism are working among the resident Japanese as well as among the Chosenese masses, and at the end of 1939 there were 131 temples, 636 preaching houses, 892 priests, and 334,000 believers including 37,500 Chosenese.

Shintoism At the end of 1939 there were in Chosen 53 Shinto shrines, while 11 Shinto sects had 305 preaching halls, 633 priests and 98,800 adherents including 20,400 Chosenese.

Christianity Christianity in Chosen was first brought by an official mission sent to Peking, China, by a Korean king in the latter half of the 18th century. This mission brought back with them a Bible and other Christian books. As its teaching, however, ran counter to the deep-rooted custom of ancient worship, King Selso in 1784 issued an order prohibiting its preaching which was followed by a severe persecution. Though later occasionally the persecution was more or less relaxed, nothing for a time indicated a revival of Christianity. In 1833 a French missionary named Pierre Maubant came to Chosen to preach the Gospel. He was the first foreign missionary to tread the soil of the hermit kingdom. His energetic and

devoted evangelistic work was not fruitless, but it alarmed the government officials, who in 1839 issued a prohibition edict. But it failed to suppress the spread of Christianity, and in 1863 there were as many as 18,000 converts. In 1866 the persecution against Chosenese converts was renewed with vigor, which cost the lives of 30,000 people. In 1882, however, freedom of worship was fully recognized in the country as a result of diplomatic pressure brought upon its Government, and in 1885 several American missionaries came to Chosen. This was the first time for Protestantism to be preached there, and it gained influence among the masses as time went on. When in 1906 Prince Ito, the foremost Japanese statesman at that time, was appointed first Resident-General, he pursued a policy of friendliness toward these foreign missionaries, this policy being pursued up to the present day under various Governors-General. There were, at the end of 1939, 5,289 preaching houses, 4,763 missionaries including 436 foreigners and 508,900 adherents including 6,400 Japanese, 502,200 Chosenese and 200 foreigners.

Communications and Transportation

Highways Highways existed in Chosen in olden times. The Peking highway, which was one of them, connected Peking with Gishu and Keijo, and through that way embassies were exchanged between the old Chosen and China. But in later years they were left in ruin. Under the Residency-General work for new ones was started with a sum of ¥1,500,000. As the

	Length k.m.	Passengers	Freight (tons)	Receipts (yen)
1933	2,935	22,238,338	7,254,859	43,611,142
1934	3,078	25,614,000	7,681,000	51,148,000
1935	3,389	29,344,188	8,667,642	56,477,897
1936	3,575	33,708,178	9,980,227	65,036,058
1937	3,737	35,906,000	11,369,000	76,909,000
1938	3,831	—	—	95,133,000

As for the private railway enterprises in Chosen, regulations were issued in 1912 so as to provide adequately for effective supervision and protection. In 1921 new regulations were issued by which increased state aid was extended to private railway undertakings. These have in consequence made

first stage plan construction of four new lines aggregating 254.80 km. in four provinces was commenced in 1907, and in 1908 on another 196 km. highway in various provinces. In 1909 construction of three more highways totalling 188.16 km. in length was started, together with widening and readjusting works of streets in Keijo, Taikyū and Jinsen. In 1910 construction of 12 roads extending 164.64 km. in length was also commenced.

Since 1910 the Governor-General devised a plan to improve highway facilities through a construction of 23 roads extending over 2,263.60 km. with a sum of ¥10,000,000. The work was to run for five years consecutively, beginning with the fiscal year 1911.

At the end of 1938, the total highways in Chosen extended 27,731 km., including 38 first class roads 3,236 km., 97 second class roads 9,976 km., and 516 third class roads 14,675 km.

Railways The construction of railways as a civilizing agency is being vigorously carried on in accordance with the 12 year program laid in 1927. The program covers the construction of a Tumen River line and four other lines totalling 1,384 kilometers and the purchase of five lines including the Zenshu-Riri Railway, totalling 339 kilometers. At the end of August 1940, the total government-owned railway kilometers reached 4,293.3 kilometers in active operation, a portion of which run by the South Manchuria Railway Company. The following gives some idea of the development of railways run by the government up to 1938.

rapid progress, and in 1938 their total mileage reached 1,252 kilometers operated by 10 companies, carried 11,418,000 passengers and 2,920,000 tons with the receipts of ¥10,268,000.

Tramways The main tramway lines now in operation are 5 with aggregate mileage of 81.4 km.

Buses At the end of June 1940, there were 150 persons engaged in bus business with business lines extending 30,546.7 km.

Navigation There were at the end of 1939, 1,943 steamships and 14,857 sailing boats with the total tonnage of 311,352 tons, their routes being Interport, Chosen-Japan and Chosen-China-Russia. The following table shows the progress in this method of transportation in recent years:

	Steamers		Sailing-boats	
	Number	Tonnage	Number	Tonnage
1931	202	52,302	745	24,778
1932	223	57,512	756	24,889
1933	235	57,920	796	26,573
1934	259	53,547	851	28,429
1935	270	64,641	10,502	134,386
1936	1,134	70,184	11,726	150,473
1937	1,398	100,014	13,154	169,355
1938	1,773	110,079	14,125	186,850
1939	1,943	118,391	14,857	192,961

Navigable Rivers The most important river in Chosen is perhaps the Yalu or Oryokko which, forming the boundary line between Chosen and Manchoukuo, rises in the Paktusan or "Everwhite" Mountains (2,744 m.) and empties into the Yellow Sea. Its length is about 800 km. of which about 700 km. is navigable by air-propeller boats under governmental subsidy. Timber felled on the mountain slopes is made into rafts and floated down until it reaches the lumber-yards at Shingishu or Antung. Another river of importance is the River Daido which flows through Heijo and empties into the Yellow Sea in the neighborhood of Chinampo. The river is 400 km. long, navigable for a distance of 245 km. There are also four other rivers wide enough for navigation by sailing boats and motor boats. These are Rakuto (flowing into Chosen Channel) 344 km. (Navigable course), Kanko (flowing into Yellow Sea) 300 km., Kinko 130 km., and Tumen 85 km.

Airways There are at present three airports established in Chosen. These ports are located at Urusan, Keijo and Heijo. Besides that in the following places ground marks are set up: Urusan, Kwokan, Taiden, Tenan, Sharlin, Heijo, Teishu and Shingishu. Moreover, in Urusan and Keijo there are now built wireless stations for keeping in communication with the airways. At the airport of Urusan there is installed

a meteorological observatory for forecasting weather conditions in the interests of air navigators. Most of the air traffic between Chosen and Japan is being done by planes belonging to the Dai-Nippon Airways Company.

Post, Telegraph and Telephone Prior to 1905 there were 516 postal offices in the peninsula. At the end of August 1940, they numbered 1,296 including 203 offices engaged for telegraph and telephone service exclusively. Number of mails accepted and delivered in 1939 amounted to 373,034,491 and 408,108,577, that of parcels to 3,802,939 and 5,016,834 and that of telegrams to 13,713,835 and 14,029,227 respectively. In November 1926, a Radio Broadcasting Office was established in Keijo and opened to business in February 1927. Fusan Office was opened in 1935, Heijo Office in 1936 and Seishin Office in 1937. At the end of 1939 there were 167,049 subscribers.

Public Hygiene

Prior to 1906 Chosen was a land practically without access to any medical service worthy of the name and the sick were simply placed under the care of unqualified practitioners of the old Chinese school or of witches or magicians. The situation was made worse by an entire lack of sanitary equipments and pure water, the consequence being frequent outbreaks of various infectious diseases. As soon as the protectorate was brought into existence in 1906 the first step taken by the government with a view to giving the nation the benefit of sanitation was the establishment of a modern hospital in Keijo. Since 1910 further steps have been taken to extend modern medical and sanitary benefits among the masses, even among those in very remote regions. The construction and extension of waterworks is another work pushed on by the government with vigor so as to provide the people with good drinking water. The Government-General has also taken efficient and energetic measures for the prevention of epidemics; in consequence, small-pox which was formerly so virulent in Chosen, has almost died out. Moreover, sanitary regulations relating to food-stuffs, drinks, and drugs are rigidly enforced. Medical and hospital equipments have been greatly improved. At the end of 1939 hospitals numbered 149 including government institutions, and there were 3,392 licensed medical prac-