

PRODUCTION OF METALIC INDUSTRY

Value in ¥1,000			
	1935	1936	1937
Metal refining and material	1,298,024	1,488,916	2,416,700
Castings:			
Pigiron	85,556	112,855	205,962
Cast steel	25,741	23,650	50,194
Other cast metals	15,975	20,614	36,471
Total	139,467	167,538	306,565
Bolt, Nut, Washer	15,856	21,095	39,123
Rivet	4,375	5,964	11,186
Nail	19,256	21,368	33,325
(Iron nail)	(14,960)	(15,522)	(25,977)
Needle	2,851	3,491	3,965
Chain	4,303	4,850	6,272
Rope	13,448	16,367	23,321
Wire	6,592	7,190	11,503
Wire-netting	5,012	5,771	7,938
Tin-plate manufactures (can)	75,652	90,667	134,313
(40,491)	(53,739)	(69,699)	
Iron furnitures	16,120	23,424	28,885
Building materials	47,633	63,725	82,541
Copper and bronze wares	573	710	1,103
Aluminium wares	12,087	15,030	15,625
Button	1,725	2,060	2,806
Pen	2,924	3,482	4,102
(For fountain-pen)	(2,371)	(2,641)	(2,929)
Razor	643	857	974
Table knife, fork, spoon	1,737	2,011	2,428
Toy	2,988	3,710	6,188
Total including others	279,294	353,079	491,794
Plated articles	100,310	121,187	163,546
Grand Total	1,817,097	2,130,719	3,378,606

PRODUCTION OF BRICKS AND OTHER FIRE-PROOF ARTICLES

Value in ¥1,000			
	1935	1936	1937
Bricks	3,203	3,329	3,916
Bricks, fire-proof	16,211	19,327	26,278
Other fire-proof articles	5,223	4,889	6,989
Total	26,637	27,545	37,183

PRODUCTION OF THE KILN INDUSTRY
(Not mentioned elsewhere)

Value in ¥1,000			
	1935	1936	1937
Cement manufactures			
Tiles	626	811	778
Pipes	3,718	4,000	5,617
Slates	3,056	6,671	12,067

	1935	1936	1937
Others	2,106	2,378	3,628
Total	9,507	13,861	22,091
Lime	5,895	8,498	13,672
Enamelled ironwares	15,944	17,970	21,841

PRODUCTION OF WOOD-WORKS

Value in ¥1,000			
	1935	1936	1937
Clogs, etc.	19,610	21,158	23,974
Turnery	10,955	12,907	14,867
Chip-work	5,712	4,515	6,525
Joinery	91,176	96,821	102,975
Boxes	44,072	49,803	60,930
Barrels and pails	20,741	21,869	23,487
Chopsticks	2,285	2,414	2,868
Total	194,555	209,484	235,628
Number of houses	108,838	109,471	105,968
Number of operatives	227,323	229,625	227,840

EARNINGS OF PRINTING HOUSES

Amount in ¥1,000	
Year	Amount
1935	210,663
1936	225,705
1937	258,519

PRODUCTION OF MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES
(Not mentioned elsewhere)

Value in ¥1,000			
	1935	1936	1937
Paper goods:			
Boxes	10,017	14,005	15,608
Tags	1,011	912	940
Toys	350	492	925
Fans (Sensu)	62	96	193
Fans (Uchiwa)	531	541	649
Lanterns	584	552	619
Note-books	4,019	5,415	4,492
Total including others	51,746	58,092	75,456
Bamboo goods:			
Baskets	9,212	9,574	9,935
Blinds (Sudaré)	1,185	1,327	1,247
Total including others	10,703	11,297	11,628
Wicker goods	2,964	3,657	3,469
(Yanagi-gōri)	(2,468)	(2,680)	(2,574)
Cane-work	2,302	2,439	2,427
(Cane table and chair)	(1,133)	(1,345)	(1,358)
Mat (Tatami omoté)	12,620	14,705	17,176
Mat (Goza and Hanamushiro)	7,058	9,223	11,524
Straw, chip and other braids	3,968	5,101	7,936
Leather	33,568	45,945	68,883
Leather goods			
Shoes	24,328	27,474	29,742

	1935	1936	1937	Total including others		
	1935	1936	1937	1935	1936	1937
Bags	4,073	4,682	4,820	18,526	22,469	27,148
Saddlery	1,530	1,863	2,935	2,485	3,622	11,229
Belt	4,759	5,233	5,097	3,058	4,030	3,703
Small bags	1,983	2,530	2,504			
Total	36,675	41,784	45,101			
Button (shell, ivory, bone)	3,923	5,257	7,449	4,792	6,526	7,678
Imitation pearl	1,596	1,343	807	6,850	8,908	13,654
Brushes	5,662	6,511	7,500	13,256	9,587	12,080
(Tooth brush)	(1,454)	(4,256)	(3,841)			
Rope (fibrous)	31,120	35,122	48,514	8,038	9,159	9,213
Foreign style clothes	24,587	29,501	33,994	(1,126)	(1,457)	(566)
Underwears	10,582	11,552	19,596	13	164	237
Japanese socks	38,329	42,698	54,675	2,137	3,081	2,926
Handkerchief	871	508	1,247	4,866	4,631	5,430
Hat:				954	1,318	1,324
Felt	13,239	16,853	19,862	906	240	1,504
Straw	2,559	2,447	2,059	320	288	652
Imitation panama	2,512	1,856	2,065	90	120	200
				4,903	5,214	5,819

EARNINGS BY WORKERS IN FINISHING, MENDING, ETC.

(Unit: ¥1,000)			
For	1935	1936	1937
Spinning and weaving industry	267,927	279,789	321,399
Metallic industry	18,989	21,560	34,216
Machinery industry	71,178	95,245	123,257
Kiln industry	5,829	4,412	8,760
Chemical industry	5,058	5,651	9,218
Wood work	11,408	11,992	11,463
Printing and binding	8,255	6,236	7,341
Foodstuff industry	2,026	2,449	3,747
Miscellaneous industry	19,832	21,790	28,848
Total	410,507	449,128	548,254

CHAPTER XXIV COMMUNICATIONS

General

The communications of the country are supervised by the Minister of Communications and a special account is established for the management of this business, beginning with the fiscal year 1934-1935. General condition of the business in Japan proper in 1937-38 may be obtained from the following:

Post, telegraph and telephone officials and operatives (Sept. 30, 1938)	21,577
Post, telegraph and telephone offices (Sept. 30, 1938)	14,830
Ordinary mail routes (March 31, 1938) in km.	156,616
Ordinary mails accepted (1937-38)	5,032,459,307
Ordinary mails delivered (1937-38)	4,763,778,174

Parcel post routes (March 31, 1935) in km.	85,385
Parcel accepted (1937-38)	72,614,786
Parcels delivered (1937-38)	80,529,155
Telegraph routes (March 31, 1938) in km.	49,710
Telegraph lines (March 31, 1938) in km.	376,045
Telegraphs despatched (1937-38)	74,064,285
Telegraphs received (1937-38)	78,991,640
Telephone subscribers (Sept. 30, 1938)	981,920
Telephone routes (March 31, 1938) in km.	83,139
Telephone lines (March 31, 1938) in km.	7,620,374
Telephones (March 31, 1935)	935,139
Telephone messages (1937-38)	4,976,322,000
Income from postage and fees (1937-38)	¥374,731,955,738
Business expenditure (1937-38)	¥322,951,846,983

The Postal Service

Historical Survey

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

Foreign Mail Opens In March, 1872, a foreign mail service was opened at the same time as the establishment of official postal regulations. In those days, foreign mail matter in Japan was handled with the aid of the British, American, and French post offices in Yokohama, Kobe and Nagasaki. Soon after the conclusion of the America-Japan Mail Service Treaty in 1873, the American post offices were withdrawn from this country, and Japan was thus placed

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

The post offices were at first classified into five grades, and in March 1886, they were classified into three as at present. In view of the development of telephone and telegraph business, the authorities introduced a revision in the system of the Communications Department in 1903, and divided post offices into post, telegraph, and telephone offices each of them being classified into 1st, 2nd and 3rd, or 1st and 2nd in the case of telephone offices. With the rapid increase in the amount of mail matter and telephone and telegraphic messages, the regulations of the Communications Department as to the number and kind of offices, were extended from time to time, and at present there are offices in warships, steamers, trains, etc., in addition to the network throughout the country.

The air mail service was commenced

in 1929 with the establishment of the Japan Air Transport Company in April of the same year.

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

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

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

On March 31 of	No. of P. O.
1930	9,690
1931	9,954
1932	10,208
1933	10,322
1934	10,611
1935	10,891
1936	11,253
1937	11,669
1938	12,138
1939 (30, Sep.)	12,484

Post offices are classified into three grades, namely 1st, 2nd and 3rd, the 1st being, side by side with 2nd and 3rd offices, in such important places as Tokyo, Osaka, and other leading cities. The 2nd and 3rd are in smaller cities,

towns and villages throughout the country. Those of the 1st and 2nd grade are government offices, under direct government management. In post offices of the 3rd class, business is conducted on the contract system.

Its Business

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

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

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

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

NUMBER OF POST OFFICES (September 30, 1938)

	Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
1st Class	107	12	—	—	—	—
2nd Class	274	11	4	110	59	9
3rd Class	11,271	171	83	—	—	—
Minor offices	832	—	—	32	82	—
Total	12,484	194	87	142	104	9

VOLUME OF MAIL MATTER HANDLED IN JAPAN PROPER

	Ordinary Mail	Parcel Post	Total	Percentage of Increase
1912-1913 { Despatched	1,630,394,998	24,276,991	1,654,671,989	5.28
{ Received	1,594,850,576	23,008,666	1,617,859,242	6.03
1921-1922 { Despatched	3,992,769,865	48,758,863	4,041,528,718	2.03
{ Received	3,909,309,281	45,890,304	4,035,199,585	1.87

		Ordinary Mail	Parcel Post	Total	Percentage of Increase	
1926-1927	Despatched	3,974,192,623	58,258,644	4,032,451,267	2.49	
	Received	3,906,474,525	55,852,079	3,962,326,604	2.66	
1929-1930	Despatched	5,096,611,368	63,650,583	5,160,261,951	9.55	
	Received	5,046,099,425	60,654,644	5,106,754,069	(-)9.70	
1930-1931	Despatched	4,409,551,651	60,067,753	4,469,619,404	(-)0.02	
	Received	4,437,939,812	57,734,887	4,495,674,699	0.18	
1931-1932	Despatched	4,409,202,875	58,201,931	4,467,404,806	1.08	
	Received	4,532,477,443	55,654,599	4,588,132,042	(-)1.35	
1932-1933	Despatched	4,253,259,031	58,472,313	4,311,731,344	(-)0.36	
	Received	4,294,100,596	54,849,774	4,348,950,370	0.34	
1933-1934	Despatched	4,357,325,600	61,240,342	4,418,565,942	0.25	
	Received	4,402,200,835	57,762,972	4,459,963,807	0.26	
1934-1935	Despatched	4,674,986,977	65,073,439	4,740,060,416	0.73	
	Received	4,772,868,449	61,847,673	4,834,716,122	0.84	
1935-1936	Despatched	4,735,348,007	68,291,938	4,803,639,945	0.13	
	Received	4,901,685,581	64,854,932	4,966,540,513	0.27	
1936-1937	Despatched	4,842,938,022	72,593,332	4,915,531,354	2.32	
	Received	4,934,414,563	68,185,892	5,002,600,455	0.72	
1937-1938	Despatched	4,763,778,174	80,529,185	4,844,307,359	(-)1.44	
	Received	5,032,459,307	72,614,786	5,105,274,093	2.05	

VOLUME OF MAIL MATTER HANDLED DURING 1937-38
IN THE EMPIRE

	Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Mandated Islands
Ordinary mail						
Domestic mail						
Despatched	4,711,585,234	61,401,412	33,751,285	340,835,857	145,606,715	2,196,103
Collection post	6,541,372	—	9,552	492,562	9,864	—
Received	4,980,515,653	99,327,932	32,551,116	358,213,524	152,476,606	3,656,666
Collection post	—	—	61,662	745,813	85,446	—
Foreign mail			(Foreign mail included)			
Despatched	52,192,940	669,981	—	234,002	2,246,500	11,237
Collection post	—	—	—	—	—	—
Received	51,943,654	342,211	—	759,768	2,281,428	14,177
Parcel post						
Domestic						
Despatched	79,331,501	773,124	288,487	2,869,740	648,042	23,858
Received	72,298,845	1,305,688	655,188	4,292,426	1,402,297	81,169
Foreign			(Foreign mail included)			
Despatched	1,197,654	9,925	—	9,231	20,429	19
Received	315,941	3,440	—	5,758	18,639	119
Total						
Despatched	4,844,307,329	83,054,442	24,032,772	343,948,830	148,521,686	2,231,217
Collection post	6,541,372	295,026	9,552	492,562	9,864	2
Received	5,105,074,093	100,979,271	33,206,304	363,271,476	156,128,970	3,752,131
Collection post	—	429,293	61,662	745,813	85,446	1,263

Postal Money Order can hardly be included into the business of communications. It is, however, one of the important lines of business handled by the post office for the convenience of the large mass of people. The number and amount of postal money orders handled during 1937-38 are given below:

POSTAL MONEY ORDERS IN 1937-38
DOMESTIC

Territory	Issued		Paid	
	No.	Amount (In yen)	No.	Amount (In yen)
Japan Proper	40,496,288	863,746,668	42,718,148	926,219,020
Taiwan	1,255,050	37,204,409	738,540	22,974,289
Karafuto	567,664	17,972,630	282,662	10,735,825
Chosen	4,641,998	153,714,946	3,978,092	135,135,160

Territory	Issued		Paid	
	No.	Amount (In yen)	No.	Amount (In yen)
Kwantung Leased Territory	1,234,564	34,212,980	459,122	15,214,027
South Sea Mandated Islands	121,061	12,429,812	22,999	7,140,620
FOREIGN				
Japan Proper	161,910	7,122,511	1,117,957	35,091,071
Taiwan	13,260	437,837	4,668	162,693
Karafuto	1,063	73,733	4,178	241,041
Chosen	75,590	3,802,108	232,585	8,019,030
Kwantung Leased Territory	55,404	2,245,735	188,867	5,754,238
South Sea Mandated Islands	95	12,099	112	4,019

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

POSTAL MONEY ORDERS IN JAPAN PROPER

Fiscal Year	Number	Increase	
		(In percentage)	Amount (In yen)
1915-16	Issued	20,014,404	2.04
	Paid	21,538,637	2.02
1920-21	Issued	27,298,164	3.64
	Paid	28,892,790	3.41
1925-26	Issued	30,400,558	1.14
	Paid	31,888,323	1.04
1929-30	Issued	31,233,521	0.27
	Paid	32,820,607	0.29
1931-32	Issued	31,877,079	0.21
	Paid	33,674,636	0.26
1932-33	Issued	33,360,209	0.47
	Paid	35,345,114	0.50
1934-35	Issued	35,371,607	0.60
	Paid	37,539,575	0.63
1935-36	Issued	36,926,278	0.44
	Paid	39,348,351	0.48
1936-37	Issued	38,146,546	0.33
	Paid	40,591,334	0.29
1937-38	Issued	40,496,288	0.61
	Paid	42,718,148	0.52

Telegraph Service

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

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

Statistics on the telegraph services follow:

TELEGRAPH STATIONS IN JAPAN PROPER

Year	Number	Increase in the Year	Year	Number	Increase in the Year
1930-1931	7,631	620	1934-1935	8,215	273
1931-1932	7,709	78	1935-1936	8,951	756
1932-1933	7,813	104	1936-1937	9,678	727
1933-1934	7,942	129	1937-1938	11,469	1,791

NUMBER OF TELEGRAPH OFFICES, SEPTEMBER 30, 1938

	Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	China	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
1st class	5	—	—	—	3	22	—
Wireless	—	4	—	—	—	—	—
2nd class	48	—	2	10	—	—	—
Wireless { Land	17	3	2	—	—	—	—
{ S. S.	21	—	—	—	—	—	—
Post and telegraph offices	9,868	185	103	821	—	23	9
Minor offices	1,863	36	11	147	—	79	—
Wireless { Land	16	3	—	23	—	55	1
{ S. S.	925	6	—	—	—	—	—
{ Air	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	11,784	225	116	978	3	124	10

TELEGRAMS HANDLED IN 1937-1938

	Domestic Messages	Foreign Messages
Japan Proper (Japan—Manchuria included)	{ Despatched 72,629,960 Delivered 77,583,878	{ 1,434,325 1,407,762
Taiwan	{ Despatched 2,046,331 Delivered 2,080,632	{ 20,952 27,131
Karafuto	{ Despatched 1,080,819 Delivered 1,054,505	{ 417 1,102
Chosen	{ Despatched 10,271,769 Delivered 10,268,635	{ 13,906 15,843
P. O. in China	{ Despatched 34,291 Delivered 26,299	{ 156,817 168,484
Kwantung Leased Territory	{ Despatched 3,583,751 Delivered 3,477,284	{ 229,022 233,383
South Sea Islands	{ Despatched 362,442 Delivered 299,674	{ 2,893 2,045

NUMBER OF TELEGRAMS HANDLED BY INLAND POST AND TELEGRAPH OFFICES

(1931-1937)

	Domestic	Foreign	Total	Increase or Decrease in %
1931-32 { Despatch	55,507,280	1,193,654	56,700,934	de 0.32
{ Arrival	57,784,498	1,224,442	59,008,940	de 0.35
1932-33 { Despatch	54,065,046	1,254,430	55,319,476	de 0.24
{ Arrival	56,281,163	1,243,925	57,525,088	de 0.25
1933-34 { Despatch	56,529,921	1,237,193	57,767,114	in 0.44
{ Arrival	58,843,016	1,242,947	60,085,963	in 0.45
1934-35 { Despatch	59,173,906	1,262,539	60,436,445	in 0.46
{ Arrival	61,591,759	1,272,011	62,863,770	in 0.46
1935-36 { Despatch	62,433,347	1,321,910	63,755,257	in 0.55
{ Arrival	65,544,777	1,329,789	66,874,566	in 0.64
1936-37 { Despatch	64,842,865	1,475,353	66,318,218	in 0.40
{ Arrival	68,521,989	1,448,560	69,970,549	in 0.46
1937-38 { Despatch	72,629,960	1,434,325	74,064,285	in 1.16
{ Arrival	77,583,878	1,407,762	78,991,640	in 1.28

LENGTH OF INLAND TELEGRAPH LINES

	Km.	As compared with the previous year
March 31, 1938		
Land lines		
Aerial lines, routes	33,359	- 663
" lines	228,062	+ 3,071
Overhead cables, Routes	124	- 8
Cores	28,717	+ 1,964
Underground lines		
Routes	791	+ 20
Cores	99,395	+ 407
Submarine cables		
Lines	15,435	+ 57
Cores	19,869	+ 162

PNEUMATIC TUBES

	Metre	As compared with the previous year
March 31, 1936		
Length of routes	69,191	+ 13
Length of tubes	140,392	+ 10

FREQUENCIES AND HOURS OF FAULTS OF INLAND TELEGRAPH

1935-1936

Land and underground lines	Frequency	Hour
Contacts	4,902	25,005
Earth	4,636	31,238
Disconnection	2,564	9,773
Leakage	349	4,496
Others	867	1,737
Total	13,358	72,249
As compared with the previous year	Frequency + 1,042	Hour - 11,089
Submarine cables	Frequency 103	Hour 143,361
As compared with the previous year	Frequency + 1	Hour - 640

TELEGRAPHIC APPARATUSES AND BATTERIES

March 31, 1936

Apparatuses	
Telephones for telegraph service	4,716
Ink writers	2
Sounders	5,918
Automatic telegraphs, duplex	172
Undulator and siphon recorders	16
Printing duplex telegraphs, Japanese	58

Printing automatic duplex telegraph, alphabet	7
Double-duplex printing telegraphs	8
Phototelegraphs	4
Telegraph repeaters	218
Automatic time switch	87
Others	92
Total	11,298
Batteries	
Primary	89,276
Secondary	8,795
Total	98,071

Wireless Telegraph Service

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

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

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

International Communication The extension of wireless communication with other countries started in Japan in 1915, when messages were exchanged between Otchishi station and Petropavlovsk in

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

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

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

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

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

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

(a) Transmitting station at Oyama, near Tokyo.

Receiving station at Fukuoka, near Tokyo.

(b) Transmitting station at Yosami, near Nagoya.

Receiving station at Yokkaichi, near Nagoya.

Stations (a) are used for direct communication with San Francisco, Buenos Aires, Honolulu, Manila, Saigon, Bangkok, Bandoeng (Java), Bombay and

Beirut (Syria); and, stations (b) for direct communication with London, Paris, Berlin, Rome, Geneva and Warsaw.

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

		Domestic	Foreign
1931-32	Despatched	386,989	53,929
	Received	290,559	24,097
1932-33	Despatched	387,368	50,403
	Received	262,587	22,444
1933-34	Despatched	426,705	53,999
	Received	283,616	26,110
1934-35	Despatched	537,373	63,856
	Received	327,041	30,647
1935-36	Despatched	552,718	41,112
	Received	314,338	25,418

Telephone Service

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

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

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE EXCHANGE AND MESSAGE OFFICES

	Sept. 30, 1938	
	Exchange Offices	Other Offices
Japan proper	5,804	10,405
Taiwan	119	184
Karafuto	41	61
Chosen	273	858
Kwantung Leased Territory	12	67
South Sea Islands	3	—

NUMBER OF INLAND TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS

	Total subscribers	Applicants for subscription
1929-30	690,043	182,217
1930-31	715,020	176,900
1931-32	729,914	172,150
1932-33	761,136	167,276
1933-34	796,538	161,857
1934-35	830,041	154,345
1935-36	870,476	145,049
1936-37	914,320	—
1937-38	981,920	124,537

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS IN THE TERRITORIES

	Sept. 30, 1938	
Territories	Subscription	
Taiwan	19,633	
Karafuto	6,304	
Chosen	51,519	
Kwantung Leased Territory	15,941	
South Sea Islands	689	

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE MESSAGES IN JAPAN PROPER

Year	In the Same Subscription Districts			With Other Districts	
	Messages between Subscribers	Hours of Conversations at Offices and Public Tele-phones	Requests for Calling out	Hours of Conversation	Requests for Calling out
1933-34	3,564,536,772	36,949,570	43,165	211,604,540	2,003,246
1934-35	3,783,991,018	40,202,841	42,124	236,789,514	2,110,144
1935-36	3,984,266,968	44,791,390	44,494	273,789,863	2,216,320
1936-37	4,412,775,000	51,439,000	—	307,733,000	—
1937-38	4,976,322,000	59,853,000	—	342,590,000	—

FREQUENCIES OF FAULTS WITH URBAN TELEPHONES IN JAPAN PROPER, 1935-1936

		As Compared with the Previous Year
Faults in exchange offices	516,328	+ 4,164
" subscribers	629,486	+50,770
" on routes	347,924	+34,338
Total	1,493,738	+89,272

LENGTH OF TELEPHONE LINES IN JAPAN PROPER 1937-1938

	Km.	As Compared with the Previous Year
Land lines		
Aerial lines, routes	65,920	+ 6,238
" lines	625,632	+ 28,985
Overhead cables, routes	11,016	+ 3,484
" cores	2,268,167	+315,457
Underground lines		
Routes	4,817	+ 878
Cores	4,711,540	+532,428
Submarine cables		
Lines	1,384	+ 297
Cores	15,033	+ 6,175

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE APPARATUSES AND BATTERIES IN THE EMPIRE, 1935-1936

	As Compared		Taiwan	Kara-futo	Chosen	Kwan-tung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
	Japan Proper	with the Previous Year					
Manual telephone exchanges	11,736	-59	254	1	—	198	1
Automatic telephone exchanges	3,326	+324	1	85	841	197	2
Telephones	987,726	+52,587	17,620	5,658	43,648	24,695	354
Batteries	912,521	+23,305	24,516	5,999	71,446	17,171	470

Note: Figures for colonies are of 1933-34.

Wireless Telephone Service

The first experiment with wireless telephony in Japan was made in 1911

by the Communications Department with very satisfactory results. It was in 1923, however, that the service was opened for public use between Kobe

city and steamers in the harbour. In 1926, this service was extended to Moji. The result being satisfactory, the Government decided further to extend the service and in December, 1932, the International Telephone Company, with a capital of ¥10,000,000, was established through the solicitation of the Communications Ministry to build up stations for the use of the Government and private bodies. This was done to facilitate wireless telephone service between Japan and the world, Japan's colonies and ships at sea. The transmitting station of the company is established at Nazaki, Ibaraki prefecture, and the receiving station at Komuro, Saitama prefecture, and these stations are connected each other and with the Tokyo Central Telephone Office by cables. Wireless telephones are now available between Tokyo, Nagoya, Kanazawa, Kobé, Osaka, Kyoto, Yokohama, Toyohashi, Nara, Himeji, Shimonoséki, Fukuoka, Fukuoka, Yawata,

Wakamatsu, Nishinomiya, Amagasaki and Suma. The service has been opened between Formosa and Tokyo, on June 20, 1934. (See p. 616.)

In 1934-35 international wireless telephone service was successively opened between Japan and Manchoukuo, U. S. A., Canada, Mexico, Cuba, Philippines, Dutch East Indies, Sumatra, England, and Germany. The service with other 28 European countries was opened in July, 1935, with China in February, 1936, with Cape Town and Brazil in April, 1936, with Saigon in May, 1936, and with Argentine, Uruguay, Paraguay, French-Indo-China, Siam, and Union of South Africa in 1937.

Rates for the first 3 minutes range from ¥40 to ¥110 for European countries and from ¥54 to ¥95 for the U.S.A., the highest being ¥164 for Paraguay in South America.

Telephotograph Service This service is only available between Tokyo, Osaka and Formosa.

Radio

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

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

Shortly afterwards, small stations were established in Osaka and Nagoya, which form with Tokyo the three largest population centres. The engineers in charge of these stations were sceptical about their success. There was no assurance that the Japanese public would respond by buying radio sets and listening in, or would like the programmes once they were heard. These fears, however, were groundless. For a time there were not enough receiving sets in the stores to meet the demand. Instead of a novelty, the radio became a daily necessity. Elated at their success, the promoters worked out a plan to centralize all the broadcasting in the country, which was heartily approved by the Ministry of Communications. Before the end of a year, the stations in Tokyo, Osaka and Nagoya were merged, and the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan was formed to assure nationwide cooperation in meeting the demand for more efficient stations and better programmes. The present number of broadcasting stations is 7 with 35 sub-stations.

International Programme Exchange Starting with the vivid scenes of New Year's Eve from U.S.A., the year of 1936 was the busiest year the Corporation ever experienced in the line of international broadcasting.

In the early spring, speeches on the London Naval Disarmament Conference by Japanese representatives and the relay of Funeral Service of the late King George V. from England impressed the hearts of whole nation. Besides the large number of programme exchanges with other countries, as one of the chief events previously planned, the Corporation succeeded in relaying eye-witness accounts of almost all events from the actual scene of the Olympic stadium and swimming pool on the occasion of the Xith Olympiad which was held in Berlin.

In order to describe the running commentary of the Olympic Games, the Corporation sent a corps of JOAK staff members to Berlin for the benefit of the domestic listeners.

The entire nation most enthusiastically listened to these broadcasts from Berlin, because of the two-fold events; one of which was Olympic Committee's deliberation in Berlin on the fortunate city for 1940 Olympiad, and the other was the outcome of the Berlin Olympiad itself, awaiting the success of the large number of Japanese competitors participating in the Games. The result of reception was so successful that the whole nation not only enjoyed these broadcasts but marvelled at the technical perfection in the modern art of radio transmission for long distance in which much credit is due to the skill and effort of the operators on both sides.

The international programme exchange yearly adding its importance as one of the most effective mediums to create a better understanding of each nation, the Corporation is increasing its effort in various phases of this field to co-operate with as many broadcasting organisations of the world as circumstances permit.

In the year 1937, Japan participated in twenty-nine international broadcasts.

Overseas Broadcast The Broadcasting Corporation of Japan inaugurated daily one hour short-wave broadcast, that is 2:00 to 3:00 p.m., Tokyo Time, under the name of "Overseas Broadcast" on June 1st, 1935 with the object of furnishing the residents in the foreign countries with accurate information about Japan and of introducing the culture of Japan.

The programmes of this broadcast consist of news in Japanese and English, music, entertainment, talk and eyewitness accounts of various sport events and other subjects, specially selected to pre-

sent a true and interesting glimpse of the real Japan to all listeners abroad.

Though this broadcast was mainly directed to the West Coast of North America and Hawaii, the programmes of this broadcast met with an enthusiastic response and reports of good reception and much encouraging response complimenting the contents of the programmes were received, not only from the areas to which they were specifically addressed but also from other parts of the world.

Moreover, the Corporation was carrying out during the past year experimental transmissions, one for the East Coast of North America and South America and the other for Europe, each twice a week. These transmissions also met with considerable response and a large number of reception reports from those who had listened to these broadcasts in various countries to which these transmissions were specifically directed.

Encouraged by the good results of these experimental transmissions, the Corporation has decided to inaugurate three more daily transmissions, and the first programme of these transmissions went on the air on January 1st, 1937.

Transmitters of 20 kilowatt are used temporarily for these broadcasts, but they will be replaced in the near future by 50 kilowatt transmitter which is now under construction.

From the beginning of April 1937, the broadcast to Europe, on Monday, Wednesday and Friday, will be in English and German and on Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday, French and English will be employed. On Sunday the broadcast will be only in English.

In the other three directions broadcasts will be in Japanese and English.

Programme Hours The working hours of each broadcasting station in Japan differ a little according to their local conditions as well as the seasons of the year. According to the report of the JOAK, the average broadcasting hours per day in 1936 were 11 hours and 26 minutes in the general broadcasting and 4 hours and 38 minutes in the broadcasting for cities.

The first programme of the day is sent out at 6.00 a.m. (from April to October) and at 6.30 a.m. (from November to March), and the closing announcements of the day's programme goes on the air at 9.50 p.m.

The following tables give the number and hours of broadcasting and the programme statistics classified by programme classes of JOAK.

NUMBER AND HOURS OF BROADCASTING

		Major Divisions		
		General Broad- casting	Broadcasting for Cities	Broadcasting for Overseas Japanese
Number of broadcasts	1938	21,044	4,343	14,367
	1937	19,597	2,638	10,041
	Increase or Decrease	+1,447	+1,705	+4,326
Hours (in total)	1938	4,174.03	1,675.17	2,231.03
	1937	3,932.36	1,370.47	1,640.06
	Increase or Decrease	+241.27	+304.30	+590.57
Average hours per day		h. m.	h. m.	h. m.
	1938	11.26	4.35	6.06
	1937	10.46	3.45	4.29
	Increase	.40	.50	1.37

PER DIEM HOURS OF BROADCASTING ACCORDING
TO DIFFERENT SUBJECTS

Programme Classes		1938	1937	1931	1926
		h. m.	h. m.	h. m.	h. m.
General Broadcasting	News	3.59	3.58	2.53	1.52
	Talks, Courses	2.10	2.12	1.45	2.19
	Children's hour	.30	.30	.33	.25
	School Broadcasting	.33	.34	—	—
	Actual Scenes	.14	.10	.19	.01
	Music	1.13	1.11	1.05	1.09
	Entertainment	1.02	1.01	1.02	1.02
	Miscellaneous	1.45	1.10	.34	.07
	Total	11.26	10.46	8.11	6.55
	Broadcasting for Cities	News	.36	.10	.03
Talks, Courses		1.29	1.55	2.56	—
Actual Scenes		1.06	1.16	1.11	—
Music		.14	.04	—	—
Entertainment		.20	.02	—	—
Broadcasting for Overseas Japanese	Miscellaneous	.50	.18	.11	—
	Total	4.35	3.45	4.21	—
	Total	6.06	4.29	—	—

New Broadcasting Houses Development of our broadcasting is reflected in the establishment of two large broadcasting houses, one in Osaka and the other in Tokyo at a total cost of six million yen. The Broadcasting House in Osaka was opened to service in November 1936. This six storied building (exclusive of the central tower which is three storied) covers an area of 1927 sq. metres, and comprises 13 studios in all.

While in Tokyo, a site of 3950 sq. metres was chosen near the Hibiya park for a six storied building which will house 16 studios and rooms for various department offices. The construction was completed early in 1939, and the new white reinforced building adds another element of beauty to the business centre near Hibiya Park. In September, 1939, a research committee for the design of studios to be housed in these broadcasting

houses was formed. This committee comprises electrical, acoustical and architectural specialists, and preliminary practical tests are being carried out at present at the JOAK building at Atagoyama.

Research Laboratory The technical research laboratory of the Corporation was established at Setagaya district in western part of the city of Tokyo in April 1930. The work of the laboratory is directed mainly to the fundamental and general researches as well as to the various possibilities of broadcast transmission and reception apparatus, wave propagation phenomena, visual broadcasting, patents and other problems related to the art of broadcasting.

Owing to the rapid development of the radio art, the laboratory was found to be too narrow to continue these researches, and the premises and building were enlarged in 1936.

Television For some years past re-

search work of television has been going on separately at the Waseda University, Hamamatsu Higher Technical College, Tokyo Electric Co., Electrotechnical Laboratory of the Department of Communications and the Research Laboratory of the Corporation. They had their own special system and the comparison of merits between them is a question very difficult to solve. A somewhat different line of investigation is now being undertaken, namely, whether it is possible to combine advantages of these systems and realise the experimental broadcasting of the television.

The Television Society of Japan, which was formed in 1934, and which comprises the investigators of television throughout the country is earnestly recommending to start the experimental broadcasting, and the Corporation is now considering the matter to comply with the recommendation. The desirability of its early realization is justified, though the policy of the Corporation towards the question is yet to be disclosed. The special building for the purpose of the television research is under construction at present on the premises of the Research Laboratory.

Wireless Exchange System Although the growing trend of listeners of broadcast has been of a steady and healthy nature, the listeners are mainly concentrated in the city districts and the percentage of listeners to population in the country districts remains far below that of the former. This difference is chiefly attributed to the financial difficulties of the country districts. To conquer this drawback the Corporation is planning to start the wireless exchange system, with special units suitable for the nature of its service.

Technical experiments to find out the most efficient method for this system are being carried out at present in different regions throughout the country. A representative is chosen in a village and a broadcast receiving set is installed there, the operations and care of the set being entrusted to the representative and the audio output distributed by specially constructed lines to the subscribers in the village. The results in various districts so far are proving to be successful, and as soon as the plan is authorized by the government it is expected to be actually put in service

at an early date. It is expected that by applying this system the majority of the population in country districts who are individually not able to pay the cost of a receiving set, the expense for maintenance and the charge for power supply for the receiving set, will now be able to enjoy the benefit of the broadcasting.

This system appeals also to those who find wireless reception difficult or who wish to avoid the trouble of looking after a wireless set.

Listeners When the Tokyo broadcasting station was opened on the 22nd of March 1925, the total number of listeners for the whole country was something like 5,400. On the 20th of August 1926, when the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan was formed, the number of listeners had reached a figure of over 338,2000.

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

In September 1928, the number of listeners reached the 500,000 mark. In February 1932, three years and four months after, the number ran into 1,000,000, and in April of the same year, the subscription fee was reduced to seventy-five sen. The so-called "Golden Age" in our broadcasting begins at this period and in June 1933, the number passed the 1,500,000 mark, and keeping up the momentum, it leapt into 2,000,000 in April 1935. In commemoration of this growth, the subscription fee was reduced to the modest sum of 50 sen a month, which is being kept up to this day.

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

Thereafter, there was a tendency for the number of registrations to go on rapidly increasing, and on March 31, 1939, the number reached 4,165,729, the rate of distribution representing 29.4 per 100 families.

THE YEARLY INCREASE OF LISTENERS

Year	Number of new registrations	Number of discontinuances	Number of Net increases	Total number of listeners at the end of year	% (per 100 families)
1934	510,705	245,828	264,877	1,979,096	15.5
1935	659,174	216,072	443,102	2,422,111	17.9
1936	728,777	246,128	482,649	2,904,823	21.4
1937	942,550	262,818	679,732	3,584,462	26.4
1938	878,089	296,900	581,189	4,165,729	29.4

PERCENTAGES OF THE NUMBER OF LICENCES TO 100 FAMILIES AS AT THE END OF DECEMBER, 1938.

Localities	No. of Licences	Per 100 Families	Localities	No. of Licences	Per 100 Families
1. Tokyo	952,961	67.8	26. Toyama	37,715	24.0
2. Osaka	476,811	48.0	27. Nara	37,654	29.8
3. Hyogo	242,146	37.4	28. Fukushima	36,212	12.8
4. Aichi	233,042	38.7	29. Ehime	34,801	14.1
5. Kanagawa	185,775	48.0	30. Kagoshima	34,143	10.1
6. Fukuoka	171,602	30.5	31. Ishikawa	32,695	20.5
7. Kyoto	151,024	40.5	32. Kagawa	31,064	20.1
8. Hokkaido	116,950	20.4	33. Oita	30,629	15.3
9. Shizuoka	110,287	30.3	34. Shiga	29,910	19.5
10. Hiroshima	88,923	22.4	35. Yamanashi	27,497	21.7
11. Niigata	85,339	23.5	36. Fukui	27,204	19.8
12. Chiba	72,979	24.1	37. Shimane	26,325	16.6
13. Saitama	70,328	24.6	38. Yamagata	26,053	13.9
14. Kumamoto	62,154	23.4	39. Saga	23,849	16.8
15. Yamaguchi	62,005	23.3	40. Tokushima	22,897	15.5
16. Okayama	60,952	21.1	41. Akita	22,390	12.9
17. Nagano	57,645	17.3	42. Kochi	21,632	13.9
18. Gifu	55,356	22.2	43. Miyazaki	20,757	12.5
19. Gumma	52,821	22.9	44. Iwate	20,086	11.0
20. Miyagi	48,756	23.3	45. Aomori	19,516	11.4
21. Tochigi	46,153	21.0	46. Tottori	17,744	18.6
22. Miye	45,201	18.7	47. Karafuto	8,709	13.3
23. Ibaraki	43,578	14.8	48. Okinawa	1,037	0.8
24. Nagasaki	42,019	16.1	49. South Seas	151	(0.7)
25. Wakayama	38,252	20.2	50. Total	4,165,729	29.4

REGISTRATIONS BY CITIES AND RURAL COMMUNITIES

Year	Total		Cities		Towns & Villages	
	Number of licence holders	%	Number of licence holders	%	Number of licence holders	%
1933	1,627,836	100	1,166,777	71.7	461,059	28.3
1934	1,897,398	100	1,364,573	71.9	532,825	28.1
1935	2,304,479	100	1,628,059	70.6	676,420	29.4
1936	2,776,189	100	1,915,857	69.0	860,332	31.0
1937	3,402,489	100	2,259,513	66.4	1,142,976	33.5
1938	4,165,729	100	2,632,629	63.1	1,533,100	36.8

The new registration in the course of 1938 numbered 878,089, showing a decrease of 64,461 (6%) from the previous year.

When the increase of licence holders of 763,240 is divided between cities and towns, the former occupies 63.1%

of the total. Recently there is a marked tendency of the rate being on the increase with towns, and the reverse is the case with cities.

When the number of new registrations during 1938 are classified respectively according to the professions, and set

against the corresponding percentages for the previous year, as is done in the following list, we find that the increase in the percentage was recorded in agriculture, manufacturing industry, mining industry.

NEW REGISTRATION BY PROFESSIONS

(In 1937 and 1938)

Professions	New registration		Rate		Increase or Decrease
	Number	Rate	1937	1938	
Agriculture	161,052	138,760	23.4	17.6	22,292
Marine products industry	4,929	3,626	0.7	0.4	1,303
Mining industry	9,483	6,154	1.4	0.8	3,329
Manufacturing industry	85,545	64,413	12.4	8.2	21,132
Commerce	168,632	253,427	24.4	32.2	-84,795
Transportation industry	20,798	14,505	3.0	1.8	6,293
Civil, military services & persons of liberal professions	183,329	208,721	26.6	26.5	-25,392
Households works	379	546	0.1	0.1	-167
Other industries	1,615	1,538	0.2	0.2	77
No industry	46,793	54,273	6.8	6.9	-7,480
Total	682,555	745,963	99.0	94.7	-63,408
Schools, public bodies and others	195,534	196,587	1.0	5.3	-1,053

Finance Since the beginning of its establishment, the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan has pursued its policy of lightening the financial burdens upon the listeners by reducing the subscription fee down to its minimum.

To commemorate the tenth anniversary of the opening of broadcasting in this country and to popularise radio throughout Japan, the Corporation carried out the reduction of the subscription fee from seventy-five sen to fifty sen on April 1st, 1935. This resulted in a great increase in the number of subscribers, viz. the increase for the year ended March 31st 1936, was 443,015. But the net revenue from this fee and others decreased from 15,874,151 yen for the fiscal year of 1934 to 13,447,631 yen for the fiscal year of 1935.

On the other hand, the expenditure, including the depreciation of building and plant, amounted to 13,088,702 yen for the fiscal year of 1935, showing an increase of 856,071 yen against the last year's.

The greater part of its revenue is spent on the maintenance and development of the service, as well as on the various kinds of new enterprises.

Among the various items of expenditure, there is the contribution to the Home Office, the sum of 1,262,465 yen for fiscal year of 1935, which was distributed among the prefectures as contribution to sanitary measures.

Besides this, the Corporation paid to the Government the sum of ¥395,446 as the number of listeners registered at the end of the preceding financial year.

CHAPTER XXV

LAND AND AIR TRANSPORTATION

State Railways

Historical Background

Japan's railway projects date from 1869, when the Government formed a plan to lay a trunk line linking Tokyo with Kyoto and Kobe, together with some branches to Yokohama and Tsuruga, a port on the Japan Sea. As the first step, half a million yen was sanctioned for the work between Tokyo (Shimbashi) and Yokohama, but the State Treasury was in no position to find this amount, while private capital declined to venture into this novel field of investment. It was at this time that an Englishman, Horatio Nelson Lay, by name, came forward with a proposal to furnish the required funds. The terms offered by him were accepted and a Japanese loan for one million sterling was placed on the London market. With the arrival of a British engineering corps and materials, the first sod was dug on the 28.962 kilometre Shimbashi-Yokohama section in March, 1870, and on the 32.18 kilometre Kobe-Osaka section in November, 1870. The gauge adopted for these lines was one of 1,067 metres, which has later become the standard gauge of the Japanese railways.

Tokyo-Yokohama and Other Lines
The work between Shimbashi and Yokohama was completed in September, 1872, while the Kobe-Osaka line was opened to traffic in 1874 and it was further extended to Kyoto in 1877. These sections have practically formed the nucleus of what now constitutes the Tokaido Line, one of the main arteries of railway traffic in Japan. In 1880, the Kyoto-Otsu section was completed and in 1884 a further extension with a length of 41.834 kilometres between Tsuruga and Nagahama, a town along Lake Biwa, was completed and opened to traffic in pursuance of the railway idea of linking up the Pacific and the Japan Sea. Meanwhile, a survey was made on the Otaru-Horonai section in Hokkaido, where colonization work was being strenuously encouraged. Construction of this section was soon undertaken and the 88.495 kilometre length was opened to business in 1882, thus bringing the total length of railway

under Government ownership toward the close of 1884 to 185,038 kilometres.

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

The Trunk Line Prior to this, the Government decided to lay a trunk line through the Nakasendo, the old mountainous highway of Central Japan, but in view of engineering difficulties along this line it was subsequently abandoned in favour of the level region of the Tokaido. Work on the new route was finished in July, 1880, whereby a through service was opened for a distance of 511.42 kilometres between Tokyo and Kobe. Then a branch to Yokosuka was opened and a 160.9 kilometres section between Takasaki and Naoetsu was completed with the exception of 9.654 kilometres over the Usui Pass. This difficult section, for which the Abt rack rail system was adopted, was not opened for service until 1893.

The Railway Construction Law In view of the industrial progress being made in the country there was an urgent demand for the speedy construction of more railways. The entire length of Japanese railways at that time amounted to only 2,574.4 kilometres and the bulk of contemplated lines was in remote districts with no prospect of immediate profit, and on that account did not appeal to private enterprise. These circumstances showed both the

Government and the public the advisability of state acquisition of private lines and opinion was further strengthened by the financial failure of some of the private concerns. In view of this, in 1892, the Railway Construction Law was passed and the Government set to work constructing important lines. The law embodied a comprehensive programme of railway building and contained the guiding principles on which the railway system of Japan was founded. At the same time the matter of consolidating the different lines into one complete system was being studied by a committee of enquiry appointed by the Government. The acquisition of private railways was accomplished in October, 1907, the subsidiary businesses being taken over at the same time. Immediately after nationalization the State Railways were organized under a Railway Bureau, which was directly responsible to the Cabinet. But in May, 1920, a separate Department of State was created to deal with railway affairs and the Minister of Railways was appointed to control it.

Railway Network

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

Organization and Staff

Prior to the nationalization of the private lines, the State lines were operated on a departmental system based on the principle of centralization. The system worked well because the management of the State lines was a relatively small business, but when the Government assumed the management of all lines it was found unequal to the extra work, and in December, 1906, the Imperial

Government Railways were removed from the control of the Minister of Communications and assigned to a newly created administrative body, the Railway Board. The administration was then decentralized and remains so today. The existing system of organization of the State Railways was established in May, 1920, when the said Railway Board was made, by virtue of Imperial Ordinance No. 143, an independent department of the Central Government. According to the regulations, the Department of Railways not only controls the whole of the State lines, but supervises the provincial railways and tramways in Japan proper. It maintains one central and six regional offices. The Central Office is directly governed by the Minister of Railways and manages all matters relating to the State Railways as well as maintaining supervision over provincial railways and tramways. It is composed of eight bureaux according to the kind of business dealt with. They are the Minister's Secretariat; Bureau of Local Railway Administration; Bureau of Traffic and Operation; Bureau of Construction; Bureau of Maintenance and Improvement; Bureau of Mechanical Engineering; Bureau of Electricity; and Bureau of Finance and Purchase. The Central Office also controls Regions, District Construction, District Improvement, District Electric Offices and Tokyo Railway Hospital. On April 23, 1930, by virtue of Imperial Ordinance No. 83, a further bureau, the Board of Tourist Industry was created as a separate bureau of the Department of Railways. The bureau is controlled by the Minister of Railways and attends to the business of the tourist industry, its object being to encourage people of other lands, by advertising and in other ways, to visit Japan and see her incomparable scenic beauty, natural charm and national manners and customs, and to encourage Japanese living at home to take trips to different parts of the Empire.

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

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

On March 31, 1937 there were al-

together 227,689 (8,118 females) servants in the employment of the State Railways as against 218,352 in the preceding year. The total salary for the year 1936-37 was ¥153,812,891 as against ¥147,990,026 in 1935-36. The average annual salary per person in employment was ¥676. As compared with the preceding year, the staff shows an increase of

9,337 during the year, and the annual payment of salaries increased by ¥5,822,665.

Traffic

Goods and passengers carried by the State Railways in Japan proper since 1914-15 follow:

Fiscal years	Goods Metric tons	Passengers (Unit 1,000)	Working Revenue			Total
			Goods Traffic	Passenger Traffic	Miscellaneous (Unit ¥1,000)	
1914-15	35,837,241	166,092	53,372	56,366	2,429	112,169
1921-22	58,312,333	454,535	171,135	219,228	7,234	397,599
1922-23	65,095,702	512,754	183,573	237,446	8,574	429,593
1923-24	65,818,955	579,288	181,162	255,284	6,888	443,354
1924-25	71,178,263	640,828	199,256	264,725	6,944	470,927
1925-26	73,090,274	683,568	204,434	268,222	7,793	480,450
1926-27	74,780,409	740,333	205,078	271,249	7,755	484,082
1927-28	78,621,788	795,722	220,285	278,952	7,208	506,444
1928-29	79,762,959	847,300	228,015	292,624	8,491	529,131
1929-30	77,224,824	862,939	223,265	286,046	8,483	517,794
1930-31	64,087,099	824,152	189,161	261,131	7,848	458,140
1931-32	60,590,746	787,222	180,365	245,359	7,824	433,540
1932-33	61,732,756	781,149	178,717	239,017	8,219	425,954
1933-34	71,970,592	841,316	203,189	261,159	9,905	474,254
1934-35	77,477,837	913,564	225,246	282,857	10,564	518,668
1935-36	81,039,134	985,041	233,397	300,422	10,714	544,534
1936-37	89,342,111	1,058,630	259,773	326,610	11,786	598,171
1937-38	87,294,310	1,169,574	279,207	360,160	—	639,368
1938-39	97,440,162	1,357,078	320,421	418,040	—	738,461

In March, 1937, the total working kilometreage of the State Railways reached 17,422.2 kilometres and shows an addition of 391.8 kilometres over the preceding year. The total train kilometreage amounted to 255,412,711 kilometres, being an increase of 14,613,676 kilometres over the preceding year. The number of passengers carried by trains, buses and ships during the year totalled 1,076,157,992 and the aggregate volume of goods transported amounted to 92,995,802 metric tons. As compared with the preceding year the former showed an increase of 76,977,475 passengers and the latter 8,880,750 metric tons. The receipts from these two sources amounted to ¥686,385,014, showing an increase of ¥52,565,591 over the preceding year.

Motor-car Service In March, 1936, the total working kilometreage of the motor-car service reached 1,980 kilometres with 37 routes, being an addition of 215 kilometres.

The total number of passengers carried over those routes during the year came to 8,944,321. The aggregate volume of goods handled amounted to 73,724 metric tons. The receipts from

passengers amounted to ¥2,074,170 and those from goods traffic to ¥209,455, the total being ¥2,283,625.

Ferry Service At present the State Railways run this service at 5 localities. They are Aomori-Hakodate ferry service connecting the main land with the island of Hokkaido, Shimonoséki-Moiji ferry service connecting the main land with the island of Kyushu, Shimonoséki-Fusan route which connects the islands with the Asiatic mainland, Uno-Takamatsu service which links the Sanyo line (main land) with the Island of Shikoku and Hokkaido-Karafuto route linking Japan proper with the Island of Karafuto or Saghalien. Besides, there are a few minor routes provided with smaller steamboats or motorboats for linking such places of note for sight-seeing as Miyajima in the Inland Sea. In March, 1937, there were altogether 60 boats consisting of 31 steamers and 30 harbour boats owned by the State Railways apart from those chartered to private companies. The gross tonnage of these boats amounted to 62,048.33 tons, showing an increase of 12,962.1 metric tons in capacity as against the corresponding figures of the preceding

year, and the number of boats increased by 1.

Accident and Casualty Returns The number of accidents reported during the year totalled 5,525, or 21.1 per 1,000,000 train kilometres, showing a decrease of 1,037 in number and of 6 per 1,000,000 train kilometres as compared with the preceding year. The number of casualties, including those caused by accidents, errors or unknown causes, numbered 3,420, during the year, or 13.1 casualties per 1,000,000 train kilometres. As compared with the preceding year this is a decrease of 142 in the total number, and a decrease of 1.5 per 1,000,000 train kilometres. The number of casualties caused by suicide was 1,836, or an increase of 10 as against the preceding year.

Length of Open Lines

The total length of State lines open for traffic on March 31, 1937, the end of the fiscal year of 1936, reached to 17,422.204 kilometres as against 17,030,365 kilometres in 1935-36, showing an increase of 391,839 kilometres. The total length of tracks reached 27,801,925 kilometres as against 27,299,552 kilometres in 1935-36, indicating increase of 502,373 kilometres. Of the total length of lines open for traffic 15,253,323 kilometres are covered by single tracks, 1,945,740 by double tracks, 18,800 by triple tracks, 204,332 by quadruple and the rest by multiple tracks.

Works and Plants

At the end of the fiscal year under review there were altogether 22 works and 3 detached plants in operation.

On March 31, 1937 there were 15,500 workmen, on the rolls and their monthly wages aggregated ¥924,687.

The number of day's work during the year aggregated 3,492,846 and the wages paid ¥9,151,934. The expenses involved in the workshops ¥53,861,025, consisting of ¥22,471,104 for the repair and manufacturing expenses and ¥31,389,921 for the purchase of materials and showed an increase of ¥6,715,899 in the total expenditure as compared with the preceding year.

Rolling Stock

The number of locomotives in operation at the end of the fiscal year of 1936-37 was 4,235. The number of passenger carriages aggregated 11,209, the total number of covered wagons was 73,184.

Electric Power

On March 31, 1937 there were alto-

gether 3 power stations, 43 substations, 208 distributing houses in operation. In 1935-36, there were altogether 10 alternators representing 98,454 k.w.a., 156 converting machines for electric traction with a capacity of 243,917 k.w., and 616 transformers representing 723,844 k.w.a. in operation at these plants.

Finance

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

Capital Revenue and Expenditure The addition to the consolidated capital of the State Railways during the year under review came to ¥945,288,159 as accruing from the railway profit, proceeds of the public loans and the miscellaneous receipts transferred thereto, while ¥793,925,016 was deducted therefrom partly on account of the removal and transfer of the railway property and partly owing to the depreciation, the conversion or the redemption of public loans, leaving thus a balance of ¥151,362,243 as the actual increase in the capital. Then the total capital investment of the State Railways from the inception of the Railway operation to March 31, 1937 amounted to ¥4,089,624,979, that is, the balance shown above plus ¥3,938,262,736, the aggregate capital on April 1, 1936. It should also be noted that the capital is, according to the Railway Account Law, divided into capital proper and debenture capital. The debenture capital represents the liabilities at the charge of the Railway Special Account, that is, the proceeds from the public and floating loans and the loans issued for the purchase of private railways. The remaining portion forms the capital proper which includes, for instance, the net profit transferred from the railway revenue account, the proceeds of the sales of property, redeemed debentures, surplus on the stores and workshop account and miscellaneous receipts transferred to the capital revenue. Of the total consolidated capital shown above the capital proper claimed ¥2,118,446,062 and the debenture capital ¥1,971,178,917.

The Capital Revenue Settled for the year under review was ¥173,352,444 as against ¥158,692,723 of the expenditure settled, being an increase of ¥19,319,044 for the former and of ¥7,688,444 for the latter as compared with the preceding year. The increase in the revenue settled was attributable chiefly to the increase in amount transferred from the railway

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

Item	1936-37	1935-36	1934-35
	(In yen)		
Capital revenue	172,936,606	153,614,051	139,982,882
Surplus on stores account	425,838	419,349	332,406
Total revenue	173,352,444	154,033,400	140,315,288
Construction, improvement, and motor-car routes	136,405,478	129,200,747	118,145,718
Redemption of debts	22,287,245	21,803,532	6,700,216
Total expenditure	158,692,723	151,004,279	124,845,934

Stores Account The settled amount of Stores Account Revenue for the year 1936-37 was ¥190,814,739 and the expenditure on this item amounted to ¥185,415,437, or an increase of ¥20,625,698 for revenue and of ¥13,192,538 for expenditure as compared with the previous year. The increase in the revenue was accounted for partly by the larger pro-

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

Item	1936-37	1935-36	1934-35
	(In yen)		
Railway stores and workshop receipts	190,814,739	170,189,041	154,461,933
Railway stores and workshop expenses	185,415,437	172,222,899	159,225,660

Revenue Account The total revenue settled during the year amounted to ¥796,098,485 and the total expenditure ¥650,636,455 which are respectively ¥81,275,888 and ¥45,799,860 more than in the previous year. The increase in the revenue was attributable to the increase of the traffic and the sundry receipts, as well as receipts on suspense account

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

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

Item	1936-37	1935-36	1934-35
	(In yen)		
Revenue:			
Traffic Receipts	591,252,994	538,592,712	512,931,499
Sundry Receipts	11,809,580	10,731,552	10,624,683
Receipts on Suspense Account & Advance	193,035,911	165,498,333	150,854,524
Total	796,098,485	714,822,597	674,410,706
Expenditure:			
Working Expenses	362,542,819	333,854,537	318,543,878
Interest Charges	83,206,220	93,750,891	91,788,215
Refunds and Advances	198,005,869	169,836,599	156,101,827
Secret Service Fund	27,440	27,440	27,440
Subsidies to Local Railways	6,854,027	7,367,128	7,052,618
Total	650,636,455	604,836,595	573,513,976

Fixed assets of the State Railways | for the last nine years follow:

(In ¥1,000)					
Fiscal years	Value at the beginning of the year	Value at the end of the year	Fiscal years	Value at the beginning of the year	Value at the end of the year
1927-28	2,647,453	2,858,794	1932-33	3,413,786	3,503,893
1928-29	2,858,794	3,062,614	1933-34	3,503,893	3,613,169
1929-30	3,062,614	3,246,724	1934-35	3,613,169	3,728,485
1930-31	3,246,724	3,374,392	1935-36	3,728,485	3,850,507
1931-32	3,347,392	3,413,786	1936-37	3,850,507	3,987,210

BUSINESS INCOME AND EXPENSES

(In ¥1,000)							
Fiscal years	Income	Expenses	Profit	Fiscal years	Income	Expenses	Profit
1928-29	529,256	393,380	135,875	1933-34	474,254	282,199	192,054
1929-30	518,016	399,026	118,989	1934-35	518,668	314,126	204,541
1930-31	458,140	382,552	75,587	1935-36	544,985	329,537	215,448
1931-32	433,540	365,088	68,451	1936-37	598,171	340,373	243,751
1932-33	425,954	364,874	61,079				

STATISTICS OF THE STATE RAILWAYS OF JAPAN FOR THE YEAR ENDING MARCH 31st, 1937. COMPARED WITH TWO PRECEDING YEARS

Item	1936-37	1935-36	1934-35
Railways			
Area (square kilometre)	*382,545.42	*382,545.42	*382,545.42
Population	*69,254,148	*69,254,148	*68,194,900
Length of lines worked (kilometre)	17,422.204	17,030.365	16,427.480
Single track (kilometre)	15,253.323	14,861.878	14,261.384
Double " (")	1,945.749	1,944.939	1,942.548
Triple and more tracks (kilometre)	223.132	223.548	223.548
Total length of main tracks (kilometre)	20,060.805	19,658.241	19,052.965
Total length of other tracks (kilometre)	7,751.867	7,641.311	7,467.205
Average area per kilometre of the line (sq. km.)	21.957	23.288	23.288
Average kilometrage of lines per 100,000 of population	25.157	24.593	24.122
Average kilometrage of lines worked	{ pass. traffic 17,099.6 goods traffic 17,315.8	{ 16,584.0 16,797.2	{ 15,907.2 16,111.1
Number of stations	3,515	3,393	3,233
Locomotives (including electric locomotives) ^a	4,235	4,124	3,986
Passenger carriages (including electric cars)	11,209	10,958	10,813
Goods wagons	73,184	69,940	67,485
Employees	227,689	218,352	209,456
Yearly compensation of employees (yen)	153,812,691	147,990,026	142,471,148
Number of passengers carried	1,058,630,711	985,041,029	913,564,566
Number of passengers carried one kilometre	26,216,154,565	24,173,052,337	22,573,020,205
Average kilometrage of journey per passenger	24.5	24.5	24.7
Passenger earnings (yen)	274,423,400	253,042,633	239,681,479
Passenger earnings per kilometre (yen)	16.049	16.427	16.427
Passenger earnings per pass. per kilometre (yen)	0.0105	0.0105	0.0106
Coaching receipts (yen)	316,001,496	291,635,214	274,096,342
Coaching receipts per kilometre (yen)	18.480	17.125	16.665
Volume of goods hauled (metric ton)	89,342,111	81,039,134	77,477,837
Volume of goods hauled one kilometre	15,656,579,602	14,011,711,522	13,347,226,184
Average kilometrage of goods hauled per metric ton	175.2	172.9	172.3
Goods earnings (yen)	250,962,215	225,343,228	215,615,301
Goods earnings per kilometre (yen)	14.494	13.232	13.125
Goods earnings per metric ton per kilometre (yen)	0.0161	0.0161	0.0162
Goods wagon receipts (yen)	253,664,698	228,101,754	218,681,101

Item	1936-37	1935-36	1934-35
Goods wagon receipts per kilometre (yen)	14.649	13.394	13.312
Passenger train kilometreage (kilometre)	180,095,889	172,254,041	159,331,961
Goods train kilometreage (kilometre)	75,316,822	68,544,994	62,706,334
Total train kilometreage (kilometre)	255,412,711	240,799,035	222,038,295
Steam locomotive kilometreage (kilometre)	236,809,444	224,711,296	211,943,149
Electric locomotive kilometreage (kilometre)	9,594,109	9,283,279	7,944,200
Electric car kilometreage (kilometre)	131,462,469	125,244,288	112,838,595
Passenger car kilometreage (kilometre)	1,009,836,750	960,563,447	888,331,190
Goods wagon kilometreage (kilometre)	2,573,969,079	2,325,670,976	2,222,680,466
Shipping			
Length of routes worked (nautical mile)	284.0	284.0	284.0
Number of steamers	61	60	60
Aggregate tonnage	62,048.33	49,086.23	48,957.55
Number of passengers carried	8,582,960	7,861,102	7,404,307
Passenger earnings (yen)	6,373,245	5,814,165	5,519,591
Volume of cargoes transported (metric ton)	6,114,216	3,077,922	2,951,679
Cargo receipts (yen)	1,980.0	5,776,685	6,231,869
Motor Car Traffic			
Length of routes operated (kilometre)	333	1,765.0	1,191.0
Number of buses	56	269	183
Number of trucks	40	52	40
Number of trailers	40	40	40
Number of passengers carried	8,944,321	6,264,452	4,134,529
Passenger earnings (yen)	2,074,170	1,466,959	918,569
Volume of goods conveyed (metric ton)	73,724	47,796	39,332
Goods earnings (yen)	209,455	112,261	62,978
Finance			
Capital (yen)	4,089,624,978	3,938,262,726	3,813,211,445
Capital per kilometre of line (yen)	23,473	231,254	232,130
Working revenue (yen)	598,171,399	544,534,114	518,668,073
Working expenses (yen)	354,420,373	329,537,000	314,126,116
Profit (yen)	243,751,026	214,997,114	204,541,952
Percentage of expenses to revenue	59.3	60.5	60.6
Percentage of profit to capital	6.2	5.7	5.6
Profit (yen)	243,751,026	214,997,114	204,541,952
Deduct.—Private Rly. control & survey expenses	569,470	634,401	508,992
—Additional works expenses (yen)	7,580,496	3,710,575	3,936,208
—Interest charges (..)	83,206,220	93,750,891	91,788,215
—Subsidies to local railways (..)	6,854,027	7,367,128	7,052,618
Add. or deduct. (Δ)—Bal. on the suspense account	78,783	451,884	359,194
Balance (net profit) (yen)	145,462,030	109,986,002	100,896,730
Working revenue per kilometre (yen)	34,467	32,343	32,115
Working expenses per kilometre (yen)	20,422	19,573	19,450
Profit per kilometre (yen)	14,045	12,769	12,665

N.B.—* does not cover Taiwan, Chosen and Japanese Karafuto (Saghalien).

Working Results of the State Railways in 1937 and 1938
The settled accounts of the State Railways for the fiscal years 1937-38 or 1938-39 are not yet available, but a tentative report is published by the Railways Department as follows:

	Passengers	Goods (Metric tons)	Passenger earnings (Unit ¥1,000)	Goods earnings (Unit ¥1,000)	Total earnings	Increase over the Previous Year
1937-38	1,169,574,000	87,294,310	360,160	279,207	639,368	41,197
1938-39	1,357,078,000	97,440,162	418,040	320,421	738,461	99,094

Private Railways
General At the end of March, 1937 the number of local railways in Japan proper was 250, a decrease of 7 as compared with the previous year. The

total open kilometreage was 7,018.77 km., a decrease of 78.79 km. Their aggregate capital amounted to ¥1,223,291,955, an increase of ¥9,433,914.

Traffic During the 1936-37 year the number of passengers carried was 575,602,867, the coaching receipts amounting to ¥68,929,859. As compared with the preceding year the number of passengers carried increased by 43,467,922 or 8.1 per cent, the coaching receipts by ¥4,757,392 or 7.4 per cent. The increase both in traffic volume and coaching receipts was accounted for by the improvement of the financial situation that had been in depressed condition these few years. The average kilometres of journey per passenger came to 8.5 kilometres and the average coaching receipts per passenger ¥0.12, which means that the former decreased by 0.1 kilometre and the latter by ¥0.01 as compared with the previous year. The total amount of goods moved during the year under review figured 30,059,157 metric tons and the receipts accrued therefrom amounted to ¥22,308,862. There are a gain of 1,929,464 metric tons in the volume and of ¥888,264 in the receipts. It appears that the return of business prosperity, coupled with the larger demand for munitions and the heavy crops, has brought about the boom of goods traffic during the year, resulting in the swell of the volume of goods hauled and the receipts therefrom. The average goods receipts per metric ton came to ¥0.742, which was a gain of ¥0.19. Altogether 2,025 accidents took place on all the local railways, in which 450 persons were killed and 567 injured. The number of accidents increased by 256, the injured by 90, and the killed by 142 against the corresponding figures of the previous year.

Finance The total working revenue of the local railways during the year aggregated ¥101,710,620 as against their total working expenses of ¥57,558,086, leaving a profit of ¥44,152,534. As compared with the preceding year the working revenue showed a gain of ¥7,060,861, and the working expenses ¥4,014,068. The net profit for the year came to ¥44,504,446, which is composed of the profit shown above plus ¥34,649,111 of miscellaneous receipts, less ¥20,546,035 of interest paid and ¥13,750,264 of other charges. The earnings per day per kilometre ¥39.2, and the profit per day per kilometre ¥17.0 showing an increase of ¥2.2 and ¥0.9 in earnings, and profit respectively against the figures for the previous year.

Assets and Liabilities Both assets and liabilities of the private railways at the

end of 1936-37 fiscal year totalled ¥2,537,638,492.

Employee On March 31, 1937 there were altogether 40,562 employees on the staff of the local railways, their monthly allowances amounting to ¥2,250,463, or a decrease of 120 and an increase of ¥145 respectively.

Tramcar Service

Growth of Tramways The tramways in Japan date back from 1880, when an application was tendered for the construction of the Tokyo Horse Tram Co.'s line which was completed and opened to traffic in 1883. As provided by the Tramway Law now in force, all the tramways in Japan are constructed as a rule on highways. The street railways, a certain number of suburban railways and others laid in provinces are placed under the control of the Law. Such public bodies as cities, towns and villages may take the management of tramways without restriction. Steam and electricity are mostly employed as motive power except a few local tramways where gasoline, horse or human power is used for the purpose.

Lines in Operation On March 31, 1937 there were 120 tramways open to business with a length of 2,520.91 kilometres and an aggregate capital of ¥1,715,026,289, being a loss of 8 in number, 32.64 kilometres in length, but a gain of ¥205,870,550 in capital. Classified according to kinds of motive power they are made up as follows:

Kind of power	No. of Tramways	Kilometre-age k.m.	Capital (In yen)
Electric	81	2,071.61	1,679,584,126
Steam	7	111.20	1,691,000
Steam and gasoline combined	7	85.50	3,945,000
Gasoline	9	84.50	21,967,500
Horse power	13	130.10	7,613,000
Human power	7	37.60	225,663
Total	120	2,520.91	1,715,026,289

New Lines, Lines Under Construction During the year 8 tramways with a total length of 18.10 kilometres were newly opened to business, while 3 tramways with a total length of 23.24 kilometres were granted charters for construction. Most of them use electricity as power and aim at conducting transportation in and near towns. The tramways under construction at the end of the year numbered 40 and their aggregate length measured 445.73 kilometres while the total capital amounted to ¥15,372,000, be-

ing a decrease of 14 in number, of 144.26 kilometres in length, and of ¥4,306,000 in capital respectively as against the preceding year.

Results of Working The number of passengers carried during the 1936-37 period was 1,699,891,370, the coaching receipts resulting therefrom being ¥113,811,841. Compared with the preceding year the number of passengers increased by 5.4 per cent and the receipts by 5.2 per cent.

The goods carried during the period was 1,755,804 metric tons, and the goods receipts ¥1,269,762, being a loss of 0.8 per cent in receipts and a gain of 3.2 per cent in the volume of goods carried.

The total revenue of the tramways during the year amounted to ¥121,498,710 as against their total working expenses of ¥72,651,163, leaving a balance of ¥48,847,547, as profit. This was a gain of 5.4 per cent in the revenue, 6.4 per cent in the profit and 6.4 per cent in the working expenses. The working revenue

per day per kilometre was ¥136.90, the working expenses per day per kilometre ¥81.86, and the profit per day per kilometre ¥55.04, being an increase of ¥9.44 in revenue, of ¥5.13 in expense and of ¥4.31 in profit as compared with the preceding year. The ratio of the working expenses to the working revenue stood at 59.8 per cent, or a decrease of 0.4 per cent while the ratio of the profit to the construction expenditure was 5.9 per cent or 0.3 per cent more than in the preceding year.

Assets and Liabilities The total capital investment of all the tramways open to business up to the end of the year under review amounted to ¥1,695,465,655 of which ¥1,426,871,005 was paid up and ¥268,594,650 was claimed by construction expenses for open lines. Besides, there was ¥666,781,595 in the shape of debentures, floating debts, overdraft and bills payable, etc. The total amount of the aggregate balance sheet was ¥2,537,638,492.

RESULTS OF WORKING OF LOCAL RAILWAYS IN JAPAN PROPER

(1932-33 to 1936-37)

Item	1936-37	1935-36	1934-35	1933-34	1932-33
Number of railways	250	257	260	266	268
Kilometrage opened	7,018.77	7,097.56	7,088.22	7,184.55	7,242.11
Average kilometrage worked	7,075.8	6,963.3	7,076.3	7,158.4	7,173.3
Capital on open lines	1,223,291,955	1,213,858,041	1,233,342,593	1,231,129,999	1,204,113,426
Cost of construction of open lines (yen)	989,393,770	981,243,289	991,668,861	970,447,305	965,040,478
Working revenue (yen)	101,710,620	94,649,759	91,606,427	87,402,313	81,680,939
Working expenses (yen)	57,558,086	53,544,018	51,857,275	48,774,967	47,451,820
Percentage of expenses to revenue	56.6	56.6	56.6	55.8	58.1
Profit (yen)	44,152,534	41,105,741	39,749,152	38,627,346	34,229,119
Passengers carried	575,602,867	532,134,945	499,878,493	462,327,690	427,668,098
Passengers carried one kilometre	4,893,479,369	4,594,747,417	4,306,193,852	4,050,978,409	3,727,530,962
Earnings from passenger traffic (yen)	68,929,859	64,172,467	62,262,808	59,062,591	55,430,020
Weight of goods hauled (metric ton)	30,059,157	28,129,693	26,327,344	24,837,594	22,252,511
Weight of goods hauled one kilometre (km.)	673,274,964	585,778,910	554,371,665	533,382,086	505,689,915
Earnings from goods traffic (yen)	22,308,662	21,420,598	26,303,665	19,307,870	17,845,070
Total train kilometrage	15,677,227	17,414,895	17,542,100	18,636,593	19,311,848
Employees	40,562	40,682	40,845	40,513	41,572
Aggregate monthly compensation of employees (yen)	2,250,463	2,250,318	2,252,922	2,169,658	2,254,103

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

RESULTS OF WORKING OF TRAMWAYS

(1923-24 to 1936-37)

Year ending March 31	No. of tramways	Open kilometrage	Capital (In yen)	Cost of construction (In yen)	No. of passengers carried
1924	142	2,365.66	1,413,789,941	461,204,010	1,562,816,702
1925	148	2,462.38	1,485,941,725	518,641,727	1,712,999,110
1926	151	2,540.53	1,282,375,328	555,955,531	1,714,200,026
1927	156	2,686.76	1,900,845,592	581,999,017	1,738,044,308
1928	157	2,758.84	2,300,659,307	645,185,688	1,600,126,249
1929	155	2,718.38	2,252,594,154	675,891,891	1,672,007,160
1930	152	2,716.66	2,369,570,652	724,822,987	1,818,087,758
1931	148	2,706.85	2,274,779,504	744,898,995	1,682,198,444
1932	146	2,757.23	2,339,843,674	762,354,434	1,576,669,908
1933	141	2,740.43	2,270,234,409	781,648,493	1,466,674,331
1934	141	2,652.65	2,218,474,136	812,444,149	1,505,459,732
1935	135	2,615.20	1,658,587,395	807,840,784	1,570,939,965
1936	128	2,553.55	1,637,138,332	823,016,188	1,608,387,350
1937	120	2,520.91	1,695,465,655	843,874,497	1,699,891,370

Year ending March 31	Weight of goods carried (m.t.)	Working revenue	Working expenses (In yen)	Profit
1924	2,300,138	110,372,209	65,421,092	44,951,117
1925	2,263,799	126,120,409	71,015,213	55,105,196
1926	2,106,767	129,550,079	75,811,932	53,738,147
1927	2,160,047	130,422,346	75,187,152	55,235,194
1928	1,974,738	137,063,969	77,949,253	59,114,714
1929	1,883,670	143,218,209	82,540,855	60,677,356
1930	1,740,760	140,472,807	80,752,985	59,719,822
1931	1,682,622	128,009,229	77,222,809	50,786,420
1932	1,422,443	116,645,225	72,558,243	44,086,982
1933	1,356,921	109,669,986	68,128,253	41,541,733
1934	1,497,023	110,828,843	67,525,124	43,303,719
1935	1,907,384	113,112,507	70,669,908	42,422,599
1936	1,699,549	114,924,120	69,188,340	45,735,780
1937	1,755,804	121,498,710	72,651,163	48,847,547

Rolling Stock On March 31, 1937 there were altogether 93 locomotives, 6,606 carriages and 1,683 goods wagons. This is an increase of 93 locomotives, and of 73 carriages while the total number of the wagons remains same as in the preceding year.

Staff On March 31, 1937 the staff of the employees numbered 51,436 with their monthly compensation of ¥3,775,642, or

loss of 877 in number of employees and of ¥159,748 in compensation.

Lines Used Exclusively On March 31, 1937 the number of the lines owned by private individuals or companies came to 84 of which 82 were opened to traffic with an aggregate open length of 392.62 kilometres, while the total length of the lines not yet opened to traffic reached 10.25 kilometres.

Land Transportation in 1938-39

Increase in Volume of Transportation by Government Railways The business conditions of the Government Railways during the 1938-39 fiscal year ending March 31, 1939, were best of the recent years due to the activities of general industrial and commercial circles, and the movement of passengers and goods in connection with the emergency. As it is given in the third page of this chapter the total proceeds amounted to

¥738,462,000, even without including miscellaneous revenue which may have reached over ¥12,000,000. The amount represents an increase of ¥99,094,000 or 15.5 per cent over the previous fiscal year. Both the number of passengers carried and the volume of goods hauled showed a historical increase as they are given in the following table as published by the Department of Railways on June 12, 1939:

VOLUME OF TRAFFIC BY GOVERNMENT RAILWAYS
DURING APRIL, 1938-MARCH, 1939

(Unit: Metric ton and yen)

	Passengers carried	Goods hailed	Passenger earnings	Goods earnings	Total earnings
By Train 1938-39	1,341,508,085	97,370,770	414,661,457	319,914,923	734,576,380
Increase over the Pre- vious year	184,627,187	10,125,346	57,194,388	41,046,960	98,241,348
By Motor-bus 1938-39	15,570,098	69,392	3,378,849	506,557	3,885,406
Increase over the Pre- vious year	2,876,685	20,506	685,515	166,848	852,363
Total 1938-39	1,357,078,183	97,440,162	418,040,306	320,421,480	738,461,786
Increase over the Pre- vious year	187,503,872	10,145,852	57,879,903	41,213,808	99,093,711

Private Railways The business conditions of private railways in 1938 and 1939 are improving, as a whole, with the active traffic caused by the general business boom in the country, as it is shown in the following table:

BUSINESS RESULTS OF 30 PRIVATE RAILWAY
COMPANIES IN 1938

(Unit: ¥1,000)

	Paid-up Capital	Working Revenue		Net Profit		Rate of Dividend	
		1st Half	2nd Half	1st Half	2nd Half	1st Half	2nd Half
Tokyo-Yokohama district							
*Tobu Railway (1939, 1st Half)	42,500	4,911	5,038	1,605	1,696	7.0	7.0
*Keisei El. R. (El. Light)	23,288	2,117	1,951	1,419	1,352	7.0	8.0
*Oji El. R. (El. Power)	17,000	992	1,060	542	612	10.0	10.0
*Kelo El. R. (El. Power)	14,513	1,141	1,271	745	933	7.0	7.0
Odawara Express Railway	15,000	1,317	1,678	101	339	No dividend	
*Keihin El. R.	13,000	1,778	2,004	742	847	7.0	8.0
Shonan El. R.	9,200	1,543	1,734	434	535	10.0	10.0
*Meguro-Kamata El. R.	17,001	2,636	2,676	1,266	1,269	10.0	10.0
*Tokyo-Yokohama El. R. (El. Power)	39,700	2,013	2,006	1,904	2,250	8.0	9.0
Tokyo Underground Rail- way	40,105	1,514	4,054	741	1,431	4.0	6.0
Tokyo High Speed Railway (1939, 1st Half)	15,000	3,361	—	—	—	5.0	—
Teito E. R.	3,200	337	339	117	112	5.0	5.0
Seibu Railway	8,100	788	830	(-) 605	1,143	No dividend	
Musashino Railway	2,600	627	782	(-) 76	94	0	6.0
Aomé E. R. (1939, 1st Half)	3,080	211	297	55	147	3.0	4.0
Sagami Railway (Side work)	2,800	327	—	144	—	5.0	—
Chichibu Railway	4,295	163	145	101	104	4.0	4.0
Chichibu Railway (Side work)	—	600	561	—	—	—	—
Chichibu Railway	—	625	613	244	219	6.0	6.0
Kwansai District							
*Hanshin E. R. (El. Power)	61,750	4,216	4,936	3,306	3,752	9.0	9.0
(1939, 1st Half)	—	3,839	3,622	—	—	—	—
(El. Power)	—	4,707	—	3,701	—	9.0	—
(El. Power)	—	4,132	—	—	—	—	—

	Paid-up Capital	Working Revenue		Net Profit		Rate of Dividend	
		1st Half	2nd Half	1st Half	2nd Half	1st Half	2nd Half
*Hanshin Express E. R. (El. Power)	55,000	4,597	5,417	3,533	3,669	10.0	10.0
(Department store)	—	2,423	2,321	—	—	—	—
(1939, 1st Half)	—	2,987	2,871	—	—	—	—
(El. Power)	—	5,196	—	3,735	—	10.0	—
(Department store)	—	2,620	—	—	—	—	—
*Keihan E. R.	58,994	4,769	5,302	2,282	2,251	4.0	4.0
(El. Power)	—	2,486	2,541	—	—	—	—
(1939, 1st Half)	—	5,475	—	2,056	—	4.0	—
(El. Power)	—	2,808	—	—	—	—	—
*Nankai Railway	52,400	5,557	6,357	2,901	2,904	10.0	10.0
(El. Power)	—	3,286	3,173	—	—	—	—
(1939, 1st Half)	—	6,286	—	—	—	—	—
(El. Power)	—	3,481	—	2,913	—	10.0	—
*Osaka E. R.	44,210	4,217	4,990	2,207	2,522	8.0	8.0
(El. Power)	—	1,305	1,337	—	—	—	—
(1939, 1st Half)	—	4,863	—	2,401	—	8.0	—
(El. Power)	—	1,452	—	—	—	—	—
*Sangu Express E. R.	30,920	1,644	2,153	187	434	No dividend	
(1939, 1st Half)	—	2,631	—	706	—	—	—
*Osaka Railway	16,010	960	1,267	286	485	No dividend	
(1939, 1st Half)	—	1,188	—	423	—	—	—
*Hanwa E. R.	20,000	1,464	1,867	226	488	0	3.0
(1939, 1st Half)	—	1,848	—	471	—	3.0	—
Central Japan							
Fuji-Minobu Railway	12,000	665	496	232	263	No dividend	
Ina E. R. (El. Power)	13,151	644	665	564	575	5.0	5.0
Nagoya Railway	39,920	4,351	4,500	1,610	1,689	6.0	6.0
(1939, 1st Half)	—	5,163	—	1,901	—	6.0	—
Mikawa Railway	4,688	426	506	76	125	3.0	3.0
(1939, 1st Half)	—	614	—	156	—	3.0	—
Kyushu							
Kyushu E. R. (El. Power)	44,000	1,418	1,855	2,658	2,736	6.0	6.0
(El. Power)	—	4,559	6,048	—	—	—	—

The aggregate amount of the paid-up capital of 15 representative private railways, which are marked with star in the above table, in the second half of 1938 remained almost the same with the second half of 1937, only one company, i.e. the Kelo Electric Railway Company, increasing it from ¥12,000,000 to ¥14,513,000. But, their aggregate amount of profits increased from ¥21,028,000 for the second half of 1937 to ¥26,257,000 for the second half of 1938, their average rate of profits from 10.5 per cent to 10.9 per cent.

Kammon Tunnels under Construction
Two under sea tunnels which connect the Main Island and the Island of Kyushu are under construction. The one is a national road which connects Shimonoseki on the side of the Main Island and Moji on the other side of the Seto Strait, and the construction work is carried on by the Department of Home Affairs since August, 1937. An experimental tunnel was cut through on April

26, 1939, and the work for the construction of the proposed tunnel was commenced on May 12, 1939.

The other is a railway tunnel which connects the State railways on the Main Island and Kyushu through the sea bottom of the O-Seto strait. An experimental tunnel was completed on April 19, 1939, and it gave assurances for the possible success of the gigantic work of construction of the under sea railway.

The necessity of a speedy and more convenient transportation facilities between the major cities on the Main Island and Kyushu has been long felt, especially with the rapid industrial growth of North Kyushu in the recent years. The volume of transportation between Shimonoseki and Moji reached to 6,890,000 passengers, 4,520,000 tons of goods in the yearly average for the three years of 1930, 1931 and 1932, and the transportation has been carried on by a daily mobilization of 40 big steam

ships and 800 sailing vessels. The Seto strait is in the international sea transportation route and the movement of these numerous vessels is quite cumbersome for the passage of big ocean liners. The new plan is to take away the trouble and prepare for the future increase of traffic between the two islands.

The total mileage of the new road is 5,340 metres, 4,190 metres of which is the tunnel and the part which is cut through the rocks under sea extends 1,150 metres with a width of 7.5 metres. For the ventilation of the tunnel the transverse flow system or distribution system. The expenditure is estimated at ¥17,000,000, and the work will be completed within the coming 10 years. When completed the tunnel will have a per hour capacity of having 2,500 automobiles and 2,000 bicycles pass it.

The under-sea railway tunnel was first contemplated by the Department (then Board) of Railways in 1911 when the late Count S. Goto was the president of the Board. At that time opinions were divided on the choice of a tunnel or a bridge, but the former was finally decided upon, but the plan has been laid on the table for 25 years until an experimental work was started in September, 1936. The railway traffic on both sides of the strait between the Main Island and Kyushu is congesting with 37 passenger trains daily stopping at and starting from the Shimonoseki Station, the western terminal of the two trunk lines on the Main Island and 33 passenger trains stopping at and starting from the Moji Station, the north-eastern terminal of railways in Kyushu. These two terminals are connected with ferry boats which run 50 times a day between the two ports to carry the passengers and their baggage. Besides, 20 luggage trains daily run to and from the Shimonoseki Station, and some of them are conveyed to the other shore on board the ferry cargo-boats which have a capacity of loading from 6 to 8 wagons each. The daily volume of traffic by these ferry boats conducted by the State railways was 12,771 passengers and 682 wagons in 1934-35 fiscal year, and it increased to 16,652 passengers and 1,073 wagons in 1938-39, increasing 31 per cent and 57 per cent respectively. At present a passenger has to waste 50 minutes in taking the train on the other side of the strait. The completion of the under-sea railway tunnel will shorten the conveyance of goods across the strait by 10 hours, and a passenger may be carried within 10 minutes instead of 50 minutes

or while he is taking a comfortable nap.

The total length of the new railway which directly connects the two islands is 6.7 kilometres, that of the tunnel being 3.6 kilometres. The length of the part of the tunnel which dives under sea is 1.2 kilometres. The tunnel has a diameter of 7 metres, and the construction of the new line and the tunnel will be completed by the spring of 1941.

Tourist Industry

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

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

The Kokusai Kanko Kyokai runs an office in New York and Los Angeles, though the actual business is carried on there in the popular name of the Japan Tourist Bureau.

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

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

During the past two or three years, an annual increase of over 20 per cent has been recorded in the number of foreigners who visited Japan. According to statistics issued by the Board of

Tourist Industry, the year 1935 witnessed the entry into this country of 42,629 foreigners, not including the 2,700 passengers on ships making a world-cruise, 132,700 through passengers on ordinary boats and 500,000 members of the crews of various vessels which called at Japanese ports during the same year.

The total amount of money spent in 1935 in this country by foreigners was ¥96,019,000 of which ¥70,242,000 was spent by tourists, according to the estimate of the Ministry of Finance. During the same year, Japan exported cotton piece-goods to the amount of ¥490,000,000 raw silk to the amount of ¥380,000,000, rayon textiles to the amount of ¥120,000,000 and silk textiles to the amount of ¥77,000,000. It will be noted that the amount of money spent in this country by tourists came very near the value of the export of silk textiles.

The total number of foreigners visiting this country did not increase much in 1936 over the figures for the preceding year, but the same rate of increase as before was recorded in the number of those who travelled the country for sightseeing. Particularly noteworthy is the fact that a remarkable upward tendency was indicated in the number of tourists coming from Manchoukuo and other East Asiatic countries.

In consideration of the future of Japan's tourist industry, special mention must be made of the fact that elaborate preparations have already been commenced for holding the 12th Olympic Games in Tokyo in 1940 which will also

be the 2,600th anniversary of the foundation of the Empire. Besides various national enterprises in connection with the celebration of the anniversary, international conferences in varied fields are also expected to be held in this country during that year.

It is rather difficult to form any idea as to the number of foreign visitors likely to visit Japan in 1940, but the Board of Tourist Industry and other organizations are looking for it as an epoch-making year in the history of tourist industry in Japan. The rate of increase of foreign visitors during the past 15 years, 1921-1935, has been 5 per cent per annum, and their number in 1940 will under ordinary circumstances reach 53,000, while the 12th Olympiad and some 10 international gatherings are bound to add several thousands to this number.

The governmental authorities and the civilian organizations concerned are energetically devising ways and means to promote the tourist industry in conformity with the exceedingly favourable situation. Apart from the question of perfecting sporting facilities and means of transportation, plans are under consideration for the improvement of roads, traffic, sanitation, hotels and amusement facilities. The establishment of an international sea-bathing resort has been proposed and some organizations are sponsoring the creation of better facilities for the study of Japanese culture, by means of museums, art galleries, etc.

FOREIGNERS WHO VISITED JAPAN

Nationality	Duration of Stay				Purpose			Mis-cellaneous	1936 Total	1935 Total	In-crease or De-crease
	Less than 15 days	Less than 3 months	More than 3 months	Total	Sight Seeing	Official Business	Com-mercial Business				
Americans	6,691	1,954	1,030	9,655	6,694	70	537	2,354	9,655	9,111	544
Canadians	202	74	91	367	186	5	25	151	367	375	- 8
Britishers	3,596	2,479	917	6,992	4,838	70	541	1,543	6,992	7,293	-301
Germans	414	499	533	1,446	608	40	196	602	1,446	1,523	- 77
Frenchmen	390	382	148	920	630	23	69	198	620	894	- 26
Russians	488	435	392	1,315	273	118	308	616	1,315	1,280	35
Hollanders	384	279	124	787	546	10	79	152	787	789	- 2
Indians	108	284	410	802	234	-	390	178	802	728	74
Philippinoes	188	372	51	611	514	5	27	65	611	537	74
Chinese	1,896	653	8,849	11,398	918	157	979	9,344	11,398	14,260	-2,862
Others	1,687	1,839	4,749	8,275	2,455	351	460	5,009	8,275	5,839	2,436
Total	16,044	9,230	17,294	42,568	17,896	849	3,611	20,212	42,568	42,629	- 61
1935	14,941	9,859	17,829	42,629	16,045	706	3,667	22,211	42,629	-	-
1934	12,850	8,863	13,483	35,196	11,837	689	3,660	19,010	35,196	-	-

Apart from the regular visitors mentioned above, there were 3,159 tourists who visited Japan on their way around the world, 142,445 callers on various

ports along Japanese shores and 515,550 mariners who called at Japanese ports on their way while navigating their ships or cruisers.

The total amount of money spent by all the foreign visitors in Japan during the year is roughly estimated at ¥105,567,000. This figure consists of ¥77,870,000 spent by tourists, ¥5,412,000 by mar-

iners aboard steamboats and cruisers visiting Japan, ¥2,309,000 by students studying in Japan, ¥9,769,000 involved in mission work ¥10,207,000 disbursed by foreign embassies, consulates and all the other public offices. These figures compared with those of the four preceding years are as under:

Item	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
	(In yen)				
Money spent by tourists	37,649,000	46,301,000	64,598,000	70,242,000	77,870,000
Money spent by mariners	3,262,000	4,000,000	4,607,000	5,077,000	5,412,000
Money spent by students	637,000	633,000	1,000,000	2,040,000	2,309,000
Money spent for mission work	9,801,000	11,653,000	12,082,000	11,310,000	9,769,000
Money disbursed by public offices	6,592,000	6,871,000	6,945,000	7,350,000	10,207,000
Total	57,158,000	69,458,000	89,232,000	96,019,000	105,567,000

Railways in Chosen, Taiwan, Manchuria, etc.

Chosen

The first railway enterprise in Chosen dates back to 1890, when a railway linking Kéijo (Seoul) with Jinsen (Chemulpo), 29.485 kilometres in length, was laid and opened to traffic by the Kéi-Jin Railway Company. The outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War caused the military authorities of Japan to build the Kéijo-Fusan, Kéijo-Shingishu and Masan lines which were opened to traffic in 1905 and 1906 respectively. In 1906 the Imperial Government of Japan nationalized the Kéijo-Fusan Line and also took over the Kéijo-Shingishu and the Masan Lines from the War Office of Japan, placing all these lines under direct control of the Railway Bureau of the Korean Residency-General. Meanwhile the work of construction was steadily pushed on and in 1910 the Héijo-Chinnampo line was completed. On the spanning of the Yalu River with a swing bridge in 1911 the peninsular railway was brought into connection with the South Manchuria Railway. In 1914 the Taiden-Mokpo and Kéijo-Gensan lines were completed, while in 1915 part of the Gensan-Kainéi line was opened. In 1928 the Kankyo line which connects Kainéi to Gensan was completed, and in 1933 the Tomon line which connects Kainéi to Yuki was opened to traffic. The latter is connected with the Keito line of S.M.R.C. at Kainéi, thus preparing a new eastern transportation facility between Chosen and Manchoukuo. On March 31, 1937, the State Lines in Chosen open to business totalled 3,575.9 km. as against 3,389.5 km. in 1936

showing an increase of 186.4 km. The number of passengers carried aggregated 33,708,178, while the weight of goods hauled was 9,980,227 metric tons. The coaching receipts amounted to ¥32,143,327 and goods receipts to ¥32,892,731. As compared with the preceding year the number of passengers shows an increase of 4,363,990, and the volume of goods hauled an increase of 1,312,585 metric tons, while the coaching receipts increased by ¥3,970,656 and goods receipts by ¥4,587,305.

The aggregate length of private railways open to traffic at the end of 1937 amounted to 1,211.8 kilometres, the length of lines under construction 70.9 kilometres, and lines contemplated but not yet granted charters 228.6 kilometres, the total length of all these lines amounting to 1,415.6 kilometres. The number of private companies which are already operating railways in Chosen numbered 10, viz., Chosen Railway Company, Chosen Kéinan Railway Company, Kongosan Electric Railway Company, Shinko Railway Company, Chosen Kéito Railway Company, South Chosen Railway Company, Chosen Gas & Electric Company, South Manchurian Railway Company, Sennari Railway Company, and Kunsan Municipal Railway. Besides, there were two railway companies which were provided with a charter but had not begun work. Of the above mentioned companies the former five receive regular subsidies from the Government. The aggregate capital of the five subsidized companies amounts to ¥60,500,000 of which ¥37,380,000 is paid up, while the total capital of 7 other non-

subsidized companies came to ¥21,206,000. The total length of tramways operated in Chosen came to 8.23 kilometres indicating a gain of 1.4 kilometres over the previous year. The power used is mostly electricity. (See Chapter XL for fuller information.)

Taiwan

It was not until the cession of the Island of Formosa (Taiwan) from the Chinese Government to Japan that the island began to enjoy railway facilities, for, prior to that time, the only railroad existing was a small light railway between Keelung and Shinchiku built at the time of the Ching Dynasty. Soon after the cession, the Taiwan Government-General brought forward a plan, with the approval of the Diet, to build a railway connecting Takao with Keelung at the expense of ¥25,800,000. Work was started in 1889 from both termini and finished in April, 1908. This line now forms the trunk line in the island's communication system. The construction of this pioneer line was followed by other lines, that is, the Kyukyodo-Heito section completed in 1912, the Tai-to line in 1917 and the Giran line in 1924. The length of lines open to traffic on March 31, 1938, was 881.7 kilometres, being the same as the preceding year. The working route kilometrage of the Government lines at the end of line in 1917 and the Giran line in the train kilometrage during the year 9,505,713 kilometres, the vehicle kilometrage 139,334,870 kilometres, being an increase of 336,988 kilometres for the train kilometrage and an decrease of 21,023,427 kilometres for other vehicles. The number of passengers carried came to 21,482,677 in 1936-37 and 23,098,052 in 1937-38, the volume of goods hauled to 7,121,691 metric tons in 1936-37 and 7,249,235 in 1937-38, and the earnings accruing from these two sources to ¥25,076,780 in 1936-37 and ¥27,019,079 in 1937-38.

Most of the private railways existing in Taiwan were originally constructed by sugar refining companies for transporting sugar and other materials, transportation business being conducted only as a side work. At the end of 1937, there were the total working km. of 2,515.4 and the number of passengers during 1937 was 4,196,773, while goods carried amounted to 842,155 metric tons. The earnings of the companies through the railway business amounted to ¥2,465,658.

The tramways, which form an important factor in the island communication system, have made a marked

development in recent years. The total length of lines in operation on March 31, 1936, was 1,218.8 km., the number of passengers carried aggregated 3,257,635 goods moved 570,663,400 m.t. and the total receipts ¥1,601,235.

Karafuto Railway

The first railway in Karafuto (Japanese Saghalien) was constructed by the Military Department in 1906 between Otomari, formerly known as Korsakovsa, and Toyohara, formerly Vladimolocka, 41.83 km. in length. It was a light railway with a gauge of 0.61 metre and exclusively used for military purposes. With the withdrawal of the military Government in April, 1907, the railway was transferred to the control of the Karafuto Administration and opened to public traffic in August of the same year. As traffic went on increasing the gauge was widened to 1.07 metres, some line in 1910, while construction of sections further north of Toyohara was started. Late in 1911 the work on the Toyohara-Sakaehama section being completed, the Otomari-Sakaehama section, 94.13 km. which now forms the trunk line in the island's communication, was opened to traffic. Construction work has been continued since and a branch line linking the Kawakami Mine with Konuma, and the Honto-Noda section on the west coast were completed and opened to business in 1914 and 1920 respectively. In addition, the construction of a branch line which connects Toyohara, the capital of the island, with Maoka on the west coast, was started in 1921 and opened to business in 1923.

The lines in operation at present totalled 342.9 kilometres, remaining the same as the previous year. The total number of passengers who travelled by the railways during 1935 totalled 1,606,325 and showed an increase of 205,843 or 14.7 per cent as compared with the previous year, and the receipts showed a gain of ¥117,012 the total receipts being ¥947,651. The total of both passenger and goods receipts amounted to ¥2,459,977 showing an increase of ¥401,519 over the receipts for the preceding year.

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

South Manchuria Railway

It was on September 5, 1905, that the Japanese Government, by virtue of Article V of the Peace Treaty concluded between Japan and Russia, acquired possession of the railways in Manchuria from Changchun to Dalny, now Dalren, and Port Arthur, now Ryojun, to-

gether with its branch lines, all the rights, privileges, and property attaching thereto, including the local mines formerly owned by the Chinese Eastern Railway. On June 7, 1906, Imperial Ordinance No. 142 was issued concerning the establishment of the South Manchuria Railway Company and on July 13 of the same year General Viscount Gentaro Kodama was appointed chairman of the promoters' committee which were composed of 80 members. On July 25, 1906, the presidency was assumed by General Viscount Masatake Terauchi, the then Minister of War, due to the death of General Kodama. The articles of association relative to the company were prepared by the committee on the basis of the Imperial Ordinance and the instructions of the Government. They were approved by the Government on August 18 and the establishment of the company was sanctioned by the Minister of Communications on November 1, 1906. The authorized capital of the company at first was ¥200,000,000, of which ¥100,000,000 represented the total of the appraised value of railways with properties and the mines at Fushun and Yental as handed over to the company by the Military Field Railway Department. The other half of the capitalization was offered to public subscription and the shareholders were guaranteed a 6 per cent dividend per annum by the Japanese Government. By

Motor Transport and Its Development

Behind Japan's motor transport system there is no such history of experimentation and endeavour as characterizes the arrival of the motor car in the West. The first car seen in Japan was one imported from America by a foreign resident of Yokohama in 1897, and then for the next ten years there was no great increase in the number. In 1907 there were only 16 cars in the whole country. Then came a change. In 1912 there were 520 vehicles and a year later 1,000. In 1921, passenger cars numbered 4,883 and business cars numbered 7,439. The great earthquake and fire which destroyed Tokyo and Yokohama in 1923 brought about a great demand for motor cars because rail traffic was interrupted at various places and the help of motor cars was badly needed. In 1924, the number increased to 40,070, of which 27,959 were passenger cars and 12,097 were trucks. The rate of increase for the five years 1921-26 for passenger cars was 100.49 per cent and for trucks 1,200.8 per cent. This

March, 1930, 800,000 shares representing 80 million yen were paid up, but with the development of various activities after the World War the capitalization was increased to 440 million, one-half of the increased capitalization being taken up by the Japanese Government. In 1933, its authorized capital was again increased to ¥800,000,000. The company is authorized to issue debentures not exceeding twice the amount of paid-up capital, and not exceeding the amount of total capitalization. The company has often issued debentures on the home and foreign markets and on such occasions both the principal and interest have been guaranteed by the Government. The total capital paid up on March 31, 1935 amounted to ¥584,208,000 and the capital unpaid to ¥251,792,000. In 1937 the total length of lines open to business was 1,129.1 kilometres. The gauge of these lines was 1.067 metres at first, excepting the Mukden-Antung Line. The company shortly after its establishment rebuilt the lines to the standard gauge of 1.434 metres. The doubling of track between Dairen and Hsinking, 704.3 kilometres, was completed in 1915. In the year 1937 the number of passengers carried was 17,515,044 and showed an increase of 1,765,258 over the previous year. Goods carried aggregated 25,129,935 m.t. The income from these came to ¥151,053,018. (See Chapter on Manchoukuo.)

rapid development of motor car transport has driven rikshas, electric cars and provincial railways into the background. Motor-car passengers are increasing year after year, while passenger receipts on provincial railways are quickly decreasing. To the present, except in the vicinity of large cities, Japan has not been blessed with good roads, but the construction of first-class motor roads is being pushed ahead in all parts of the country and traffic is bound to make a phenomenal increase as the roads are completed.

Motor-Bus Routes Granted Charters or Invalidated During the year under review the number of the private motor transportation carriers granted charters for opening motor-car service came to 414 with an aggregate length of 1,740.5 kilometres consisting of 444 for motor-bus, and of 7 for motor-truck service representing 1,628.5 km. and 112.4 km. respectively. The number of the motor-transportation carriers, whose charters were invalidated, came to 259

for motor-bus and 64 for motor-truck service, the aggregate length being 3,765.2 kilometres for the former and 2,224.3 kilometres for the latter.

Lines under Operation On March 31, 1937 the number of the private motor transportation carriers in operation came to 2,587 for the motor-bus service and 288 for the motor-truck service, their total length reaching 98,357.9 kilometres for the former and 11,024 kilometres for the latter.

Traffic Result The number of passengers carried by 2,123 motor-bus companies (or 75 per cent of the total carriers) was 1,011,242,330 yielding therefrom a receipt of ¥98,092,362 or ¥0.097 per passenger. The aggregate amount of goods moved by 85 motor-truck carriers figured 334,234 metric tons, the receipts accrued therefrom amounting to ¥1,533,831, i.e., ¥4.589 per metric ton. The number of accidents which took place on the motor routes operated by the aforesaid carriers was 12,821, in which 167 persons were killed and 1,875 injured.

Motor-Buses and Trucks The aggregate number of motor-buses and trucks in operation on all the private motor routes at the end of the year under

review was 23,630 of motor-buses and 624 of motor-trucks.

Financial Result According to investigation made into 2,208 private motor-car companies as explained elsewhere, their total working revenue of these companies during the year aggregated ¥104,356,900 and their total working expenses ¥91,457,507, leaving a profit of ¥12,899,93. The percentage of the working expenses to the working revenue stood at 87.6 per cent and that of the working profit to the construction expenses at 11.4 per cent.

Assets and Liabilities The aggregate capital of 283 private motor-car companies, which defrayed expenditure required for starting the motor service amounting to more than ¥50,000, came to ¥876,520,308, of which ¥139,287,320 was unpaid. The expenditure required for the motor routes in operation totalled ¥84,684,471.

Staff On March 31, 1937 the staff of the employees of 2,209 private motor transportation carriers numbered 75,071.

Number of Cars According to the statistics taken by the Police Bureau, Home Ministry, the number of all kinds of cars in Japan proper was 194,574 at the end of 1936.

NUMBER OF MOTOR CARS IN JAPAN PROPER

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

Number of Cars in Principal Prefectures in 1936

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

Aviation

History of Development

The Early Period During the Satsuma Rebellion in 1877, two balloons were built. In 1891, Mr. Chuhachi Ninomiya made a model of an aeroplane shaped like a bird from his own design, and, in 1894, another shaped like an insect. In 1897, Mr. Isaburo Yamada obtained

a patent for a kite balloon of his own invention. Two of these kite balloons were used in the siege of Port Arthur during the Russo-Japanese War. In 1907, a balloon corps was organized in the Telegraph Corps at Nakano, and, in June, 1909, a special military balloon investigation association was established. In March, 1910, a gliding test of aero-

plane No. 1 of the Hino type was made at Toyamagahara, Tokyo, and, in October that year, a flying test of an aeroplane of the Narahara type was made. On December 19 of the same year, Lieutenant Tokugawa (now Lieutenant-General) flew 3,000 metres in four minutes in a Farman aeroplane at Yoyogi, and Captain Hino flew in a Glady aeroplane. This was the first time that an aeroplane flight was carried out in Japan.

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

Contest of Civilian Aviators In 1914, a contest by civilian aviators was held at Naruo, near Osaka, under the auspices of the Imperial Aeronautical Association, and, during the Tsingtao campaign Japanese military aeroplanes took part in actual fighting for the first time and displayed their ability in scouting, in bombing the enemy fortress and in an aerial combat with enemy planes. In 1915, a meet of civilian flyers was held in Osaka, and a military flying battalion was formed. Between January and April, 1916, American aviators visited Japan and performed stunt flying at Naruo and other places; and, on April 27 that year, night flying was successfully carried

out for the first time in this country. In 1917, the flying battalion was enlarged into the first and second battalions and a balloon corps. In April that year, Mr. Art Smith, an American flyer, again visited Japan and carried out a series of high-class exhibition flights in Osaka and Tokyo. In April, 1918, Mr. Masao Goto, a private flyer, succeeded in making a non-stop flight between Tokorozawa and Osaka for the first time.

Military Flying School In April, 1919, the Military Aeronautical Department and the Military Flying School were established; and, on October 23 that year, the first mail transport flight between Tokyo and Osaka was carried out with success. In 1920, the Aeronautical Institute was established at Tsukishima, Tokyo; and in May that year, two Italian aviators paid a visit to Japan by air. In March, 1921, the regulations for the control of aviation were put in force. In the autumn of 1922, the Japan Aerial Transport Institute started a regular flying service between Sakai and Shikoku by hydroplanes. In 1923, the military air force was made an independent arm. The Osaka Asahi Shimbun started a regular air service between Tokyo and Osaka in January and the Japan Aerial Navigation Co., Ltd., opened one between Osaka and Beppu in July that year. In March, 1924, the dirigible S. S. No. 3 exploded and, in September of that year, the trial flight of the newly built airship Astra was carried out.

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

The Air Transport Co. In 1929, the Japan Air Transport Co., Ltd., was es-

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

In May, the Aeronautical Institute which ranks as the best research station in the world was completed six years after the starting of its construction. In the same month, the aeroplane "Young Japan" belonging to Hôsei University, a member of the Students' Aviation League, set off for Europe from the flying ground at Hanêda near Tokyo and, at the end of August, reached its destination, Rome. After the outbreak of the Manchurian trouble in September that year, our military planes participated in actual warfare for the first time since the Tsingtao campaign. In October of the same year, the aeroplane (Fokker No. 3-M) of the Japan Air Transport Company succeeded in flying between Taiwan and the mainland. In 1932, as a consequence of the Manchurian trouble, 64 "Aikoku" (Patriotic) planes were constructed with money contributed by the people generally, and, moreover, defence from aerial attack became much discussed in our principal cities and important economic centres.

Present Condition of Civil Aviation

Modest but definite progress of commercial aviation in Japan is indicated in the annual report of the Japan Air Transport Company, which reports, for 1936, the length of air routes 8,925 km., number of flights 9,205, the aggregate distance of flights 2,856,262 km., passengers carried 18,955, mail matter

354,641 kg. and goods 80,116 kg. Commencing with April 1, 1935, the company has resumed night flying and also has inaugurated a special early morning service bringing Mukden within a day's reach from Tokyo by way of Seoul and Dairen. The early morning service was extended to Hsinking, the capital of Manchoukuo, on May 1. Further expansion of commercial aviation is expected to be facilitated considerably by the 15-year Government subsidy plan adopted by the Communications Ministry last year with a tentative budget of ¥200,000,000 for the whole period and originally a sum of ¥5,500,000 for the 1935-36 year but later cut to a smaller amount. Of the other aviation concerns Japan Aviation Research Institute maintains a 290-kilometre service between Osaka and Matsuyama in Shikoku, by way of Takamatsu; the Tokyo Air Transport Company a 150-kilometre service between Tokyo and Shimoda; the Tokyo Asahi Shimbunsha, Ltd., a 415-kilometre service between Tokyo and Niigata; and the Japan Sea Air Transport Company, a newly opened service between Matsue, Shimané Prefecture, and Hirosaki on the Japan Sea coast. The Tokyo-Shimoda service is operated only between May and September and the Tokyo-Niigata service between May and October.

The Japan Airways Company Under the auspices of the Ministry of Communications a new airway company was incorporated on December 1, 1938, through a merger between the Japan Air Transport Company and the International Air Transportation Company. It is called the Dai Nippon Kôkû Kabushiki Kaisha or the Japan Airways Company. The establishment of the company was contemplated by the Ministry of Communications for the development of civil aviation in 1938 and the merger of the two companies was the first step for the realization of a monopolistic half-governmental airway company. The Bill for the establishment of the Japan Airways Company was prepared by the Ministry and submitted to the Imperial Diet. Through the adoption of the bill by the 74th session which met in the early months of 1939, the Japan Airways Company's capitalization was fixed at ¥100,000,000. The company has the right of monopolizing the national and international civil airway transportation business of the country, receiving subsidies from the National Treasury and is authorized to issue debentures not exceeding twice the amount of paid-up capital.

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

All the air routes extending over 300 kilometres shall be monopolized by the new company and consequently the Japan Aviation Research Institute will be merged into the new company, while Ando Aeronautical Institute, the Japan Sea Air Transport Company and the Tokyo Air Transport Company shall be left untouched as local air companies.

Two goodwill flights to foreign countries were carried out by the Japan Airways Company.

The first flight to Siam, over a distance of approximately 5,000 kilometres, was conducted by the company's Heinkel plane, the Nogi, which left Tachikawa airport on January 25, at 6:44 o'clock in the morning. The plane took off from Taihoku, capital of Formosa, the following morning and arrived at Bangkok at 5:25 o'clock (Japan time) the same afternoon. The plane departed from Bangkok at 10 o'clock on the night of February 4 and, after an hour's rest at Taihoku, returned to Tachikawa at 4:52 o'clock in the afternoon of the following day. The second flight to Iran was made at the Government's request in order to demonstrate Japan's goodwill and friendship on the occasion of the Royal marriage of the Crown Prince of Iran. The company's Soyokaze left Tokyo on April 9 and arrived at Teheran at 4:20 o'clock (Japan time) on the afternoon of April 15, covering

a distance of 12,061 kilometres in 46 hours and 50 minutes. The plane returned to Tokyo on the afternoon of May 28.

Another noteworthy achievement in Japanese civil aviation during 1938 was a new world record for distance over a closed circuit and for average speed established by a large long-distance plane designed by the Imperial University Aeronautical Research Institute. This machine, piloted by two of the army's late best fliers, Major Fujita and Sergeant Takahashi, took off from Kisarazu at 4:55 o'clock on the morning of May 13 and began its flight over a quadrangular course of 401,759 kilometres connecting Kisarazu, Choshi, Ota and Hiratsuka. It completed 29 laps and landed at Kisarazu at 7:18 o'clock in the evening of May 15 after remaining in continuous flight for 62 hours, 22 minutes and 49 seconds. When it had landed, the plane still contained about 500 litres of fuel and 200 litres of oil, which would have been sufficient to continue the flight for another 1,200 kilometres.

The present major air routes in Japan are Tokyo-Dairen, Fukuoka-Taihoku, Tokyo-Sapporo, Tokyo-Hsinking, Tokyo-Peking, Fukuoka-Nanking and Tokyo-Palau, the last three being opened in 1938 and 1939. The aggregate length of the routes extends as long as 19,000 kilometres. As compared with the conditions in 1929 the length of routes extends 7 times as long in 1938, the length of flights 6 times, the number of passengers carried 31 times, the volume of mail matter conveyed 100 times, and that of goods 125 times, as it is shown in the following table:

GROWTH OF CIVIL AVIATION

(Compiled by the Aviation Bureau, Communications Ministry)

	Length of Routes (In km.)	Number of Flights	Aggregate Length of Flights (In km.)	Number of Passengers carried	Goods conveyed (In kg.)	Mail Matter conveyed (In kg.)
1929-30	2,575	2,558	1,020,300	2,755	2,444	8,594
1930-31	2,575	4,454	1,670,900	7,642	8,966	25,063
1931-32	2,575	4,867	1,753,230	6,766	32,414	40,871
1932-33	2,575	5,301	1,744,105	10,716	28,510	93,950
1933-34	2,575	5,224	1,715,400	10,992	28,049	219,560
1934-35	2,618	5,648	1,683,652	12,167	51,023	197,199
1935-36	4,228	5,846	1,833,056	10,822	67,497	263,980
1936-37	6,925	9,205	2,856,262	18,955	80,116	354,641
1937-38	10,306	16,270	5,126,385	47,342	248,607	591,158
1938-39	15,335	17,144	6,209,873	69,268	297,807	819,261

Note: The figures are for the routes now taken up by the Japan Airways Company.

Measures to Promote the Aviation Service

Profoundly convinced of the absolute necessity of promoting aviation service under existing conditions the Ministry of Communications intends to make it a national policy to launch a comprehensive aviation programme extending over three years beginning with the fiscal year of 1937-38. This programme covers the perfection and expansion of aviation facilities, training of aviators, encouragement and control of aircraft industry, perfection of both national and international aviation systems, etc.

Perfection and Expansion of Aviation Facilities The aviation facilities of this nation, including aerodromes, grounds for forced landing, aeronautical wireless stations, aerial lighthouses and aviation meteorological observatories, are in such condition that they are far from bearing a favourable comparison with those in various other countries. There are at present less than 10 state-managed flying grounds for civilian aeroplanes in this country, which are all too small and poorly equipped. Even the Tokyo airport, in spite of its being located at the entrance to the capital, is not large enough to enable the easy landing of a large-sized passenger plane such as the Douglas machine which traverses the American Continent.

As a means of rectifying the unsatisfactory situation, the authorities of the Ministry of Communications are endeavouring to perfect the national aviation system through the improvement of existing aviation fields and establishment of new ones in the leading cities throughout the country with the co-operation of the prefectures concerned. They are also making efforts to increase the number of grounds for forced landing and improve and expand the aerial lighthouses and other facilities in order to promote the regular air service. In 1939, the work for enlarging Fukuoka Airport was commenced, while improvements in Tokyo Airport (Haneda) and the construction of Minami Sunamachi Airport in Tokyo are carried on.

Training of Aviators While the necessity of training air pilots and aircraft mechanics in order to promote the aviation service is generally recognized, the institutes for such training in this country are still very poorly organized and have few adequate training grounds. To make matters worse, the aeroplanes used by these institutes for exercise purposes are generally of a very inferior quality.

The communications authorities are working for an increase in the number of superior aviators by controlling these training institutes and urging an improvement of their equipments. During 1938-39, 10 Local Aviators' Institutes are going to be established at important points in the country for the training of aviators and technicians, and the Central Aviators' Institute will be established at Matsudo near Tokyo for a complete training of the graduates of the local institutes, the number of students limited to 50 picked up ones.

Encouragement and Control of the Aircraft Industry From the standpoint of science and technique, the Japanese people are not inferior to any other in producing aircraft of superior order but owing to the smallness of demand for civilian aeroplanes, few efforts have been made to manufacture flying machines of new types. Though some new types have been produced in the country they are chiefly imitations of foreign-made ones. The expensiveness of the production of an original type is held responsible for the slowness in the progress of aircraft industry in the nation. The government authorities are considering measures to encourage the manufacture of experimental aircraft, besides undertaking to direct the aircraft-making activities through its aeronautical research institutes. They aim at enabling the manufacture of aircraft at less cost than at present, so as to increase the demand for aeroplanes. The authorities also deem it essential to control as well as give encouragement to the manufacturers of aeroplanes and makers of aeroplane parts. The leading newspaper publishers in the country are encouraged by means of special grants to buy home-made aeroplanes instead of imported machines for use in their business. As an additional means of encouraging aircraft industry, the authorities also feel the necessity of granting subventions for the promotion of the export trade of home-made aircraft.

International Aviation Besides perfecting the national aviation system by improving the existing facilities and creating new ones, it is being strongly urged that the air routes linking this land with other countries should be perfected and expanded. It is emphasized that this country should gain the mastery of a regular air line connecting Manchoukuo, China and Europe, another connecting India, the South Sea Islands and Australia, a third connecting Soviet Russia and a fourth connecting the United States of America.

Though the difficulty of competing with the already extended influence in the East of America and Europe is conceded, yet such a mastery is deemed essential to the growth of this nation.

Promotion of the Aircraft Industry
With a view to furthering the development of the aircraft industry of the country, the Aircraft Manufacturing Industry Law was promulgated in 1938. By the operation of the law the pres-

ent 14 aircraft manufacturing companies are to be helped by subsidies in enlarging their equipment, new companies are going to be established in this year, and the Central Aviation Institute was established on April 1, 1939. This new Institute belongs to the Communications Ministry and commenced investigations on a high-speed aircraft, the manufacture of larger planes, and a greater production of superior planes.

CHAPTER XXVI

SEA TRANSPORTATION

Historical Background

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

Ban on Shipping Activities Unfortunately, while the maritime prosperity of Japan was thus making progress by leaps and bounds, the Tokugawa Shogunate took the drastic measure of secluding the country and forbidding all foreign intercourse. Its first act was to place a strict ban on the propagation of Christianity in 1613. Subsequently, in 1634, all commercial relations with foreign countries were stopped, and in 1638 the construction of large ocean-going vessels was forbidden. For a period of more than two centuries thereafter the ocean trade of Japan was forcibly suspended.

The Well-timed Visit Commodore Perry's visit in 1853 was opportune, inasmuch as by this time many Japanese amongst the intelligent classes were dimly aware of conditions outside Japan, and the Shogun's Government, amid much confusion of opinion, took a firm

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

After the Meiji Restoration

The First Steamship Co. In the third year of Meiji the Government promulgated the Mercantile Marine Regulations. In the same year, the pioneer steamship concern was inaugurated and a new leaf in the history of the Japanese mercantile marine was turned. The first company to be incorporated was the Kwaiso Kaisha, or Forwarding and Transport Company, which was later re-named the Teikoku Yusen Joki Kaisha (Imperial Mail Steamship Co.). Mampei Kimura was one of the chief promoters. A regular service was maintained between Tokyo and Yokohama and between Osaka and Kobe. Yataro Iwasaki, founder of the Mitsubishi Interests, incorporated a shipping company called the Tsukumo Shokai, later re-named the Mitsubishi Shokai, in 1870 and inaugurated a regular passenger service between Tokyo and Kochi in Shikoku, from which place Iwasaki hailed. Three steamers formerly owned by Lord Yamanouchi, former feudal lord of Tosa, were employed in the service. When the Japanese Government sent a punitive force against Formosa in 1874, all foreign steamship companies interested in the Far Eastern shipping trade declared neutrality and rejected the Government's offer to charter their ships. Perplexed at this, the Government ordered the Mitsubishi Shokai and Teikoku Joki to offer their ships, and thus the transportation of troops was

smoothly effected.

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

The O. S. K. About this time the Osaka Shosen Kaisha was established in Osaka. It was then a small concern maintaining services in the Inland Sea of Japan, but later developed into a large company. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha, while maintaining the services originally inaugurated by its predecessors, opened new lines to Korea and North China, and one between Shanghai and Vladivostok; and in 1891, it inaugurated the service between Kobe and Manila and commenced to despatch occasional ships to Australia. In 1892, the N. Y. K. Japan-Bombay service was opened, the first regular Japanese steamship connection with a far-away foreign country. The rapid progress of Japanese shipping is attested by the fact that in the beginning of 1891 the total tonnage owned in Japan was 100,-

000, and one year later this figure had increased by 10,000.

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

Foreigners' Services Mention must not be omitted of the valuable contribution made by foreign experts to the development of the Japanese mercantile marine. Through the remarkable foresight of Iwasaki, not only foreign captains, officers, engineers and pursers were freely engaged afloat, but numerous experts, business and technical, were employed on shore to conduct the business of the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. A large number of these foreigners remained in the company's service for a considerable time after its formation. Foremost among them were A. R. Brown, Alexander Macmillan, T. H. James, J. W. Ekstrand, W. H. Hasewell and Hector Frazer, whose names are still familiar to old timers in the Far Eastern shipping trade.

One noteworthy fact in connection with the development of the shipping business is the advance made by Japanese mariners. Japan imported the science of navigation from the West and early in the Meiji Era the captains, chief engineers and mates were mostly

foreigners. When the Nippon Yusen Kaisha was first organized in 1894 the company owned 57 steamers with a total tonnage of 60,000 and employed about 174 foreigners, the number being increased to 224 during the Sino-Japanese War. During the Russo-Japanese War Japanese mariners were the recipients of much praise, and their credit was greatly raised. After the war, in 1907, the number of foreigners was reduced to 87 and by 1920 there was not a single foreign officer in a Japanese ship.

The Russo-Japanese War The Russo-Japanese War broke out early in 1904, and Japan found herself compelled to undertake transport work of the biggest magnitude ever known in her history. This situation naturally created the necessity of purchasing additional tonnage, with the result that at the end of 1906 the total merchant marine reached a little more than one million gross tons, and Japan thus ranked sixth among the great maritime Powers of the world. Through the expansion of trade after the war, sufficient employment was found for these steamers. The Tokyo Kisen Kaisha opened its South American service before the war terminated. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha started in 1909 its Far East-Puget Sound service. Elsewhere the expansion was also pronounced, for in 1907 four large Japanese companies trading on the Yangtze-kiang pooled their interests and formed the Nisshin Kisen Kaisha (Japan-China Steamship Company) and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha in the meantime inaugurated the Tsuruga-Vladivostok and the Osaka-Kobe-Moji-Dairen lines. The general slump in the shipping trade which prevailed all over the world during this period was felt in Japan, but the country was not so badly hit as to prevent the further growth of its shipping, for, at the end of the year when the World War broke out, the total gross tonnage of ships flying the Japanese flag was 1,590,000, of which 1,310,000 tons represented ships of more than 1,000 gross tons each. Turning to the share which Japanese merchant shipping contributed to its foreign commerce, it was found that, whereas, prior to the Sino-Japanese war (1894-5), only 10 per cent of imports and exports were carried by Japanese ships, the proportion increased to 40 per cent after the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5), and just before the commencement of the World War, it had grown to 48 per cent.

The World War An extensive dearth of tonnage and the consequent pressing

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

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

Representative Shipping Companies There are nine steamship companies working overseas and domestic services under governmental subsidy. These concerns are the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the Osaka Shosen Kaisha, the Nisshin Kisen Kaisha, the Nanyo Kaiun Kaisha, the Kinkai Yusen Kaisha, the Yamashita Kisen Kaisha, the Kita Nippon Kisen Kaisha, the Harada Kisen Kaisha and the Kuribayashi Shosen Kaisha. The subsidy is paid to these companies for a period of one year from April to March in most cases, while in certain cases the subsidy runs over a period of three years.

The N.Y.K. Yokohama-London service has Kobe, Shanghai, Hongkong, Singapore, Colombo, Suez, Port Said and Marseilles as intermediate ports of call. Its San Francisco line has Honolulu as the only intermediate port of

call on both outward and homeward (eastward-bound) trips. On the westward-bound trip it has Nagasaki, Shanghai, and Hongkong. The company's Yokohama-Seattle (eastward-bound) service has Victoria or Vancouver as ports of call and its westward-bound service has Kobe, Moji and Shanghai as ports of call. Its South American West Coast line between Yokohama and Valparaiso (eastward-bound) has Honolulu, Manzanillo, or Salina Cruz, Callao and Iquique as ports of call and its westward-bound line has as ports of call Kobe, Moji and Hongkong. The N.Y.K. Yokohama-Melbourne service has as ports of call Kobe, Nagasaki, Hongkong, Manila, Davao, Thursday Island, Brisbane and Sydney both ways. The company had, in April 1938, 90 vessels with an aggregate tonnage of 657,000 tons. The number of ships under construction and proposed was 20 with 214,500 tons; it is capitalized at ¥92,250,000 paid up and the rate of profit was 32.7 and rate of dividend 7.0 for the second half of 1937.

The O. S. K. South American East Coast line (Yokohama-Buenos Aires) for its outward bound trip has as ports of call Kobe, Nagasaki, Hongkong, Singapore, Cape Town, Rio de Janeiro and Santos. When homeward bound the line has Santos, Rio de Janeiro and Cristobal as ports of call. The O. S. K. African East Coast line operates between Kobe and Cape Town and on its outward bound trip has Moji, Hongkong, Singapore, Colombo, Mombasa, Zanzibar, Dar-Es-Salaam, Beira, Loureço Marques and Durban. When homeward bound the line has Durban, Loureço Marques, Mombasa, Zanzibar, Singapore and Moji as ports of call. These are the most important steamship lines operated under Government subsidy. The company owned, in April 1938, 120 vessels with 534,000 tons. It is capitalized at ¥62,500,000 paid up and the rate of profit for the second half of 1937 was 49.5 and that of dividend 6.0.

The Kokusai Kisen Kaisha, owner of motor and steam vessels aggregating 320,000 tons deadweight, has reached new heights of prosperity under the able management of Mr. S. Kurokawa, President, the net profit for the year ending December 31, 1937, having amounted to over ¥11,530,000. During the last few years nine speedy motor vessels have been built and placed in commission on the Orient-New York express service, whilst three 19-knotters were completed early in 1936. The latter have been allocated to the newly inaugurated Far East-North Europe fast service.

Furthermore, three motor and turbine super-freighters of about 9,200 tons deadweight each are now on order with the shipbuilders here in Japan and will all be completed before the end of the year 1938. The Kokusai Line, which was mainly engaged in tramp shipping before, now maintains several regular services of international significance, thus contributing much towards Japan's balance of foreign payments, which fact is worthy of particular mention at this moment when the importance of invisible exports cannot be too heavily stressed.

In addition, the Nanyo Kaiun Kaisha operates under Government subsidy the South Sea line between Kobe and Sourabaya, Java, calling at Macassar, Sourabaya, Samarang and Batavia on the outward trip. Ships sail direct for Kobe on the homeward trip. The Nishin Kisen Kaisha operates the China Coast line between Shanghai and Canton as the southern line and between Shanghai and Tientsin or Taku as the northern line. The company also maintains the Shanghai-Hankow line with Chenkiang and Nanking as ports of call, the Hankow-Ichang line with Shasi as port of call, the Hankow-Hsiangtan line with Changsha as port of call, Hankow-Changteh line, and the Ichang-Chungching line, all these five lines being known as the Yangtze River services.

The Kinkai Yusen Kaisha, affiliated with the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, operates a subsidized regular service between Kobe and Tientsin or Taku during the winter with Moji as port of call and also the Yokohama-Newchwang (Yingkow) service with Nagoya as port of call both under Government subsidy. It also runs a regular service between Hakodate and Odomari in Karafuto. The N. Y. K., O. S. K. and Harada Kisen Kaisha jointly maintain a Kobe-Tsingtao regular steamer service. The Tsuruga-Vladivostok regular service is operated by the Kita Nippon Kisen Kaisha, which is affiliated with the Osaka Shosen Kaisha. The Kuribayashi Shosen Kaisha, Hokkaido, operates a regular service between Hakodate and Petropavlovsk in Kamchatka seven times a year during the warm season. Stores and other supplies of daily necessity are carried by ships on the service for Japanese fishermen engaged in the Kamchatka fisheries. A regular connecting service between Aomori and Muroran is maintained by the Kita Nippon.

Nippon Yusen Kaisha regular liners sailing between Japan and Europe call on their outward trips at Istanbul and Beirut more than twice every three

month, those sailing between the same places call on their outward and homeward trips at Piraeus more than twice every three months, and those sailing between Japan and the United States call on their homeward trips at Havana in Cuba once every two months, all under Government subsidy.

The Toyo Kisen Kaisha owned 15 vessels with 78,700 tons in April 1937, with paid-up capital ¥9,000,000, rate of profit for the second half of 1937, 32.7 and that of dividend 7.0. The total tonnage of ships under its control reached 121,277 tons.

The Dairen Kisen Kaisha had 52 vessels with 200,000 tons (9 vessels under construction), in April 1938, with paid-up capital ¥14,450,000, rate of profit for the first half of 1937 was 43.1 and that of dividend 6.0.

The Kuribayashi Shosen Kaisha had 22 vessels with 77,000 tons in April 1938.

Among smaller companies, the Daido Kaiun Kaisha (United Ocean Transport Co.) had 8 vessels with 77,956 tons.

Open Ports The open ports in Japan proper are Yokohama, Kobe, Niigata, Ebisu, Osaka, Nagasaki, Hakodate, Shimizu, Taketo, Nagoya, Yokkaichi, Uno, Onomichi-Itozaki, Tokuyama, Imabari, Shimonoseki, Hagl, Moji, Wakamatsu, Hakata, Karatsu, Suminoe, Kutchinotsu, Miike, Misumi, Kagoshima, Izuhara, Naha, Hamada, Sakai, Miyazu, Tsuruga, Nano, Fushiki, Funakawa, Aomori, Otaru, Nemuro, Kushiro, Muroran, Sasuna, Shishimi, Miike, Shtogama and Kamashi.

Marine Transportation in 1938-39

The shipping industry in this country witnessed remarkable developments during 1937. The shipping companies imposed upon themselves a voluntary control to curb the soaring shipping rates in connection with what was considered to be the greatest shipping boom since the time of the Great War and later an emergency shipping control law was passed bringing the shipping industry under Government control on account of the outbreak of the China incident. The increased demand for bottoms brought about directly by the incident aggravated the already-felt shortage of shipping space, thus serving to stimulate the rising tendency of freight rates and charterage. As an emergency measure to deal with the situation, the Ministry of Communications adopted a policy of licensing vessels registered in the Kwantung Leased Territory and foreign vessels in general to participate in the coastwise trade of Japan proper. Simultaneously, the Autono-

mous Shipping Federation fixed standard freight rates and charterage. These measures eased the tense situation facing the shipping trade. In order to provide against any prolongation of the extraordinary situation, the Ministry of Communications then decided to effect a fundamental remedy through the enactment of a temporary shipping control law. A bill for the law was approved at the 72nd session of the Imperial Diet and thus the shipping concerns were brought under wartime control in common with other industrial concerns in the country.

Autonomous Shipping Federation While the shipping concerns were experiencing an unusual boom, the merchants and industrialists interested in the importation of coal, ore, scrap iron and industrial salt in large quantities chafed under the prospects of higher freight rates and difficulty of securing shipping space. The outcry for the enforcement of adequate measures to cope with the situation became louder and louder with the result that Admiral Takuo Godo, former Minister of Commerce and Industry, advocated an alleviation of the restrictions on the purchase of foreign ships as a means of supplying the shortage of bottoms. The suggestion of Admiral Godo failed to be realized on account of an opposition voiced by the shipping circles.

There were indications, however, that if the situation should be allowed to take its own course, the Government might be expected to enforce some measures of control over the shipping concerns on the ground that the rapid rise in freight rates and the shortage of bottoms were accountable for the higher prices of commodities or for the difficulty attending the importation of important raw materials to feed the key industries of the country. Under the circumstances, Mr. Murata, president of the Osaka Shosen Kaisha, proposed the formation of a federation of shipping interests to control the rising tendency of the rates voluntarily. His proposal was supported by all the leading shipping interests and on July 1, representatives of the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the Osaka Shosen Kaisha, the Kawasaki Kisen Kaisha, the Daido Kaiun Kaisha, the Yamashita Kisen Kaisha, the Kokusai Kisen Kaisha and the shipping department of the Mitsui Bussan Kaisha met together at the office of the Nippon Kaiun Shokai in Kobe and their discussions resulted in a decision to organize an Autonomous Shipping Federation with Mr. Murata, the promoter of the scheme, as its chief director.

Following the meeting, the seven shipping firms concerned issued a joint statement which read: "We organize an autonomous federation of shipping companies with a view to promoting the sound development of the maritime transportation business of our country in conformity with the prevailing conditions of our Empire and at the same time increasing the efficiency of our shipping service. The present federation will exert its utmost efforts to smooth the transportation of those materials which are essential to our nation in times of emergency." Simultaneously, the following articles of association were announced:

Article 1: All the companies concerned shall co-operate with one another in a spirit of conciliation with a view to promoting the sound development of the maritime transport business of our country and facilitating the proper operation of shipping in conformity with the requirements of the prevailing extraordinary situation.

Article 2: In order to attain the aim of the present agreement, an autonomous federation of shipping companies shall be organized.

Article 3: The method of operating the present agreement and other details shall be determined by negotiations.

Article 4: The term of the present agreement shall be 3 years beginning from the day of its signing.

Article 5: The term as mentioned in the foregoing article may be extended by the unanimous wish of the members.

Emergency Shipping Control Law
The bill for the enactment of an emergency shipping control law as a link in the series of economic legislations aiming at the perfection of the wartime economic system in connection with China incident was presented to the 72nd session of the Imperial Diet and approved by both houses on September 8, and was promulgated on the following day. The principal purpose of the law is, as mentioned in its first article, to adjust the maritime traffic and transport in conformity with the requirements of the China incident.

The new legislation empowers the Government to control the movements of vessels and makes Government permission necessary for the chartering of vessels and acquisition of foreign vessels, and contains provisions for control of shipping lines, freight rates, shipbuilding and seamen. In other words, the legislation paved the way for the Government to have absolute control over the shipping industry.

Nevertheless, up to the time of writing the actual control of shipping had been left with satisfactory results to the shipping concerns themselves who are governed by the Autonomous Shipping Federation and the need for the enforcement of the new legislation was not felt till then. The Emergency Shipping Control Law was enacted rather as a reserve measure to be used only in case of necessity, the shipping companies being expected to exercise voluntary control for the most part. This point was clearly brought out in the interpellations and answers at the Diet session. Mr. Ryutaro Nagai, the Minister of Communications also stated in his speech before the general meeting of shipping business men on August 28 that the Emergency Shipping Control Law was not intended to replace the voluntary control imposed upon themselves by shipping companies, but was intended as a complementary measure to facilitate the shipping circles to conform to the actual needs of the prevailing situation.

The following are the major provisions of the Emergency Shipping Control Law which came into force on October 1, 1937:

Article 1: The present law aims at bringing about an effective co-ordination between the maritime traffic and transport facilities in general in connection with the China incident.

Article 2: The persons to whom the present law shall apply are the subjects of the Empire or the juridical persons of the Empire engaged in enterprises of transporting persons or commodities on the sea.

Article 3: When Japanese vessels are about to be transferred by sale, rented (the term "rent" as used herein also implies chartering for a specified period) or offered as security to persons who are not entitled to possess Japanese ships (the expression "Japanese ships" as used herein also implies Japanese shipping as based on orders issued in the Kwantung Leased Territory), the permission of the Government shall be obtained except in cases which are specified by decree.

Article 4: When persons who may possess Japanese ships are about to acquire ships which are not Japanese ships, they shall obtain the permission of the Government. However, an exception shall be made in regard to ships which are specified by decree.

Article 5: The Government may prohibit or restrict the transportation service of Japanese vessels between foreign ports.

Article 6: The Government may specify the routes over which Japanese vessels may ply and what they may transport and order the shipping companies to operate accordingly.

Article 7: The Government may issue necessary orders to persons engaged in marine transportation business, persons possessing vessels or persons manufacturing ships in regard to the freight rates, charter rates, manufacture of ships or prices of ships.

Article 8: The Government may issue orders to shipbuilding concerns regarding the type of ships to be built, materials to be used, fittings to be contained and other matters concerning the manufacture of ships.

Article 9: The Government may issue necessary orders to shipping companies, or persons possessing ships in regard to the shipping facilities to be provided, the protection of seamen or the perfection of facilities.

Article 10: The Government may order persons engaged in marine transportation business, persons possessing ships or persons manufacturing ships to report on the conditions of their business.

Article 11: The Government may, by decree, make separate stipulations in regard to the qualifications of ships to be put into the service of subsidized routes in accordance with the provisions of the Foreign Routes Subsidy Law.

Article 12: The Government may, by decree, make separate stipulations in regard to how many members of the crew each boat should carry and their qualifications in accordance with the provisions of seamen's law.

Article 13: Before issuing orders in accordance with the provisions of Article 7, the matter shall be referred to the shipping control committee.

The regulations concerning the shipping control committee shall be determined by Imperial ordinance.

Article 14 to 22 omitted.

Article 23: In the case of Chosen and Taiwan, separate stipulations shall be made by Imperial ordinance in regard to the provisions of Articles 11 to 13.

Supplementary Rule: The date of the enforcement of the present law shall be determined by Imperial ordinance. The present law shall be abolished within one year of the termination of the China incident.

The shipping control committee as provided in the Emergency Shipping Control Law was constituted with 33 members headed by Mr. Ryutaro Nagai, Minister of Communications, as the

chairman, and the birth of the organization was promulgated on September 30.

Upon the enforcement of the above law on October 1, the authorities of the Ministry of Communications issued a statement in regard to the method of operating the law, which in substance read as follows:

Efforts will be made to promote the smooth transportation of important commodities necessary to the nation by placing the maritime traffic and transport facilities under the wartime system.

A. The transfer, etc. of ships is to be restricted.

B. The shipbuilding in Japan proper is to be promoted.

C. Foreign ships less than 17 years old (16 years old according to later modification) are to be permitted to be imported unconditionally while the importation of foreign ships exceeding the said age is to be permitted under condition that the ships shall be scrapped within specified periods.

D. Navigation of Japanese vessels between foreign ports may be put under restrictions or banned altogether when such measures are considered necessary.

Freight and charter rates are to be maintained at an equitable level as a means of checking the rising tendency of the prices of commodities.

A. The upward trend of freight and charter rates is to be restrained.

B. At the same time, adequate measures of control are to be taken in regard to the prices of newly-built ships and the prices of slightly used ships.

Endeavours are to be made to maintain the rights of Japanese to navigate along foreign routes and prevent the trespassing by foreign vessels.

A. Ships are to be put into service on various routes in conformity with their actual conditions and the present positions are to be maintained as much as possible although expansion may be impossible under the prevailing conditions.

Prudence will be used in regard to the actual operation of the Emergency Shipping Control Law.

A. Technical matters are to be studied by a committee of experts composed of 15 members to be created within the shipping control committee.

B. Co-operation of shipping interests, shipbuilding organizations, consignors, traders, marine insurance concerns and bankers is to be obtained in dealing with the current situation.

N.Y.K. Shipbuilding Plan In April, 1938, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha publish-

ed a gigantic shipbuilding plan, according to which 21 new ships with an aggregate tonnage of 221,600 tons will be added to its great fleet in a year or so. Two passenger ships of 26,500 ton size will be constructed for the Yokohama-San Francisco line, three passenger ships of 16,500 ton size for the Japan-Europe route, two passenger ships of 11,400 ton size for the Yokohama-Seattle line, two passenger ships of 11,600 ton size for the Japan-Australia line, seven cargo boats of the Akagi Maru type with a tonnage of 7,100 tons each, one passenger ship of 7,400 tons for the Japan-China line, and four cargo boats of 7,000 tons each for the Yokohama-Shanghai line. Five bigger ones are already under construction to be completed in 1939.

Agreement with Australia The Japan-Australian negotiation on sea transportation which was commenced on January 6, 1938, came to a conclusion on July 2, between the representatives of the E. A. Company and the Japanese shipowners. According to the new agreement the pool point to be given to the E. A. Company of Australia was fixed at 22.5 per cent for both ways, effective for two years beginning with July 1, the difference between the new and old agreements is that the pool point to be given to the E. A. is increased by 2.5 per cent in shipping wool and decreased by 2.5 per cent in taking Japanese miscellaneous goods on the return voyage. The term of agreement was lengthened to two years for miscellaneous goods transportation which had been fixed as one year in the previous agreement.

Predominance of the Japanese Sea Transportation in the Orient The Japanese sea transportation world is facing several difficulties in coping with the epochmaking changes in the business in the area affected by the Sino-Japanese hostilities, and yet striving for the future prosperity.

As to the ship-bottoms, the call of ships to the near seas has become urgent with the advance of months, and the tonnage of ships placed for near seas transportation increased from 2 million tons to 3.5 million tons as a result of the transfer of half a million tons from the ocean lines and the placement of newly constructed ships which aggregated to over 900,000 tons. If the bottoms of the ocean liners passing through near seas be added the total tonnage is estimated at over 4 million tons. According to the investigation made by the Japan Shipowners Club, the aggregate tonnage of ships owned

by the shipowners other than the N.Y.K. and O.S.K. increased from 2,117,000 tons in June, 1937, to 3,519,000 tons in July, 1938, for near seas, while it decreased from 1,374,000 tons to 909,000 tons for ocean transportation.

Even with such an increase of tonnage the sea transportation for near seas was troubled with a shortage of bottoms and unable to meet the demand and the freight rate naturally soared. Whereupon the Autonomous Shipping Federation was organized and the federation made endeavours to check the rise in freight rates by fixing standard rates for both freight rates and charter rates on their own accord beginning with August, 1937, and revising them several times since. The fourth standard rates were 10 per cent reduction as compared with the third standard rates and the comparison between the rates in May, 1937, and those of the fourth standard rates fixed in August, 1938, was as follows:

Freight Rates			
(In yen)			
	May, 1937	August, 1938	
Coal (Wakamatsu-Yokohama)	4.13	4.60	
Coal (Muroran-Yokohama)	3.70	4.40	
Karafuto timber	400.00	350.00	
South Seas Iron Ore	7.70	9.50	
American timber (dollars)	18.00	12.00	

Charter Rates			
Grade of Ship in ton	May, 1937	August, 1938	
1,000	7.60	14.00	
2,000	7.85	12.00	
3,000	7.00	8.00	
4,000	7.15	7.40	
5,000	7.40	6.75	
6,000	7.40	3.85	
7,000	7.10	3.85	
8,000	7.14	5.40	
9,000	6.90	5.40	

Establishment of the To-A Kalun Kaisha For the predominance of the Japanese sea transportation in the Orient the shipowners held a general meeting in Tokyo on August 5, 1939, to establish a new corporation for carrying on sea transportation in a greater scope along the Oriental coasts by their united efforts. The new corporation is called the To-A Kalun Kaisha, or East Asia Sea Transportation Company, capitalized

at ¥73,000,000. The purpose of the company is to carry on sea transportation business between Japan and China, along the coasts of China, and between China and other countries; warehouse business in China and other places and other enterprises related to sea transportation. Proposed lines are Japanese ports—Tientsin, Japanese ports—Tingtao, Japanese ports—Shanghai, Japanese ports—South China ports, Formosan ports—Shanghai, Formosan ports—Tientsin, Formosan ports—South China ports, Dairen—North China ports, Tientsin—Shanghai, Tientsin—South China ports and Dairen—South China ports.

A Common Fund An extraordinary general meeting of the Japan Shipowner's Association was held in Kobe on September 28, 1938, for raising a common fund for the promotion and protection of sea transportation business. There were 64 shipowners present at the meeting presided by S. Murata of the O.S.K., and passed a decision on saving up a common fund by the co-operation of the members to promote common interests at the time of business boom and to minimize possible losses at the time of depression.

The fund amounted to approximately ¥3,000,000 in March, 1939, and it is expected to reach ¥10,000,000 by the end of the year on account of the increase of member shipowners by the reorganization of the present Japan Shipowners' Association to the Sea Transportation Association according to the provisions of the new Sea Transportation Association Law.

Subsidies for the Construction of Ships The Department of Communications filed a bill concerning the promotion of the construction of mean and small sized ships for near-sea transportation, and was approved by the Imperial Diet in the spring of 1939. The new law provides for allowing subsidies to shipowners to an aggregate sum of ¥5,200,000 in 1939-40 and ¥800,000 in 1940-41. The average rate of the subsidy shall be ¥30.00 per ton for the construction of ships with an aggregate tonnage of

200,000 tons during the coming two years.

The tonnage of mean and small sized ships owned by the shipowners in Japan which was 33.8 per cent to the total tonnage in 1932 decreased to 32.7 per cent in 1937, and the recent activities of near-sea transportation demand a greater number of these ships and the new law aims at the promotion of the construction of ships less than 5,000 tons each by the allowance of subsidies, fixing the categories of ships to three classes which are 4,300 ton ship with a maximum speed of 14 knots, 2,600 ton ship, speed 13 knots and 1,900 ton ship, speed 12 knots.

Laid-up Ship According to the investigation made by the Japan Shipowners' Association the total tonnage of the laid-up ships in the world on December 10, 1938, reached 3,217,000 tons, increasing by 29,000 tons as compared with the previous month. Details by countries follow:

	November 10, 1938	December 10, 1938
	(Unit: 1,000 tons)	
Great Britain	443	637
U. S. A.	1,348	1,348
Japan	14	14
Norway	335	168
Italy	138	168
France	181	176
Sweden	96	69
Greece	459	459
Others	184	178
Total	3,188	3,217

Standard Types of Ships The Ships Improvement Association held a general meeting on February 15, 1939, and passed a decision on the standard types of ships to be constructed in coming years according to the recommendations of the Specialist Committee which had been entrusted with a thorough study on the question for the past three years. The standard types are fixed for the rationalization of shipbuilding and the economy of sea transportation business. Details of the standard types follow:

	For Ocean Transportation			For Near-sea Transportation			
	A Type (Turbine)	A Type (Diesel)	B Type (Turbine)	C Type (Recipro.)	D Type (Recipro.)	E Type (Diesel)	F Type (Diesel)
Weight tonnage	9,300	9,240	6,840	4,250	3,000	1,250	750
Gross tonnage	6,300	6,200	4,470	2,750	1,990	850	490
Length (metre)	135.5	135.5	118.6	98.0	89.9	64.5	52.9
Width (metre)	17.8	17.8	15.8	13.7	12.5	9.5	4.2
Depth (metre)	9.8	9.8	9.0	7.6	6.5	5.0	4.2
Deep water-line	7.8	7.8	7.4	6.4	5.6	4.5	3.8

Regulations for the Promotion of the Sea Transportation of Japan The Imperial Diet which was held early in 1939 passed three important bills for the promotion of the sea transportation business of Japan. They are the Sea Transportation Association Law, the Shipbuilding Law and the Shipbuilding Financing Law. The first law aims at the inclusion of all the shipowners in Japan in one national association in order to unify the working of ship companies by the hand of the Department of Communications, while the control of the business was formerly left

to the autonomous judgments of the Japan Shipowners' Association. The second and third laws aim at the control of shipbuilding in the country so as to lower the prices of ships to the international level and to help a greater production of ships for the realization of a predominant fleet of commercial vessels on the Pacific in the near future.

Business Conditions of Shipping and Shipbuilding Companies The business conditions of principal shipowners and dockyards in 1937 and 1938 were as follows:

BUSINESS CONDITIONS OF PRINCIPAL SHIPOWERS AND DOCKYARDS IN 1937 AND 1938

(Unit: ¥1,000)

		Paid-up Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Rate of Profit	Rate of Dividend	
Nippon Yusen Kaisha	1937	A	64,250	61,622	8,456	39.0	6.0
		B	78,250	68,033	9,945	43.5	6.0
	1938	A	92,250	75,622	5,312	24.3	6.0
		B	92,250	78,837	5,590	21.6	6.0
Osaka Shosen Kaisha	1937	A	62,500	37,824	8,223	40.0	6.0
		B	62,500	40,848	10,999	49.5	6.0
	1938	A	62,500	41,733	10,633	49.1	6.0
		B	62,500	62,500	11,044	51.6	7.0
Toyo Kisen Kaisha	1937	A	5,781	126	160	21.7	5.0
		B	7,000	136	275	32.7	7.0
	1938	A	11,000	192	788	51.0	10.0
		B	11,000	442	994	45.3	10.0
Nisshin Kisen Kaisha	1937	A	10,125	4,366	512	19.1	3.0
		B	10,125	3,324	418	8.3	0
	1938	A	10,125	—	(-) 121	—	0
		B	10,125	—	—	—	0
Kokusai Kisen Kaisha	1937	A	20,000	—	4,756	—	—
		B	20,000	—	6,770	—	—
	1938	A	75,000	43,037	5,299	16.3	7.0
		B	90,000	46,660	5,969	15.4	7.0
Mitsubishi Heavy Industry (Dockyard)	1937	A	105,000	50,468	6,368	14.2	7.0
		B	105,000	54,736	7,448	16.6	7.0
	1938	A	80,000	451	3,326	11.4	2.0
		B	80,000	618	4,414	14.1	2.0
Kawasaki Dockyard	1937	A	80,000	839	4,545	14.4	2.0
		B	80,000	1,067	4,470	14.2	2.0
	1938	A	9,000	3,531	993	31.8	8.0
		B	11,000	3,962	1,116	32.3	8.0
Uraga Dockyard	1937	A	11,000	4,413	1,320	31.3	8.0
		B	11,000	5,029	1,381	32.4	10.0
	1938	A	14,000	835	637	27.1	8.0
		B	14,000	1,060	663	23.3	8.0
Ishikawajima Dockyard	1937	A	14,000	1,315	899	22.7	8.0
		B	20,000	1,654	1,013	22.5	8.0

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

Principal Shipowners The following table shows the principal shipping companies and the number and total tonnage as owned by each of the interests.

PRINCIPAL SHIPOWERS IN JAPAN AND THEIR REGISTERED TONNAGE

(June, 1938)

Owner	Location	Number of Ships	Total Tonnage
Nippon Yusen Kaisha	Tokyo	90	660,354
Osaka Shosen Kaisha	Osaka	121	537,415
Kokusai Kisen Kaisha	Tokyo	22	160,030
Mitsui Bussan Kaisha	"	36	143,851
Kinkai Yusen Kaisha	"	47	154,882
Yamashita Kisen Kaisha	Kobe	32	182,935
Kawasaki Kisen Kaisha	"	21	92,587
Nippon Fishery Company	Tokyo	98	82,427
Kuribayashi Shosen Kaisha	Muroran	19	64,891
Toyo Kisen Kaisha	Tokyo	15	78,709
Kawasaki Dockyard Company	Kobe	9	56,335
Tatsuma Kisen Kaisha	Nishinomiya	15	62,550
Kita-Nippon Kisen Kaisha	Otomari in Karafuto	35	77,862
Ministry of Railways	Tokyo	30	64,592
Nanyo Kaiun Kaisha	Tokyo	11	54,615
Nisshin Kisen Kaisha	Tokyo	23	45,780
Dairen Kisen Kaisha	Dairen	54	184,823
Chosen Yusen Kaisha	Keijo (Seoul)	25	50,653

Ships under Construction According to a survey conducted by the Ministry of Communications, there were at the end of September, 1938, a total of 176 ships of more than 1,000 tons each, involving a total tonnage of 392,795 tons, which were under construction.

Laid-up Ships. The following table which is based on a survey conducted by the Ministry of Communications shows the changes in the conditions of laid-up ships in the principal harbours in the country.

LAIID-UP SHIPS IN PRINCIPAL PORTS

	Steam-ships	Sailing-ships	Total
January, 1939			
Number	169	104	273
Tonnage	7,604	4,895	12,499
October, 1938			
Number	154	92	246
Tonnage	9,223	4,553	13,776
October, 1937			
Number	178	124	302
Tonnage	9,657	5,829	15,486

LIST OF LARGE N. Y. K. VESSELS

	Tonnage:	Passenger Accommodation:			
		1st Class	Cabin Class	2nd Class	Tourist Cabin
M.S. Kamakura Maru	17,526	243	—	95	—
M.S. Asama Maru	16,975	239	—	96	—
M.S. Tatuta Maru	16,975	239	—	96	—
S.S. Taiyo Maru	14,458	—	91	—	241
M.S. Terukuni Maru	11,931	121	—	68	—
M.S. Yasukuni Maru	11,933	119	—	68	—
M.S. Hikawa Maru	11,622	—	76	—	69
M.S. Hié Maru	11,621	—	76	—	69
M.S. Heian Maru	11,615	—	76	—	69
S.S. Husimi Maru	10,936	84	—	38	—
S.S. Suwa Maru	10,672	83	—	38	—
S.S. Haruna Maru	10,421	83	—	40	—
S.S. Hakone Maru	10,420	83	—	40	—
S.S. Hakozaki Maru	10,413	83	—	40	—
S.S. Hakusan Maru	10,380	85	—	40	—
S.S. Kasima Maru	9,908	74	—	34	—
S.S. Katori Maru	9,849	74	—	34	—
M.S. Heiyō Maru	9,816	42	—	—	80
S.S. Yamato Maru	9,656	61	—	217	—

	Tonnage:	Passenger Accommodation:			
	Gross	1st Class Cabin	2nd Class	Tourist Cabin	
S.S. Rakuyō Maru	9,419	42	—	—	51
S.S. Asahi Maru	9,327	63	—	220	—
S.S. Anyō Maru	9,257	—	24	—	47
S.S. Huzi Maru	9,130	38	—	165	—
S.S. Yosino Maru	8,990	18	—	177	—
S.S. Ginyō Maru	8,613	—	20	—	37
S.S. Atuta Maru	7,983	57	—	14	—
S.S. Kamo Maru	7,955	53	—	14	—
S.S. Kitano Maru	7,952	57	—	14	—

Ships under Construction

	Tonnage	1st Class Cabin	2nd Class	Tourist Cabin	
S.S. Kasiwara Maru	28,000	220	—	120	—
S.S. Izumo Maru	28,000	220	—	120	—
S.S. Nitta Maru	16,500	127	—	88	—
S.S. Yawata Maru	16,500	127	—	88	—
S.S. Kasuga Maru	16,500	127	—	88	—

LIST OF LARGE O. S. K. SHIPS

	Gross Tonnage	Nominal Horse Power	Year Constructed
S.S. Arizona	9,684	5,500	1920
M.S. Rio de Janeiro	9,627	5,000	1929
M.S. Buenos Aires	9,626	5,000	"
M.S. La Plata	7,267	3,800	1925
M.S. Santos	7,267	3,800	1925
M.S. Montevideo	7,267	3,800	1926
S.S. Arabia	9,480	5,500	1918
S.S. Africa	9,476	5,500	"
S.S. Manila	9,486	5,600	1915
S.S. Hawaii	9,467	4,800	1915
S.S. Horai	9,192	7,400	1912
S.S. Mizuho	8,506	6,400	"
S.S. Takachiho	8,154	7,100	1933
M.S. Argentina	12,755	16,500	1939

LIST OF KOKUSAI LINERS

	Deadweight Capacity Tons	Main Diesel Engine B.H.P.	Maximum Speed Knots
M.V. Kagu Maru	9,206	7,000	19.7
M.V. Kano Maru	9,689	7,600	19.4
M.V. Kasii Maru	9,240	7,000	19.6
M.V. Katuragi Maru	9,581	6,000	18.0
M.V. Kinka Maru	10,096	9,200	23.6
M.V. Kinryu Maru	10,142	9,200	21.0
M.V. Kinugasa Maru	9,199	7,000	19.3
M.V. Kirisima Maru	9,781	6,000	18.3
M.V. Kiyosumi Maru	9,849	7,600	19.7
M.V. Komaki Maru	9,779	7,600	19.6
M.V. Kongo Maru	9,801	7,600	19.7
M.V. Kurama Maru	10,294	4,050	17.0

SHIPS REGISTERED IN THE EMPIRE

(On September 30, 1938)

Tonnage	Japan Proper		Korea		Formosa		Kwantung		Total	
	No.	Gross tons	No.	Gross tons	No.	Gross tons	No.	Gross tons	No.	Gross tons
20- 100	1,898	85,797	556	24,220	128	6,276	54	2,925	2,636	119,218
100- 500	715	173,587	58	12,517	14	3,091	23	5,775	813	194,970
500- 1,000	223	166,435	7	4,882	1	768	5	3,673	236	175,758
1,000- 3,000	409	774,074	21	41,171	—	—	22	41,719	452	856,964
3,000- 6,000	427	1,916,191	4	13,393	—	—	39	172,595	470	2,102,179
6,000-10,000	205	1,536,306	—	—	—	—	5	33,291	210	1,569,597
over 10,000	25	320,946	—	—	—	—	—	—	25	320,946
Total	3,905	4,973,336	646	96,183	143	10,135	148	259,978	4,842	5,339,632

Sailing Ships

Tonnage	Japan Proper	Gross tons	Korea	Gross tons	Formosa	Gross tons	Kwantung	Gross tons	Total	Gross tons
20- 100	14,142	658,217	1,067	39,739	35	2,209	284	13,063	15,528	713,228
100- 500	2,227	317,646	15	1,948	8	1,141	5	777	2,255	321,512
500-1,000	4	2,229	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	2,229
over 1,000	4	9,507	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	9,507
Total	16,377	987,599	1,082	41,687	43	3,350	289	13,840	17,791	1,046,476

Other Sailing Ships Measured in Koku

(10 koku counted as one ton)

Koku	No.	Gross tons	Total	Gross tons
200- 500	76	21,862	—	21,862
500-1,000	—	—	—	—
over 1,000	—	—	—	—
Total	76	21,862	—	21,862
Grand Total	20,358	5,963,121	1,728	137,870

REGISTERED SHIPS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Since 1870)

End of	Steamers		Sailing Ships		Other Sailing Ships Measured in Koku		Total	
	No.	Gross tons	No.	Gross tons	No.	Gross tons	No.	Gross tons
1870	35	24,997	11	2,611	—	—	46	27,608
1882	198	64,313	399	51,684	—	—	597	115,997
1892	375	157,147	239	34,163	—	—	614	191,310
1897	626	426,624	171	27,412	—	—	797	454,036
1902	1,033	605,122	3,591	329,839	1,260	548,422	5,884	989,803
1907	1,574	1,109,444	4,210	357,275	1,168	442,399	6,952	1,510,959
1912	1,981	1,430,329	6,443	441,039	1,671	554,834	10,095	1,926,851
1916	2,159	1,696,631	9,314	585,593	1,171	380,116	12,644	2,320,236
1921	2,955	3,167,737	14,280	960,947	830	264,419	18,065	4,155,126
1926	3,246	3,607,038	14,184	873,468	564	177,073	17,994	4,498,213
1930	3,351	3,907,908	15,380	896,272	367	117,041	19,098	4,815,884
1932	3,308	3,874,619	15,038	867,658	308	97,060	18,654	4,752,283
1933	3,295	3,780,197	14,981	862,846	275	87,401	18,551	4,752,283
1934	3,365	3,811,773	15,062	874,935	229	71,623	18,656	4,693,870
1935	3,471	3,862,942	15,289	900,792	154	48,047	18,914	4,768,538
1936	3,602	4,034,284	15,687	930,322	97	29,316	19,385	4,967,532
1937	3,737	4,421,648	16,262	965,961	78	22,596	20,077	5,389,868
1938 (Sept.)	3,905	4,973,336	16,377	987,599	76	21,862	20,358	5,963,121

Shipbuilding Yards At the end of 1937, private shipbuilding yards capable of building ships of more than 20 tons numbered 894, those capable of building ships of more than 100 tons numbered 323, and those capable of building

ships of more than 1,000 tons numbered 40, making a total of 1,257.

SHIPS LAUNCHED DURING 1937:

(Ships smaller than 100 tons omitted)			
Steamers	Number	160	
	Tonnage	444,956	
Sailing ships	Number	112	
	Tonnage	15,495	
Total	Number	272	
	Tonnage	460,451	

SHIPS BUILT AT PRIVATE YARDS

	Steam Boats		Sailing Boats	
	No. of Private Yards	Gross tons	No.	Gross Tons
1897	81	12,431	66	4,391
1907	224	28,838	220	16,841
1912	228	48,155	372	28,899
1916	219	144,024	519	45,831
1920	352	226,061	12	1,711
1926	324	51,303	5	560
1930	430	146,362	11	5,849
1932	531	56,084	20	2,679
1933	559	75,907	28	3,913
1934	588	141,856	99	13,004
1935	697	132,365	101	13,536
1936	793	293,285	107	14,382
1937	1,257	444,956	112	15,495

Note: Figures for 1926 and after do not include boats smaller than 100 tons.

HOLDERS OF CERTIFICATE OF COMPETENCY AS MARINERS

End of	Japanese	Foreigners	Total
1882	1,901	325	2,226
1912	26,139	351	26,490
1916	33,976	351	34,327
1921	45,775	349	46,124
1926	60,154	132	60,286
1930	76,787	132	76,919
1932	89,177	132	89,309
1933	92,751	132	92,883
1934	96,469	132	96,601
1935	101,370	132	101,502
1936	106,080	132	106,212
1937	110,797	132	110,929
1938(June)	113,509	132	113,641

HOLDERS OF MARINERS' SERVICE BOOK

End of	Japanese	Foreigners	Total
1902	79,753	774	80,527
1907	164,293	1,109	165,402
1912	206,806	1,839	208,695
1916	254,597	2,853	256,950
1921	357,174	5,000	362,174
1930	212,917	4,823	217,740
1932	233,910	5,098	239,008
1933	175,251	2,877	178,128
1934	166,893	2,216	168,911
1935	186,437	2,287	188,724
1936	205,849	2,366	208,215
1937	235,785	2,423	238,208

CHAPTER XXVII
JUSTICE AND POLICE

Judicature

The Judicature's Position

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

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

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

Composition of the Courts

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

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

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

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

2. The following cases irrespective of value:

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

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

(c) Legal actions only concerning occupations.

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

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

(f) Matters concerning bankruptcy.

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

1. Offences punishable with detention or fine.

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

District Courts In civil cases, the District Courts possess judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. In the first instance:

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

2. In the second instance:

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

(b) Demands determined by law for revision of decisions or orders render-

ed by the Local Courts.

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

1. In the first instance:

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

2. In the second instance:

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

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

Courts of Appeal The Courts of Appeal possess judicial power concerning the following matters:

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

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

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

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

1. In the final instance:

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

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

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

2. In the first, and at the same time, final instance: Preliminary examination and adjudication of offences against the Imperial House, offences of internal disturbance, and offences committed by members of the Imperial Family, for which punishment heavier than imprisonment should be imposed.

Public Procurators

A public procurator's office, with the necessary number of procurators, is attached to each court. The work of the public procurator is, in accordance with the code of criminal procedure, to take legal actions, to go on with necessary legal proceedings, to demand a right application of the law, and to observe

the right execution of a judgment. According to the code of civil procedure, he also has rights to ask for a report whenever he thinks it necessary and present his opinions to the court on it, and as a representative of public welfare he carries out his supervising business as laid down by the law in all judicial and administrative matters related to the court. But the public procurator acts absolutely independently of the court.

Court Officials and Procurators

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

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

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

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

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

Position of Judges and Public Procurators Judges are permanent officials appointed by His Majesty directly, or by His Majesty's order indirectly, or by His Majesty's approval, according to the grade of their position. Unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment judges are not to be moved to another post or place, be suspended from office, be deprived of position, or receive a reduction of salary, without their consent, except in so far as the Minister of Justice may order retirement from service by the decision of a general meeting of the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court on account of disability caused through weakness of body or mind.

The retiring age is for the President of the Supreme Court 65 years, and for other judges 63 years.

The public procurators are appointed by His Majesty directly or by His

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

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

The Jury System

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

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

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

(3) Violations of the Peace Maintenance Law.

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

(5) Violations of the Public Election Laws.

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

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

In a case where sentence has been

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

Penal System

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

With the downfall of the Tokugawa Shogunate the Great Emperor Meiji abolished the system of intimidation and reformed the old penal code. The codification of Civil Law was carried on under the advice of Monsieur Gustave Boissonade, a French scholar of jurisprudence who was invited to Japan for that purpose. A new Penal Code and Criminal Procedure Law, the characteristics of which were that, "though the lawful punishment of criminals is assured, the penalties are tempered with sympathy toward the accused and are in no ways severe," were enacted and promulgated. "No crime shall be punished unless there is a regulation in the law," (nullum crimen et nulla poena sine lege), is one of the guiding principles of the code, which was formulated on the French penal code of 1810. Within a few years it was found that the new code was out of date and various amendments were discussed from 1884 to 1907, in

which year a thorough revision was made and the present Penal Code issued. Since then the social conditions of the people have undergone rapid changes, more advanced theories regarding penalties have been gaining ground and so many defects have been noticed in the present code, that in 1928 the Extraordinary Legislative Committee passed a resolution that the Penal Code should be revised. A special investigation committee set to work and in 1931 an outline and draft of a revised penal code and prison law was drawn up. It is expected that the thorough study of the draft that is now going on will soon be completed.

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

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

Probation is cancelled (1) when the probationer, during the time of probation, commits another offence and is sentenced to imprisonment or is given a

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

Release on parole was practised as early as 1790 in the House of Correction at Ishikawajima, Yédo; the present law admits it and it is widely practised. As reformation is one of the chief aims of punishment, when convicts are evidently repentant and there is no fear of their committing further crimes, it is unnecessary to continue the punishment. Therefore, it is stated in the present Penal Code, "when the convicts who are under penal servitude or imprisonment are found to be evidently repentant, provisional release may be authorized by the administrative office after they have finished one-third of the limited term or ten years of the term for life" (Article 28).

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

The China Affair and the Released Those who are released on probation on the strength of this system continue to increase in number year after year. In 1936, those released totalled more than 5,300. When the North China Incident broke out in 1937, many convicts received orders for military service, and steps were taken speedily to release on probation many of them who were found fit both mentally and physically for service in the army in order to give them the opportunity of doing their duty as soldiers of the Empire.

Feeling sincerely grateful to the Throne for the privilege thus extended, these soldiers departed valiantly for the front much to the admiration of those who were acquainted with the circumstances. This episode may be remembered as an instance of no small import in connection with penal administration.

Juvenile Criminals Article 27 of the Code of Criminal Procedure says, "public suit may not be instituted when the suit is found unnecessary because of the character of the criminal, his age and environment, the condition of his crime and his behaviour after the incident," and leaves the decision as to whether proceedings should be taken to the public prosecutor. The existing criminal system of Japan is thus inclined to some extent to subjectivism, putting emphasis on the offender himself rather than on the offence. Its evident expression is found in dealing with young offenders. According to the provisions of the Juvenile Criminal Law, 1922, young boys or girls who are under 18 years of age are called juveniles and their offences are dealt with, not under the penalty system, but by a system of protection. Even when they are punished, the penalty is inflicted in a special way. Protective measures are (1) to give admonitions, (2) to leave them to the guidance of school principals, (3) to let them solemnly declare their sincere repentance in a written statement, (4) to place them, under certain conditions, in the care of their parents, (5) to place them under the care of temples, churches, protective bodies or other proper persons, (6) to hand them over to the care of the juvenile probation officers, (7) to send them to reformatories, (8) to send them to houses of correction, and (9) to put them under proper treatment in hospitals. These measures may be continued till the juveniles reach the age of 23 years. When juveniles are admitted to probation or provisional release they are not put under police supervision as is the case with the adults, but are left to the care of the juvenile probation officers. For the protective disposition of juvenile offenders juvenile courts have been established.

Special Measures for Juveniles Special measures for the penal punishment of juvenile offenders are:

(1) The death penalty or penal servitude for life is not inflicted upon a person who is under 16 when the crime is committed. When the crime is so grave that the death penalty or penal servitude for life should be passed, the sentence is mitigated to penal servi-

tude or imprisonment for 10-15 years.

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

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

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

(5) Juveniles are not sent to work houses.

The China Affair and Juvenile Offenders The work of the juvenile courts, with the collaboration of the allied institutions, has since made remarkable progress and each year over ten thousand children come under its attention, the majority of whom after the regimen of discipline come forth regenerated as dutiful and willing members of society. The importance of juvenile protection has never been appreciated more keenly than at this time of long-term construction. In some instances, the delinquents themselves are practising strict thrift in order to be able to use the savings for the consolation of soldiers at the front or in the hospitals. In other instances, they are rendering service by working for the homes of soldiers at the front, making the premises of shrines clean, or joining in public services. Furthermore during 1938, as many as 162 of the regenerated youths entered the military service. There will be many more of them this year. One of these has become an aviator and already holds a brilliant record as a pilot; another has been a recipient of commendation for valour and exemplary conduct. Some of those who have failed to become soldiers have gone to the continent to till the soil; in fact last year 176 persons expressed the same desire and 53 of them are already at their work in the land of promise. Many others have

received mechanical and other technical training and have found employment in industries which are in line with home-front measures.

Second and Habitual Offenders

In case of those who repeat criminal deeds and commit other offences, especially in the case of professional and habitual offenders, it is necessary to put them into confinement for considerable lengths of time in order to give them time to reform their character and at the same time protect society at large from their depravations. To deal with these people Japanese criminal law provides a system of aggravating penalties for the recidivists and admits special dealing with habitual thieves as a complementary system.

Repetitious Offenders (Art. 56-59, Penal Code) When a person commits another crime and is sentenced to limited penal servitude within five years from the day of release from former penal servitude or from remission of execution of a penalty, he is classified as a second offender. Under the name of repetitious offenders come all second offenders and up. The cases of remission of penal execution are extinction of prescription, special pardon and the case stated in the Penal Code, Art. 5. Amnesty and probation not only remit penal execution, but cancel the effect of the penalty altogether, and the crimes concerned cannot be taken as the basis for forming a repetitious offence. Again, when a person commits a crime during a term of probation the offence for which the probation was admitted is not counted as the first offence. The penalty inflicted on a repetitious offender is aggravated.

Habitual Thieves Habitual offenders are most numerous in burglary and larceny cases. The habitual offenders often regard prison as their residence and repeat crimes immediately after their release, to the great harm of the community, in order to get back "home". They have, therefore, to be separated from society by the infliction of comparatively long sentences. In many cases it has been impossible to increase the penalty, or when it has been increased it has still been too short, and as there is no provision in the existing Penal Code for unlimited imprisonment the Thief Prevention Law was enacted in 1930. According to this law, when persons commit burglary or larceny habitually by the use of weapons, or by forming a band of more than two, or stealthily breaking into houses by night, they are punished by being sent to

penal servitude for more than 2 years in the case of a thief and more than 7 years in that of a burglar. The draft of the revised penal law of 1931 adopts the system of incarceration for unlimited terms for habitual offenders (Draft, Article 91-95).

Peace Preservation

Penalties are imposed as deterrents, but are not always effective, especially in the case of insane people and habitual drunkards, as well as in that of habitual offenders. For that reason it is advisable that, in addition to meting out punishment for any wrong-doings, it should be possible to segregate such people from law-abiding society. To meet this need, most of the countries of the world have a supplementary system of Peace Preservation Laws, which restrict to a certain extent the freedom of released persons as long as their dangerous character is unimproved. In Japan the existing Penal Code makes no provision for such a system, but the draft of 1931 suggests four kinds of peace preservation regulations, namely, preventive surveillance, curative treatment, compulsory labour, and preventive detention.

Surveillance When persons who are defective in mind or body or are deaf-and-dumb are to be sentenced to imprisonment or some heavier penalty, the Court can decide to place them under surveillance. In case the sentence has already been passed for one reason or other, surveillance will follow the execution of the sentence, but in some cases it may be carried out before the commencement of execution or at any time during its course, (draft, Art. 127). Those who are put under this measure are to be kept in the surveillance house and receive treatment for their defectiveness, while being under surveillance. They may be released when further surveillance is found unnecessary by order of the administrative offices. In principle the time of surveillance is 5 years, but this may be renewed by the Court when thought necessary. When the sentence and the surveillance disposition are pronounced at the same time, the Court may choose either one of them as one of the two became unnecessary by the enforcement of the other.

Curative Treatment When drunkards or users of narcotics commit offences while in a state of intoxication or insensibility and it is found necessary to correct them of their bad habits, the Court may order them to be kept in Homes of Correction for a period of 2 years and receive proper curative treat-

ment.

Compulsory Labour When persons who habitually commit crimes because of vagrancy or hatred of labour are to be sentenced, the Court may order compulsory labour together with the regular sentence for a period of 3 years, during which time they are to be kept in compulsory labour houses and compelled to work diligently under strict discipline in order to acquire the good habit of work. The chief official of the labour house may send them to work for the Government or to public or private factories, to farms or other places of labour, allowing them to stay outside the Compulsory Labour Houses, if deemed expedient.

Preventive Detention When the convicts who are to be released at the expiration of a term of penal servitude are found to be addicted to incendiarism or likely to commit murder or burglary, the Court may order them to undergo preventive detention, (draft, Art. 139). They are to be kept in Houses of Prevention and get the treatment necessary for leading them to full repentance. The duration of the treatment is 2 years in principle, but may be prolonged by the Court. This measure is to take effect after the expiration of the regular term of penal servitude, (Draft, Art. 140-142).

Criminal Thought Offence The Communist movement in this country has, since two or three years ago, been heading for its end and ruin on account of various factors, both internal and external, including the enforcement of a strict policy of the Government for rounding of the Communists and the enhancement of the national spirit brought about by the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident. The conditions, however, still remain such that no optimism can be warranted in regard to the future of the Communist movement.

The number of arrests made on charges of violation of the Peace Preservation Law since 1928 has exceeded 60,000 persons. Of these, more than 10,000 persons have been granted a reprieve in their indictment or a stay of execution of this sentence, have served their sentence or have been released on bail. The minds of these men are of diverse trends at present; some of them have recanted, others, are of a very ambiguous turn of mind, making it impossible to judge whether they are going to change their minds or not, while still others seem to embrace rebellious ideas.

It goes without saying that those who have not yet changed their minds are liable to repeat their offence or com-

mit similar ones. Even some of those who have already changed their minds may again commit some offence under the influence of their environment or because of social conditions unless some preventive measures are taken, in view of the fact that "thought" offences are attributable largely to social conditions. It is an urgent need, therefore, under the current situation both at home and abroad, that a prudential policy should be established for the termination of the rebellious movement by preventing repetition of similar offences in the future. The necessity is keenly felt for the establishment of adequate facilities to encourage those who have not yet changed their minds or who have changed their minds only partially to effect a complete change and at the same time enable those whose minds have been completely changed to lead a legitimate and orderly life no matter how social conditions may change in the future. It is in this necessity that the reason is found for the adoption of the protection and surveillance system.

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

Objectives of the New System The objectives of the protection and surveillance system are limited to persons who have committed offences in the light of the Peace Preservation Law. Offenders of other kinds do not come within its scope. Only those who have been granted a reprieve in indictment by the public prosecutor, or a stay of execution of their sentence by the law court, or

who have been released on bail, or who have served their term, are placed under protection and surveillance. The invocation of this rule, however, must be made with the approval of the Protection and Surveillance Commission which is under the control of the Minister of Justice, and in such cases where the commission adopts a resolution against the invocation, the rule cannot be invoked.

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

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

The protection and surveillance stations are to be notified by the authorities concerned when some "thought" offenders have been granted a reprieve in indictment, a stay of execution of their sentence, have been released on bail, or have left prison after serving their term. Upon receipt of such a notification, the station concerned must immediately institute an investigation into the career, environment, mental and physical condition, and changes in thought and other relative affairs of the person in question. In the investigation, special attention should be given to ascertaining whether the person in question has changed his mind or not and if so, the motive and extent of the change as well as the character and financial and family conditions of his guardian and whether there is any prospect of the person in question earning a living in the future.

If the results of the investigation lead to a decision to place the person under protection and surveillance, the station

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

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

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

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

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

In view of the specific nature of "thought" offenders, the authorities follow a principle of respecting their social conscience and conception of justice while encouraging them to master the Japanese spirit. As a stable living has a close bearing upon the perpetuation of the change in mind, efforts are also made to secure suitable positions for persons under protection and surveillance and to assist them in making their own homes and appreciating the beautiful points of the Japanese family system. Facilities for attendance at school are also provided in some cases.

The adoption of the above system constitutes an epoch-making event in the history of criminal administration in this country in that it has extended the scope

of state protection and assistance from juvenile offenders to some adults. It has long been a loud cry that the enterprises for aiding ex-convicts and persons under specified circumstances should not be left to the hands of charitably disposed civilian organizations and individuals alone but that the State should share the responsibility with society. The enforcement of the new rule forms an official action which recognizes the legitimacy of the contention.

It is considered a natural conclusion that this system will eventually lead to legislation recognizing that general activities in protecting and aiding discharged prisoners should be in the nature of State enterprise.

There has been another claim in this connection, that the management of this kind of public enterprise should be rationalized and expanded in scope, and that closer relations should be established between the enterprises and the law courts, public procurators, prisons, police and employment offices as well as local communities. This demand, it is to be noted, has also been partially met by the inauguration of the protection and surveillance system for "thought" offenders.

Thus, the new system is expected to help in promoting the progress of the enterprises for protecting and aiding discharged prisoners and in facilitating the fulfilment of the mission of such enterprises in preventing crime.

Criminal Compensation System

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

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

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

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

census registration at the time of the death of the accused.

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

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

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

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

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

A Survey on Crimes The number of criminal code offences, first instance, was from 100,000 to 110,000 in the early part of the Taisho Era (1912-1917), but began to lessen in 1920 and stayed between the 80,000 and 90,000 mark for years. In 1933, it began to increase again and went over the 120,000 mark in 1934, the record high since 1912. The proportion to population was, on the average, 20 in every 10,000 in the early part of the Taisho Era, 16 in 1920 and 17.86 in 1934.

Comparing crimes in 1912-1915 with those in 1930-1933 the largest number pertained to gambling and lotteries, but these lessened from 10 to 7 in every 10,000 of population, those of theft from 4 to 3, of fraud from 2 to 1, and of usurpation from 1 to 0.4. On the contrary, the proportionate number of inflicting injuries increased from 1 to 1.4 and that of the unintentional inflicting of injuries from 0.1 to 0.8. Those of murder, burglary or incendiarism kept 0.1 in both periods.

In 1934 the total number of convictions in Japan proper was 120,854, of which gambling and lottery accounted for 59,145 or 48.9 per cent, theft for 21,748 or 18 per cent, inflicting injuries

10,299 or 8.5 per cent, fraud and threat 7,416 or 6.1 per cent, unintentionally inflicting injuries 6,226 or 5.2 per cent, usurpation 2,974 or 2.5 per cent, murder 1,041 or 0.86 per cent, incendiarism 938 or 0.77 per cent, and burglary 797 or 0.65 per cent.

When divided into crimes committed in city areas and those in country areas, the number of the former was 90,162 or 41.65 in every 10,000 of city population and that of the latter was 30,692 or 8.59 in every 10,000 of the country population.

Taking totals according to prefectures, Tokyo prefecture led others with 17,878, Osaka came next with 10,454, Hyogo 7,654, Aichi 5,749, Hokkaido 5,383 and Fukuoka 5,211. All other prefectures had less than 5,000 each, those which had less than 1,000 were Okinawa 472, Yamagata 634, Tottori 677, Ishikawa 680, Shimané 782, Miyazaki 790, Tokushima 820, Iwafé 863, Fukui 985 and Miyagi 996.

In proportion to every 10,000 of population in prefectures Tokyo again led with 29.11, followed by Kanagawa 27.80, Hyogo 27.35, Okayama 27.02, Osaka 26.66, Oita 25.34, Kyoto 24.77, Nara 24.77, Nara 24.22, Wakayama 22.69, Aichi 20.80, Hiroshima 20.30, and Yamagata came last with 5.65.

In proportion to every 10,000 of population in prefectures, according to the kinds of crimes, in gambling and lottery Kanagawa headed the list with 18.4 followed by Nara, Tokyo, Hyogo, Ota, Wakayama, Osaka, Kyoto, Okayama, Mié and Chiba, all exceeding 10. Kagoshima had the smallest number with 1.18. In general the districts around Tokyo and Osaka had the highest proportions while Tohoku (north-east) and Kyushu had the lowest proportions. In theft Osaka came first with 7.36, next came Tokyo with 7 followed by Kyoto, Aichi, Hyogo, Fukuoka, ending with Akita's 0.76. In this crime Tohoku districts had the least number again. In inflicting injuries Okayama was the highest with 3.87 followed by Ehimé, Hyogo, Yamanashi, etc., Nagano being the lowest with 0.57. In fraud and threat Kyoto came first with 2.33 and Okinawa was the last with 0.41. In unintentionally inflicting injuries Kanagawa came first with 1.90 followed by Tokyo, Kyoto, Osaka, Hyogo and other prefectures and Yamaguchi ended the list with 0.15. In usurpation the first was Okayama with 1.45 and the last was Kagoshima with 0.2. In murder Fukuoka came first with 0.32 and Aomori, Ishikawa and Miyagi came last 0.5 each. In incendiarism

Akita came first with 0.37 and Kyoto came last with 0.04. In burglary Tokyo and Kanagawa headed the list with 0.25 each and Kochi closed it with 0.01.

New System for Arbitration of Domestic Disputes

The Law for Arbitration of Domestic Disputes, which was promulgated on March 16, 1939, after having been introduced in the 74th Diet by the Government and duly passed by the two Houses, is an important piece of legislation designed to make it possible for disputes between family members or relatives and other domestic contentions to be settled amicably through the arbitration of a law court or of an arbitration committee organized within a law court.

Already in force along lines similar to the Law are such systems for arbitration under the jurisdiction of the Department of Justice as the Law for Arbitration of Disputes Concerning Leased Land and Rented Houses (effective from October 1, 1922), that for Arbitration of Tenancy Disputes (effective from December 1, 1924), that for Arbitration of Commercial Disputes (effective from November 1, 1926) and the Provisional Law for Arbitration Concerning Monetary Obligations, all of which are functioning satisfactorily. Compared with cases coming under these laws, no one will hesitate to declare that domestic disputes are far better suited to arbitration. Especially in view of the habits and customs traditional to the Japanese people, no one will fail to see the need of making it possible for domestic disputes to be settled amicably through arbitration. Indeed, the four laws of arbitration previously existing may be said to have been intended as preparations for the introduction of arbitration for domestic disputes.

Thus, with the need for a system of arbitration of domestic disputes having been felt in various quarters for many years, the present Law must be said to have been late in coming into existence. This delay has been largely due to the preparations which have been under way at the Department of Justice for more than a decade for the radical revision of the Book on Relatives and the Book on Inheritance in the Civil Code, on the basis of recommendations submitted by the Temporary Legislation Council. A tentative plan for the desired revisions has already been drawn up and is now in the course of re-examination. At the same time it

is being planned, on the basis of one of the recommendations of the said council, to institute the Court of Justice for Domestic Disputes, "in order to settle matters concerning families with sympathetic considerations in line with moral principles." Therefore, the policy previously followed in this connection favoured putting the system of arbitration of domestic disputes in effect simultaneously with the projected revision of the Civil Code and the institution of the Court of Justice for Domestic Disputes.

After the outbreak of the present conflict with China, however, an increasingly urgent need has been seen of facilitating amicable settlements of all domestic disputes speedily through mutual concession between the parties concerned and on the basis of legal principles and human sympathy, so as to enable the soldiers on frontline duty to fight without worrying about the troubles which they have left unsettled at home and also to make the nation-wide cooperation in supporting those on the China front effective to the fullest possible extent. Thus, the establishment of the system of arbitration of domestic disputes has become a matter of urgent necessity permitting no further delay. For this reason, the present Law has been legislated ahead of the projected revision of the Civil Code or the institution of the Court of Justice for Domestic Disputes. As for the introduction of the last-named system, which is to function beyond the limits of the Civil Code or of the newly-instituted system of arbitration for domestic disputes, necessary preparations are now being pushed vigorously and the said system is expected to be brought into being shortly.

Some Details This Law consists of only twelve articles, which contain only such stipulations as are exclusively needed in arbitrating domestic disputes; those provisions of the Law for Arbitration Concerning Leased Land and Rented Houses, which are also suited for arbitration in domestic disputes, are made invocable for the present Law as well.

(1) Article 1 makes it clear that this Law has made it possible for an application to be filed for arbitration in cases concerning domestic disputes, stipulating that "an application may be filed, under the present Law, for arbitration for disputes between members of a family or relatives, or other cases generally concerning family affairs." Members of a family, as stipulated in Article 732 of the Civil Code, include

those relatives of the head of the family and their spouses who live in the latter's home, while the term relatives denotes blood relations of the kinship within six degrees and their spouses as well as legal relations within three degrees in kinship, as stipulated in Article 725 of the said code. Disputes other than those between these persons, if they are domestic disputes between those similar in position to these persons or other cases generally concerning domestic affairs, may also be brought up for arbitration. For example, a marriage or the adoption in a family of a person as legal son or daughter is made lawful when it is duly registered (Articles 776 and 847 of the Civil Code), and even if two persons live together as husband and wife or as parent and son or daughter after duly holding a ceremony to solemnize such union, they are not, legally speaking, husband and wife or parent and son or daughter unless they are duly registered as such. Nevertheless, a domestic dispute arising between these persons or between one of them and some other member or relative of the other's family may be made subject to arbitration under the present Law. Further, such disputes as one between an illegal son not legally recognized yet and his actual father or a member or relative of the latter's family may also be interpreted as corresponding to domestic disputes under this Law.

(2) Article 2 elucidates the fundamental idea of arbitration for domestic disputes. Such arbitration is primarily intended to make it possible for an amicable settlement satisfactory to both parties concerned to be reached in a domestic dispute in line with ethical principles and within the limits of law.

(3) Articles 3 and 4 stipulate the distinctive jurisdiction under which arbitration is to be instituted under the present Law. According to these stipulations, an application for arbitration should be filed at the Local Court in the area under whose jurisdiction the other party of the dispute lives or at a Local Court jointly chosen by both parties. And in case a law court has received an application for arbitration for a case which does not come under its jurisdiction, the said court is, as a principle, to refer the case to the right court by decision instead of rejecting the said application for acceptance. However, so far as domestic disputes are concerned, these stipulations concerning the jurisdiction of a law court need not necessarily be stretched too far, as it often happens

that a better result is obtained by allowing reasonable discretion to suit actual circumstances.

For instance, in case a senior member of the family concerned lives at a place other than the locality of the residence of the other party of a domestic dispute and when it is considered advisable to work for the required arbitration with the participation of the said senior member, it may be arranged that the case be dealt with at the Local Court of the area under whose jurisdiction the said senior member lives. Therefore, in case a law court has received an application concerning a case which does not come under its jurisdiction and when it sees sufficient reason to do so, the said law court may refer the case to a Local Court other than that under whose jurisdiction the case ordinarily comes or may deal with the case itself without referring it elsewhere. Further, even in case a law court has received an application for arbitration in a case which comes under its own jurisdiction, the said court may refer it to another Local Court by decision when it deems it appropriate to do so. Such flexibility provided for the jurisdiction of a law court in handling cases under the present Law undoubtedly is well adapted to arbitration of domestic disputes.

In this connection, it is further stipulated that no exception can be taken to the decision awarded by a law court.

(4) Article 5 stipulates that an application for arbitration in a case involving an unreasonable cause should be rejected. In the other systems of arbitration, too, it has been laid down that applications for unreasonable purposes should be rejected, but in that article it is further stipulated that applications which are not in keeping with good custom should also be rejected. Applications which are not in keeping with good custom are likely in many cases to be intended for the abuse of rights or other unjustifiable purposes, but even in cases where such intentions are not involved, it has been laid down that applications not in keeping with good customs should be rejected, inasmuch as arbitration in domestic disputes is based on the spirit of respect for customs and habits traditional to the Japanese people. Furthermore, it is stipulated elsewhere (Article 11) that an arbitration committee may desist from arbitration in case it is deemed that such causes as stipulated in the present article are involved.

(5) In Article 6 it is stipulated that

the parties involved and those otherwise interested in a case for arbitration should present themselves personally, but that they may send their representatives in case they are unavoidably prevented from presenting themselves, and that those other than lawyers are required to obtain permission of the law court concerned in order to become such representatives. It is noteworthy in this connection that this article makes it clear that lawyers acting as representatives in a case for arbitration need not obtain special permission, whereas previous systems of arbitration have required lawyers to obtain the permission of the law court concerned.

(6) In Article 7 the legal force of arbitration is defined to the effect that arbitration has the same force as in judiciary conciliation, a party being liable to be subjected to immediate compulsory enforcement in case he fails to live up to the obligation which he has incurred thereby. Further, the arbitration effected by an arbitration committee becomes similarly effective only when it is approved by the law court concerned by decision (Article 8 of the present Law and Article 28 of the Law for Arbitration of Disputes Concerning Leased Land and Rented Houses). This stipulation is common to all other systems of arbitration but in the case of arbitration of domestic disputes, there is an accompanying provision that this stipulation does not apply to such obligations as involve matters which do not allow disposal by the party concerned, because in cases concerning domestic disputes there may be various matters for arbitration other than deliveries of goods or payments of money and it is impossible to make the result of arbitration equally effective on certain of such matters.

(7) Article 8 names a number of stipulations of the Law for Arbitration of Disputes Concerning Leased Land and Rented Houses, which are made applicable to corresponding cases under the present Law. Some of these stipulations are explained below.

Article 2 of the Law for Arbitration of Disputes Concerning Leased Land and Rented Houses, which stipulates that an application for arbitration is required to make clear the actual situation of the dispute at issue, has been made applicable to applications to be filed under the present Law as well.

Again, by the invocation of Paragraph 2 of Article 4 of the same law, a law suit pending at a law court concerning a domestic dispute can be referred to arbitration by the law court, which has

accepted the suit, through the exercise of its own authority. Thus, cases which are considered better suited to amicable settlement by arbitration than by law suit proceedings may be referred to arbitration by the law court concerned without waiting for an application from the party involved.

In case a law suit is pending in connection with the case for which an application for arbitration has been received or in case a law court has referred a case to arbitration through the exercise of its own authority, the proceedings of the said law suit are to be suspended pending the closure of the arbitration (Article 5 of the same law). As it would be unwarranted to keep a law suit in progress while referring its case to arbitration for amicable settlement, it has been laid down that in such cases, proceedings of the said law suit are to be suspended so as to make it possible for the best efforts to be made for the benefit of arbitration. However, in case an application has been filed for such arbitration with the object of shunning reasonable obligations under cover of this stipulation, the said application is to be rejected under the provisions of Article 5 of the present Law.

Cases for arbitration come under the jurisdiction of a law court or an arbitration committee, and in practice, the law court is to take charge of simple cases of arbitration, while the committee is to deal with complicated cases, but in case both parties involved so desire, the arbitration committee is required to sit for their case (Paragraph 2 of Article 14 of the previous law). In the case of a law court undertaking arbitration, the said law court is required to fix a date and summon the applicant for such arbitration and the other party involved on that day in case it has accepted an application for arbitration or has referred a law suit to arbitration, the law court being authorized to request the presence of persons otherwise interested if it is deemed necessary to do so (Article 6 of the previous law).

Proceedings of arbitration are not to be opened to public hearing; it is stipulated that only those whom the law court concerned considers duly qualified may be permitted to witness the proceedings as visitors (Article 8 of the previous law). This stipulation is common to all existing systems of arbitration, but it is of special necessity for arbitration in domestic disputes because the parties involved or those otherwise interested will not be able to state their

actual cases fully and express their real intentions unless the proceedings are closed to the public.

Another article of the said law made applicable to cases under the present Law is Article 13 which authorizes the law court concerned to order action as may be deemed necessary prior to effecting arbitration. For instance, in case a dispute has arisen between members of a family or its relatives regarding the partition of an estate, the said estate may thus be caused to be held in trust by a senior member of the family until arbitration is effected.

Further, in case the action thus ordered by the law court concerned requires expenses, one of the parties or both of them may be made to pay for such expenses in advance (Article 9 of the previous law). An application or other statements for arbitration may be made either verbally or in writing (Article 10), and the findings of arbitration are to be prepared by the clerical staff of the law court concerned (Article 11).

As for the organization of an arbitration committee, the said body is to consist of a chief arbitrator and two or more members (Article 15 of the previous law). The chief arbitrator is to be appointed annually from among the judges by the Chief Justice of the District Court concerned (Paragraph 1 of Article 16). The members of the Committee are to be named annually in advance by the Chief Justice of the District Court; and from among these committee men, suitable persons are to be chosen for each case by the Chief Arbitrator. If arbitration is to be expected to lead to its rightful results, it is obvious that the most suitable persons available ought to act as members of the committee, and for arbitration in domestic disputes it is stipulated that those who serve on the committee should be persons of good reputation as their first qualification. Further, the committee men are to be paid a daily allowance and travelling and hotel expenses (Article 18).

Proceedings of arbitration at the committee meetings are to be directed by the chief arbitrator (Article 19), and the committee's decisions are to be authorized by a majority vote of the members, the chief arbitrator having the casting vote in case of an equally divided vote (Article 20). Discussions in the meetings are to be kept in confidence (Article 21), while the committee is authorized to summon the parties involved, to request for the par-

ticipation of those interested at a date it fixes, to give permission to their representatives to present themselves on their behalf, or to order action as may be deemed necessary before arbitration is effected (Article 22 of the previous law and Article 10 of the present law). The arbitration committee is also authorized to hear the statements of the parties involved or those otherwise interested and to institute examination of evidences in case it is deemed necessary to do so (Article 26 of the previous law). These stipulations are common to all the other systems of arbitration.

In case the arbitration committee has concluded that an application for arbitration is not in keeping with good customs or is intended for the abuse of rights, the said committee is authorized to desist from instituting arbitration as stated before (Article 11 of the present Law).

In case arbitration is effected by a committee, the law court concerned is to be furnished with a report of the chief arbitrator and will then decide to approve or not to approve the arbitration thus effected. Such decision for approval invests the arbitration effected with the same power as in judiciary conciliation, provided that the law court concerned is not authorized to decide for disapproval of the arbitration effected unless such arbitration is considered unfair to a serious extent (Articles 26-28 of the previous law).

In case the parties involved do not respond to the summons of the arbitration committee without justifiable reasons, the law court in charge of the case for arbitration concerned, after consulting the committee, may sentence them to fines of ¥50 or less (Article 32 of the previous law).

It is also stipulated that a fee is to be paid for an application made for arbitration by the arbitration committee or by the law court (Article 29 of the previous law). The amount of the said fee still remains unfixd, but it is likely to be fixed at an amount not exceeding 50 sen. The parties involved or those otherwise interested may request the clerical staff of the law court concerned to show them the records of their case or give them an exemplified copy, certified copy or extract copy of the said records or a certificate concerning the case (Article 30 of the previous law).

(8) The stipulations contained in Articles 9 to 11 of the present Law have already been dealt with. In Paragraph 1 of Article 12, it is stipulated that in

case a member of the arbitration committee or one who has formerly been on the committee, without reason, disclosed what were the views of the chief arbitrator or the other members or whether the said views were the majority or minority views, the said person is made subject to a fine not exceeding ¥1,000, this stipulation being aimed at securing freedom and fairness for discussion at the committee meetings. Designed for similar purpose is the provision of Article 49 of the Law for Arbitration of Tenancy Disputes. Then, Paragraph 2 of the article in question stipulates that in case a member of the committee or one who has formerly been on the committee has, without sufficient reason, disclosed the secrets of another person which he has learned in connection with matters he has handled during the execution of his official duties, the said offence is to be made liable to a sentence of three months or less in penal servitude or a fine of ¥1,000 or less. This stipulation of punishment is peculiar to the system of arbitration for domestic disputes. This is because arbitration of domestic disputes affords considerable chances to learn family secrets, which are likely to cause great disadvantages for the parties involved or those otherwise interested, unless they are kept strictly confidential, thereby standing seriously in the way of arbitration for domestic disputes.

(9) In the systems of arbitration for disputes concerning leased land and rented houses, tenant farming and commercial affairs, it has been laid down that in case an arbitration committee fails to effect arbitration, the committee is to decide on terms of arbitration as may be deemed appropriate and send copies of its findings to the parties involved. It is stipulated that in case the parties involved do not take exception to such terms of arbitration within one month after receipt of the said copies, they are to be considered to have accepted the proposed arbitration. Further, in the systems of arbitration in disputes concerning monetary obligations and tenant farming, it is so stipulated that the law court concerned may administer justice in lieu of the so-called arbitration. However, neither of these two devices has been incorporated in the present Law. The reason is that domestic disputes often involve details which are too complicated to be made subject to these devices, and also that in such disputes, the intentions of the par-

ties involved in particular ought to be respected in a greater degree than in the arbitration for disputes concerning other problems.

Statistics

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

NUMBER OF COURTS (June, 1938)

Supreme Court	Courts of Appeal	District Courts	Branch Courts	Local Courts	Branch Offices
1	Tokyo	12	17	64	417
	Osaka	9	12	43	280
	Nagoya	6	9	30	206
	Hiroshima	6	13	36	255
	Nagasaki	8	17	53	291
	Miyagi	6	16	36	232
	Sapporo	5	3	20	102
Total	1	7	52	87	282

Number of Cases handled at Courts in 1936

Courts	Total	New	Settled
Local Courts	1,245,747	1,176,049	1,181,438
District Courts	103,817	74,278	74,076
Court of Appeal	10,094	4,959	5,254
The Supreme Court	5,184	4,155	2,768

Number of Criminal Cases handled in 1931-1936

	No. of Accused	Preliminary Examinations	Cases of First Instance	Cases of Second Instance	Cases of Third Instance
1931	440,577	6,317	101,799	6,778	2,152
1932	457,285	6,676	101,402	7,374	2,257
1933	509,355	7,737	113,939	7,814	2,493
1934	545,360	7,660	123,488	7,301	2,270
1935	524,358	6,920	121,034	8,278	2,364
1936	505,500	7,100	124,494	10,424	4,123

Criminals Sentenced in the First Instance, Japan Proper

Total	Penal Servitude		Imprisonment		Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines	
	Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life				For Limited Terms
1931	98,431	31	59	33,396	117	58,746	1	6,081
1932	93,186	37	62	36,190	81	50,427	1	6,388
1933	107,318	26	42	39,365	91	59,849	—	7,945
1934	122,330	28	72	42,318	84	69,211	—	10,617
1935	121,662	31	51	42,335	116	69,905	—	9,224
1936	120,871	19	37	41,413	86	70,856	—	8,460

Classified by Crimes,

1936

	Total	Penal Servitude		Imprisonment		Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
		Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life			
Incendiarism	716	—	—	716	—	—	—	—
Fires through negligence	1,695	—	—	—	—	1,695	—	—
Forgery of currency	272	—	—	270	—	1	—	1
Forgery of documents	670	—	—	395	—	275	—	—
Forgery of seals	29	—	—	29	—	—	—	—

	Total	Death Penalty	Penal Servitude		Imprisonment		Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
			For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms			
Sexual crimes	829	—	—	430	—	—	330	—	69
Gambling	60,713	—	—	2,127	—	—	51,719	—	6,867
Malversation	1,300	—	—	740	—	—	560	—	—
Murder	910	5	16	889	—	1	—	—	—
Inflicting injury	10,184	—	—	1,539	—	—	7,280	—	1,365
Inflicting injury by negligence	6,925	—	—	—	—	83	6,837	—	5
Criminal abortion	254	—	—	254	—	—	—	—	—
Theft	20,574	—	—	20,574	—	—	—	—	—
Burglary	785	14	22	749	—	—	—	—	—
Fraud and blackmail	7,999	—	—	7,984	—	—	15	—	—
Usurpation	2,919	—	—	2,672	—	—	130	—	117
Others	4,097	—	—	2,045	—	2	3,014	—	36
Total	120,871	19	37	41,413	—	86	70,856	—	8,460

Chosen (Korea)

	Total	Death Penalty	Penal Servitude		Imprisonment		Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
			For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms			
1932	17,068	32	20	11,197	—	9	4,550	—	1,260
1933	16,786	44	26	10,740	—	27	4,731	5	1,213
1934	17,945	21	21	11,254	—	12	5,275	—	1,362
1935	18,713	20	17	11,119	—	25	5,828	2	1,702
1936	18,788	26	21	10,854	—	21	6,254	—	1,612

Taiwan (Formosa)

	Total	Death Penalty	Penal Servitude		Imprisonment		Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
			For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms			
1932	27,297	—	2	2,863	—	7	11,034	—	13,341
1933	28,681	6	3	2,613	—	5	11,112	2	14,940
1934	28,543	6	9	2,679	—	2	10,687	1	15,159
1935	30,566	1	2	2,643	—	1	12,732	2	15,158
1936	25,635	3	5	3,079	—	8	8,470	—	14,070

Karafuto (Saghalien)

	Total	Death Penalty	Penal Servitude		Imprisonment		Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
			For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms			
1932	310	—	1	289	—	2	17	—	1
1933	265	—	—	237	—	—	22	—	6
1934	312	1	2	287	—	—	18	—	4
1935	356	—	—	334	—	—	21	—	1
1936	428	—	1	412	—	—	15	—	—

Nanyo (South Seas)

	Total	Death Penalty	Penal Servitude		Imprisonment		Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
			For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms			
1932	136	—	—	88	—	—	42	—	6
1933	196	—	—	108	—	—	78	—	10
1934	275	—	—	141	—	—	110	—	24
1935	269	—	—	146	—	—	94	—	29
1936	177	—	—	140	—	—	37	—	—

CRIMINAL CASES SETTLED IN ALL INSTANCES IN JAPAN PROPER

(Crimes against Special Laws Included)

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
	Total	149,831	181,792	186,668	183,582
Male	142,042	172,067	174,982	173,789	182,909
Female	7,083	9,027	11,077	9,314	9,064
Juridical persons	706	698	609	479	404
First instance					
Guilty,					
Male	130,389	159,274	164,266	163,934	166,377
Female	6,895	8,834	10,786	9,033	8,811
Juridical persons	704	696	608	479	404
Acquittals,					
Male	464	429	423	370	503
Female	19	35	30	32	48
Juridical persons	2	2	1	—	—
Second instance					
Guilty,					
Male	7,555	7,523	7,268	6,549	10,887
Female	134	126	209	167	141
Acquittals,					
Male	173	186	164	229	284
Female	3	—	17	11	2
Third (Final) instance					
Guilty,					
Male	3,452	4,631	2,835	2,679	4,812
Female	32	31	34	67	62
Acquittals,					
Male	9	25	26	28	46
Female	—	1	1	4	—

PRISON STATISTICS

NUMBER OF PRISONS (June 30, 1938)

Prisons	Branches	Total
52	105	157

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

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
	(End of March)							
Convicts	41,188	42,253	46,324	49,922	48,904	51,094	51,977	52,171
Accused	127	100	77	109	80	120	47	174
Criminal defendants	4,634	4,642	5,624	6,062	5,273	5,252	4,628	4,303
Detained in the House of Labour	481	505	477	530	572	490	462	541
Infants	7	7	6	4	8	14	9	6
Total	46,437	47,507	52,508	56,627	54,837	56,970	57,123	57,404
(Women in the total)	738	729	779	914	976	915	919	915
Daily average	44,529	47,866	49,570	55,155	54,352	56,167	—	—

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

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

YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS

/ Year	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Criminal Code Offences						
Theft	15,498	17,771	19,259	20,646	18,848	19,167
Gambling and lotteries	1,379	1,144	1,405	1,652	1,838	1,920
Fraud and usurpation	5,441	5,990	6,792	7,372	8,097	7,621
Forgery of documents, negotiable securities and seals or stamps	484	500	508	451	381	458
Injury	1,402	1,561	1,528	1,523	1,494	1,303
Receiving stolen articles	350	340	516	544	418	—
Murder	558	666	684	709	642	635
Burglary	651	800	757	776	729	731
Incendiarism	613	772	818	758	701	584
Interference with the execution of official duties	97	83	94	94	48	—
Destruction and concealment of another man's property	11	9	18	18	25	—
Forgery of currency	31	50	68	46	24	—
Abortion	39	32	30	44	54	34
Obscenities, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	204	243	279	332	287	261
House-breaking	248	282	288	245	249	—
Perjury	38	38	46	43	38	—
False accusation	15	15	12	16	17	—
Others	437	442	442	555	571	1,431
Offences against Special Laws						
Criminal law of the army and navy	28	46	56	19	42	71
The forest law	37	40	37	43	30	26
The military service law	8	9	12	14	11	18
The mail and telegraphy law	7	5	2	5	—	—
Others	858	971	1,368	1,203	1,034	4,078
Police laws and prefectural laws	5,504	4,478	4,461	4,986	5,520	3,426
Total	33,938	36,287	39,480	42,094	41,093	41,764

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

/ Year	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Penal Servitude							
Penal servitude for life	43	38	57	61	64	55	43
Over 15 years	20	52	38	56	45	45	38
Less than 15 years	57	58	68	53	63	38	57
Under 10 years	765	760	890	996	963	816	804
Under 5 years	1,764	1,723	2,046	2,309	2,300	2,154	2,040
" 3 "	2,719	2,766	3,210	3,685	4,046	3,719	10,968
" 2 "	5,560	5,745	6,840	7,479	8,462	7,640	—
" 1 year	9,894	10,668	12,049	13,111	13,651	13,472	13,730
" 6 months	4,390	4,464	4,638	5,033	5,306	5,282	5,244
" 3 "	1,838	1,829	1,560	1,771	1,882	1,970	2,925
Total	27,050	28,103	31,396	34,554	36,782	35,191	35,349
Imprisonment							
For life	—	—	—	—	—	—	6
Over 15 years	—	—	—	2	—	—	—
Less than 15 years	—	—	—	1	—	—	—
Under 10 years	—	—	—	3	—	—	—
Under 5 years	—	—	—	11	—	—	—
" 3 "	—	—	—	1	—	3	—
" 2 "	5	7	2	1	1	2	—
" 1 year	11	6	3	5	4	5	—
" 6 months	28	54	69	48	40	47	—
" 3 "	316	249	304	368	238	313	—

Year	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Total	360	316	378	440	283	370	1,755
Detention	5,765	5,500	4,491	4,458	4,994	5,518	4,149
Death penalty	15	19	22	28	35	14	11
Total	33,190	33,938	36,287	39,480	42,094	41,093	41,764

YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS
ACCORDING TO EDUCATION

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Educated in					
Higher schools					
Male	201	226	262	199	270
Female	1	—	3	—	—
Middle schools					
Male	1,627	1,911	2,039	1,967	2,179
Female	8	9	22	16	12
Primary schools					
Male	21,730	24,643	26,647	26,020	27,665
Female	151	175	258	203	241
Uneducated					
Male	6,736	6,966	6,605	6,023	6,147
Female	129	134	134	146	142
Illiterates					
Male	1,072	816	918	680	836
Female	109	104	167	104	104
Illinformed					
Male	9	10	10	3	7
Female	1	—	—	—	1
Total (investigated)					
Male	31,375	34,572	36,481	35,092	37,104
Female	399	422	584	469	500

YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS
ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Occupation					
Agriculture					
Male	2,524	2,817	2,731	2,665	3,798
Female	51	64	72	65	46
Fisheries					
Male	341	389	351	331	372
Female	1	—	—	1	2
Mining					
Male	162	188	186	207	309
Female	1	—	—	1	1
Industry					
Male	6,265	6,561	7,150	7,528	8,549
Female	18	23	21	10	27
Commerce					
Male	4,555	5,113	5,245	5,203	4,944
Female	31	42	56	53	60
Transportation					
Male	680	768	795	823	794
Female	—	—	—	—	—
Official and Cultural					
Male	1,034	1,175	1,554	1,786	1,457
Female	8	18	21	17	20
Miscellaneous					
Male	3,135	3,098	3,597	3,695	3,734
Female	57	30	49	26	41
Servants					
Male	658	882	910	671	783
Female	10	22	34	43	32
Unoccupied					

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Male	12,021	13,581	13,962	12,183	12,364
Female	222	223	331	253	269
Total (Investigated)					
Male	31,375	34,572	36,481	35,092	37,104
Female	399	422	584	469	500

Prison System

Historical Background

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

Up till recent times the idea at the root of the Japanese penal system was minatory. In other words, the so-called principle of general prevention by warning the people at large against the commission of crimes by imposing heavy punishments upon criminals was adopted. Accordingly, the punishments were principally capital and corporal and extremely cruel in character. For instance, the Criminal Code of the Yédo Period (1602-1867) recognized the exposing in public of the heads of persons executed; crucifying, burning at the stake and other similar cruel punishments were imposed. In those days the jails were used merely as places of detention for various offenders until their trial, not as places for reforming offenders. Imprisonment was a very unusual form of punishment, for prisons were unknown and imprisonment was not a legal penalty.

Exile and Banishment Punishments which brought loss of liberty for specified periods to the criminal were exile and banishment. Persons punished with exile were sent to distant islands and places such as Satsuma, islands of the Goto group, Okl, Iki and Amakusa, and there they were forced to work under such miserable conditions that most of them died of starvation. Banishment was a penalty designed to expel persons convicted of crimes from certain fixed areas, and, as the result of the enforcement of this punishment in certain districts industries declined and farms and fields lay waste, giving rise to many social evils such as the increase in the number of ronin (masterless samurai), mushukumono (vagabonds) and other dangerous elements. In 1778, therefore, as a remedial measure, the Tokugawa Shogunate instituted the system of kozan-yékifu (mine labour) and, in 1790, that of ninsokuyoseba (places for the detention of convict-coolies). The system of kozan-

yékifu dealt with vagabonds with no previous convictions. These were sent as coolies to pump water out of the Sado gold-mine. In and after 1788, those who had been punished by flogging or branded as ex-convicts by tattoo marks and were homeless or those who, it was feared, might perpetrate crimes in the future were also sent there.

Prototype of Present Prisons The ninsoku-yoseba were to all intents and purposes the prototype of present day prisons and penal servitude. These places for the detention of convict-coolies were located at Ishikawajima and Tsukudajima in Yédo (Tokyo) and at Kamigo, Ibaraki prefecture, and there vagabonds and those who had been punished by flogging or branded as ex-convicts by tattoo marks were detailed to work as oil pressers or at other kinds of labour for a fixed wage, with the ulterior object of giving them such instruction and training as would fit them to lead the lives of respectable members of society. In and after 1820 those who were punished with banishment heavier than that from the confines of Yédo were put to forced labour for a fixed period of time in lieu of that punishment. Thus the ninsoku-yoseba, which had been instituted as workhouses for vagabonds, were turned into prisons for the reclamation of criminals through ordered life and labour. In its correctional idea ninsokuyoseba was entirely identical with the London "Bridewell," which was established in England in 1550 "to punish, correct, and reform by labour of a diversified nature," and the Amsterdam workhouse (tuchthuis) founded at the end of the 16th century and well known for its motto, "Schrick niet! ick wreeck geen quaet, maer dwing tot goedt, straf ist myn handt, mar lieflijk myn gemoedt." (Do not fear! I will not take revenge upon you for your misdeed; on the contrary, I wish to lead you to good. Although I am rigorous in handling you, my heart is filled with kindness towards you.) In and after 1790 the prisoners detained in the ninsoku-yoseba who behaved well and showed notable signs of penitence were liberated on certain conditions and this may be taken as the

enforcement of provisional release of prisoners for the first time in Japan. When it is remembered that the system of provisional release of prisoners in Europe originated in a favoured release of prisoners from a convicts' colony in Australia in 1791, it is an interesting coincidence that the same system was inaugurated simultaneously both in the West and the East.

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

Management of Prisons

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

prints. A director, several secretaries, a hygiene official of the Department, several clerks and three assistant-experts in finger-prints were appointed to conduct the business of the Bureau.

In 1933, there were 52 ordinary prisons, 3 reformatory prisons for minors, and 105 branch-prisons, and 1,215 detention rooms in police headquarters.

The kinds and number of prison officials at the end of 1937 were as follows:

Governor	43
Assistant-governors	34
Doctors	93
Chaplains	143
Instructors	37
Industrial work experts	440
Pharmacists	54
Chief warders	524
(including 5 chief wardresses)	
Interpreters	4
Warders	7,088
Wardresses	129
Total	8,589

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

Classification

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

Treatment of Prisoners

Object of Treatment As to what is the primary and fundamental purpose of punishment by imprisonment, nothing is stated in the Criminal Code or in the Prison Code now in force. Some Japanese jurists are of opinion that punishment must remain in its essence retributive and deterrent, and accordingly a prisoner must be made to expiate his offence by a dull, soulless, and monotonous servitude. But such new scholars of criminal law and penology as Dr.

Yeiichi Makino, Professor of Criminal Law, Tokyo Imperial University, Prof. Kameji Kimura and Dr. Akira Masaki, former Assistant Director, Bureau of Prisons, Department of Justice, interpret it as a form of education and emphasize its socializing effects. Be that as it may, Japanese juridical authorities have for more than ten years endeavoured to reform prisons on the latter principle. On April 4, 1924, Dr. Kisaburo Suzuki, the then Minister of Justice, declared at a meeting of officials connected with prisons and criminal affairs, "The enforcement of punishments consists in the adoption of such measures as may improve the quality of convicted persons and socialize them as good and law-abiding members of society." Further, at a meeting of the governors of prisons and reformatory prisons for minors, held on October 11, 1927, Kado Hara, the then Minister of Justice, gave the following instructions:

"The object of enforcing punishments on the inmates of prisons is to cause them to reflect on and repent their offences and to turn them into good members of society. There are many and various means of attaining this object, but they are, in the final analysis, to cultivate their character, to give them training for different occupations, and to maintain their health in good condition, while improving the circumstances which constitute the causes of their offences so as to enable them to lead a decent life. In order to realize the end aimed at, therefore, a mere confinement and watching of them is not sufficient; on the contrary, it is necessary to know their individual characteristics and to inquire into and ascertain the motives and causes of their crimes, giving them thereby appropriate treatment."

Classification System Inasmuch as punishment by the restriction of personal liberty is enforced today principally with a view to education, criminals are properly classified according to ages, characteristics, terms of imprisonment, numbers and kinds of offences, and are then confined in different prisons so as to facilitate the enforcement of adequate measures for their education in accordance with their categories and, further, to prevent prisons from becoming breeding-places of crime through mutual contact and contagion as the result of promiscuous confinement of all grades. When it is impossible to distribute them among independent prisons and they are confined in the same area, prisoners are usually classified strictly, and confined separately, according to their categories. There are prisons for

minors at Odawara, Kawagoyé, Himéji, Okazaki, Iwakuni, Kurumé, Morioka, and Hochiojo, and in Hokkaido for the confinement of those under 18 years of age sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment, prisons for aged persons at Hamamatsu and Yonago and for women at Tochigi, Miyoshi and Miyazu. Further, there are prisons for the confinement of persons sentenced to terms of imprisonment exceeding 10 years at Kosugé, Takamatsu, Hiroshima, Okayama, Miyagi, and Abashiri; the Abashiri agricultural prison is intended for training prisoners as agricultural labourers. At Uraga, located in an old warship anchored off the port, is a branch of the Odawara prison for minors. There juvenile offenders are given training as fishermen, and sometimes engage in coastal and deep-sea fish-vessels or steamers.

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

Progressive System A treatment on the progressive system is accorded to convicts who form the bulk of the inmates of prisons. This treatment aims at leading them to repent and their treatment is graded in proportion to their aspiration and diligence, thereby gradually bringing them to the conditions of ordinary social life. The relaxation of the enforcement of penalties not merely extends the scope of the personal liberty of convicts, but serves to cultivate a sense of responsibility on their part and strengthens their will for self-reclamation. In short, its chief purpose is not to make "good convicts", but to turn them into "good citizens." The treatment in question does not apply to persons who are sentenced to imprisonment for less than 6 months, aged and decrepit persons, and those of unsound mental or physical faculties. Any prisoner committed for the first time is kept in solitary confinement for a certain period of time and a close study is made of him. On the basis of the results he is classified according to character, physical and mental con-

dition, number of convictions, age, nature of crimes, term of service, home, health and thought.

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

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

violating the pledge, the privileged treatment will be suspended for some or all of them. Any one of those belonging to the first class who earns more than ¥5.00 for labour may be permitted to use less than one-fifth of the monthly total in buying postage stamps and in other ways that are deemed necessary; any one of those belonging to the second class, less than one-fourth of the monthly total; any one of those belonging to the third class, less than one-third of the monthly total; and any one of those belonging to the fourth class, less than one-half of the monthly total. While those of the first class are not permitted to change the kinds of labour they engage in, those of the second class and up are permitted to do so. Those who have superior skill or high efficiency and belong to the third class are charged with the task of directing industrial work and those who are similarly qualified in the fourth class are given the task of directing and supervising it. Those of the third class who have particularly superior skill and high efficiency are permitted to work for their own profit in time other than working hours, but that time is limited to two hours per day.

Moral Education Prisoners belonging to the first and fourth classes are chiefly given individual moral and religious instruction, while those belonging to the second and third classes receive the same instruction en masse. Listening to music broadcast on the radio and listening to the playing of gramophone records is permitted to those belonging to the second and higher classes. The time for the enjoyment of this privilege is fixed at twice a month for those belonging to the second class, which may be increased to three times and four times for those belonging to the third and fourth classes respectively. The governor may permit members of the third and fourth classes to hold moral cultural meetings, the number of times being limited to once for those belonging to the third class and twice for those belonging to the fourth. Prisoners of the fourth class are permitted to read books or see pictures in the prison library on days free from labour, and may also borrow suitable newspapers and magazines from it. Those of the third and fourth classes may be permitted to play athletic games, the number of times for such amusements being limited to once a month for those of the third and twice for those of the fourth class. While those belonging to the first class

are permitted to interview or send letters only to their relatives and those who are concerned with their protection, those belonging to the second and higher classes are permitted to interview or send letters to those who do not interfere with their moral instruction, besides their relatives. The number of interviews and the number of letters that may be written increase in proportion to advances in class.

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

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

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

Prison Labour

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

The Three Systems Industrial work in prisons is managed on three systems, viz.: the public account system, the "made-to-order" system, and the contract system. Under the public account system, a prison itself purchases materials, provides itself with the necessary machinery, implements and tools and makes prisoners manufacture or repair articles or carry on labour under the direction of prison officials, and sells the products. Under the "made-to-order" system, the chief materials are supplied by the outside buyers and prisoners either manufacture or repair articles under the direction of industrial work experts and assistant industrial work experts on the prison staff, and when the articles are either manufactured or repaired the wages of the workers and the cost of requisites in the manufacture or repair are calculated and the prices of the articles fixed by the standard of current prices. The articles are then delivered to the buyers on payment of the account. Under the contract system, applicants have to supply not only materials, machinery, implements and tools, but also experts for the direction of work, a prison only offering the labour of prisoners and receiving their wages in exchange. Under the contract system now in force in Japan, the prison authorities undertake the supply of provisions, etc. to prisoners, as well as undertaking their supervision and selection for work, and nothing like the lease system that was in vogue in South American countries at one time is recognized.

Among the above-mentioned three different systems, the public account system does not permit any third party

other than prison officials to direct prisoners in the prosecution of their work as in the case of the contract system and, moreover, enables the prison authorities to select and impose on prisoners such kinds of work as are suited for their moral instruction and vocational education. In these respects, it is considered to be the most desirable for the enforcement of penological measures and its adoption is greatly encouraged.

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

Rewards Given as Favours Working hours are from 12 to 13 hours a day and differ according to months. It is permitted to give educational or moral instruction to prisoners or allow them to take exercise within these hours. A time of recess—15 minutes in the morning and 25 minutes in the afternoon—is given them. All the income from the work of prisoners goes into the national treasury, irrespective of whether it arises from work or from wages. A prisoner who has worked may receive a reward as a favour. This gratuity varies from ¥0.20 to ¥10.00 per month and the sums are fixed according to conduct, character, kinds of work, and the results of the work done. Any one who does particularly superior work is given an additional reward not exceeding ¥10.00. The reward for his work is, in principle, not given a prisoner until he is released from prison, but (1) in case a prisoner is entitled to ¥10.00 a month or more, and the money is needed to support his father, mother, wife, child, or to compensate the sufferer from his crime, or to purchase

books or other necessary articles, one-third of the amount may be given him while in confinement, and (2) in case it is particularly necessary to do so for the sake of a prisoner, the entire reward may be handed over to him, irrespective of its amount and the way of spending it. In case a prisoner has been injured or has fallen sick while at work, and has died in consequence or has become unable to carry on any work, he may be entitled to a pecuniary reward according to the circumstances of the case. This reward is fixed within the limit of from ¥50 to ¥180 according to the details of the case.

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

Aid of Discharged Prisoners

Criminals come in general from among the poorer people, and when they are released from prisons after the completion of their term they are greatly handicapped in entering into gainful occupations or getting positions in shops or offices, being known as "Zenka-mono" or "former criminals," and dealt with as such by the society, and it becomes difficult for them to earn a livelihood, so that they are forced into further crimes. Of the total number of discharged prisoners the percentage of those who engage in crime a second time within 6 months of their discharge is found to be 43.1, and the percentage of those who commit a crime within another 6 months is 15.4, that is, the percentage of discharged prisoners who commit a crime for the second time within one year is as high as 58.5. For the protection of the discharged prisoners

measures have to be employed for giving moral instruction and a knowledge of some useful arts while providing them with necessary funds so that they may establish themselves in some suitable occupation. These works have been entirely left in the hands of volunteer social workers who have made valuable contributions. But the number of establishments for this purpose is insignificant as compared with the number of the ex-convicts who are in immediate need of protection and the fund contributed by benevolent persons to these protection houses is too insufficient. The trend of times since 1931 is to disregard the need for such social institutions because the attention of the people is drawn to far more important social problems requiring the reconstruction of national life so that little or no attention is paid to the preventive type of social work. Under the circumstances the amount of contributions to institutions for discharged prisoners began to dwindle, while the decreased rate of interest has lessened the income from endowment funds, and to make matters worse, the commodity prices have gone up. The present conditions of protection work for ex-convicts are such that they are far from making any material contribution toward decreasing the percentage of the second or habitual offenders referred to above.

Japan may have achieved much in regard to the efficiency of its procurators and the conditions of law courts and prisons, but the country's accomplishments in that direction will not produce full results unless necessary measures are instituted for the protection of ex-convicts. The only Governmental measure in this respect is that which pertains to thought offenders which became effective in November, 1936, and known as the Protection and Surveillance Law. The good results so far attained, by the establishment of the protection and surveillance stations and the organization of a special commission for the guidance of released thought offenders, has encouraged the authorities to expand the scope of this work, to include ex-convicts. Plans are under way for launching out protection measures for ex-convicts all over the nation by the promulgation of a law which is long overdue.

The Organizations Among these organizations, one noted for its systematic constitution and management was the Shutsu-gokunin Hogo Kaisha (Ex-Convicts Protection Co.) established by Mr.

Meizen Kinbara in Shizuoka prefecture. In 1907, the Government decided to make an appropriation of ¥10,000 from the national treasury every year for the encouragement of the work and later, in 1912, the sum was increased to ¥30,000. With the development of the work the number of organizations grew and was returned at 211 throughout the country at the end of 1912. In 1913, Baron Hachiroyemon Mitsui, head of the House of Mitsui, donated ¥750,000 to the work, and with this money the Hosel-Kai, a foundation, was established for the control of, and extension of help to, various organizations interested in the work throughout the country. In 1925, the Government subsidy was increased to ¥100,000, and since 1923, the Imperial House has made an annual grant to encourage the work, with the result that the work has made steady development, the organizations today number approximately 800.

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

Today, there exists in the Department of Justice the Section for the Protection of Ex-Prisoners which undertakes the direction and supervision of the welfare work of various associations, but as it cannot be expected that a small Section can thoroughly undertake such wide-spread work, it is increasingly advocated in different quarters that a system for the promotion of the welfare of ex-convicts should be

instituted and the work connected therewith conducted by the State.

Police System

Its Fundamentals

There are two aims of the national administration. One is the administration of political affairs for the direct benefit of the nation as a whole, and the other is to protect the public welfare of the individuals who compose the nation. The function of the police is to look after the latter. There is a judicial function of the police that goes side by side with the first one, but the principal significance of the establishment of the police system is in its protection of public welfare. The work it performs can be considered more in a negative aspect than a positive one for it does not promote welfare work so much as it prevents and roots out matters which are, or may be, detrimental to peaceful social life. The police are endowed with authority to enforce the law or to give orders to the people. Police authority forms a part of the sovereign power of the State.

Authority Vested in State In Japan police authority is entirely vested in the State and is not delegated to other public bodies. In European countries, there are commonly the State police and the local police, the latter being under the jurisdiction of local authorities. In Japan all the police come under the direct administration of the State and no chiefs of local governments or local governments themselves have power over them except in a very few limited subjects. The police are administered in the name of the Emperor by the Minister of Home Affairs through the Superintendent-General of the Metropolitan Police, in Tokyo prefecture, governors of other prefectures and the Hokkaido procurator. Although nominally under the Governor of Tokyo prefecture, the Superintendent-General of the Metropolitan Police Board in Tokyo takes his orders direct from the Home Minister as the Board has many political responsibilities unknown in other prefectures. The appointment is actually a political one, the ordinary police business being carried out by the Chief of Police. In the Hokkaido and other prefectures the highest police official is the Chief of the Police Division. Under the Chiefs of Police are the police superintendents, inspectors, assistant inspectors and policemen. A police superintendent is appointed chief of a police station or secretary of a

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

As mentioned above, police officials carry out judicial functions, and when acting in the capacity of judicial police officials and under the dictates of the public procurators they execute warrants of arrest or detention and arrest persons in flagrant offence. They may seize private possessions or search a house by order of a Court of Justice, an examining judge or a public procurator, or help a public procurator in the investigation of criminal cases.

In Times of Peace and Crisis In times of peace the maintenance of public order rests with the police. Individual policemen wear sabres. Pistols are carried only in special cases though in the police force there are troops of armed constables, while if matters become too serious and on special occasions, the gendarmerie is called on for help. The gendarme is a kind of military policeman, but at such times as the police force is too weak to keep public order, a Governor may ask for the aid of the gendarmerie. Moreover, at a time of crisis or extraordinary social disturbance, the army takes the place of the usual police force and acts with a despotic authority without limitation of the Law. The occasions which may call forth the military power for keeping public order are as follows: (1) when the country or a district is placed under martial law in times of war, (2) when a district is put under martial law for the maintenance of public order, (3) when the governor asks for the help of the army for subduing social disturbances, and (4) when a Divisional Commander recognizes the need of military power for keeping local order in an emergency in which the request from other authorities is too late.

Police Business

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

Public Peace (a) supervision of publications. The publication of all kinds

of printed matter should be reported and a copy of each must be sent to the authorities. Secret publication is strictly forbidden. A sum of money as guarantee of good faith has to be deposited by the publishers of newspapers or periodicals which deal with political problems. The name of the person responsible for any publication must be printed on the publication. Secret matters which come under the control of the public procurators, the Ministers of War and Marine, and the Minister of Foreign Affairs must not be reported in newspapers or periodicals. The Home Minister may prohibit the publication of a periodical or any other printed matter which he considers detrimental to public welfare and morals.

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

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

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

(e) Accidents. The police take charge

in cases of fire, flood, explosion, of people being injured, etc. Regulations are issued on the handling of guns and explosives; the wearing of swords or the like is strictly forbidden; the handling or selling of poison is under a special regulation. Sulphur and oil businesses are under police care also. Buildings are under police supervision for their beauty, fire-proofness, and hygiene; factories, warehouses, theatres, and public resorts receive special attention. Crematories, slaughter-houses and incinerators must not be within residential or commercial districts of cities. Regulations regarding buildings are stricter than in Western countries because of the large number of wooden houses liable to fire and the constant fear of earthquakes. Electricity and gas businesses must not endanger the lives of people. Mines are under a special police regulation as they are most liable to fatal accidents. Prevention of floods also comes into the sphere of police business.

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

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

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

enforced.

(g) The care of men who are a danger to public peace and welfare, juveniles who are addicted to bad habits, ticket-of-leave men, the insane, beggars and vagrants are supervised by the police.

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

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

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

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

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

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

rule of the road in Japan.

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

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

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

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

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

Police and the People

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

(a) Banks, savings banks, mutual financing associations, negotiable security businesses, trust businesses, insurance businesses, commercial exchanges, the central wholesale markets in the six largest cities, foreign trade business in important articles, weighing and measuring machine businesses, and auditors partially are under police supervision or limitations.

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

(c) The hygiene and prevention of epidemics among domestic animals is looked after by the police. Many laws are enforced regarding the improvement of animals, and police power is needed for a proper practice of them, especially in connection with horse-racing.

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

(e) Fishery police protect the pro-

pagation of aquatic animals and at the same time look after the safety of the fishermen. There are many laws and regulations on fisheries, whale-fishing, fishing boats, etc.

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

(g) For the protection of labourers

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

POLICE STATISTICS

	1933	1934	1935	1936
Police offices:				
Police stations	1,199	1,200	1,201	1,203
Water-Police stations	24	24	24	23
Branch stations	4,551	4,644	4,672	4,742
Police-boxes	14,056	14,147	14,240	14,242
Police officials:				
Police superintendents	339	339	346	351
Police inspectors	1,632	1,632	1,632	1,607
Assistant police inspectors	3,604	3,627	3,661	3,909
Policemen	63,439	63,974	60,887	60,609
Total	65,462	65,997	66,526	66,476
Fire-brigade stations	218	228	232	241
Fire-brigade officials	3,812	3,873	3,893	3,981
Firemen	12,674	12,559	12,486	12,646
Fire-guilds	11,211	11,362	11,446	11,477
Volunteer firemen	2,035,491	2,087,907	2,105,874	2,139,869
Criminal cases handled by police:				
Cases reported	2,713,729	2,925,557	2,937,557	2,634,933
Persons arrested	2,665,497	2,893,135	2,876,220	2,543,309
Suicides:				
Successful, men	10,945	10,860	10,400	11,490
women	6,582	6,379	6,270	6,262
Unsuccessful, men	3,945	3,944	3,844	3,794
women	2,758	2,765	2,642	2,710
Murder, Manslaughter, etc.	1,439	1,692	—	1,648
Traffic accidents:				
Cases	68,823	69,342	66,415	59,444
Killed	2,572	3,226	3,549	3,484
Wounded	46,338	50,204	49,227	45,323
Places of Entertainment:				
Theatres, buildings	1,878	1,899	1,898	1,942
Performances	33,217	31,967	31,593	35,628
Cinemas, buildings	1,459	1,458	1,508	1,547
Shows	76,118	78,497	82,540	82,419
Variety houses	587	526	507	507
Performances	16,302	16,063	16,037	16,974
Miscellaneous shows	59	65	73	80
Performances	12,544	12,444	11,689	11,274
Shops and houses under police supervision:				
	(Items less than 10,000 are omitted)			
Pawn shops	13,300	12,738	12,585	12,203
Dealers in second-hand articles	270,968	283,873	294,297	308,988
Hotels	49,552	48,851	48,676	47,736
Boarding houses	10,436	10,902	11,916	12,626
Doss-houses	14,442	13,959	13,954	12,163
Restaurants	63,084	61,349	61,107	62,298
Cafés and bars	35,200	37,056	36,202	34,971

	1933	1934	1935	1936
Geisha houses	20,949	21,197	21,612	22,052
Bath-houses	22,235	21,701	21,391	21,551
Eating houses	159,340	159,823	156,211	156,918
Employment exchanges	12,879	11,736	11,175	10,192
Printing houses	13,705	14,162	14,860	15,464
Barber's shops	74,694	74,687	75,944	76,455
Women's hair-dressers	55,095	53,314	51,154	48,283
Recreation houses	20,398	20,683	22,794	23,116
Building contractors	31,125	36,179	28,823	43,248
Shipping agents	11,839	12,250	12,307	12,064
Waggon-business men	149,446	148,881	142,977	137,747
Taxicab garages	23,381	27,898	28,972	32,803
Scribes	18,640	18,977	18,440	19,056
Bicycle dealers	37,676	39,545	40,850	42,216
Rikishamen	20,468	17,346	14,926	12,389
Factories	74,701	82,412	90,065	98,581
Licensed prostitution houses	10,281	9,738	9,526	9,386
Geisha girls, etc.				
Geisha	74,200	72,538	74,855	78,699
"Saké" waitresses	85,590	85,121	82,621	85,685
Café and bar waitresses	99,312	107,478	109,335	111,700
Prostitutes	49,302	45,705	45,837	47,078
Cinema films, inspected:				
Total number of metres,				
Japanese	16,198,963	18,223,908	20,029,092	21,905,867
American	13,722,236	15,322,117	16,651,811	18,267,431
European	2,035,822	2,278,121	2,431,976	2,699,090
	440,905	623,670	945,305	939,346
Natural calamities and fires				
Flood:				
Municipalities struck	3,607	6,325	6,982	5,377
Flooded areas (hectare)	215,063	249,591	529,052	198,006
Buildings damaged	305	386,334	7,794	37,799
Boats lost	136	5,887	307	313
Persons drowned	18	973	532	93
Persons injured	22	5,529	949	158
Damages in yen	9,332,576	389,777,809	176,309,551	31,433,894
Tidal waves:				
Municipalities struck	489	333	405	291
Buildings damaged	19,974	6,034	3,985	2,464
Boats lost	11,266	2,107	1,364	339
Persons drowned	2,848	127	73	28
Persons injured	1,146	958	112	20
Damages in yen	19,943,549	4,580,944	3,683,076	1,722,680
Typhoons:				
Buildings damaged	19,867	42,763	15,312	55,947
Persons killed	67	201	71	97
Persons injured	83	786	32	254
Damages in yen	7,604,146	75,649,789	20,671,728	39,309,347
Fires:				
Number of fires	19,380	20,481	19,064	19,135
Dwellings damaged	12,488	23,717	13,750	11,323
Other buildings damaged	10,864	14,112	12,445	10,440
Damages in yen	34,935,000	171,922,000	53,945,000	48,729,000

CHAPTER XXVIII

EDUCATION

Historical Background

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

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

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

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

"Téra-Koya" Education

The "téra-koya" needs some special explanation, as it played the most important part in the education of the

masses before the Meiji Era, and laid the foundation for the remarkable progress of elementary education in new Japan.

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

The school-house was no longer in or attached to a temple; teaching was not restricted to the monks; the teacher might be a samurai, monk, doctor or Shinto priest. "Téra-koya" became merely a general name, and the founders téra-koya schools chose any name they liked for their own. The size of the schools was diverse, the largest one accommodating as many as two or three hundred pupils. There was rarely more than one teacher, but in the larger schools there might be an assistant. The age of the pupils ranged from 6 to 15 years. It was co-education, although the sexes sat apart. The courses of study were commonly penmanship, Japanese literature, and the use of the abacus, with such optional subjects as Chinese literature, poem composition, sewing, flower-arrangement or tea ceremonies. Many textbooks on moral precepts and letter writing were published and used in these schools. These schools were usually kept up largely out of the pocket of the school master himself, for his work was entirely voluntary, inspired by pure devotion to service, for which he gained the honour and respect of the community. According to the report of the Department of Education, there were 15,892 téra-koya in Japan at the beginning of the Meiji Era, or just before the establishment of the new elementary school system.

It must be remembered also that technical schools had made considerable progress in old Japan. Medical schools

in particular were established in the Taiho Era, and medical science made steady progress toward the middle of the Yedo Age. The Tokugawa Shogunate established a medical school in 1785, and local clan lords followed this example. There were several private ones well known to the people. But these taught the Chinese method of the science, and the "materia medica" was almost entirely of herbs and animal matter. The modern or Western medical and its system and practice were introduced through Dutchmen at the end of the Yedo Era, so we may say that medical science was the earliest of all the sciences that were learned by the Japanese people from the Westerners.

Educational Administration

The present educational system of Japan dates from 1872 the 5th year of Meiji, when elementary education was made compulsory. The new system was established, in the main, after the examples of the French system, and the entire country was divided into 7 university districts, each of them consisting of 32 middle school districts and each of which was again divided into 210 primary school districts, or one primary school for 500 of population. The national educational principles are stated in the Imperial Rescript on Education issued on Oct. 30, 1890. This world-renowned rescript was published to lay down leading ideas and principles for the guidance of the Japanese, and it reads as follows:

"Know ye, Our Subjects!

Our Imperial Ancestors have founded Our Empire on a basis broad and everlasting and have deeply and firmly implanted virtue; Our subjects, ever united in loyalty and filial piety, have from generation to generation illustrated the beauty thereof. This is the glory of the fundamental character of Our Empire, and herein also lies the source of Our education. Ye, Our subjects, be filial to your parents, affectionate to your brothers and sisters; as husbands and wives be harmonious, as friends true; bear yourselves in modesty and moderation; extend your benevolence to all; pursue learning and cultivate arts, and thereby develop your intellectual faculties and perfect your moral powers; furthermore, advance the public good and promote common interests; always respect the Constitution and observe the laws; should any emergency arise,

offer yourselves courageously to the State; and thus guard and maintain the prosperity of Our Imperial Throne, coeval with heaven and earth. So shall ye not only be Our good and faithful subjects, but render illustrious the best traditions of your forefathers.

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

The 30th day of the 10th month of the 23rd year of Meiji.

(Imperial Sign Manual)

(Imperial Seal)

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

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

The points entrusted to local public bodies are chiefly financial matters, pertaining to the establishment and maintenance of schools, some of which are obligatory while some are left to the discretion of local bodies. The obligatory matters are the establishment by Hokkaido and the prefectures of normal schools, middle schools for boys and girls, schools for the blind and for the deaf-and-dumb, technical schools by order of the Minister of Education, and that of ordinary elementary schools by cities, towns and villages. Municipalities may not establish higher normal schools, and Hokkaido and the prefectures alone are authorized to establish universities, higher schools and normal schools.

The main principles regarding the nature and objects of schools, their scholastic terms, curricula, organizations, entrance qualifications, qualifications for the teachers, equipment, means of meeting the expenditure, and tuition fees are prescribed by Imperial Ordinances. The establishment of schools

by public bodies or private individuals must be approved by the local supervising authorities, which also exercise control to a certain extent over their methods of education and finances.

Religion is, on principle, excluded from the educational agenda of schools. In all schools established by the Government and local public bodies, and in private schools whose curricula are regulated by laws and ordinances, it is forbidden to give religious instruction or to hold religious ceremonies either in or out of the regular curricula.

Education in the colonies comes under the control of the colonial governments, and the military schools belong to the War and the Navy Departments, while there are some technical schools which come under the supervision of other departments. But with these exceptions, it may be safely said that the Minister of Education has charge of all matters relating not only to school education, but also to what may be termed social education, such as art, science, literature and religion. He is assisted by the parliamentary councillor in the conduct of political affairs and in matters which are connected with the business of the Imperial Diet. The vice-minister assists him in the business part of the Department.

Of the affairs within the jurisdiction of the Department, those that are related to education, art, science, and literature are distributed respectively among the Bureaux of Higher Education, General Education, Technical Education, Social Education, School Books, and Student Control, and those pertaining to religion are under the direction of the Bureau of Religion. Those affairs which do not properly belong to any one of these bureaux are dealt with in the Minister's Secretariat. In addition there are school superintendents, who inspect schools and directly supervise educational affairs; supervisors of social education who direct and supervise social educational affairs; superintendents of compilation who compile and examine text-books; and supervisors of school hygiene who look after the sanitary conditions of schools. Various advisory committees with prominent men in and out of office as members are instituted to help the Minister of Education in matters of wider scope.

The Minister of Education is authorized to direct and supervise the Superintendent of the Metropolitan Police and the local governors in matters under his control.

The prefectural governors direct and supervise their subordinate officials and

exercise supervision over the public and private schools, kindergartens and libraries within their jurisdictions. There is a Division of Educational Affairs in each prefecture which has control of matters relating to education. School inspectors and sub-inspectors in it inspect schools and conduct educational business directly.

The mayors of cities and towns and the heads of villages deal with affairs regarding elementary schools and exercise control over them. The mayors of cities, moreover, have authority to make recommendations to prefectural governors in the appointment of the principals and teachers of elementary schools. The municipalities have school boards to look after elementary schools.

School Education

As is shown in the following tables, Japan is well provided with schools, ranging from kindergartens up to universities. Almost all the elementary schools are controlled by public bodies.

Conditions are different when we come to secondary education, for which there exist a considerable number of private schools, and in the case of schools of the highest grade the private establishments quite outrange in number those under official control.

Only 18 out of the 45 existing universities were built by the Government, 2 by public bodies and the rest by private bodies.

The total number of schools in Japan proper and their enrolment in the last five years, 1933-1936, is shown below:

Year	Schools	Students
1937	48,215	15,242,333
1936	47,750	14,949,792
1935	46,138	14,035,823
1934	45,903	13,760,200
1933	45,793	13,408,971

Classified according to types, the number of schools in Japan proper on March 1, 1937, with the number of students enrolled, was as follows:

	Schools	Students
Elementary Schools	25,840	11,566,912
Middle Schools	559	352,320
Girls' High Schools	985	432,553
Business Schools	1,301	433,437
Young People's Schools	17,043	1,964,599
Higher Schools	32	17,097
Universities	45	72,195
Colleges	118	71,779
Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges	60	26,591

	Schools	Students
Normal Schools	101	30,256
Higher Normal Schools	2	1,795
Higher Normal Schools for Women	2	875
Special Institutes for the Training of Teachers	1	53
Institutes for the Training of Business School Teachers	4	364
Institutes for the Training of Young People's School Teachers	47	1,315
Schools for the Blind	78	5,040
Schools for the Deaf and Dumb	62	5,526
Miscellaneous Schools	1,935	259,621
Total	48,215	15,242,333
Kindergartens	1,946	152,627

Elementary Education

Elementary education in Japan is compulsory and has attained to its present high level of excellence through many improvements since the promulgation of the School Ordinance in 1872. In the Imperial Ordinance relating to Elementary Schools the object of elementary education is defined as follows:

"Elementary schools are designed to give children the rudiments of moral education specially adapted to make of them good members of the community, together with such general knowledge and skill as are necessary for the practical duties of life, due attention being paid to their bodily development."

Year	School-age Children	Children Attending Schools	Children not Attending Schools	Percentage of Children Attending Schools
1937	11,482,451	11,434,983	47,468	99.59
1936	11,358,094	11,311,266	46,828	99.59
1935	11,150,824	11,103,920	46,904	99.58
1934	11,024,532	10,979,718	44,814	99.58
1933	10,754,962	10,708,930	46,032	99.57

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

only), are added, and if local circumstances make it advisable, handicraft in ordinary elementary schools and foreign languages and other useful subjects in higher elementary schools may also be taught.

According to the system of compulsory education all children from 8 to 14 years of age are called school-age children, and those who exercise parental authority over them, or their legal guardians, must send them either to the ordinary elementary schools established by the cities, towns or villages until they complete the required course of study, or to schools established by the Government, prefectures or by private individuals, recognized as equal to the ordinary ones above mentioned. The law is not enforced when a child is unfit for study owing to physical or mental deficiency or cannot be sent to school by reason of extreme poverty. There is a provision which requires the employers of school-age children to see that the work imposed does not interfere with their going to school.

The responsibility of establishing ordinary elementary schools is placed upon cities, towns and villages, and they are making efforts to maintain schools even in the dire depression of the past few years. At the same time, however, special provisions permit the State Treasury to bear part of the expense, and the diffusion of elementary school education in Japan proper is all but ideal, the number of the school-age children attending schools maintaining the rate of 99.58 per cent for the past five years.

The full figures are as follows:

These figures represent the condition existing on March 31 of the respective years.

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

Under the present system of compulsory education the father's responsibility ends when his child has graduated from the lower elementary school. But

the ordinary elementary education of children is not sufficient for the existing conditions of society, and many cities, towns and villages establish higher elementary schools either independ-

ently or in connection with ordinary ones.

The following table will give a general idea of the conditions of elementary schools as they were in 1937:

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN 1937

Schools	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Ordinary	—	6,924	77	7,001
Ordinary and Higher	4	18,622	20	18,646
Higher	—	192	1	193
Total	4	25,738	98	25,840
Classes				
Ordinary and supplementary	55	197,298	662	198,015
Higher and supplementary	7	38,247	43	38,297
Total	62	235,545	705	236,312
Teachers	92	260,471	899	261,462
Pupils	2,333	11,537,841	26,738	11,566,912
Graduates	450	2,263,322	4,291	2,268,063
Entrants	488	2,636,961	5,550	2,642,999
Daily Attendance				
Ordinary	2,047	9,573,920	24,300	9,600,267
Higher	197	1,638,998	1,465	1,640,660
Total	2,244	11,212,918	25,765	11,240,927
Percentage of Daily Attendance				
Ordinary	95.83	97.14	96.48	97.14
Higher	96.12	96.52	97.47	96.52
Average	95.86	97.05	96.75	97.05

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

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

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS CLASSIFIED

(March 1, 1937)

	Male	Female	Total
Ordinary Elementary Schools			
Regular teachers	121,367	57,634	179,001
Special teachers	3,608	6,969	10,577
Assistant teachers	3,472	1,974	5,446
Substitute teachers	11,290	11,016	22,306
Total	139,737	77,593	217,330
Higher Elementary Schools			
Regular teachers	35,890	3,388	39,278
Special teachers	1,862	1,285	3,147
Assistant teachers	61	9	70
Substitute teachers	1,279	358	1,637
Total	39,092	5,040	44,132
Grand total	178,829	82,633	261,462

Secondary Education

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Year	Schools	Pupils
1937	559	352,320
1936	557	340,657
1935	555	330,992
1934	554	327,261
1933	558	329,459

A general idea of the condition of the middle schools in 1937 may be obtained by the following table:

MIDDLE SCHOOLS IN 1937

Schools	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Schools	2	438	119	559
Classes, regular course	25	6,261	1,426	7,712
Number of boys in one class	39.56	45.66	45.51	45.61
Teachers, licensed	59	10,249	2,417	12,725
" non-licensed	—	870	590	1,460
" Female 2	—	—	—	—
" Female 5	—	—	—	—
" Female 3	—	—	—	—
" Female 8	—	—	—	—
Total	59	11,126	3,012	14,197
Pupils, regular course	964	285,897	64,892	351,753
Preparatory	—	—	15	15
Pupils; supplementary course	—	459	93	552
Total	964	286,356	65,000	352,320
Graduates, regular course	158	47,160	9,243	56,561
Preparatory	—	—	15	15
" supplementary course	—	951	93	1,044
Total	158	48,111	9,351	57,620
Applicants, regular course	1,169	105,186	39,415	145,770
" supplementary course	—	3,042	183	3,225
Total	1,169	108,228	39,598	148,995
Admitted, regular course	204	64,977	16,207	81,389
Admitted, supplementary Course	—	1,892	145	2,037
Total	204	66,869	16,353	83,426
Left school, regular course	32	17,297	7,050	24,379

Girls' High Schools The system of high schools for girls is made flexible to suit practical requirements. A girl who has completed elementary school or has equivalent scholastic attainments and is twelve years or more of age may be admitted to a girls' high school. The course of the girls' high school ex-

tends over four or five years, and those schools whose entrance requirement is the completion of the higher elementary school or the possession of the same or higher scholastic attainments are allowed to shorten their course to three years. There is another kind of girls' high school which is called Girls' Do-

domestic High School, where domestic science is the main course of study, and its regular course extends over two to four years. Girls who wish to take only one part of the course are allowed to do so on application. A supplementary course of two years or less may be provided for the benefit of those who wish to continue their study after completing the regular course, and a post-graduate course or a higher course of two or three years for the purpose of giving higher education. In the cases of the higher course, higher qualifications are required of the teachers and its standard is brought up almost to that of the higher school for boys.

The subjects taught in a girls' high school are the same as those taught in the middle schools, but with the addition of domestic science and sewing, the required hours of study being from 23 to 29 a week. In the case of the Girls' Domestic High School, technical study added and the hours for domestic science and sewing are double those of the ordinary high school, the time allowed for other subjects being shortened, and foreign languages omitted altogether. Under special circumstances the foreign language, drawing and music may be omitted, and if local circumstances require, pedagogics, manual arts,

technical studies and other useful subjects may be taught in addition to the normal curriculum. In cases the total weekly hours may be increased to a little over 30. The curriculum of a domestic course of three years, the entrance requirement of which is the completion of the first year of the higher elementary school, is to be suitably drawn up on the basis of that of a domestic course of two years, the entrance requirement of which is the completion of the higher elementary school, and be submitted to the Minister of Education for approval.

The progress of female education is phenomenal in modern Japan and girls' high schools have taken very marked strides in recent years both in number and quality. At the end of March, 1937, there were 985 girls' high schools in Japan proper, many of them being provided with, or contemplating the provision of, a post-graduate course or a higher course.

The number of schools and girl students on March 1 of each year was as follows:

Year	Schools	Girls
1937	985	432,553
1936	974	412,126
1935	970	388,935
1934	975	371,807
1933	963	361,739

GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOLS IN 1937

Schools:	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
High School	2	581	223	806
Domestic H. S.	1	160	18	179
Total	3	741	241	985
Classes:				
Regular course	20	5,720	2,371	8,111
In a class, average	46.60	48.98	48.30	48.78
Post graduate	—	24	—	24
In a class, average	—	27.50	—	27.50
Domestic High School	4	592	116	712
In a class, average	48.25	42.49	40.47	42.19
Teachers, licensed:				
High School, regular course, male	15	5,567	1,993	7,575
female	28	3,954	2,172	6,154
Post graduate, male	—	43	—	43
female	—	2	—	2
Domestic High School, male	6	320	94	420
female	4	522	76	602
Teachers, unlicensed:				
High School, regular course, male	—	297	470	767
female	—	207	463	670
Post graduate, male	—	14	—	14
female	—	5	—	5
Domestic High School, male	—	70	41	111
female	—	56	36	92

	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Total, male	21	6,311	2,598	8,930
female	32	4,746	2,747	7,525
Total	53	11,057	5,345	16,455
Pupils	1,282	311,056	120,215	432,553
Graduates	280	73,607	24,174	98,061
Applicants	1,365	127,709	64,675	193,749
Admitted	316	86,982	29,785	117,083
Left school in the school year	16	12,454	5,979	18,449

Business Schools Business schools of secondary grade are established for the purpose of giving young people the practical knowledge and skill necessary in various vocations, and much is left to the discretion of the founders as to the systems of schools in order to suit the special needs of different industries, trades and localities. The courses may extend from two to five years according to the nature of the school. A period of not longer than one year may be added to the maximum prescribed course. Further provisions are allowed to meet the needs of those who desire to take only a part of the curriculum, for those who, after completing the prescribed course, still desire to remain for further study, and for those who wish after completing the course of a middle school or girls' high school, to enter a business school with the object of receiving business education; and lastly for those who wish to receive instruction in a simple way for only a short period.

On March 1, 1937 there were 1,301 business schools. The figures for the years 1933-37 are given below:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1937	1,301	433,437
1936	1,250	396,968
1935	1,125	367,026
1934	1,041	316,846
1933	1,024	298,893

Business schools are divided into two classes, A and B. Those schools which belong to A class admit boys and girls who have completed the course of the ordinary elementary school, while those which belong to B class admit those who have completed the course of the higher elementary school. And they are of six kinds, namely, Technical, Agricultural, Fisheries, Commercial, Navigation and Practical. Figures relating to these business schools in 1937 are given below.

BUSINESS SCHOOLS (A)

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted	Left School
Technical	110	2,619	43,930	8,612	40,813	12,927	2,198
Agricultural	255	3,015	58,215	16,803	26,899	20,272	2,573
Commercial	325	7,283	187,822	30,950	96,523	48,599	14,039
Navigation	8	125	1,787	474	749	446	70
Fisheries	14	170	2,503	519	1,212	736	118
Practical	282	3,588	67,706	24,595	36,190	23,921	3,869
Total	994	16,800	361,963	81,953	202,386	111,901	22,867

BUSINESS SCHOOLS (B)

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted	Left School
Technical	38	454	9,894	4,051	15,298	7,028	1,295
Agricultural	111	962	22,299	7,698	9,749	8,701	1,294
Commercial	86	824	23,468	8,143	16,552	11,590	2,048
Navigation	1	9	55	72	151	151	42
Fisheries	5	15	269	44	233	170	32
Practical	66	568	15,489	9,223	14,724	12,270	2,027
Total	307	2,832	71,474	29,231	56,707	39,910	6,738

Of these schools, 13 technical, 15 agricultural, 138 commercial, and 144 practical schools were under private management.

Young People's School On April 1, 1935, the Young People's School was established by the amalgamation of the Young Men's Training Institute and the Business Continuation School. The attendance became compulsory from April, 1939.

The purpose of the new institution is to elevate young people's attainment as citizens of Japan by training mind and body, by cultivating moral nature and by educating in knowledge and ability indispensable to their profession and practical life.

The course of study of Young People's School is graded into three, common, regular and post graduate. The common course extends over two years, the regular course five years for boys and three years for girls (four years for boys and two years for girls may be allowed according to local conditions), and the post graduate course over one year. Graduates of the lower course of elementary school may enter the common course of Young People's School; those who finished the common course may be advanced to the regular course, while the graduates of the higher course of elementary school have the same privilege; and graduates of the regular course or those who are in possession of an adequate scholastic attainment may take the post graduate course.

Subjects of study are, in the common course, morals, civics, some of subjects common to middle schools, agricultural subjects and gymnastics, with additional studies on housekeeping and sewing for girls only; in the regular course the same subjects are given in a more advanced grade; and in the post graduate course, morals, civics and certain studies selected from the subjects of the regular course. Special course may be added. Pupils are free of charge as a rule.

The number of Young People's Schools and that of their pupils for the years 1933-1937 were as follows:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1937	17,043	1,964,599
1936	16,708	1,902,876
1935	15,306	1,281,814
1934	15,140	1,271,530
1933	15,091	1,270,874

Higher Education

The institutions for higher education are higher schools, universities, colleges, and higher trade and industrial colleges.

Higher normal schools, institutions for training teachers of higher education, post-graduate or supplementary

courses in secondary educational institutions and higher grade classes of the special educational institutions are mentioned under other headings, though they might be included here with the other higher educational organs.

The number of schools under this heading, higher normal schools and teachers training institutions and that of students on March 1 of each year follow:

Year	Schools	Students
1937	259	190,332
1936	259	189,151
1935	255	186,963
1934	257	184,473
1933	261	183,792

Higher Schools (Koto Gakko) The higher school is primarily an institution whose object is to complete the general education of young men. But it is as a matter of fact a preparatory school for universities or higher trade and industrial colleges in present-day Japan. No women are admitted. It is divided into two courses, the higher and the lower. The former extends over three and the latter over four years, making seven in all. A post-graduate course of one year may be taken after the higher course. Some schools have the higher course alone. On May 30, 1937, the higher schools with the higher course alone numbered 25, while those with both lower and higher courses numbered 7.

The entrance requirements for the lower course are practically the same as those for the middle schools. The higher course is divided into the literature and science courses and a candidate must be one who has completed the lower course of the same school or one who has completed the fourth year of the middle school or whose scholastic attainments are equal or superior to the same standard.

There are about the same number of preparatory courses of universities which correspond to higher schools and are directly attached to universities. The following figures for 1936-37 refer to the higher schools only.

HIGHER SCHOOLS

(1936-1937)

Schools	32
(Schools which have lower course) (7)	
Teachers	1,269
Lower Course	161
Students	14,656
Lower Course	2,441

Graduates	4,477
Lower Course	573
Applicants	30,538
Lower Course	3,769
Entrants	4,670
Lower Course	601
Left School	396
Lower Course	40

Of the 32 schools, 25 are governmental, 3 public and 4 private.

Universities A university (Daigaku), in its regular form, consists of several faculties, but a single faculty may also constitute a daigaku. Each faculty is required to have a post-graduate course, and in those universities which include several faculties a university hall may be established for keeping the various post-graduate courses in touch with one another. Under special circumstances a preparatory course may be provided.

Admission to a university is extended to the graduates from higher schools and from preparatory courses of its

own, and to those who have the same scholastic attainments. When a student has studied in the university for three years or more (four years or more in the faculty of medicine) from the date of his entrance, and has passed a prescribed examination, he may assume the degree of "Gaku-shi" (lit. "learned gentleman") or Bachelor. He is also qualified to enter the post-graduate course. In many universities facilities are provided for those who wish to pursue studies only in some particular subjects according to prescribed regulations.

A university is authorized to confer a doctor's degree on persons who have pursued studies for a period of two years or more in the post-graduate course and whose theses have been approved by the faculty council. Those who have not pursued studies in the post-graduate course may also submit theses and apply for doctor's degrees. The degree is conferred when the faculty council is satisfied with the theses.

UNIVERSITIES, March, 1937

	Professors	Students & Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Entrants	Left School
GOVERNMENTAL:						
Tokyo Imperial	676	8,039	2,246	5,144	2,585	412
Kyoto Imperial	567	5,631	1,303	2,469	1,922	522
Tohoku Imperial	233	1,735	434	1,058	594	72
Kyushu Imperial	272	1,960	516	1,166	677	165
Hokkaido Imperial	300	2,252	649	4,918	762	48
Osaka Imperial	227	1,291	252	607	382	118
Niigata Medical	46	362	71	103	97	7
Okayama Medical	45	449	105	131	116	1
Chiba Medical	56	760	184	604	240	14
Kanazawa Medical	55	521	128	362	151	5
Nagasaki Medical	79	527	130	442	139	12
Kumamoto Medical	37	335	86	113	92	6
Nagoya Medical	71	435	73	132	130	22
Tokyo Commercial	167	2,225	669	3,737	794	60
Kobé Commercial	47	647	214	431	215	17
Tokyo Technical	109	583	169	571	199	19
Tokyo Literature and Science	123	413	108	207	150	30
Hiroshima Literature and Science	83	365	106	201	135	9
Total	18	3,193	28,530	7,443	22,396	1,539
PUBLIC:						
Kyoto Medical	63	668	168	570	191	3
Osaka Commercial	89	775	240	1,294	260	22
Total	2	152	1,443	1,864	451	25
PRIVATE:						
Kéio-Gijuku	298	6,861	1,962	6,069	2,398	234
Waséda	430	8,063	2,752	9,591	3,154	569
Meiji	153	3,305	1,073	1,715	1,415	277
Hoséi	189	2,514	729	1,518	1,260	452
Chuo	157	2,668	882	1,453	1,108	552
Nippon	316	3,867	1,188	2,703	1,703	654
Kokugakuin	87	580	208	361	266	31

	Prof- essors	Students & Pupils	Gradu- ates	Appli- cants	Entrants	Left School
Doshisha	103	1,392	399	866	622	170
Tokyo Jikéi-kai Medical	64	1,274	351	2,244	356	31
Ryukoku	89	641	181	336	250	70
Otani	84	471	140	209	161	44
Senshu	134	1,355	392	836	583	174
Rikkyo	121	1,481	407	945	549	95
Ryuméi-kan	72	931	335	588	506	175
Kansai	160	1,370	417	697	699	246
Takushoku	89	724	227	377	284	74
Rissho	100	538	106	116	115	27
Komazawa	89	416	134	106	95	18
Tokyo Agricultural	67	681	250	662	288	46
Nippon Medical	62	1,143	282	2,154	331	21
Koyasan	33	241	94	120	111	25
Taisho	118	509	158	174	147	62
Toyo	68	160	65	73	55	20
Jochi	65	196	64	136	116	53
Kansai-gakuin	128	1,041	377	630	466	76
Total	25	3,276	13,173	34,879	17,050	4,186
Grand Total	45	6,621	21,024	59,139	26,889	5,750

The oldest of the 45 universities is Tokyo Imperial University, which was founded in 1877. Kéio-Gijuku and Waseda were founded much earlier, but they were raised to the present standard in 1920 according to the ordinances enacted at that time.

Of the total number of students and pupils, that of regular university students was 51,023 and that of pupils in the preparatory course or elective courses was 21,167.

The following figures as they stood on March 1, 1936 and 1937 show the number of students in these universities classified according to faculties.

	1936	1937
Post graduate course	2,604	2,602
Law	8,271	8,432
Medical Science	7,087	8,225
Science	1,107	1,112
Agriculture	1,903	2,200
Economy	5,714	6,138
Commerce	4,753	4,736
Law and Literature	4,307	4,390
Politics and Economy	1,312	1,358
Technology	3,992	4,170
Literature	4,701	4,571
Law and Economy	630	645
Science and Technology	785	821
Literature and Science	649	756
Commerce and Economy	1,030	872

Tokyo Imperial University

Organization and Location Tokyo Imperial University (Tokyo Teikoku Daigaku) is a state institution for higher learning and research, and is organized in accordance with the Government's requirements for a university. It is

composed of seven Faculties, together with various special institutions. The faculties are those of Law, Medicine, Engineering, Letters, Science, Agriculture, and Economics. The principal institutions attached to the university are the Library, the Institute for Infectious Diseases, the Aeronautical Research Institute, the Tokyo Astronomical Observatory, and the Earthquake Research Institute, which are under the direct control of the President of the University. Besides these institutions, there are the Hospitals, the Marine Biological Station, the Botanic Gardens, the Historiographical Institute, the Forestry Experimental Stations, and the Fishery Laboratory, all under the control of the respective Faculties.

The university proper is situated in Hongo, Tokyo, occupying about one hundred acres of the Kaga Yashiki where are preserved some parts of the ancient gardens. This area comprises the part of the Kaga Yashiki occupied by the university since 1877 and the new addition acquired after the earthquake in the year 1923 from Marquis Maeda, the ancient feudal Lord of Kaga. The name Kaga Yashiki is retained in memory of olden times, and as being dear to many foreign professors of the university who lived in the compound in the early days. The Faculty of Agriculture had been in Komaba, Tokyo, but it was removed to the present site in 1935, grounds of about twenty-five acres adjacent to Kaga Yashiki. Thus all the principal institutions and buildings of the university are now being brought close to one another in

the university compound in Hongo. However, the Institute for Infectious Diseases, the Aeronautical Research Institute and the Astronomical Observatory retain their sites at some distance from Hongo.

Special mention should be made of the disaster of September 1, 1923, which affected the whole university to a greater or less degree. A plan of reconstruction is being carried out, good many buildings replacing the destroyed ones have been already completed, among which the new library stands foremost. The new plan having made a remarkable progress, the university ground is already exhibiting an entirely new feature with its buildings and gardens.

Origin and Growth The foundation of the University may be dated in various ways, for its growth had several marked stages in the course of past seventy years. Up to the present the official date of the foundation has been considered to be 1886, when two institutions, the Tokyo Daigaku (Tokyo University) and the Kobu Daigakko (College of Engineering) were amalgamated into the Teikoku Daigaku (Imperial University), the only institution of its kind in the Empire at that time. But the establishment of the Tokyo University in 1877 may be taken as the real founding of the present University, which is in fact a continuation and outgrowth of the former. Again, however, the Tokyo University had its predecessors and was an amalgamation of various institutions of higher learning. The earliest of these institutions can be traced back to 1855, when the Tokugawa Government opened what was called the Yogaku-sho, i. e. the Bureau for Occidental Learning. After some vicissitudes, this institution was discontinued for a short time, owing to the change of régime which supplanted the Tokugawa Shogunate and restored the Imperial Government in 1868. The new government restored the institution in 1869, and extended its scope to that of a college of arts and sciences, with the new name Daigaku Nanko (the Southern College). The appellation "Southern" was meant to designate it as a counterpart of the Daigaku Toko, the Eastern College, which was a medical school with a hospital. This medical school may be said to date from 1861, when a special institute was established for the study of Occidental medicine, though its remoter origin may be traced still further back to the eighteenth. These two colleges, South and East, had, however, no direct con-

nection at the time of the organization of the Daigaku Nanko in 1869. Yet the idea had been to found a large institution of learning comprising all branches of science. After several changes in the status and titles of these two institutions, they were incorporated in 1877 into the Tokyo University under the control of one president, thus realizing the ideal of a university. At this juncture, ground was selected at the present site of the university, where a part of the Medical College was first removed from its "Eastern" location, and was followed by the "Southern" colleges of Law, Science, and Literature.

Since then the development of the university has been marked by the incorporation of other institutions of learning and research; the most important of these was that of the College of Engineering, in 1886, when the new title of "Imperial University" was adopted. In this connection it should be explained that the prefix "Tokyo" was added to "Imperial University," later in 1897, in consequence of the founding of a similar institution in Kyoto, followed by other Imperial Universities in other cities.

The second important step was taken in 1890, in the incorporation of the Tokyo Norin Gakko (School of Agriculture and Forestry) which became the College of Agriculture, one of the six colleges composing the Imperial University. This newly incorporated institution had been started by the Government's Department of Agriculture and Commerce in 1886. From 1890 to 1918, the university was composed of the six colleges of Law, Medicine, Engineering, Literature, Science, and Agriculture; but in 1918, the College of Economics was inaugurated, being a development of a department in the College of Law.

While the nucleus of the university had thus begun in the middle of the nineteenth century under the Tokugawa régime, its backbone formed in 1869 under the new régime, its status secured in 1877, and its new title and an extension of its scope adopted in 1886, its later growth amounted to the incorporation or establishment of several institutes, more or less independent of the educational work of the several colleges (or faculties). The most important of these new additions to the university were the reorganization of the Astronomical Observatory in 1888; the incorporation, in the same year, of the institute which later developed into the present Historiographical Institute; the incorporation of the Institute

for Infectious Diseases in 1916; and the founding of the Aeronautical Research Institute in 1918, and of the Earthquake Research Institute in 1925. Besides these, the founding of the Hospitals, the Marine Biological Station, the extension of the Botanic Gardens, and the acquisition of large tracts of forest in various places, have marked steps in the growth of the university.

Faculties The Faculty of Law comprises the 2 departments of law and political science, with 34 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Medicine includes the 2 departments of medicine and pharmacy, with 35 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Engineering comprises the 10 departments of civil engineering, mechanical engineering, naval architecture, aeronautics, technology of ordnance, electrical engineering, architecture, applied chemistry, technology of explosives and mining engineering and metallurgy, with 58 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Literature comprises the 19 departments of Japanese language and literature, Japanese history, Chinese philosophy, Chinese language and literature, Oriental history, Occidental history, philosophy and history of philosophy, Indian philosophy, Sanskrit language and literature, psychology, ethics, science of religion and history of religion, sociology, pedagogics, esthetics and history of fine arts, science of language, English language and literature, German language and literature, and French language and literature, with 41 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Science comprises the 10 departments of mathematics, astronomy, physics, chemistry, zoology, botany, geology, mineralogy, geography, and seismology, with 41 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Agriculture comprises the 7 departments of agriculture, agricultural chemistry, forestry, veterinary medicine, fishery, agricultural economy and agricultural engineering, with 42 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Economics comprises the 2 departments of political economy and commerce, with 17 professorial chairs.

Those of adequate learning, aged 19, or above, who are desirous of attending the lectures or experiments for one or more subjects prescribed in the faculty departments, may be admitted as elective pupils in the Faculties, but only when there are vacant seats.

Auditors may be admitted to the faculties on application, when the study of the students is not inconvenienced by their presence. They must conform with the conditions prescribed by the facul-

ties, unless they are entrusted by the Japanese or foreign governments. In addition, there are practical courses of agriculture, forestry, and veterinary medicine in connection with the Faculty of Agriculture. Applicants for admission must be graduates from middle schools, or those who are recognized as having equal attainments.

Students who remain in one department for more than 6 years (in the department of medicine, 8) are struck off the school roll. The practical courses in the Faculty of Agriculture run for 3 years.

The period for scientific research by students in the University Hall is fixed at 2 years. If their research necessitates the prolongation of this period, the President may permit it, on their application, to the extent of 5 years. They are under the control of the dean of the faculty whose curriculum they follow. As to their teacher or teachers, the faculty concerned decides.

In March, 1936 the number of professors was 655 and that of students 8,091.

Tuition is ¥120 a year for under graduates and ¥75 for post graduates.

Annual salary of the professors is from ¥1,130, to ¥4,050 besides the stipend attached to a chair from ¥500 to ¥1,600.

The Budget The budget for the fiscal year 1939-40 is as follows:

REVENUE	
Ordinary	
From the Government	¥4,053,240
Miscellaneous income	5,658,107
Total	9,711,347
Extraordinary	
From the Government	1,022,646
From the Endowment Fund	798,055
Contributions	30,000
Total	1,850,701
Total revenue	11,562,048
EXPENDITURE	
Ordinary	
Salary	¥2,296,122
School disbursements	6,923,443
Salary of foreign professors	14,850
Pension allotment	462,329
Miscellaneous	14,603
Total	9,711,347
Extraordinary	
Total	1,850,701
Total expenditure	11,562,048

University Library The University Library takes charge of books, manu-

scripts, charts, etc. in the possession of the university including those in the general library and departmental libraries. Before the great disaster of September 1, 1923, the general library contained about 700,000 volumes, most of which were reduced to ashes. Some of the departmental libraries met the same fate. The great loss aroused universal sympathies both at home and abroad. Marquis Tokugawa offered the university the whole of the Nanki Library with its collection of about 100,000 volumes, mostly Japanese and Chinese books. The work of the British Committee for collecting English books was completed by April 1934, and the books thus given amounted nearly to 56,000 volumes. As a climax of the British gifts the library received a very select collection of books illustrative of the history of English printing and book production, including the Kelmscott Chaucer.

On the other hand, when the building to store the books thus accumulated was still unavailable, a wireless message, dated the last day of 1924, came from Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., of New York, generously offering a fund of four million yen for the reconstruction of the library. He entrusted the fund to a committee of Three, consisting of the President of the University, the Director of the Library and the late Dr. Dan, for the execution of the building construction, library equipments, and purchase of books. Besides two committees were organized for the Building plan and the Restocking of Books, consisting of professors of the several faculties, and they cooperated in reconstructing the library. The plan for the library was decided upon in 1925 and the work of building completed by the end of November of 1928, and the dedication took place on

December 1st of the same year. With the remainder of the Rockefeller Fund, works of modification and amendment were effected, including the installation, over the portico of the facade, of the bronze medallions which symbolize eight features of human life: Power, Order, Integrity, Truth, Vitality, Charity, Solidarity, and Mystery.

The Reconstruction Album of the Library was published in 1930 and sent to principal donors all over the world as a token of gratitude for their sympathy and assistance for the reconstruction of the library.

It is now almost nine years since the new building was opened, and the work of arranging the so-called Rehabilitation books was completed by the end of 1935.

During the fiscal year of 1936 there were added 36,201 volumes of books both by purchase and donation:— Oriental books, 13,071 volumes. Occidental books, 23,130 volumes.

By the end of March 1937 the sum total of books so far registered at the library reaches 1,051,485 volumes.

Thus the University Library, with its magnificent building and modern equipments together with its enriched contents, is enabled to give considerable comfort and convenience to her scholars with full capacity and is rendering manifold services as a centre of intellectual activities of the university. Besides the library is affording due facilities to scholars in research work and other visitors from foreign countries.

Doctor's Degrees

The following is a summary of doctor's degrees awarded during past 4 years.

Name	Awarded in 1933-34	Awarded in 1934-35	Awarded in 1935-36	Awarded in 1936-37
Dr. of Law	6	11	3	4
.. .. Literature	13	11	17	11
.. .. Science	29	33	32	49
.. .. Technology	28	35	36	47
.. .. Agriculture	25	18	22	24
.. .. Forestry	3	1	—	—
.. .. Medicine	783	806	877	978
.. .. Pharmacology	3	4	45	7
.. .. Veterinary	—	—	—	—
.. .. Economics	6	6	3	2
.. .. Commerce	3	2	4	3
.. .. Political Science	—	—	—	—
Total	899	927	998	1,125

Colleges, and Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges "College" is the usual translation of the Japanese "Semmon Gakko" or Speciality School. The required length of the course of a college is three years or more. For admission to an art or music school, the completion of the third year of the middle school or the girls' high school or the possession of equal or higher scholastic attainments is required, while for admission to all other colleges the completion of the course of the said second grade schools or similar or higher scholastic attainments is required.

In March, 1937, there were 118 colleges, 8 of them being founded and maintained by the Government, 9 by public bodies and the rest by private bodies. They may be classified as follows according to their nature:

Pharmacy	8
" for women	5
Medical Science	5
" " for women	3
Dentistry	5
" for women	2

Course of Study	Students		Graduates		Applicants		Entrants		Left School	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Medical Science	4,123	1,921	856	369	8,542	469	907	406	83	52
Pharmacy	3,703	2,706	910	642	5,292	1,019	1,031	828	198	176
Dentistry	3,574	382	794	83	2,522	176	948	173	185	19
Law	12,510	51	6,634	22	7,685	26	5,254	20	1,883	8
Economy	1,666	—	384	—	1,017	—	838	—	594	—
Commerce	12,431	6	3,058	2	8,667	4	4,703	4	1,904	2
Literature	4,037	2,402	1,082	754	3,708	1,116	1,565	817	522	243
Mathematics and Chemistry	606	25	41	12	1,374	—	755	—	756	1
Domestic Science	—	3,194	—	931	—	1,969	—	1,451	—	405
Sewing	—	1,280	—	424	—	706	—	501	—	136
Handiwork	—	570	—	167	—	424	—	288	—	90
Religion	2,083	22	581	7	914	11	775	11	209	1
Fine arts	576	40	132	15	161	26	153	24	15	4
Music	68	195	20	52	29	115	26	101	11	20
Athletics	511	67	118	22	362	25	139	22	22	2
Agriculture	695	—	212	—	752	—	232	—	41	—
Colonization	214	—	57	—	135	—	87	—	17	—
Nursing	—	52	—	22	—	48	—	24	—	8
Meteorology	47	—	15	—	269	—	13	—	—	—
Industry	828	—	235	—	1,243	—	305	—	42	—
Normal	2,982	426	758	115	2,487	305	1,630	143	932	41
Shinto	348	—	113	—	171	—	109	—	9	—
Total, 1937	51,002	13,339	13,009	3,639	45,330	6,439	19,470	4,813	7,423	1,208
Total, 1936	50,008	13,525	12,716	3,779	44,795	6,479	19,543	4,770	6,238	1,341
Preparatory and Special Courses	4,598	2,840	1,648	1,889	5,539	3,667	3,583	2,721	2,034	703

The number of Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges and that of their professors and students was as follows in the 1936-37 school year.

Medical and pharmacy, for women	1
Languages	3
Literature	6
" for women	5
Religion	11
Christian Theology	3
Painting and other fine arts	2
" for women	1
Music	2
Commerce	1
Law, Economy, Commerce, Industry	13
Agriculture	1
Colonization	1
Mathematics and Chemistry	1
Meteorology	1
Athletics	2
Fencing and Judo	1
Literature, economy, law, domestic science and others (including for women)	48
Total	118

The following table shows the movement of the college students, classified according to their course of study, in 1936-1937:

Kind	Colleges	Professors	Students	Graduates	Applicants	Entrants	Left School
Technical	19	888	7,752	2,409	22,834	2,795	264
Agricultural	14	570	4,582	1,523	11,329	1,753	164
Commercial	24	779	12,804	4,145	22,637	4,808	599
Navigation	2	126	1,231	266	2,027	225	32
Fisheries	1	40	212	52	424	76	4
Total	60	2,403	26,591	8,395	59,251	9,657	1,063

Other Education

Besides the schools stated above, there are Kindergartens, schools for the blind, schools for the deaf and dumb, and miscellaneous schools.

Kindergartens Kindergartens are found chiefly in larger towns. With general social progress, however, the necessity of their improvement and diffusion being greatly felt in spite of the recent financial depression, an Imperial Ordinance for Kindergartens has lately been issued to encourage their further development. Kindergartens receive children from 3 years of age to school age or full six years of age.

The following table gives the number of kindergartens and that of children attending in the years 1933-37:

Year	Kindergartens	Children
1937	1,946	152,627
1936	1,892	143,676
1935	1,862	143,469
1934	1,786	133,735
1933	1,708	129,001

Education for the Blind and the Dumb

It has been the educational policy of the Japanese Government since the beginning of the Meiji Era that there shall be no illiterates in the country. Therefore, even persons with physical defects are admitted to elementary, middle or girls' high schools, provided that they are fit to attend a greater part of the lessons. But boys and girls who are blind or deaf and dumb are encouraged to enter schools specially founded for them. A special ordinance relating to the schools for the blind and schools for the deaf and dumb has lately been issued for the purpose of perfecting their elementary and secondary education. The following table gives the number of them and that of their pupils in the years 1933-1937.

Year	Schools	Pupils	Blind	Deaf & Dumb
1937	140	10,566	5,040	5,526
1936	140	10,284	4,950	5,334
1935	140	9,907	4,830	5,077
1934	138	9,500	4,709	4,791
1933	137	8,939	4,613	4,326

Miscellaneous Schools Under the heading of "Miscellaneous Schools," the Japanese Government includes for convenience' sake all schools which do not fully come into any definite category of schools under the provisions in the laws and ordinances.

The following table gives the number of miscellaneous schools and that of their pupils in the years 1933-1937.

Year	Schools	Pupils
1937	1,935	259,621
1936	1,912	240,800
1935	1,921	230,394
1934	1,950	209,674
1933	1,917	203,123

Of the total given above, 143 were maintained by public bodies and 1,787 by private persons or bodies. As to their category those which might be classified as elementary schools numbered 202, middle schools 111, girls' high schools 74, business schools 648, colleges 31, the blind and the dumb schools 9, and the professional 860. Among miscellaneous schools, there are not a few which to be highly esteemed as educational institutions in their ideas and new methods of education. Many of the Christian schools are included among them.

New Educational Movements The educational system of Japan is so complete, as is specially the case with primary school education, that there has been hardly any room for such free educational movements as in Europe and America. The progress in other lines of national life, however, naturally stimulated the awakening of scholars and practical educators towards the end of the Meiji Era. The development of major cities presented a large field for the experiment of new educational work. Influenced by Western thoughts and guided by scholars who gave expositions on European and American educational thoughts so as to adapt the characteristic environments in Japan, many new schools have been established in Tokyo and Osaka. Their scope of influence as well as their number is limited, and the new movement, which is more or less radical, is going

through difficult times owing to the reactionary tendency in these years: but the existence of such schools as Mrs. Masako Yosano's Bunka-gakuin, Mrs. Motoko Hani's Jiyu-gakuen, and Mr. Kuniyoshi Obara's Seijo-gakuen proves the demand for and appreciation of new education among the more advanced quarters of urban population. The new educational movement among elementary school teachers must not be overlooked. Their curriculum cannot deviate very much from that fixed by the government, but their efforts for handling materials so as to adapt the local environment of the pupils and to take in the projective method are bringing about good results. The representative schools are Tajima Elementary School in Kawasaki, Urashima Elementary School in Yokohama, etc. Elementary schools of a similar kind may be found in many places throughout the country.

Training of Teachers

The Japanese Government, alive to the necessity of having a large supply of capable teachers, has spared no efforts in the completion of organs for their training. To give an outline of the present system, Hokkaido and the prefectures are called upon to establish and maintain at least one normal school each, and an institution for the training of Young People's School teachers when circumstances make it necessary, a responsibility which is also imposed on the cities. The Government itself undertakes the training of teachers of normal schools, middle schools, girls' high schools and technical schools by establishing and maintaining higher normal schools, higher normal schools for women, special institutes for the training of teachers, etc., and the students of these schools are given scholarships, covering part of their expenses, either by the Government or by the local public bodies. Moreover such of the students of universities, colleges and the like as intend to become teachers, receive aid out of public funds or may be exempted from the payment of fees. Persons who have proved themselves deserving extended aid are chosen for studying abroad in order that they may be better qualified to teach higher arts and sciences.

The following table gives the number of schools for training teachers and that of their students in the years 1933-1937:

Year	Schools ¹	Students
1937	157	34,603
1936	156	34,019
1935	156	34,583
1934	155	38,849
1933	157	41,060

Organs for Training Elementary School Teachers The principal organs for training elementary school teachers are the normal schools, while the training course B grade of the Tokyo Academy of Music trains music teachers for elementary schools.

A normal school consists of the regular and the post-graduate courses, the former is divided into the first and second sections. The course of study of the first section extends over five years and it takes in the graduates of higher elementary schools of a two years' course or persons of over 14 years of age who have similar attainments. The course of study of the second section runs for two years and it takes in graduates of middle schools, girls' high schools and persons of similar scholastic attainments.

The following table gives the number of normal schools and that of their students and graduates in the years 1933-1937:

Year	Schools	Students	Graduates
1937	101	30,256	10,340
1936	102	29,825	10,431
1935	102	30,420	10,735
1934	103	32,817	11,669
1933	103	36,867	12,611

Organs for Training Teachers for Secondary Education As organs for training the teachers of secondary education, there are the higher normal schools, higher normal schools for women, special institutes for training teachers, the training course in drawing of the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts and the training course, grade A of the Tokyo Academy of Music. The systems differ more or less with the schools or the main subjects taught, but their entrance requirements are, generally speaking, the completion of middle school, girls' high school and normal school, or the possession of the same or higher scholastic attainments, and their courses extend over four, three

¹ Note: There are 4 colleges and their students included in this as well as in the number of the table on colleges.

or two years, with additional post-graduate and special investigation courses. The number of graduates from these schools is from 850 to 1,000 annually.

In addition to the foregoing, teachers' certificates are issued without examination to graduates of high grade schools both in Japan and in other countries in order to meet the deficiency in the supply of secondary school teachers. The main conditions are that the schools in question must be equal to or higher than the higher normal schools of Japan in entrance requirements and in curricula. Including those who passed examination there were 11,-

014 persons 8,025 men and 2,989 women who received such certificates in 1936-1937.

Organs for Training Business School Teachers For the purpose of training teachers of practical subjects in technical schools, institutes are attached to the Government universities and colleges. They are of a three year course, the scholastic standard corresponding to that of the colleges.

The following table gives the number of such institutes and that of their students and graduates in the years 1933-1937:

Year	Agricultural		Technical		Commercial		Total		Graduates
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	
1937	1	84	2	224	1	56	4	364	119
1936	1	120	2	142	1	98	4	360	114
1935	1	116	2	144	1	96	4	356	111
1934	1	111	2	150	1	101	4	362	120
1933	1	116	2	150	1	105	4	271	113

As further means of providing business school teachers, certificates are issued without examination to graduates of certain specified schools. Including those who passed examination the number of persons who received such certificates in 1936-1937 was 444.

Organs for Training Teachers of Young People's Schools For this purpose there are institutes which Hokkaido, the prefectures and cities alone are authorized to establish. They are of one or two year courses above the secondary education. The following table shows the number of these institutes and that of their students in 1933-1937:

Year	Institutes	Students	Graduates
1937	47	1,315	539
1936	45	1,117	619
1935	45	1,106	588
1934	43	1,014	529
1933	42	1,039	618

Training of High-grade Professors No particular schools are instituted for the training of high-grade teachers. Scholarships, however, are given to students of the post-graduate course of higher normal schools for training such professors. Further, persons of adequate career and experience are sent to foreign countries for a further prosecution of studies, their expenses being met by the Government. The following are figures concerning such persons at the end of March, each year:

Year	Students Abroad	Year	Students Abroad
1937	168	1934	136
1936	126	1933	184
1935	104	1932	191

As a further means of supplying higher grade professors, a professor's licence is granted to persons holding doctor's degrees and those who have graduated from universities and colleges. In 1936-1937 the number of persons who received Higher School Professor's licences was 1,097, of which 9 were women.

Training of Special School Teachers and Nurses of Kindergartens Teachers for the blind and the deaf and dumb are trained in the training courses in the Tokyo School for the Blind and the Tokyo School for the Deaf and Dumb. The nurses of kindergartens are trained in the training courses provided in women's normal school, special courses in the higher normal schools for women and in the special institutions for the purpose established by private bodies. In 1936-1937 the number of kindergarten nurses' certificates given was 1,164.

Teacher's Certificate Given by Examination Persons who have similar scholastic attainments with the graduates of the schools mentioned above, may ask for an examination to get a teacher's licence. They have to undergo a strict examination by the special examination committees of the Educational Department. The number of per-

sons who passed such examination during 1936-1937 was 7,313. These may be classified as follows:

Teachers of	Applicants	Passed examinations
Elementary School and Kindergarten	41,492	6,613
Normal School, Middle School and Girls' School	6,523	577
Higher Department of Higher School	71	10
Business School	887	113

Physical Education and School Hygiene

With a view to promoting the rational development of the young and to encourage and further the spread of gymnastics, games and athletic sports, both eastern and western, there was established in 1924 a national Institute for Research in Physical Training, where research work is now in active progress.

For school hygiene, special attention is paid to buildings and equipments, and efforts are being made to improve and strengthen the physical constitution of pupils and students by employing school physicians, dentists and nurses, by taking measures for the prevention of infectious diseases in schools, by making plans for open-air schools, vacation colonies, school feeding, school clinics and the like.

There were 33,003 school physicians, 8,429 dentists, and 3,208 nurses for 33,003 schools in 1937.

For the administrative organs responsible for the work referred to, Hokkaido and prefectures have school hygienic experts and directors of physical training, while the Department of Education has the Section of Physical Training, Supervisors of School Hygiene and the Institute for Research in Physical Training. In addition, there are provided in the Educational Department a School Hygiene Investigation Committee and a Physical Training Investigation Council, which investigate and make researches in important questions submitted to them by the Minister

Year	Public Libraries	Books	Readers	Daily Average of Readers of a Library
1937	4,730	12,648,000	24,124,000	20
1936	4,759	12,319,000	24,191,000	20
1935	4,794	11,376,000	24,666,000	20
1934	4,634	10,762,000	24,949,000	21
1933	4,606	10,563,000	24,766,000	20

In November, 1931, the Tokyo Science Museum was established by the Government. It is located in Ueno Park, Tokyo and exhibits 1,889 technical and

of Education.

Social Education

For the diffusion and development of social education there has been created a Bureau of Social Education in the Department of Education, and a certain number of supervisors of social education are appointed in the Department, and directors of the same in the local governments.

Adult Education For the benefit of those adults who have had little or no chance to receive regular education, the Department has requested some of the schools under its direct control or under that of the local governments to start a series of lectures. Most of the adults who are gathered to these lectures are labourers or farmers, and fuller reference to this is made in the chapter on labour.

Libraries The spread of libraries in Japan has been rather slow because of many reasons, but the place of the library in social education has been understood more and more clearly with the advancement of national and international life in recent years. The Government, therefore, established a national library at Ueno, Tokyo, and at the same time has given encouragement to local public bodies for establishing their own libraries by granting subsidies to them. It also tries to help them by holding short period courses for training capable librarians. The results of these efforts have been a notable progress in libraries, as may be observed in the following table:

machine models and 196,779 specimens of natural science. In 1936-37, 271,296 people visited it in 356 days.

Young Men's and Young Women's Associations With the object of giving mental and moral culture to those young men and women who are no longer cared for in the schools, the organization of young men's and young women's associations has been encouraged so that there is at present hardly any city, town, or village where they are not established. These associations work, on the whole, according to the principle of self-government, quite different from the foregoing Young People's Schools, and along the lines which they choose in view of the circumstances peculiar to themselves.

The following table shows the number of young men's and young women's associations and that of their members in the years 1932-1936:

Year	Y.M.A. Members	Y.W.A. Members
1936	15,719	2,450,427
1935	15,469	2,456,505
1934	15,440	2,488,113
1933	15,300	2,497,166
1932	15,305	2,518,173

Boy Scouts and Girl Guides The boy scout movement, which is also an important item in the social education of the young, has made much progress since the organization of the Japan Federation of Boy Scouts in 1922. The President of the Federation was the late Count Shimpai Goto, and its head office was located in the Department of Education building. The boy scouts which are affiliated with the Federation are scattered all over the Empire except 4 prefectures in Japan proper and the South Sea Mandated Islands. In 1925, the Marine Branch was established and it owns a training-ship.

The number of boy scout organizations and that of the members were approximately 1,100 and 90,000 respectively in March, 1935. The Federation is led by Count Yoshinori Futara at present.

The girl guide movement was first introduced into Japan in 1920. The earliest organizations appeared in Tokyo and

Year	State Treasury	Prefectures	Cities	Towns and Villages	School Associations	Total
1937	142,573,799	111,717,579	137,128,219	230,811,039	122,442	622,353,098
1936	151,099,914	109,120,439	119,144,631	224,908,617	102,928	604,376,529
1935	154,732,262	104,617,681	103,435,462	214,853,579	91,476	577,730,460
1934	152,105,765	100,103,429	102,318,577	202,816,370	87,274	557,434,115
1933	148,083,243	97,885,783	87,580,024	199,345,796	89,630	532,984,684
1932	137,239,255	106,856,178	77,670,969	197,723,655	87,829	519,583,886

The above table does not include the amounts expended on local educational administration.

In order to show the total expendi-

Morioka, and the movement gradually spread over different parts of the country, although it has not yet achieved such progress as the boy scout movement, having only 27 guides with about 300 girls in 1931.

Educational Expenditure

Education in Japan, as previously mentioned, is principally controlled by the State, though it is partly delegated to local public bodies and partly carried on by private individuals or organizations by permission of the Government. The expenditure incurred is met from these three different financial sources.

Part of the educational expenses of local public bodies, however, is met by the State Treasury in order that the teachers may be sufficiently paid and the burdens on the ratepayers may not be too heavy. Formerly the sum of ¥10,000,000 was yearly defrayed for this purpose, but it has been recently increased to ¥85,000,000 or more, and destitute municipalities receive special consideration in the apportionment of the grant.

Local governments are required to pay additional salaries at certain rates for long service to the teachers of schools for which they are directly responsible. To meet part of these expenses, the Government allocates a sum of money fixed annually in the National Budget and divides it among Hokkaido and prefectures in proportion to the number of teachers. In cases where a city, town or a village undertakes to pay for residences of elementary school teachers, the higher local body is required to share part of the expense.

In recent years educational undertakings have been greatly extended and the treatment of teachers considerably improved in accordance with the post-war programme of the country, and this has caused the educational expenditure to swell in a remarkable degree. The following table shows the total governmental and public educational expenditure in yen during the years 1932-1937:

ture, both governmental and local, the year 1934-1935 is taken and full details of the items of expenditure are shown:

GOVERNMENTAL EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE

1936-1937 (In yen)

Administration	2,440,966	Blind, Deaf and Dumb education	159,614
Elementary and Secondary education	90,370,778	Universities and libraries	31,583,115
Business education	628,498	Others	2,597,144
Social education	3,364,449	Total	131,144,564

PUBLIC EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE BORNE BY LOCAL PUBLIC BODIES

1936-1937 (In yen)

Kind of Education	Hokkaido & Prefectures	School Associations of Towns & Municipalities Villages			Total
		Cities	Towns & Municipalities	Villages	
Elementary Schools	—	114,342,942	70,725	197,179,822	311,593,489
Normal Schools	9,305,901	—	—	—	9,305,901
Middle Schools	23,371,212	276,517	42,990	125,382	23,816,101
Girls' High Schools	15,207,069	2,715,216	—	2,156,517	20,078,802
Higher Schools	474,811	—	—	—	474,811
Universities	1,525,091	493,427	—	—	2,018,518
Colleges	342,480	114,198	—	—	456,678
Business Schools	19,361,936	8,455,935	—	2,473,881	30,291,752
Teachers' Training Schools	412,913	—	—	—	412,913
Blind Schools	818,205	60,167	—	—	878,372
Deaf and Dumb Schools	388,849	103,773	—	—	492,622
Miscellaneous Schools	281,817	456,871	—	26,501	765,189
Young Men's Training Schools	69,986	4,538,304	4,767	23,051,017	27,664,074
Kindergartens	—	1,273,018	—	592,853	1,865,871
Libraries	674,530	730,604	—	280,139	1,685,273
Miscellaneous	39,482,779	3,567,267	3,960	4,924,927	47,978,933
Total	111,717,579	137,128,239	122,442	230,811,039	479,779,299

The total amount of educational expenditure in Japan proper borne by private bodies was ¥71,496,348 for 1936-1937:

EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE BORNE BY PRIVATE BODIES IN 1936-1937

School	Expenditure (In yen)	Revenue (In yen)
Elementary Schools	1,350,002	784,830
Middle Schools	5,057,164	5,104,304
Girls' High Schools	9,533,260	8,514,703
Higher Schools	754,771	763,921
Universities	10,356,032	10,304,243
Colleges	11,342,522	12,588,295
Business Schools		
College grade	9,622,859	9,373,357
Secondary grade		
Elementary grade		
Total		
Schools for the Blind	226,628	211,318
Schools for the Deaf and Dumb	73,775	44,182
Miscellaneous Schools	14,630,376	13,467,530
Kindergartens	2,319,021	2,008,342
Young Men's Training Schools	1,507,184	260,804
Y.M.A. and Y.W.A.	4,043,409	4,369,018
Libraries	679,345	450,850
Total	71,496,348	68,245,697

Other Schools

There are schools in Japan proper which do not come under the control of the Educational Department, and they have been excluded from the foregoing sections. But to complete the chapter on education we cannot pass without some mention of them. Fuller explanations may also be found in other chapters.

Peers' Schools They belong to the Department of the Imperial Household, and the purpose of their establishment is the education of the nobility, but admission to them is by no means restricted to children of titled families. They are called the Gakushu-in and Joshi (women) Gakushu-in. The former is for boys and is composed of three departments, namely, elementary, middle school, and college. The latter is composed of two departments, namely, high school and college.

Two Special Schools The Department of Foreign Affairs has two schools;

one is the To-a Dobun Sho-in (Tung Wen College) in Shanghai and the other the Russo-Japanese Association School at Harbin.

The Jingu-Kogakkan This was established by the Home Department and is a Shinto seminary.

The Fisheries Institute This is under the Department of Agriculture and Forestry.

In the territories, schools are under the control of the Territorial Governments, as a matter of course, and full descriptions of them may be found in the chapters on territories. However, a list of the various universities and colleges is here appended.

CHOSEN

Kéijo (Seoul) Imperial University
Kéijo Imperial University Preparatory School

Kéijo Law College
Kéijo Medical College
Kéijo Technical College
Suigen Agricultural and Forestry College
Kéijo Commercial College
Eight private colleges

TAIWAN

Taihoku Imperial University
Taihoku College
Four other colleges

KWANTUNG

Ryojun (Port Arthur) Technical University
Preparatory College for the same
Four private colleges

Foreign Teachers and Students

The number of foreign teachers and students at the end of March, 1937, was as follows:

Schools	Teachers			Pupils & Students		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Elementary	—	7	7	324	188	512
Normal	—	—	—	4	—	4
Higher Normal	6	—	6	128	—	128
Woman's Higher Normal	—	—	—	—	25	25
Middle Schools	35	3	38	45	—	45
Girls' High Schools	2	65	67	—	6	6
Higher Schools	69	1	70	114	—	114
Universities	98	2	100	1,523	76	1,599
Colleges	135	70	205	1,456	259	1,715
Business Colleges	68	—	68	276	4	280
Business Schools	29	13	42	14	—	14
Young People's Schools	—	2	2	—	—	—
Blind Schools	—	1	1	—	—	—
Miscellaneous	109	200	309	2,360	1,224	3,584
Total	551	364	915	6,244	1,782	8,026

The comparison for the five years, 1933-1937, is as follows:

Year	Teachers	Students	Year	Teachers	Students
1937	915	8,026	1935	912	4,681
1936	906	6,942	1934	883	2,765
			1933	1,059	2,232

CHAPTER XXIX

RELIGION

General Survey

From prehistoric ages Japan has had an indigenous cult which is now known as Shinto. Buddhism and Confucianism were introduced through Korea and China later, and Christianity more recently still. Islam, however, never gained a footing on her soil, though its literature has been introduced to some slight extent.

Shintoism has had little to do with the thought and life of the people, apart from its relations with the functions of the guardian deities, national and local, and bears some resemblance to the primitive cults of Greece and Italy. It is now divided into two, namely, national Shintoism, which is represented by the shrines, and sectarian Shintoism, which developed towards the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

Confucianism is rather a code of moral precepts than a religion, except in that it teaches some vague ideas regarding a heavenly God. In the realm of moral culture it has exerted great influence on the minds of the Japanese people and on their principles of daily life; that influence being very noticeable in the Imperial Rescript on Education of the Emperor Meiji. Further mention of Confucianism will be omitted here because it can hardly be regarded as a religious cult.

Buddhism has had still greater influence on all phases of Japanese life. Its fatalism has had a retarding effect on the material progress of the Japanese as with other Oriental nations, but has induced a habit of dauntless composure in their behaviour, and its broad philanthropy has given rise to a spirit of mutual help among the people, subduing egoism or individualism. Its philosophical literature fed the national thought, while its fine art has left many masterpieces enriching the cultural life of the Japanese. Buddhism is still the most powerful among the religions in Japan.

Christianity has made valuable contribution toward the civilization of Japan with its world-wide nature and positive teachings on human life. The number of believers is comparatively small, but its influence on the people's thought and

morals is said to be even greater than that of Buddhism. It has raised Japan's moral standards, waging war against licensed prostitution, the low position of women, drinking and smoking, and polygamy as practised in a certain section of society. It has still to amalgamate itself with the life of the people in order to exert greater influence upon them, but its future is hopeful.

Shinto Shrines

While the sectarian Shinto denominations are under the Education Department as other religious bodies, most Shinto shrines are supervised by the Shrine Bureau of the Home Department, which consists of one chief official and 64 minor officials. The budget of the Bureau for the fiscal year 1939-40 is as follows:

	(In yen)
Running expenses	
Isé Great Shrine	230,000
Other national shrines	1,021,720
Ordinary expenses	1,000,000
Ceremonies and rituals	7,465
Soldiers' shrines	14,255
Total	1,251,720
Incidental expenses	
Office of Isé Great Shrine	69,004
Investigations	13,963
Reconstructions	1,110,000
Education of priests	36,500
Total	1,229,467
Sum total	2,481,187

The Isé Great Shrine is the most honoured of all as the first national shrine. The Goddess enshrined in it is Amaterasu-Omikami, which may be translated as Heaven-Shining-Great-Goddess. According to the Japanese mythology, Amaterasu-Omikami sent down her grandson to the Nippon Islands to rule the people by the 'Kingly Way,' giving him the Three Sacred Treasures, which have been handed down even to the present Emperor as the sacred symbols of the Imperial Throne (see Appendix, The Constitution of Japan; The Imperial Household Law Article X; and Chapter III). In the Great Shrine and attendant shrines more than 10 gods, who represent the Imperial ancestors or personify natural powers, are installed beside the

principal Goddess.

The name of the shrine comes from its location in Isé province or more accurately on the Isuzu river, city of Ujiyama, Mié prefecture. The whole sacred area of the Great Shrine includes 13,135 acres.

About 74 priests are attending it under a chief priest. There are established a seminary for the education of priests, a police station, two museums, and a library in connection with the shrine.

The budget for the fiscal year 1939-40 is ¥299,004.

According to the report of the Shrine Bureau, the Home Department, the number of other shrines at the end of 1936 was as follows:

Governmental and national shrines	203
Prefectural and village shrines	49,542
Private shrines	60,836
Soldiers' shrines	104

The number of private shrines in Japan proper has been steadily decreasing since 1889, lessening from 136,783 in that year to 60,836 in 1936. There were many too superstitious and barbarous ones among them and the decrease indicates the healthy progress of the religious ideas of the people and the radical policy of the government.

The total area of the sacred campus of these shrines in 1933 (not including soldiers' shrines) covered 76,948,646 tsubo, 65,721,332 of it being government property.

The total number of priests in Japan proper at the end of the year 1936 was 15,955.

For the education of priests there are one seminary of college grade at Isé as mentioned above, a department in Kokugakuin (Japanese literature) College of junior college grade, a middle school grade seminary affixed to the one at Isé, and 26 smaller places for

giving a course of study, the total number of students being not more than 2,100. It may be said, therefore, that the education of Shinto priests is on a much lower scale than that of Buddhist priests or Christian pastors.

Sectarian Shintoism

Shinto Sect This sect is called by the general name given to the national cult before its later branches had developed. The principal ideas of the sect are to follow the "Great Way of the Gods," and to propagate the national cult indigenous to the people of this country. Its believers and devotees consider it their most important duty to cultivate reverence for the gods, cherish the spirit of patriotism, elucidate Heavenly Reason and Humanity, pay homage to the Emperor, and observe all the Imperial ordinances.

Kurozumi Sect This was founded by Munetada Kurozumi (1780-1850), who was born at a small village of Okayama prefecture. His main idea was to inhale, while contemplating the Goddess Amaterasu-Omikami, the energy of the sun, and thereby to fill up the heart with satisfaction and complaisance. He teaches to avoid the following seven evils, which are against the will of the gods: (1) to be faithless to the country of the gods in which one was born; (2) to get angry and to worry over things; (3) to be arrogant and spiteful; (4) to entertain evil desires from seeing others do evil; (5) to neglect one's household affairs while in good health; (6) not to have sincerity even when one is entering upon the path of sincerity; and (7) not to accept things gratefully for which one ought to be grateful every day.

Other sects of Shinto are as follows—the teachings of all being much the same, except that some lay particular stress on the worship of one or another of the early gods:—

Shinto-shusei	Found by Kunimitsu Nitta (1829-1902) born in Chiba Prefecture.
Taiasha	Preached by Sompuku Sengé (1845-1918)
Fuso	Founded by Takekuni Fujiwara (1541-1646) and preached by Han Shishino.
Taisei	Founded by Shosai Hirayama (1815-1890)
Jikko	Founded by Hanamori Shibata (1809-1890)
Shinshu	Founded by Masamochi Yoshimura (1839-1916) Okayama prefecture.
Ontaké	The chief centre of this sect is Mount Ontaké, where the spirits of certain gods are enshrined.
Misogi	The sect of Water Purification. Founded by Masakané Inouyé (1790-1849) of Mié prefecture.
Shinri	Founded by Tsunehika Sano (1834-1906)
Konko	Founded by a farmer, Bunjiro Kawaté (1814-1883)
Tenri	Founded by a woman, Miki Nakayama (1798-1887) of Nara pre-

Tenri

fecture. Of all these sects the Tenri-kyo has perhaps the greatest number of believers; it lays emphasis on personal conduct and mental discipline, in addition to patriotism and obedience to the Emperor and Imperial ordinances. It particularizes the "eight forms of dust which must be swept away"; they are grudging, evil desires, impure attachments, hatred, enmity, anger, covetousness and arrogance.

Buddhism

It was in the thirteenth year of the Emperor Kimmmei (552 A.D.) that Buddhism, first founded in India, came over to Japan after passing through China and Korea. Prince Shotoku, Regent from 593 to 628 A.D. and a devout Buddhist, was largely responsible for its rapid spread throughout the country. Six schools of Buddhism, that is, Sanron, Hosso, Jofitsu, Kusha, Ritsu, and Kegon, were introduced one after another. In the reign of the Emperor Kwammu (782-805 A.D.), Tendai and Shingon flourished. New schools such as Jodo, Zen, Shin, Nichiren and others then gradually developed. Through these long periods of its history Buddhism became further divided, owing to differences in the exposition of the doctrines and in the methods of propagation, into many sub-sects. Eleven of the principal sects still in existence are Hosso, Kegon, Ritsu, Tendai, Shingon, Yuzenbutsu, Jodo, Shin, Ji, Zen, and Nichiren; and these eleven are sub-divided into fifty-eight branches. The principal teachings of the eleven Buddhist sects are as follows:

Hosso Sect This sect was introduced into Japan by Doshō (628-700), a Buddhist priest who went to China in 653 and studied its teachings under Hsuan-tsang. The main teachings of Hosso are that all sentient beings find Salvation in accordance with the difference in character and endowments, of which five yanar are to be distinguished, that the doctrinal system of this sect and its scriptural texts are in full correspondence with the truth, that as all things are merely manifestations of pure consciousness, there are no real ego-souls and no real objects, and that the great fruit of Bodhi and Nirvana is attainable in and through the reality of the Middle Path, which is a peculiar combination of realism and idealism.

Kegon Sect Roben (688-776) of Todaiji Temple, Nara, the first propagator of this sect in Japan, learned its doctrines from the Chinese Buddhist priest Doket who visited Japan during the Tempyo Era (729-749). The teachings of this sect are based upon the Kegon Sutra, which says that the ultimate

reason of Suchness is absolute and infinite; the Ultimate and the Manifested are mutually related and intimately intertwined; each Manifestation too is so thoroughly and interminglingly related to another Manifestation that between the two there is no wall of individual separation. The teachings of the sect are, therefore, called the Perfect Doctrine. Those who, in accordance with the doctrine, understand the mystery of the mute evolution of the spiritual cosmos, and who practise goodness and are guarded in their conduct, are sure to attain Buddhahood and to realize the Ultimate Reason. The head-temple of this Sect is Todaiji in the city of Nara.

The term "Shinnyo", or tathatva, which we have translated "Suchness" in the foregoing, is a very comprehensive word, signifying "truth", "reality," or "the first principle of emptiness". The first character, "Shin" means "that which is true without any admixture of error". The second "Nyo", is the same as is usually translated "like". The two taken together have come to mean "the Absolute Itself". There are three main interpretations of it. The doctrine of the Kegon Sect, as one of these interpretations, identifies the absolute and the relative, the noumenal and the phenomenal, asserting that each separate phenomenon, being endowed with the qualities of the Absolute, has unlimited power to produce other phenomena. The doctrine derived from the Kegon Sutra teaches that even a single particle of dust has the manifold, infinite and absolute virtues of all things in the universe, and that so, if a man observes a certain practice, he is at the same time doing all other religious practices.

Ritsu Sect The Ritsu or the Sect of Moral Discipline ("Vinaya" in Sanskrit) was first propagated in Japan by Ganjin (686-763), a Chinese Buddhist priest, who came to Japan during the Tempyo Era (729-749). It obtains its name from the Vinaya-pitaka, according to which its followers strictly regulate their daily conduct. It teaches to observe, as ordered by Buddha, all the precepts ("sila" in Sanskrit) such as the Five Precepts, the Eight Precepts, the Six

Novitiate Precepts, the Ten Precepts, or the Two Hundred and Fifty Precepts. Toshiodaiji in Nara prefecture is the head-temple of this Sect.

Tendai Sect The founder of this sect was Chisha Daishi (537-597) of the Sui Dynasty.

The Japanese priest Saicho (Denkyo Daishi, 766-822) went over to China in the year 782 during the Yenryaku Era, and studied the principles of Tendai there. On his return to Japan, he became the chief exponent of the sect in this country. The teachings of the Tendai Sect are comprised in two divisions, metaphysics and meditation. It critically systematizes in its metaphysical part all the teachings of Sakyamuni, drawing a clear line between what is mere expedient and what really represents the spirit of the founder of Buddhism. As the result Tendai has come to consider Saddharma-pundarika Sutra (the Lotus of the Good Law) the doctrine of Sakyamuni, in which the reason of his appearance on earth is truthfully explained. The meditation part consists in applying our minds to all that is taught in the Sutra and realizing it in our daily practical life. Ten grades are distinguished in the practice of meditation, while its main object is to put a stop to disturbing thoughts and to get enlightened on the principles of the four classes of Buddhist doctrines. The ultimate end of all this is the realization of the mysteries of the Pundarika. When we perceive that the Hidden and the Manifest are of one and the same essence and realize that state of mind which is known to the Buddhas only, we have the central teaching of Tendai, that is we have attained the final enlightenment in which the spiritual and the material are thoroughly unified.

There are three sub-sects or branches in this sect, each of them having its own head-temple. They are: (1) the Tendai Branch, whose head-temple, Yenryakuji, is in Shiga prefecture; (2) the Jimon Branch, which has its head-temple in Onjoji in Shiga prefecture; and (3) the Shinsei Branch, the head-temple of which is Saikyoji in Shiga prefecture.

Shingon Sect The first exponent of this sect in Japan was Kukai (Kobo Daishi, 773-835), who went over to China soon after Saicho, the Japanese founder of Tendai. According to this sect, there are three fundamental conceptions, which are, Substance, Appearance, and Function. The Six Universals—earth, water, fire, air, the void, and consciousness—are Substances. The four systems

of Mandala, that is, Great Mandala, Samaya Mandala, Dharma Mandala, and Karma Mandala, are Appearances. The three Secrets—body, words, and mind—are Functions. The Six Universals are the elemental substances of which all things are constituted. They take Appearances, which, though innumerable, can be classified under four headings. The first is the Great Mandala representing all living beings such as Buddhas, Bodhisattvas, Gods, evil spirits or human beings. The second is the Samaya Mandala which consists in Mudras and symbolic instruments of Buddhas, Bodhisattvas, devas, and spirits. The third is the Dharma Mandala containing all the names or titles of the Buddhas and other beings. The fourth and last one is the Karma Mandala in which are represented all the Functions as well as the outward bodily attitudes assumed by Buddhas and other beings. As the six Universals are infinite and mutually intermingle and are most intimately related, so the four Mandalas are also mutually related and intermingled. That is to say, the Buddhas' four Mandalas are also our own just as they are in the Buddhas, and conversely, our own Mandalas are those of the Buddhas. When the four Mandalas or Appearances are symbolized in our bodies and our fingers are "knotted" after the regular formulas, and the mouth recites the various Mantras and Dharanis, and the mind contemplates the sameness of the mind, Buddha, and all sentient beings, then the Functions of the three Secrets are completed. Let this completion be attained, and we are Buddhas while we are in this material existence.

"Mandala" has a large number of different meanings. It is often applied to concrete objects such as an altar, a platform, a circular plate, a picture, and possibly an image; but it came to have the abstract meaning of "growth", "perfection", or "a complete collection of all virtues."

This sect is sub-divided into eight branches, which are: Koya, Omuro, Dalkakuji, Dalgo, Toji, Yamashina, Ono, and Senyuji.

Three hundred years after the death of Kukai, the Japanese founder of the Shingon Sect, a priest called Kakuban known as Kokyo Daishi (1094-1143), established a new school of Shingon. Under this there are two branches now, one of which is Chizan and other Buzan. The head-temple of the former is Chishaku-in, Kyoto, while that of the latter is Chokokuji (Hasedera), in Nara prefecture.

Yuzu-nembutsu Sect This was found-

ed in 1117 by Ryonin, known as Showa Daishi (1071-1132). Its principal teachings are that as all things are essentially of one nature and intimately related, the virtues of one person must be also those of all others, and conversely; that the merits of the Buddha's name invoked by all earnest hearts will mutually grow, establishing a spiritual communion with one another in a most thorough manner; that therefore the invoking of the Buddha's name and contemplating him, even during this short period of one's earthly life, must bear the great fruit, if it is most sincerely done, of making us all attain to Buddhahood through the perfection of infinite merits.

The head-temple of this sect is Dainembutsuji of Osaka prefecture.

Jodo Sect The founder of this sect was Genku, known as Yenko Daishi or Honen, (1133-1212), and it was established in 1174. The basis of the doctrines of the Jodo Sect is laid upon the original prayers of Amitabha Buddha. Being convinced of the general sinfulness of human nature, which makes us incapable of enduring all the painful process of self-discipline and self-perfection, Jodo teaches us to throw all our reliance upon the strength of the original prayers of Amitabha Buddha. When we thus, absolutely believing in him, invoke his name with all the sincerity of the heart, we shall be born in future in his Pure Land. The head-temple, Chion-in, is in Kyoto.

One of Genku's disciples, called Shoku (1176-1247), established a new separate school at Nishiyama, which is known as the Seizan Branch of Jodo. This branch is again subdivided into three: (1) Zenrinji, its head-temple bearing the same title, is in Kyoto prefecture; (2) Komyoji; and (3) Fukakusa, Seigwanji, Kyoto, is its head-temple.

Shin Sect Shinran (1173-1262), who is known as Kenshin Daishi, founded the Shin Sect. He was a disciple of Genku, and the main doctrines do not vary so very much from those of his master except in this: that we, the ignorant, have no real existence, and however strenuously we may exert ourselves, we have no "causal germ" in us which will develop into Buddhahood. The priests of the sect can marry and eat flesh. The original prayers of Amitabha in which the invocation of the Buddha's name is highly recommended, testify that the causal germ of Buddhahood, by virtue of the efficiency of the prayers, will be planted in us, which means that all that is necessary for us to be reborn in the Pure Land of Ami-

tabha is now sufficient and fulfilled.

There are at present ten branches of the Shin Sect: Hongwanji, Otani, Bukkoji, Takata, Kibe, Kosho, Idzumi, Yamamoto, Seishoji, and Sammonto.

Ji Sect This was first promulgated by Ippen (1239-1289). The principal ideas of the sect are: Life is a frail and impermanent thing, and as every moment of it flits away, every act of ours must be regarded as the last one on earth. When, perceiving the truth of this fact, we do not neglect in every thought of ours to invoke the name of the Amitabha Buddha, we shall surely reach the final blissful state of Buddhahood.

The head-temple, Shojokoji, is in Kanagawa prefecture.

Zen Sect Under this name three sects are comprised: Rinzai, Soto, and Obaku.

The Rinzai Sect of Zen was first taught by Yelsai (1140-1215) who came back from China in 1192. Soto finds its first Japanese exponent in Dogen (known as Joyo Daishi, 1199-1253) who studied Zen in China during the Sung Dynasty and returned to Japan in 1234. Obaku was introduced to Japan by a naturalized Chinese priest Yin-gen (1592-1673) in 1653.

The Zen Sect teaches the doctrine which is known only to the Buddhas and the transmission of which takes place only from one mind to another. It transcends logic and objective understanding. We do not have to purify ourselves from sins, nor is it necessary to seek after supreme knowledge. The ultimate truth is not in more learning, thinking, or in discipline. It is above doctrines and meritorious deeds, and also above any special attainment. Zen teaches us to abide right in the truth and reality of life, every act of which will then reveal thousands of Samadhis. Whether lying or sleeping, whether drawing water or hewing wood, every movement grows full of significance. That is why Zen sums up its teachings in the following four phrases: "No reliance on word or letter; a special transmission outside of the scriptural doctrines; a direct pointing at the soul of man; and attainment to Buddhahood by seeing into one's own mind."

There are fourteen branches in the Rinzai Sect: Kenninji, Kenchoji, Tofukoji, Engakuji, Nanzenji, Daitokuji, Myoshinji, Tenryuji, Yei-genji, Shokokuji, Hokoji, Buttsuji, Kokutaiji, and Kogakuji. The Soto Sect has two head-temples, Yeiheiji, and Sojiji. Obaku is undivided, and its head-temple is Mam-pukoji, Uji, Kyoto prefecture.

Nichiren Sect This was founded by

Nichiren (1222-1281) on the merits of the Saddharma-pundarika Sutra. The life of the Sect is in the seven syllables of "Na-mu-myo-ho-ren-ge-kyo," which is called "Daimoku," of a kind of theme. As this is the title of the Sutra revealing the absolute oneness of all opposites, even evil-hearted ones will attain to Buddhahood if they recite it in sincerity, and along with it all the ten universes will be equally benefited.

This sect is sub-divided into nine branches: (1) Nichiren-shu (the head-temple, Kuonji, is in Yamanashi prefecture); (2) Honmon-shu, (Honmonji at Ikegami, Tokyo, and six other temples in Shizuoka prefecture are its head-temples); (3) Hokke-shu, (its head-temple, Honjoji, is in Niigata prefecture); (4) Kempon-hokke-shu, (Kochoji and four others in Shizuoka prefecture are its head-temples); (5) Honmyo-hokke-shu, (its head-temple is Honryuji, Kyoto); (6) Nichiren-seishu, (its head-temple is Daisekiji in Shizuoka prefecture); (7) Nichiren-shu-fujufuse-ha, (its head-temple is Myokakuji in Okayama prefecture); and (8) Nichiren-shu-fujufuse-komon-ha, (the head-temple, Honkakuji, is also in Okayama prefecture).

Christianity

Before the Restoration Christianity was first introduced into Japan by Francis Xavier, a Jesuit Father, who came to Kagoshima in 1549. This was the time when Nobunaga Oda was at the height of his power, and he gave great encouragement to the spread of the Christian religion. Hideyoshi Toyotomi, his successor, too, was kindly disposed towards it. Combined with the devout and untiring work of the missionaries, this attitude on the part of the authorities made it possible for Christianity to gain followers with wonderful rapidity. Their number is reported to have run into hundreds of thousands.

Hideyoshi, however, changed his policy later on. Christianity was interdicted, its followers were persecuted, and the missionaries had to leave the country. When the Tokugawa Shogunate was established, still stricter measures were adopted, especially after the Shimabara Rebellion in 1637. Christianity had now no hope of prospering under the rigorous Government policy of exclusion. The only port open to foreigners was Deshima, Nagasaki, where the Dutch traders were allowed to carry on their business.

The American envoy, Commodore Perry, came to Uraga in 1853, demanding a

friendly commercial treaty with his country. The Shogunate Government granted this request in 1854 not only to America, but to Russia, England, France and Holland, and in the year following the three ports of Kanagawa, Nagasaki, and Hakodate were opened to foreign trade. A party of American missionaries were the first to avail themselves of the opportunity thus offered to them. Among them were the Rev. J. Liggins, of the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States of America, and the Rev. M. C. Williams, who came to Nagasaki in 1859. These were soon followed by Dr. G. F. Verbeck, of the Presbyterian Church (1859), and J. Goble, of the American Baptist Missionary Society (1860), and others. In 1864, the Rev. J. H. Ballagh, of the Dutch Reformed Church, came from America, and in the following year came Dr. Thompson, of the American Presbyterian Church.

In 1869, the Rev. D. C. Greene made Kobe the basis of his mission work representing the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. The first woman missionary, Miss Kidder, of the Dutch Reformed Church, arrived here in the same year. In 1873, the American Methodist Episcopal Church and the Canadian Methodist Church sent their missionaries, and in 1876 the Evangelical Association of North America started its propaganda work.

The Restoration When the Tokugawa feudal system collapsed and the Imperial House was restored to power, the edicts prohibiting "Kirishitan" were withdrawn, in the sixth year of Meiji (1873), and missionaries were officially permitted to establish schools, publish religious tracts, and preach their doctrines in all the sea-ports open for foreign trade. In 1872, the Rev. Brown and Rev. Ballagh of Yokohama established, aided by their young followers, a Christian church to be known as the Yokohama Yaso Kyokai, which was the beginning of the Union Church. In the following year a sister church was organized at Tsukiji, Tokyo. This was the first Christian church in the metropolis. In 1876 Nagasaki saw another church established. Later all these churches were federated under the name of the United Church of Christ in Japan. This was the origin of the Nihon Kirisuto Kyokai. The Rev. D. C. Greene who started his mission work in Kobe established a church known as the Settsu First Christian Church. This was the first Congregational Church ever organized in Japan, and developed into the present Kobe Kuniai Kirisuto Kyo-

kal. In the same year the Umemoto-Cho Church came into existence in Osaka, which later came to be called the Osaka Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. Some time before this, thirty-five students of the Kumamoto Foreign School, who were converted to Christianity under the influence of their American teacher, Captain Janes, came up to Kyoto, and entered the Doshisha College just established by J. H. Neeshima, who had lately returned from America. After their graduation from the college they grew active as propagators of Christianity, and built up the foundations of the Nihon Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. In 1872, the Rev. Loomis and Rev. Ballagh conducted a Bible class for young men in the above-mentioned Church at Yokohama every Sunday afternoon. In 1873, a Congregational Missionary, Dr. Berry, set up in Kobé a Sunday-school, probably the first one conducted in the Japanese language. As to the vernacular translation of the Bible, in which Dr. Brown had been engaged for some time, the work progressed rapidly early in the Meiji Era, and the New Testament was completed in December, 1879, and the Old Testament in 1886. The chief translators were Brown, Verbeck, Greene, and Maclay, while among the native assistants were Takakichi Matsuyama, Masatsuna Okuno, Masahisa Ujemura, Kajinosuké Ibuka, Goro Takahashi, and others.

Y. M. C. A. In 1880, the Young Men's Christian Association was first organized in Tokyo, and among the leaders must be mentioned Hiromichi Kozaki, Kajinosuké Ibuka, Masahisa Ujemura, and Yoshiyasu Hiraiwa.

In 1870, Miss Kidder opened a school for girls in Yokohama. This was the first institution of the kind in Japan, and from it developed the present Ferris School for Girls. Four years later another girls' school, Kobé Jo Gakuin, was erected in Kobé by the Congregationalists.

According to the statistics of 1882, there were in that year 145 foreign missionaries, 93 organized churches, 13 of which were self-supporting, 4,367 adult members, 39 mixed schools, 15 girls' schools, 9 middle schools, 7 theological colleges, 109 Sunday-schools, 49 ordained preachers, 100 assistant preachers, 37 Bible women, and 5 hospitals.

In 1883, the Church of Christ sent missionaries to Japan, and in 1885 the Presbyterian Church of the United States of America did the same. The American Society of Friends, and the Evangelical Protestant Missionary Society of Germany and Switzerland also des-

patched their agents. In 1886, missionaries came from the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and in Osaka a hall was set up for the Young Men's Christian Association. In 1887 the missionaries and representatives of the Episcopal Church of England and America had a conference, the result of which was the organization of the Holy Catholic Church of Japan. In the same year, the American Unitarian Association sent its representative, the Rev. A. M. Knapp, and following him came the Rev. Clay McCauley.

Freedom of Faith On February 11, 1889, the Constitution was promulgated, and freedom of faith was definitely guaranteed by Article XXVIII. In that year, L. D. Wishard, International College Secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association, came, and planned out a summer school for Bible study for the first time in this country. Since then every summer sees its work carried on. The United Church of Christ in Japan changed its name into the Church of Christ in Japan, compiled a fundamental law, settled on its creeds, and at last became an independent organization. Soon after, they put up a Board of Missions and made progress towards financial independence.

In 1890, the Universalist General Convention of America sent its missionaries. In 1895 officers of the Salvation Army came, and Gumpel Yamamuro joined it, and they at once started on their propaganda work. In the same year, the United Brethren in Christ started a mission.

Until 1901 the foreign missionaries, had not been allowed to hold land in Japan, which greatly inconvenienced their activities. In that year the Home Minister gave permission to the Baptist Missionary Society in Japan to organize a corporation which could hold and manage lands and buildings for missionary purposes.

In 1905 the Japanese Congregationalists planned to be financially independent of the foreign mission by the end of this year; in this they were later successful.

In 1907 representatives of the Methodist Church of Canada, the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and the Methodist Episcopal Church convened in Tokyo with a view to effect a confederation of the three denominations in Japan. The First General Conference of the Methodist Church of Japan thus took place, and Yoichi Honda was chosen to be its first Bishop and was duly consecrated. In the same year F. L. Brown, of the International Sunday School As-

sociation, arrived and the outcome of this visit was the organization of the Sunday School Association of Japan, marking an epoch in the history of the Sunday School of the Christian Church. The conference of the World's Student Christian Federation was also held this year in Tokyo, in which 160 foreign visitors took part representing twenty-five nations. This was the first world's convention of any kind in Japan.

Roman and Greek Churches. The Catholic Church has been active ever since the opening of the seaports for foreign trade. Missionaries from the Société des Missions Étrangères in Paris are working all over the country, which is now divided by them into seven districts: Tokyo, Osaka, Hakodate, Nagasaki, Shikoku, Niigata, and Sapporo, with a Bishop resident in Tokyo. In Shikoku there is a Spanish Dominican mission, while in Hokkaido the Franciscans have found their principal fields of activity, where are two Trappist monasteries. The Jesuit missionaries reached here again in 1908, but instead of following up their predecessors' work, they have now a college established in Tokyo and concentrate their efforts on education. Besides the Jesuits, those that are chiefly engaged in educational work are the Missionnaires de Marie, Société des Secours de Saint Paul, Société de Sacré Coeur and others. In the prefecture of Nagasaki, Catholics, who have been at work for the last three hundred years, though secretly, are still in the ascendancy.

The activities of the Greek Church centered in the person of the Russian priest Father Nicolai, who came to Japan first as priest attached to the Russian consulate in Hokkaido in 1859. He reached Japan after crossing Siberia, and after settling in Hakodate he baptized Takuma Sawabé and two other Japanese. In 1872 he came to Tokyo where he began missionary work. In 1884 he started to build a fine large church in Tokyo, which was completed in 1891. The church was regarded at that time as the greatest and finest building of the sort throughout Japan. The internal disturbances in Russia which followed the great world war made it very difficult to maintain this beautiful edifice, until in 1919 the followers succeeded in organizing an independent church known by the name of the "Orthodox Church of Christ in Japan."

Islam

Among the world religions Islam has given the smallest influence over the

Japanese people. The Koran was translated into Japanese early in the Meiji Era (1863-1912), but the faith could not obtain many adherents, simply because it did not come to Japan with any political or economic elements accompanied. Islam is not yet officially recognized by the Japanese Government and the number of the Islamites in Japan is unknown, although it is believed that there are several hundreds of them in the land.

In August, 1937, the Islam Cultural Association was organized in Tokyo. Its president is Ryusaku Endo, and it issues a magazine "Islam" for the promotion of Islam culture in Japan. A mosque was built in Tokyo, early in 1938, by the hand of the Japanese Islamites. The friendly attitude of the Islamites in China and Islam countries toward Japan since the occurrence of the Sino-Japanese Conflict in 1937 has aroused a general sympathy and interests of the Japanese people on the religion and its believers.

State Regulation of Religions

Supervising Office A wholesale change of the governmental system took place at the time of the Restoration, and in the third year of Meiji (1870) the Mim-busho was established to take care of various affairs of the state, such as general home affairs, communications, etc. In the fourth year, this office was abolished, and the office of religious affairs was transferred to the Finance Department. With the establishment of the Kyobusho, or Department of Religions, in 1872, the shrines and temples were placed under the care of the new office. Then the Government appointed Shinto and Buddhist priests as official religious instructors who were to preach and educate the people according to the moral principles as follows: (1) to cherish reverence for the gods and the spirit of patriotism; (2) to elucidate Heavenly Reason and the principle of humanity; and (3) to honour and pay homage to the Emperor and to observe the Imperial ordinances. Afterwards the Kyobusho was abolished too, and all the business conducted by this office up to that time was transferred to the Department of Home Affairs which was established in 1873. The official appointment of religious instructors (Kyodo-shoku) was discontinued in 1884, and the business of appointing preachers was entrusted to the head-priests (Kwancho) of the various religious sects, together with the right of selecting the resident priest (Jushoku) for the temples under their jurisdiction.

Each sect was, moreover, given the power of managing its own affairs under the supervision of the Government. Religion was thus separated from politics. With the promulgation of the Constitution on the 11th of February in the 22nd year of Meiji (1889), the principle of religious freedom was firmly established. In April, 1900, the former Bureau of Shrines and Temples was divided into two sections, i.e., the Bureau of Shinto Shrines and the Bureau of Religions. All administrative policy concerning the Shinto Shrines is now in charge of the former and is entirely independent of the policy governing religions. The Bureau of Religions was transferred to the Education Department in 1913, and is under its jurisdiction at present.

Administration of Religions At present, there are three kinds of religions in Japan. These religions are dealt with by the Government each in a different way, because Japan is still without specific laws defining the political status of these religions in connection with the State, though the principle of the administrative policy can recognize no such difference, as the Constitution guarantees freedom of faith. The Government, however, finds it natural not to mete out a uniform method of supervision over all these religions; for Buddhism, which has been in very close relation to the State and society for over one thousand years, and Shinto, which is the national cult of Japan, and Christianity, which was introduced to this country only half a century ago (putting aside the fact that it was once in this country a few centuries ago) can hardly be treated in a uniform method with satisfactory results.

From a practical point of view, the religious denominations or sects which are officially recognized and come under the proper jurisdiction of the Bureau of Religions at present are Shinto and Buddhism. A religious order is a congregation of preachers and adherents following a definite system of creeds having temples or preaching halls from which their religious movements issue. Shinto and Buddhist sects have not yet special regulations concerning cases of secession or incorporation, inasmuch as they are not allowed to make such regulations without the approval of the Education Minister. But affairs concerning the inner policy of the various sects are generally left to their own self-government, though the religious sects concerned are required by the State to compile fundamental rules defining their administrative policies ap-

provable by the Education Minister.

Alteration of Rules The approval of the Education Minister is also required when they abolish or alter these rules. Each sect, Shinto or Buddhist, is required by the Government to select a head-priest, or Kwanchō to govern and represent that sect. The appointment of a head-priest also requires official approval. In the compilation of a constitution for each sect they have to define the following particulars: (1) the fundamental law, (2) the status of the preacher and his official title, and (3) the grades of preachers and their appointment and dismissal. These particulars are to be regulated by each Shinto head-priest. Meantime, each Buddhist head-priest is to regulate the following particulars: (1) the fundamental law, (2) rules concerning the management of temples, (3) the status of the priest and preacher and their official titles, (4) the appointment and dismissal of the resident priest, or Jushoku, of a temple, and grades of preachers, and their appointment and dismissal, and (5) the preservation of old historical documents, treasures, and properties belonging to the temples.

Besides thus defining the particulars as stated above, the constitution of each sect has to regulate, through practical necessity, various affairs concerning its self-government. It must define, for instance, the functions and powers of the head-priest and the method of election; the organization and power of the council; functions of various officers; financial affairs; organization of a temple or a preaching hall; qualifications of a resident priest; affairs relating to the personnel, such as conferring honours or giving punishments; missionary work; education; and other functional activities.

While all the Shinto and Buddhist sects are thus placed under the direct supervision of the Government as far as such fundamental affairs as are mentioned above are concerned, they are left to the care of the local governments concerning the practical functionings of their propaganda work. When the Shintoists or Buddhists want to build their temples or preaching halls, for instance, they must approach the local governments for permission. As Buddhist temples are, on account of their historical significance, regarded as legal persons, the use of the temple grounds, changes in their acreage, cutting down of the trees, and disposition of immovable property, temple treasures, historical documents, or fundamental funds, etc. all require the ap-

proval of the local governor concerned.

Special Treatment of Christianity The Government gives no official recognition as regards the Christian denominations, because they, as such, stand in no legal relationship to the Government. In the case of Christianity, therefore, the official supervision does not go further than looking after its missionary activities, selection of preachers, establishment of churches or preaching halls, etc. The Ordinance No. 41 of the Education Office issued in 1899 requires that those who wish to engage in missionary work notify the local governor of the name of their religion and methods of preaching, with their personal history. When they want to build churches or other establishments for religious purposes, they have to approach the local authorities for permission, stating details of these establishments, methods of management and maintenance, qualifications of the preacher, and the process of selecting such preacher. In other words, the Government has special provisions for the Shinto and Buddhist denominations because of their peculiar historical status, while it is contented with being a mere overseer as regards Christianity. As far as their religious functions are concerned, however, the Government makes no distinction whatever between Shinto and Buddhism and Christianity. All religious sects are left to themselves unmolested as long as they do not disturb the peace of the country or practise immorality in connection with the propagation of their doctrines and the carrying out of their respective religious rituals.

New Religious Law

The bill for Control of Religious Organizations (Shūkyō Dantai Hōan) which was presented and approved by the 74th session of the Imperial Diet was framed on the basis of the summary draft of a measure adopted and submitted to the Cabinet by the Commission for the Investigation of Religious Systems after deliberations lasting from November 14 to December 10, 1938. This bill is comparatively simple in form and consists of 37 articles.

The enactment of a comprehensive law applying to religions has long been an issue in Japan. Bills were submitted to the Diet three times after 1899, but were shelved each time for varying reasons.

The importance of religion becomes heightened in time of national emergency. In Japan today it has been realized that some fixed regulations

should be established for the protection and promotion of religious organizations. Essentially, religion is spiritual or ultramundane and is therefore extralegal. But inasmuch as religious teachers in Japan are Japanese subjects and religious organizations enjoy existence under protection of the law, specific legislation pertaining to them is inevitable and necessary for promoting, however indirectly, their healthy activities.

Existing ordinances relating to religions are diversified and lack uniformity. They consist of various ordinances, instructions and orders of different governmental departments, numbering more than 300, issued from the beginning of the Meiji Era. Their effect has been to impair the administrative and other activities of the religious organizations themselves. The present trend of national affairs suggests not only the need of legal unification of these separate regulations but also that of issuance of a new and complete law in order to prepare the way for the development of religious orders of sound character, which actually make contributions toward national life by protecting and extending assistance to the people. There is also the need of supervising the possible conduct of unhealthy doctrines detrimental to public welfare and peace.

Essential Points 1. The new law is to be applied to both religious organizations and religious societies. A religious organization (Shūkyō Dantai) is understood to be an association of believers organized for the purpose of advocating a religious faith and of conducting rituals; its establishment is recognized by the Minister concerned or by the Prefectural Governor according to specific regulations provided in the law. A religious society (Shūkyō Kessha) is understood to be an organization of believers organized similarly for the purpose of advocating a faith and of conducting rituals, but which is not considered by the State as coming under the category of a religious organization. As a matter of fact, the religious society is a new name for bodies hitherto known as "groups of believers in a faith analogous to a religion" (Ruiji-Shūkyō Dantai).

2. The proposed law groups all religious bodies into five classifications: Shinto sects (Kyōha), Buddhist denominations (Shūha), Christian and other religious organizations (Kyodan), temples, and churches. Actually, the first

three of these include the latter two.

In regard to Shinto sects and Buddhist denominations, there has existed a basic law, however incomplete it may have been, known as Ordinance No. 19 of the Dajōkwan (predecessor of the present Cabinet) issued in 1884. Christian churches and other religious organizations have been left untouched, placed outside the purview of the Ordinance. The proposed law, therefore, includes them as religious organizations similar to Shinto sects or Buddhist denominations.

In principle, Shinto, Buddhism and Christianity are to be treated equally in accordance with the terms of the law. They have, however, different historical and social backgrounds. Accordingly, the law gives separate names to these religious bodies (the above-listed Shinto sects, Buddhist denominations and religious organizations belonging to Christianity and other faiths) to place a certain demarcation between them. However, in contrast to the old regulations which spoke of the religion "other than Shintoism and Buddhism," the new law names Christianity as a religious organization.

3. Establishment of the religious organizations prescribed in the law must obtain official recognition of the competent Minister in the case of the first three groups mentioned in Paragraph 2, or that of the Prefectural Governor in the case of individual temples or churches. Official recognition shall be given only to those organizations that have good traditions and stand on sound foundations, spiritual and material, and make laudable contributions to the nation and to society. The State undertakes to give protection and award special privileges to the religious organizations thus recognized.

According to the proposed law, for example, (1) the privilege of exemption from the income tax, which was hitherto enjoyed only by Buddhist temples, shall be extended to all other religious organizations; (2) the land tax shall not be levied, in principle, on the precincts of temples and churches; (3) the local surtaxes shall not be levied on the income of religious organizations as well as similar taxes on the precincts or buildings of temples and churches which are already exempted; (4) the privilege of being exempt from registration fees shall be extended to the registration of the precincts and buildings of temples and churches; and (5) attachments on the buildings or

their lots which are used for public worship by the organizations and on the treasures of temples and churches are, in principle, prohibited.

4. As to protection, the special provisions included in the new law for the creation of a juridical person by the religious organizations provides for a new method of protection.

At present Buddhist temples only are allowed to create such legal persons, although the provisions pertaining to legal persons in the civil code have rarely been applied to them. No regulation exists for the creation of a juridical person by either Shinto sects or Buddhist denominations or Christian organizations.

The new law prescribes that Buddhist temples shall be juridical persons, and that Shinto sects, Buddhist denominations, Christian and other religious organizations and churches may be juridical persons. The law also contains many other provisions relative to this matter. With legal entity thus established, the organizations may be able to solve many of their financial problems and function in a less involved manner.

5. When they meet with bankruptcy, the religious legal bodies are to be dissolved just as secular corporations are, according to the law. But the dissolution of religious organizations merely on account of financial insolvency or acquirement of heavy debts, without taking into account their spiritual aims, origin, history, traditions and existing status, may appear unreasonable.

Accordingly, the proposed law, which may order dissolution of a religious organization, makes a series of special provisions to ameliorate this situation. In case the organization becomes bankrupt, (1) the State may leave it as a recognized religious organization for the time being; (2) the competent Minister may cancel his recognition as such when he comes to the conclusion that the organization cannot be saved by any means; and (3) with the cancellation of recognition, dissolution may take effect.

These provisions may be described as legal grace granted to religious organizations in recognition of their spiritual nature. Application of legal measures against a spiritual body only for secular reasons is contrary to the spirit of the new legislation.

6. The new law states that "the representatives (Sōdai) of the laymen shall assist the head monk or the super-

intendent of a temple or church in matters of administration." Formerly, the relations between spiritual leaders and the representatives of the believers were very harmonious and the latter were proud of being "great supporters" or "secular protectors" of the spiritual institutions and willingly lent their services to them. But the recent trend in and out of Buddhist temples demonstrates that this custom is on the wane. The insertion of this provision in the new law is aimed at the sound management of secular affairs indispensable to the existence of temples or churches. Harmony between a temple and its parishioners, in particular, is indispensable for the effective management of temple affairs and at the same time may give a spiritual basis to the dealings of members of communities among themselves.

7. The important protective measures and privileges given to religious organizations by the law, as outlined in foregoing paragraphs, are to be extended only to religious organizations and not to religious societies, as defined in Paragraph 1.

Application for establishment of a religious society must be made by a proper representative to the Prefectural Governor within two weeks of the founding. Neglect in this regard or the presentation of a false report is punishable by fine.

In regard to the formation of new religions or quasi-religious cults, this has hitherto been placed under the jurisdiction of the police. But in view of the present state of ideological affairs, the new law assumes partial jurisdiction and applies to such religions those regulations concerning application for recognition and other conditions specially prescribed for the supervision of the religious societies, with the purpose of halting the unworthy ones in the bud or fostering the worthy ones to healthy growth. According to the provisions of the proposed law, a way is opened to the religious societies to advance to the status of religious organizations.

The inclusion of these societies in the Law for Control of Religious Organizations may be criticized as incongruous. But it is a matter of no little importance in encouraging the general growth of religions that the law gives them a place side by side the major religious organizations defined in Paragraph 2 and affords them the opportunity of raising their status.

8. The new law includes many reg-

ulations for supervision over religious organizations and societies, but reference here shall be limited only to those which have relation to Article 28 of the Constitution of the Japanese Empire.

Article 28 states: "Japanese subjects shall, within limits not prejudicial to peace and order, and not antagonistic to their duties as subjects, enjoy freedom of religious belief." Thus, although the Government has been empowered to resort to any means of restraining against the deeds of religious believers prejudicial to peace and order and antagonistic to their duties as subjects, no special regulations have been enforced to this effect.

The new law provides measures of restraint against religious preaching, rituals or conducts contrary to the prohibition clauses of Article 28 of the Constitution, giving the competent Minister power to cancel the official recognition of the establishment of religious organizations.

9. According to the provisions of the new law, religious groups may appeal to or sue the courts for redress against unreasonable decisions on the part of supervising authorities. This is a new feature in religious regulations in Japan. Where (1) the recognition of the establishment of the religious body is cancelled; where (2) preaching, rituals or other religious functions are restricted or prohibited as prejudicial to peace and order and antagonistic to the duties of the members as subjects of the Empire; and where (3) their conducts are ordered to cease or are prohibited as detrimental to public welfare, the aggrieved group or individual in the group may appeal for redress. Religious organizations who feel that their rights have been injured by the alleged unlawful cancellation of recognition or establishment may appeal to the Court of Administrative Litigation.

10. After legal organization of the religious organizations is completed and their finances are stabilized according to the law, the greatest problem connected with their activities is the human problem of obtaining the fittest persons for preaching and execution of rituals so that their faiths may be spread among the people and their organizations gain spiritual influence in society. The ability of these ecclesiastical leaders (the new law designates them as "teachers") bears direct consequence on the success of the religious organizations.

The new law, however, includes no

provision for fixing the qualifications of the religious teachers and leaves the matter to the private regulations of the different bodies themselves, not from any neglect of the importance of the problem but to avoid possible friction with the traditional usages of different bodies which have their own individual standards, differing from those of other groups in doctrines, creeds, history and traditions. Any unification of such qualifications throughout different religious bodies may be considered an interference with their free religious activities and might, in the

end, "kill the bull to strengthen its horns," as a Chinese proverb relates.

Many other important matters exist which the new law leaves untouched solely because the State wishes to respect the self-government of each religious organization and to refrain from bringing different religious bodies under a single sweeping standardization.

Religious Statistics

The following are the statistics of preaching halls, preachers and adherents of various religious sects and denominations:

SECTARIAN SHINTO IN JAPAN PROPER

(End of 1936)

Denomination	Preaching Halls	Preachers		Total	Adherents (in 1930)
		Men	Women		
Shinto	623	3,952	810	4,762	1,206,778
Kurozumi	451	3,606	502	4,108	551,236
Shusei	222	1,864	331	2,195	411,801
Taisha	208	2,970	97	3,067	3,343,477
Fuso	600	4,035	1,376	5,411	486,906
Jikko	257	1,966	668	2,634	403,519
Taisei	206	2,131	536	2,667	728,373
Shinshu	321	1,860	753	2,613	2,039,381
Ontaké	836	5,379	2,289	8,028	738,647
Shinri	336	1,629	336	1,965	1,412,332
Misogi	35	1,306	187	1,493	337,283
Konko	1,253	2,270	1,044	3,314	747,869
Tenri	10,909	47,245	35,575	82,620	4,118,238
Total	16,257	80,573	44,304	124,877	16,525,840

Note: The "kancho" or the executive head of each denomination is not included in the number of preachers.

BUDDHISM

(End of 1936)

Denomination	Temples	Priests		Total	Adherents (in 1930)
		Men	Women		
Tendai	4,438	2,851	84	2,935	2,134,369
Shingon	12,000	8,079	70	8,149	8,526,867
Jodo	8,234	6,363	375	6,738	3,997,875
Rinzai	5,978	4,230	320	4,550	2,367,977
Soto	14,351	11,879	331	12,210	6,859,324
Obaku	501	369	15	384	111,841
Shin	19,823	15,966	3	15,969	13,259,390
Nichiren	5,028	4,312	46	4,358	3,315,359
Ji	494	354	0	354	383,171
Yuzunenbutsu	354	234	10	244	133,493
Hosso	42	19	1	20	14,772
Kegon	33	19	0	19	22,869
Total including others	71,326	54,675	1,255	55,930	41,127,307

Note: There were 35,308 minor temples and 7,753 preaching places in addition to the number given above.

CHRISTIANITY

PROTESTANT CHURCHES

(End of 1937)

	Churches and chapels	Preachers	Believers
Presbyterian	482	602	54,197
Congregationalist	325	197	32,860
Episcopal	302	457	28,859
Baptist	82	99	7,433
Methodist	517	557	37,976
Holiness	360	245	13,180
Other 20 denominations	1,003	718	41,323
Total	3,071	2,875	215,828

Number Teachers Pupils

S. S.	2,807	11,724	171,352
Seminaries	13	176	467
Colleges	27	1,366	10,569
Middle and Girls High Schools	52	1,749	32,943
Elementary schools	4	49	674
Kindergartens	646	—	—

Students

GREEK CHURCH

(June, 1938)

Churches	184
Believers	40,953
Priests and monks	61
S. S. pupils	715

SALVATION ARMY

(End of 1938)

Officers and cadets	461
Senior local officers	1,296
Junior soldiers	5,489
S. S. pupils	8,535
Corps	310
Soldiers participated in campaigns	40,248
Home Leagues	2,592
Social work institutions	27

Y. M. C. A.

(End of 1936)

Associations	179
Members	11,336
Officials	38
Buildings	22

ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH

(End of 1937)

Parishes and chapels	392	Orphanages	27
Priests and monks	639	Old people's homes	7
Sisters	1,152	Hospitals and Sanatoria	15
Believers	111,857	Leper asylums	2
University	1	Students	631
Middle Schools	7	Pupils	3,816
Girls' High Schools	24	"	8,413
Other schools	31	"	5,316
Sunday Schools	104	"	6,198

CHAPTER XXX

SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND SOCIAL WORKS

Social Problems

These may in the main be summarized under 8 headings:

(1) Poverty and Its Relief. In Japan the gap between rich and poor may not be quite so great as in some Western countries, but nevertheless it exists, and tends in some ways to become greater with the industrialization of the country. Poor-relief is one of the greatest problems of the authorities, for it must include the city slums, the beggars, and the increasing number of peasant paupers. In March, 1936, the number of the poor listed as coming under the poor relief protection law was 2,207,764 or 3.1 per cent of the total population in Japan proper.

(2) Condition of Labourers. This, with the attendant matters of pay and hours, especially in relation to international labour conferences and agreements, calls for careful Government handling: the protection of child and woman labour particularly so. Labour conditions in 1936 and 1937 improved in a considerable degree because of the expansion of the heavy industries.

(3) Position of Women. The protection of women and the elevation of their social and legal status is in some ways especially an Oriental problem. Socially their position has been much raised of late years, so that it now approximates nearly to that of men; but the old discriminative laws enacted in the Meiji Era still handicap women in many respects. In regard to the age-old question of licensed prostitution the Government is planning the entire abolition of the system within a year or so, and statistics show a slight decrease in the last few years, largely owing to the increase in the number of other places of entertainments.

(4) Public Health. In a country which carries such a dense population this is a matter of vital importance. Medical science in Japan is second to none in the world with regard to its recent progress and present position, her doctors and surgeons having made contributions of inestimable value to mankind, and in some cases paid for them with their lives. But difficulties attend its application. The cost of treatment

and of drugs and chemicals is high, and suggestions have been made for the nationalization of all medical business in order to help the poor. In January, 1938, a new Ministry of Health and Social Affairs was established for the purpose of improving the health conditions of the people.

(5) Thought Guidance. The guidance of the people's thought through the eddying turmoil of modern ideas and theories, from Marxism to Fascism with all intermediate shades, and the handling of practical matters connected therewith, are of the very gravest concern to this country, and are engaging the deepest attention of the authorities. The final settlement of these matters must be largely dependent on that of the preceding problems, though some consider that more radical and direct action is necessary for its attainment than merely so-called social work. But inasmuch as most of these movements, radical or reactionary, include schemes for the sudden overthrow of the existing social system, neither the Government nor the people at large can regard them with unconcern.

(6) Extraordinary Social Problems (A) Change of Occupation. As a result of the enforcement of the plan for mobilization of materials in connection with the China Affair, considerable numbers of merchants and manufacturers have been forced to suspend or close their businesses, or to curtail business operations. Such industrialists and tradespeople have to be helped to tide over the emergency by entering war-supplies industries and such other trades as are calculated to remove anxiety and unrest.

(B) Care of Wounded Soldiers. Another grave problem arising out of the armed conflict with China is the care of wounded soldiers. The authorities and the people are doing their best for the protection and care of soldiers disabled by injuries or by illness. Mentions are given on these extraordinary problems at the end of this chapter, together with the store law newly instituted for the health and hygiene of employees in shops.

The fourth problem, relating to Public Health, is specially treated in Chapter

XXXII, while further reference is made to the others in the chapter on Labour.

Social Work

Before Meiji Era Prince Shotoku, Regent, established, in 593, Hidenin (a house for the poor), Sheyakuin (a medicine house for the poor) and Ryobyoin (a house for the sick). In 730 the Empress Komyo founded Hidenin and Sheyakuin at Nara. She herself washed the bodies of the poor and nursed the lepers.

Among the many benevolent works which he did at places where he stayed during an evangelistic journey through the country, Gyoki, a Buddhist monk who lived at the time of the Emperor Shomu (724-749), established 9 public lodging houses and a public bath-house at Arima hot spring near Kobe.

Hokin-in, a Buddhist nun and sister of Wake-no Kiyomaro, a famous loyalist, made an appeal for, saved, and took under her care 375 rebels who were sentenced to death in 764. When a little later, at the end of the 8th century, famine struck Kyoto and children were abandoned on the streets she gathered 83 under her motherly care. This was the beginning of orphanages in Japan. Her example was followed by the Empress Masako, consort of the Emperor Junna (823-833), who took care of many orphans and abandoned children in Kyoto, and established in 876 a leper asylum in the precincts of Daikakuji temple, Kyoto.

In 1180 Jugen, a monk, built 15 public bath-houses for the poor. Kosho, another Buddhist monk, worked for prisoners, taught beggars and outcasts to refrain from drinking, and instructed prostitutes in the doctrines of Buddhism.

The monk Ninsho of Seldaji temple, Nara, followed the example of Prince Shotoku and repaired houses for poor patients and lepers. For lepers he built an asylum which is still standing at Kitayama, Nara, and is under Government protection as a specimen of social work of early times. Later he became the superior of Gokurakuji temple at Kamakura and established, in 1287, an asylum for the poor. In the following 20 years the asylum accommodated over 57,250 patients, of whom over 46,800 were cured. At the foot of Kamakura hill he also built a house for sick horses.

Public baths for the poor were prevalent in the Kamakura Age (1192-1337). It was during this period that nunneries were first opened for the protection of women who were maltreated by their husbands, somewhat in the manner of the six cities for refuge mentioned in the

Old Testament, Numbers, chap. 35. Two of these have remained to the present day: one, Tokelji at Kamakura which was rebuilt in 1285 by Sadatoki Hojo for his mother; the other, Mantokuji in the country of Nitta, Gumma prefecture, which in the year 1591 was to accommodate a daughter of the Tokugawa. These nunneries were highly admired since some of the nuns came from the high warrior class and could stand against local authorities in protecting the weaker sex who took refuge in the nunneries. They became known as Enkiridera or divorce temples.

In 1670 Tsunanori Mayeda (1643-1742), the lord of Kaga, present Kanazawa prefecture, established public lodging houses for beggars and poor patients on a hillside south of his castle in Kanazawa. There were 45 houses, each measuring 12 by 120 feet. When opened 1,753 beggars and outcasts were taken in. Poor travellers were given expenses at leaving and unemployed artisans were cared for till they found suitable posts, while others were taught small trades. One of the latter was skilled in sword making and swords signed by the swordsmith "Hinin Kiyomitsu" or beggar Kiyomitsu are highly admired as masterpieces.

The blind were, from early times protected by the Imperial House and in the Nara Age the Kugas took charge of them by Imperial order. Music was taught them to enable them to earn a living. There thus arose many first class blind players of the "biwa" or the "koto." In the Yedo Age the blind received relief money or were trained in acupuncture and massage. In 1722 the Tokugawa Shogunate built an asylum at Koishikawa, Yedo (Tokyo) for patients of the poorest class. The capacity at first was 40 beds, but later it was increased to 150.

Kanonko, a Buddhist corporation, was established in 1830 by Sukenari Naha of Akita. Later 72 donors came to his help and the aged, invalids, the sick, the deformed and the mentally deficient were cared for. In 1930 the corporation had a fund amounting to ¥51,887 and 2,760 koku of rice.

The above are a few examples selected from among numerous recorded instances of social work in old Japan. It must also be noted that relief work either by the government or individuals necessarily followed natural calamities in all ages on a considerable scale.

Meiji Era The Nagoya earthquake in 1891, the North-Eastern tidal wave damages and the famine in 1896, had quickened the development of orphanage work,

and at the time of the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese wars relief work for soldiers, child protection, and free medical treatment were also being taken up but mostly by philanthropic individuals so they hardly differed from the old-fashioned benevolent and rescue work. The World War served as a great stimulus for the development of modern social work, for the economic, social and moral changes suddenly brought about at that time and after the great conflict raised various kinds of social problems and at the same time accelerated progress in all kinds of social work, such as relief of the poor, free medical treatment, provision of houses, employment exchanges, child protection, settlement work and the like. The great earthquake of 1923 was an epoch-making event from the standpoint of the development of such work.

From the beginning of the twentieth century the Japanese Government has passed many laws on social work, the most important of them being:—the Military Relief Act of 1917, the Tuberculosis Prevention Act of 1919, the Employment Exchange Act and the Housing Association Act of 1921, the Health Insurance Act of 1922, and the Insanitary Houses Improvement Act and the public Pawnshops Act of 1927.

Social Bureau In regard to the administrative organization of social work, before the World War there were only a few officials engaged in reform and relief work, and these were tucked away in one corner of the Department of Home Affairs. But in August, 1917, a relief section was established in its Local Government Bureau. In 1919, this section was called the Section of Social Affairs and in 1920, it became the new Bureau of Social Affairs and a central organization for social work; in 1922, the present independent Social Bureau came into existence and the administration of all social work throughout the country was brought under its control. In January, 1938, the Bureau was merged into the Department of Health and Social Affairs. The conditions of social work in Japan for the year ending March, 1935 were as follows: the number of social work institutions and organizations, both public and private, was 11,908, with an annual expenditure of ¥98,289,000, including ¥14,967,000 of the Governmental social works and subsidies and ¥83,322,000 of the social works carried out by local governments; and the total amount of their property was estimated at ¥270,933,000. The number of persons engaged in the social works was 62,505.

The present tendency of Japanese

social work is paving the way for the transformation of social work into a definite governmental social policy. While the old benevolent work has developed into the present social work, the fundamental idea and methods have undergone a great change. The present social work is carried on not necessarily with the idea of benevolence but rather on the principles of social solidarity and mutual help. From the standpoint of public welfare and mutual responsibility, modern social work has as its aim the solution of social problems and positive social reconstruction to accomplish the social welfare policy in co-operation with legislation on labour and social insurance.

Imperial Participation The Imperial House has been playing a leading part in the promotion of Social work in Japan. Not to speak of the Imperial gifts in olden times, the Imperial donation of ¥1,500,000 in 1907 was the commencement of modern social work in Japan on a considerable scale because it called forth contributions from the people amounting to ¥24,350,000, and a society was organized for medical treatment for the poor. The annual Imperial donation for representative social work all over Japan was begun in 1921. The Imperial donation amounted to ¥179,300 for 787 institutions in 1934, ¥200,000 for 798 institutions in 1935 and ¥195,000 for 789 institutions in 1936.

Administration and Expenses

Social Work Administration The matter of paramount interest at the beginning of 1937, was the improvement of the administrative system of labour exchanges, the institution of the Mother and Child Protection Law, and the revision of the Military Relief Law, the Relief Law, and the Ainu Protection Law, which were passed during the 70th session of the Diet.

In order to investigate all phases of social work the Social Work Investigation Commission increased the number of its members in July, 1936, and the above social laws were drawn up according to the advice of the Commission.

Legalization of Homen Iin (Block Committee) System The Homen Iin or Block Committee system consists in the appointing, by prefectural governors or other responsible bodies, of honorary committees of those private persons who are interested in social work and are able to get in easy touch with the people who need relief, so that proper relief is given the poor and the maximum results obtained. The system originated

with the establishment of an advisory committee to the Saiseikai association in Okayama prefecture in 1917. Since then, partly because of the recent trend in social affairs and partly by the recognition of the good results brought about by the activities of the Committees, the system has spread to not only all prefectures in Japan proper, but also to Taiwan and Chosen. The promulgation of the revised Relief Law in 1931 required greater activity of the committees.

At the beginning of 1936 the number of the Block Committees reached 40,700 in Japan proper and some 1,300 in the Colonies. The managing bodies of this system are the prefectural authorities, though there are a certain number of city, town or other private organizations. At the end of 1934 the system was established in 8,236 cities, towns and villages, while there were 3,297 without it.

The number of cases handled by the Block Committees increases every year, the figure for 1935 being 6,000,000. The number of poor families registered on the cards of the Block Committees all over Japan proper reached 490,000 with over 1,990,000 people at the end of 1934, their proportion to the total population of the country being about 5% in urban and 2.5% in rural districts.

Inasmuch as the Block Committees exercise a function which bears upon the fruits of the social policy and enterprises of the country, the necessity of legalizing the system has been pointed out not only by the committees themselves but also by others. Reasons for legalizing the system are: first, by giving it legal status the Government may utilize the system for carrying out smoothly various kinds of administrative work and may increase efficiency in the administration of social work; in the second place, the function of the committee is not only to give material aid to the needy but also to improve their moral character. Their guiding

principles, therefore, should be clearly set out in law; and in the third place, the work of the committees has in the past been carried out independently in the various districts so that the management and results have differed widely and national unification and proper control have become necessary. The Imperial Ordinance for Block Committees (Imperial Ordinance No. 3,900 of 1936) was promulgated on November 14, 1936 and was enforced as from January 15, 1937. The principal points to be noticed in the Ordinance are that guiding principles and the duties of the committees are clearly stated; that except in Tokyo and Yokohama the work is to be under prefectural management; that the selection of the committees has been made very strict; that the Block Work Commission has been established and that heads of cities, towns and villages are to be present at the meetings of the commission to make the relations between the committees and city, town and village authorities closer.

CONDITIONS OF THE WORK OF THE BLOCK COMMITTEE

(March, 1935)

Number of committees.				
Pre-fectural	City	Town and village	Private bodies	Total
45	6	26	3	80
Number of blocks.				
Total number of cities, towns and villages in the country	Those having the system	Those not having the system		
11,382	8,085	3,297		
Number of committeemen.				
In towns and villages	In cities	Total		
29,502	9,752	39,254		

Number of families and their members in cities, towns and villages where the system is established and the number of poor families and their members which are registered.

Kinds	Total number of families	Serious cases	Registered		
			Ordinary cases	Total	
Families {	Cities	4,571,777	114,916	155,582	270,498
	Towns and villages	6,665,963	55,696	169,369	225,065
House members {	Cities	21,975,800	459,470	640,906	1,100,376
	Towns and villages	35,396,049	183,331	706,367	889,698

Revision of the Ainu Protection Law | gines or Ainu of Hokkaido the Ainu
As regards the protection of the abori- | Protection Law was enacted in 1889.

But since the Ainu have advanced in many ways, and conditions in Hokkaido have changed with the progress of development work in the island, it became necessary to revise the law to conform with the changes in the life of the Ainu and their environments. The revised Ainu Protection Law which was passed in the 70th session of the Diet recognizes the use of land to some extent, as a means of extending relief.

For Koreans The number of Koreans in Japan proper which was 110,000 at the end of 1924, increased to more than 608,000 at the end of 1935. Their language, manners, and mode of living differ so widely from those of the Japanese that they were liable to cause much trouble, and it was decided to educate, lead and encourage them to raise their standard of living. For that purpose a sum of money was budgeted and proper facilities given.

Expenses The expense for social work are derived from three sources, State, local and private. These expenses have increased on account of the rapid development of the work, especially since the rice riots in 1918 and the Great Earthquake of 1923. The estimated expenses of social work borne by the National Treasury for 1937-38 reach ¥18,172,156. As the result of merging the Social Bureau into the Department of Welfare in 1938 the budget is included in the budget of the new Department which is given in Chapter VIII, Public Finance.

Child Protection

Child protection in Japan is divided into the following nine main classes:— (1) Care for women in pregnancy or confinement, (2) care for infants, (3) for weakly children, (4) for children of the very poor, (5) for the education of children, (6) for child-workers, (7) for maltreated children, (8) for children to be reformed, (9) for abnormal children and (10) for mother and child.

Women in Pregnancy or Confinement The infant mortality rate of Japan was lower until 1900 than in Western countries, but since then it has gradually risen, till it reached the deplorable figure of 189 deaths for every 1,000 births in 1918. Though there has been a decrease since then, in 1936 the rate was still as high as 11.6 per cent. As for the still-birth rate, though there was some tendency towards decrease, it was 5.0 for every 100 births in 1936, the total number of still-births reaching 111,056, that is, 1.58 for every 1,000 of the population. The greatest emphasis in child protection is laid on the protection and aid of expectant mothers, or the

protection of children before and at the time of birth. For this kind of work there are at present such organizations as maternity hospitals, visiting midwives and confinement advisory institutes, besides legislation for maternity protection. In March, 1936 there were 52 maternity hospitals throughout the country, while visiting midwives' organizations numbered 493. Legislation for maternity protection is included in the Factory Law, the Mining Law and the Health Insurance Law. The first two laws provide that owners of industrial and mining plants shall not require expectant mothers to work if they apply for leave of absence; after child-birth the mother shall not be required to resume work for 6 weeks, though if she requests work after 4 weeks and a doctor certifies her as fit, she may be allowed to resume it.

According to the Health Insurance Law, persons insured are to receive 20 yen for the expenses of confinement and also a daily amount corresponding to 60 per cent of each day's wage throughout the non-productive period for 28 days before and 42 days after child-birth.

Infant Protection The institutions now existing are divided into the following four kinds:—(a) hospitals for the unweaned pauper infants, (b) day-nurseries, (c) institutions for providing milk or other nutritious food for sickly and undersized children, and (d) infant health consultation institutes.

(a) **Infant hospitals.** There were 29 infant hospitals in the country in March, 1936. Of these 5 were established by public authorities and the rest were managed by private bodies or individuals.

(b) **Day-nurseries.** The demand for this work has become greater year by year, owing to the recent development of industry and the influx of population into cities. The oldest institute for this work was the one established by Mr. Shōji Akazawa in the city of Niigata, June, 1890. In March, 1936 there were 887 in the country, of which 135 were public establishments.

(c) **Institutions for providing nutritious food.** The work for providing milk was first undertaken by the Hygiene Bureau of the Home Office with the help of the city of Tokyo as an emergency measure immediately after the Earthquake of 1923, for infants whose parents were quartered in parks or other places of the city. There were 6 such organizations.

(d) **Infant health clinics.** The first independent organization for this kind of work was the Osaka Children's Clinic

established in 1919. In March, 1936 there were 152 such advisory institutes.

Child-Protection As for the legislation for the protection of poor children, it is provided for in the part concerning children in the Regulations for Relief of the Poor promulgated on April 2, 1929. According to the national survey made by the Bureau of Social Affairs in 1926, the number of widows and their children and children of widowers or whose parents were destitute of daily necessities was 133,583.

(a) **Orphan Asylums.** As was the case in Western countries, the orphanage may be said to have been one of the earliest institutions that led the Japanese toward social relief work in general. The work has made remarkable progress and is supported by the public with better understanding and large contributions. In March, 1936, there were 131 orphan asylums in the country of which only 5 were founded by public bodies. The total expenses of these asylums in 1935-36 were ¥1,087,208 for 1,710 children, chiefly met by incomes from the funds, incomes from business, subscriptions and public or private donations.

(b) **Protection of weakly children.** Physically weak children are cared for in recreation houses located near the sea or in the woods. The first example of this kind of work was that of the Tokyo Child-Nursing Institute which took a certain number of weakly children to the seashore of Boshu in 1900. Later, in June, 1926, the Child Protection Society, a corporation established in the compounds of the Bureau of Social Affairs, took up the work and has since provided a model example. As for the medical treatment of weakly children, the Children's Charity Hospital and the Children's Department of the Osaka Branch Hospital of the Japan Red Cross Society have been producing good results.

(c) **Protection of Children of School Age.** The elementary school attendance in Japan surpasses most of the nations of the world in its high rate. But there are a certain number of children who are kept from school partly through the operation of Article 33 of the Regulations for Elementary Schools, which recognizes as right in certain cases the non-attendance of children of school age, and partly because of poverty of the family. In March, 1937, the number of such children was 47,468. Encouragement of school attendance of these children, in some way or other, is made by the Government and various private bodies. Every year the Educa-

tion Department gives Common Education Encouragement Grants to prefectures for the purpose of encouraging children to attend school. Owing to this help, the rate of school attendance of children in general has increased in a notable degree, and the percentage of daily attendance was 99.59 in the school year 1936-37.

The number of schools for giving poor children compulsory education and the number of those which have evening classes for the same purpose was 40 with 6,165 pupils in 1935-36. Besides these schools there were 15 nurse-maids' schools with 351 pupils, at the end of March, 1936.

The heavy depression in farm and fishing villages deprived many elementary school children of their lunch and the Government bore the expenses for their lunch for three years, from April, 1932 to March, 1935. The disbursement of the National Treasury for the purpose was ¥668,101 for 1932-33 ¥1,069,536 for 1933-34 and ¥1,481,873 for 1934-35. The number of children benefited was 425,628 in 13,865 schools during the year 1932-33, and 512,632 in 13,614 schools during the following year.

(d) **Protection of Child Workers.** The International Labour Conference paid great attention to this problem of protection of child workers, and its first conference, in 1919, adopted an agreement relating to the minimum age of child workers employed in industries and to child night work; at the second Conference, in 1920, an agreement relating to the minimum age of child workers at sea, was reached; and at the third Conference, in 1921, an agreement relating to child workers in agriculture was arrived at. In Japan, there had been some laws in force already, but the International Labour Conference, and recent labour conditions necessitated the revision of these laws and regulations. The legislative measures now in force for protection of child workers are the Revised Factory Law of 1923, the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law of 1923, the Regulations for Relief of Miners of 1926, and the Minimum Age of Seamen and Certificate of Health Law of 1923. In the Revised Factory Law Article III provides that children under 16 years of age and women shall not be employed more than 11 hours a day (exception being 15 hours for certain kinds of occupations.) Article IV prohibits their night work, and Article VII states that they shall not be employed in dangerous work. In the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law Article II provides that children less than 14

years of age shall not be employed in industrial work, but those children over 12 years of age who have finished the ordinary elementary school course shall be exempted from this rule. In the Regulations for Relief of Minors Article VI provides that children under 16 years of age and women shall not be employed more than 11 hours a day, and Articles XII and XIII that children under 16 years of age shall not be employed in dangerous work. In the Minimum Age of Seamen and Certificate of Health Law Article II provides that children less than 14 years of age shall not be employed, and Article III that in case of children under 18 years of age being employed a doctor's certificate of health must be obtained. Just before the enforcement of these laws, that is, at the end of 1925, there were 474 children over 10 and under 12 years of age and 6,709 children who were over 12 and under 14 years old who had not yet finished their compulsory education but were employed in industries. However, the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law enforced on July 1, 1926, has since prohibited their employment.

(e) Reformatory Work. In March, 1900, the Reformatory Law was enacted and the establishment of prefectural reformatories was encouraged by the Government. According to this law, however, their establishment was voluntary. In 1908, the law was revised and Prefectural authorities were compelled to found reformatories. Within two years of the enactment of the Law 30 reformatories were founded, both public and private. In August, 1917, an ordinance in regard to the founding of a national reformatory, which had been pending for many years, was promulgated, and in March, 1919, a State Reformatory, named the Musashino-Gakuin, was founded in a suburban village of Tokyo. The bills for juvenile courts and houses of correction, passed by the Diet in April, 1921, as the Juvenile Law and the House of Correction Law were revised and promulgated in May, 1933, as the Juvenile Protection Law, effective from October 1, 1934.

In March, 1936, there were 58 reformatories, with 2,841 children. The expenses amounted to ¥805,077 for 1935-36. In addition to these reformatories, there are 31 Correction Societies which are taking care of boys and girls who are

not under the direct care of the reformatories.

(f) Protection of Abnormal Children. Blind and deaf-mute children are taken care of in 78 schools for the blind and 62 schools for the deaf-mute. The number of organizations for protecting feeble-minded and other mentally defective children was 9 in all, of which only one, that is, the Ima-miya-Gakuen established by the City of Osaka, is a public one, and the aggregate number of inmates was 306, in March, 1936. It is estimated that there are over 5,000 such children left entirely to the ineffective care of their parents.

(g) Prevention of Maltreatment. The Law for the Prevention of Child Maltreatment, which was promulgated with Law No. 40 in April, 1933, lays down the power of prefectural governors to give adequate warning against maltreatment of children by the people who have power over them, makes provisions for putting such children under the care of suitable persons when necessary; and prohibits having such children engage in such performances as aerobatics and circuses or in infamous houses. It was put in force on October 1, 1933 and in the half year from October 1, 1933 to March 31, 1934, the number of children protected by the Law was 593; of the total 179 were those subjected to maltreatment by parents or relatives, while 414 were forced to overwork in petty shows or as street singers, geisha girls, etc.

The number of establishments for the purpose was 6 with 111 children protected in March, 1936.

Mother and Child Protection. With the institution of this new law the State has taken the responsibility of assisting unsupported mothers, who are unable to educate their children on account of poverty. According to investigations made by the Social Bureau in May, 1935, there were 95,000 such mothers and children in Japan proper. Hitherto the protection of helpless mothers and children has been carried out by many public and private benevolent bodies, and under the general Relief Law. The conditions of the relief of mothers and children under the general Relief Law were as illustrated by the following table, not including other homes or dormitories for the same purpose which numbered 42 in all.

RELIEF OF MOTHERS AND CHILDREN

(Amount in yen)

Fiscal Year	Children under 13 years of age		Nursing Mothers		Total	
	Number	Relief Money	Number	Relief Money	Number	Relief Money
1932-33	63,140	1,301,395	1,352	35,571	64,492	1,337,096
1933-34	84,566	1,984,723	1,758	58,098	86,324	2,042,821
1934-35	91,946	2,052,264	999	19,445	92,945	2,071,709
1935-36	97,375	2,222,915	1,089	23,726	98,464	2,246,641

In order to make the relief of these mothers and children more complete the new Mother and Child Protection Law was passed at the 70th session of the Diet. Article 1 of the Mother and Child Protection Law states that those mothers or grandmothers who have children under 13 years of age and have to earn a living by their own effort and cannot live or bring up children because of poverty are protected in accordance with the provisions of the law.

Economic Protection

Supply and Improvement of Houses
(a) Building and Management of Houses by Public Bodies. In the year 1918, to meet the pressing need for economic and sanitary housing a note was issued to encourage public bodies to build and supply houses, the building cost of which might be loaned from the Funds of the Deposits Bureau of the Finance Department. This loan together with a loan from the Reserve of the Post Office Life Insurance greatly facilitated the building work. Several other means were adopted to facilitate the work, namely, the sale of building materials produced from the Government forests at low cost, reduction in or exemption from freight charge for transportation of building materials, application of the Land Expropriation Law, if necessary, in case of buying land for the building of houses of public bodies, and freedom from the Registration and Construction Taxes.

The Government issued the Housing Association Law in April, 1921, and it was put into force the same year. Associations are to be legal persons possessing several privileges in respect of taxation, acquisition of land, etc., working funds being loaned to the associations from the Funds of the Deposits Bureau of the Finance Department through the prefectural offices. The Dojun-kai, a building corporation, established immediately after the great earthquake of 1923 with a fund of ¥10,000,000, a part of the contributions for the reconstruction of Tokyo and Yokohama, has supplied many dwellings and

apartments for the people in these two cities, independent of the government measure.

The sum of low interest-rate money advanced by the Government since 1921 amounts to more than ¥135,000,000. Demands for dwelling-houses gradually decreased after 1929, and the sum advanced for the purpose has decreased accordingly. The number of dwelling-houses built under the law up to 1935 reached 83,000 (of which 6,000 were built through the Wooden Stores Construction Fund.) At the end of 1936 the number of the Building Societies was 2,813 with a membership of more than 31,620, and total sum defrayed for buildings reached ¥69,300,000.

In addition to the supply of dwelling-houses in general the Government subsidized the reconstruction of a great many houses damaged by the Great Earthquake and Fire in 1923, the earthquakes in Hyogo prefecture in 1925 and in 1927, in Izu peninsula in 1930, by the tidal waves in the north-eastern districts in 1933 and by the typhoon in the Kansai districts in 1934.

(b) Enforcement of the Insanitary Dwelling Site Improvement Law. Supply of dwellings is one aspect of this question and their improvement is another. The first step taken by the Government in the latter was to improve and remake the sites in cities where poorly built houses were crowded together. A nation-wide investigation made in June, 1925, showed that there were 217 such quarters with over 72,600 families and over 309,900 inhabitants. The land level was generally low, the quarters naturally damp, and an intricate network of unpleasant narrow roads, together with a congestion of small but not at all compact houses lacking in proper light and ventilation, made the place an unplanned hodge-podge. For the start of their programme, the Government, taking up a plan to remake such quarters existing in the six largest cities (Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya, Kyoto, Kobe and Yokohama) and in the rural districts contiguous to them, enacted in March, 1927, the Insanitary

Dwelling Site Improvement Law which was enforced in the same year. Subsidies granted to local governments from the national treasury for this purpose amounted to ¥3,200,000 in 1927-1935. The work is to be continued till 1943 with a subsidy amounting to ¥1,707,685.

Public Lodgings Single working men, unemployed persons and the like, as a rule, sleep in imperfectly-equipped doss-houses or cheap lodgings, or live with others. In 1925, there were 8,873 doss-houses with 92,861 monthly sojourners who had families, 200,518 single persons and 208,775 one-night lodgers, amounting to 502,154 persons in all. This situation was not at all desirable viewed from any angle, and the preparation of cheap yet healthy public lodging-houses seemed an urgent need for the welfare of labourers and the like. The number of such lodgings in March, 1936, was 155, with 3,686,593 one-night lodgers in 1935-36. Of the total number of lodgings 67 were free, the rest charging 10, 15 or 20 sen a night.

Public Markets The public markets are retail markets managed by public bodies or public welfare organizations having as their aim a cheap supply of food-stuffs and other daily necessities. According to the investigation made in November, 1921, by the Bureau of Social Affairs, the average cost of food-stuffs of the poor families in the city of Tokyo was 54.7% of their total living expenses. In August, 1918 a rice riot, which was started by the poor housewives at a small village of Toyama prefecture, spread over the country like a prairie fire. The situation awakened Imperial solicitude, and ¥3,000,000 was granted for relief from the Privy Purse. The Government also provided ¥10,000,000, and the amount of contributions by wealthy men and benevolent persons reached ¥25,000,000. This money was used in giving rice to the poor in the country and in opening establishments where rice was sold at lower prices. In December of the same year, the Government issued a note encouraging the establishment of public markets, and made loans available at a low rate of interest for the necessary expenses in establishing such markets. In March, 1936, there were 278 such markets opened in all prefectures but 6, and sales for the fiscal year 1935-36 amounted to ¥54,354,432.

Lunch Rooms The object of the people's lunch rooms, whether attached to a public lodging-house or independent, is to provide labourers, small-salaried men and the like with simple, wholesome and sanitary meals at cheap rates. In March,

1936, there were 70 of these people's lunch rooms, most of them managed by public bodies and located in cities and towns, with 10,246,608 meals taken in 1935-36. Each meal cost from 12 to 20 sen.

Public Baths Japanese people greatly enjoy their baths, but only a small proportion of them can afford private baths. The majority have to utilize public baths. Moreover, it is not very infrequently the case that people take fewer baths than they require as the bath-charges are not low enough. Herein lies the need of sanitary, well-equipped, cheap or free public baths. The number of public baths in March, 1936, was 170, patronized by 19,421,047 bathers in a year.

Public Pawnshops The pawnshop and the money-lender are utilized by people of small means as a simple and popular means of monetary circulation. The Public Pawnshop Law, promulgated in 1927, regulated managing bodies subsidies of 50 per cent of equipment expenses from the national treasury, loans, computation of interest and term of pledge. The present financial depression throughout the urban and rural districts has caused unprecedented tightness of money among the salaried men, labourers and farmers of smaller means, and the need for public pawnshops has become more acute. The estimated amount of subsidies for the public pawnshops for 1937-38 is ¥90,000.

The number of public pawnshops which was only 71 at the time of the enactment of the Public Pawnshop Law, has increased every year since and reached 1,091, at the end of April, 1936. Since the economic crisis of 1932, money has become tight in the rural districts, so that the Government has been making special efforts to establish pawnshops in those districts.

However, when the above mentioned number of public pawnshops is compared with that of private pawnshops which numbered 12,700 at the end of 1934, the former is still lagging far behind. In view of this the Government is determined to make further efforts for their establishment.

In examining the number of people who are benefiting from the use of pawnshops, classified according to the kinds of occupation, we find labourers are greatest, followed by small retailers, small-scale manufacturers, farmers, salaried men and fishermen in the order named. It will be specially noted that the number of fishermen and farmers has increased conspicuously since 1932.

PAWNERS AT THE PUBLIC PAWNSHOPS

Pawnshops	Pawners							Total	
	Labourers	Salaried men	Small industrialists	Small merchants	Farmers	Fishermen	Others		
1931-32	314	393,762	112,888	129,556	229,502	77,590	44,976	176,101	1,164,375
1932-33	510	465,012	139,498	151,957	293,249	96,091	48,486	237,707	1,432,000
1933-34	765	567,355	154,810	200,600	394,526	142,487	86,964	311,070	1,857,812
1934-35	999	709,782	182,742	258,423	500,101	207,571	118,473	404,270	2,381,362
1935-36	1,079	876,966	209,984	294,519	608,453	254,466	146,809	487,403	2,878,600

STANDING LOANS OF THE PUBLIC PAWNSHOPS

Pawnshops	Number of Loans	Amount of Loans (In yen)	Average Standing Amount of Loans at the End of the Fiscal year		
			Average Loan (In yen)	Amount of Loans at the End of the Fiscal year (In yen)	
1930-31	261	1,228,672	6,479,853	5.27	3,809,972
1931-32	314	1,433,020	7,242,308	5.05	3,675,878
1932-33	510	1,731,476	8,475,092	4.89	4,031,242
1933-34	765	2,254,220	11,796,763	5.23	5,248,027
1934-35	999	2,900,872	15,690,231	5.41	8,213,794
1935-36	1,079	3,497,487	19,189,167	5.49	8,800,083

Protection of Unemployed

Employment Exchanges There have been from olden times private employment exchanges called "Keian" or "Kuchireya" conducted by individuals. But there were no free exchanges until 1901, when in Hongo Ward of the city of Tokyo there was established a free lodging-house for low class labourers and the unemployed, and along with this charitable work the first private free employment exchange was founded for the lodgers in 1906. The earliest public employment exchanges were established in Tokyo in 1911. At the close of the Great War the Home Office felt the urgent necessity of extending and developing the employment exchanges in order to meet the needs of the time. In 1920, the Office put into circulation a low interest loan for the establishment of employment exchanges to cope with the demands caused by an extreme business depression. And in June of the same year, the Home Office, in order to systematize the work of employment exchanges, took charge of all the affairs relating to them, and in order to extend, unite and develop them, allowed the Kyocho-kai to start a central managing office of all the employment exchanges in the country.

(a) **Employment Exchange Law.** Complying with the general demand, the Employment Exchange Law was issued in 1921. According to this Act, employment exchanges are, in principle, public organizations. They are voluntarily established and conducted by the heads of cities or towns, but in some in-

stances the Home Minister gives orders for their establishment in places where he thinks the conditions demand them. The National Government subsidizes them to the extent of one-half of the expenses for buildings and equipment at the beginning, and one-sixth or less of other expenses. One Central and several Local Employment Exchange Bureaux have been founded for the employment exchanges in the country, and the work is under the supervision of the Home Minister and the Directors of these Bureaux. A standing committee is established to direct the management of the exchanges. There may also be established private free employment exchanges with the permission of the administrative authorities, and the aid afforded by all these employment exchanges must be free of charge.

After the enforcement of this Law, in November, 1922, the convention relating to unemployment, adopted by the First International Labour Conference at Washington, was ratified and published for the encouragement of this kind of work. In addition to the provision above mentioned, the Regulations for Enforcement of the Employment Exchange Law were revised, in 1924, in order to systematize the connections among employment exchanges, and there were also newly-introduced regulations for the establishment of seasonal-employment exchanges, and of employment exchange committees in cities and towns for the promotion of this work. It is true that there are still a great many employment exchanges run for profit, but owing to the increase and improv-

ment of public employment exchanges they are gradually decreasing. And to conform with a resolution adopted at the Washington Conference of 1919, the National Government enforced from the 1st of January, 1927, Regulations for the Control of Employment Exchanges for Profit.

In 1936 an improvement was made in the administrative organization concerning employment exchange and a subsidy was granted, as a piece of relief work, for the establishment of facilities for training the unemployed.

In view of the results obtained so far since the enactment of the laws in connection with employment exchanges the Revised Employment Exchange Law was presented to and passed at the 69th Session of the Diet in 1936, and put in force as from September of the same year.

Important points of the revision are as follows: (1) According to the old system co-ordination, control and supervision of the work was in the hands of the central and local employment exchange bureaux, seven in all, but this has now been transferred to the Home Minister and prefectural governors. Under the old system the director of the Employment Exchange Bureau had the supervising power on employment exchange business alone, but did not possess the authority in general over cities, towns and villages which are the principal managing bodies of labour exchanges, so his activity was very limited. On the other hand emergency work for the relief of the unemployed, industrial training or handicraft directing work, supervision of employment agencies run for profit, supervision of recruiting labourers, and emigration which are directly connected with employment exchange work, were under the supervision of the prefectural governors, it was therefore thought advisable to transfer the supervision of employment exchanges to the prefectural governors, and thereby develop the work of employment exchanges in co-ordination with the affiliated works just mentioned.

(2) In the past, the principal managing bodies have been, as a rule, cities,

towns and villages. But the new Act has made it possible for prefectures to act in that capacity, thus doing away with any financial difficulty and making the selection of suitable locations for the employment exchange offices easier and better for further promotion of the work in all parts of the country.

(3) The revised Act makes those who intend to employ labourers en masse notify prefectural governors as to the items necessary for employment. This has been an entirely new addition, and is intended to enable prefectural governors to have ready knowledge as to the demands on labour. This provision applies to an employer who intends to employ more than 30 labourers at one time and makes him advise prefectural governors as to the sex, kinds of industry and the number of labourers required.

It is proposed, however, that since the employment exchanges are nationwide they should come under the direct control of the State, and in the 69th session of the Diet the House of Peers passed the Revised Employment Exchange Law with an additional clause of request for the State control of the work. The question remains for future study.

Conditions of the Work The number of employment exchanges which was 135 in 1923 when the Employment Exchange Bureau was established had increased to 693 at the end of 1936, of which exchanges specially for day-labourers numbered 62, for female labourers 8, for boys and girls 2, for the intelligentsia 1, and for Koreans 4.

The employment exchanges which succeeded in finding jobs for more than 310,000 people, excluding day-labourers, in 1923 were able to increase the number to 966,141 in 1937.

Day-labourers got 1,090,000 working days in 1923, through employment exchanges, this was increased to 16,770,000 working days in 1933. In 1934 and 1935 the number decreased but they were still considerable. The business conditions of employment exchanges are as shown in the following table:

EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE

	1923	1926	1929	1933	1935	1936	1937
General							
Situations vacant	817,427	729,720	720,521	1,451,998	1,917,983	2,297,211	2,804,162
Situations sought	720,438	780,615	682,491	1,528,291	1,679,568	1,778,145	2,092,348
Situations filled	312,550	222,563	263,669	663,315	741,642	812,327	966,141
Day-labourers							
Men wanted	1,158,134	2,522,177	3,015,195	16,897,143	12,988,711	12,561,136	10,595,992

	1921	1926	1929	1933	1935	1936	1937
Jobs wanted	1,318,648	2,793,384	3,473,237	20,124,272	14,463,730	13,600,837	11,102,930
Day's work secured	1,091,047	2,477,746	3,010,280	16,779,159	12,867,295	12,270,660	10,196,061

Note: The table does not include private profitable employment exchanges the number of which was 2,010. The number of men wanted was 1,014,303, jobs wanted 645,844 and works secured through them 514,709 in 1937.

For ex-soldiers the exchanges got 7,600 positions in 1935, an increase of 3,000 as compared with the number in 1934. In the introduction of juvenile workers, about 48,000 boys and girls who graduated from primary schools in March of 1936 were successfully placed by May of the same year, showing an increase of about 5,000 over the preceding year, and of young people under 18 years of age 158,000 were placed in 1936.

As to the conditions of employment agencies which are run for profit, the number of which reached 10,000 in 1923 when the Employment Exchange Bureau was established, was reduced to 3,300 with the enforcement in 1927 of the regulations on the supervision of the employment agency business, and at the end of 1937, the number has been further reduced to 2,010. The number of persons who avail themselves of these agencies is about 1,000,000 per year and the number of those who succeed in securing positions is about 500,000, but this number also is declining. According to the figures obtained during the last three years, the number of persons who called on these private agencies was 740,000 in 1935, 713,411 in 1936, and 645,844 in 1937.

Labourers from the Country Farmers in rural districts emigrate to cities in the intervals of farming, mostly in winter time when the farms are snow-bound. According to the investigations conducted by the Central Employment Exchange Bureau, there are about 1,000,000 such emigrants every year throughout the country, of which about 150,000 or so get jobs through the good offices of employment exchanges. The way of finding work for these emigrants and their protection has been a question for many years, and the State has taken measures to supervise the private employment agencies, while the public employment exchanges do all in their power to find them employment and give them protection. Moreover, the establishment of associations for the protection of these emigrants are encouraged, and travelling expenses are advanced for penniless ones. For the young boys and girls of the 6 north-eastern prefectures who are sent to cities and factories to help their families special officials are appointed in vil-

lages to guide their employment and protect them from falling into bad hands.

Study of Adaptability of Labour for Employment At present only 8 categories of adaptability for employment are standardized in Japan while at least 90 analyses are needed to meet the requirements of the times. Experts on the examination of adaptability are appointed in the Social Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs, to accomplish such analyses and train employment exchange officials in their task.

Conditions of Unemployment The Social Bureau has been kept informed of unemployment conditions through reports issued by the prefectural departments on the first of every month since 1929. According to these reports, the number of unemployed in January 1930 was 346,000, after that it increased month by month without a break up to September, 1932, when it reached 506,000. Since the end of 1932, owing to relief work and the turn for the better in the munition and export goods industries, the number has gradually decreased. It was 463,000 in December, 1932, 355,000 in September, 1934, 346,000 in September, 1935, 330,000 in September, 1936, and 271,874 in January, 1938.

Comparing the number of people dismissed with those taken on in factories and mines employing more than 50 persons the number of newly employed labourers has exceeded the number of dismissals since the latter half of 1932. The number of labourers was 1,610,000 in factories, 262,000 in mines, and 161,000 in Government mills at the end of July, 1936, which, as compared with the figures of the same month of the preceding year, showed an increase of 125,000, 31,000 and 3,000 respectively.

Emergency Enterprises for the Unemployed. Among the measures taken for the relief of unemployment, the civil engineering work begun in 1925 was the most important. Among others, the establishment of Business Training Institutes for the unemployed began in 1936.

The civil engineering work was first undertaken by public bodies affiliated with the 6 largest cities in the country, the bodies and scope of the work have since gradually widened. The Government has, also, since 1932, directly been

undertaking civil engineering work, reclamation work, the adjustment of farm-lands, munition industries, etc., and has been encouraging large cities where unemployed labourers swarm, to increase enterprises for their relief by granting subsidies or advancing money at low rates of interest. Since 1929 the relief of the low-salaried class has

been carried out in the 6 largest cities, and prefectures in which they are located, by giving them work on statistics, investigations, or adjustment of written matters or documents, one-half of the expenses being borne by the State. In the next table a summary of the relief work conducted in the last 4 years is given:

Unemployment Relief Enterprises in 1933-1936

(Subsidized ones only)

Fiscal Year	Kinds of Enterprises	Expenses in Yen	Wages in Yen	Aggregate number of work-days
1933-34	Enterprises for ordinary labourers	34,882,642	12,053,138	9,157,047
	For low salaried class	1,803,635	1,662,208	1,369,509
	Total	36,686,277	13,715,346	10,526,556
1934-35	Enterprises for ordinary labourers	22,890,537	6,750,623	5,157,600
	For low salaried class	1,537,267	1,417,195	1,150,352
	Total	24,427,804	8,167,818	6,307,952
1935-36	Enterprises for ordinary labourers	15,378,527	4,710,145	3,472,024
	For low salaried class	1,499,193	1,385,942	1,130,929
	Total	16,877,720	6,096,087	4,602,953

As to the encouragement of the business training of the unemployed which was started in 1936 the Government

bears one-half of the expenses required for the institutes.

BUSINESS TRAINING INSTITUTES FOR THE UNEMPLOYED

Manager	Mode of Management	Number of Institutes	Capacity	Estimated expenses	Subsidy req'd	Instructors	Length of Term
Tokyo city	Direct management	1	60	11,560	5,780	3	18 weeks
Kyoto city	"	1	30	4,571	2,285	2	6 months
Osaka prefecture	"	2	60	6,000	3,000	4	6 months
Osaka city	Entrusted to others	2	60	2,000	—	—	—
Kobe city	Direct management	1	60	4,879	2,439	2	6 months
Kanagawa prefecture	"	2	60	5,282	2,641	4	6 months
Yokohama city	"	1	30	3,600	1,800	2	6 months
Yokohama city	"	1	30	8,437	4,218	2	5 and a half months
Nagoya city	"	1	40	3,000	1,600	2	5 months
Fukuoka prefecture	"	1	40	2,687	1,343	2	5 months
Total	Direct management	11	420	50,216	25,106	23	
	Entrusted to others	2	60	2,000	—	—	
	Total	13	480	52,216	25,106	23	

Poor Relief

General Poor Relief The Regulations for Relief of the Poor were promulgated as early as 1874. The revised Relief Law was promulgated on April 2, 1924 and was put in force on January 1, 1932. The regulations maintain the old spirit of mutual help among relatives and neighbours and, at the same time, emphasize social solidarity and public responsibility of relieving impoverished people. Those who are relieved by the law are old poor people above 65, helpless juveniles under 13, pregnant poor women, helpless invalids and cripples, those who are handicapped by sickness, wounds or mental disorders, and poor mothers who are nursing infants under

one year of age.

The period of relief should generally be for as long as it is required, but sometimes, especially when the case is taken up by a Block Committee, it is fixed, for example, at three or four weeks. The method of relief is of two kinds, indoor and outdoor, and as for the former, such large cities as Tokyo or Yokohama have their own homes or other relief institutions, otherwise the smaller municipalities entrust the relief of the poor to those orphanages, asylums or charity hospitals which are managed by private persons or organizations.

The results of the operation of this Act since 1932 are given in the following table:

RESULTS OF RELIEF WORK

(Units 1,000 people and ¥1,000)

Kinds of relief	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Living cost:					
(1) Number of the relieved	39.7	176.8	185.9	166.7	190.0
(2) Expenses defrayed	3,169.6	4,548.1	5,055.9	4,577.3	5,414.2
Medical treatment:					
(1) Number of persons	15.1	33.1	34.7	49.6	32.9
(2) Expenses defrayed	420.2	608.4	738.6	1,288.3	757.2
Maternity cases:					
(1) Number of women	2.3	3.2	2.4	2.3	1.5
(2) Expenses defrayed	13.4	14.8	11.1	12.9	7.0
Help for working:					
(1) Number of Persons	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.9	0.4
(2) Expenses defrayed	4.7	5.0	4.7	15.8	4.6
Total					
(1) Persons	157.8	213.5	223.5	219.7	225.0
(2) Expenses defrayed	3,607.9	5,176.2	5,810.3	5,894.5	6,183.1

The economic difficulties which many towns and villages have been experiencing in recent years have weakened their financial strength and increased the number of persons who need relief. Accordingly the burden which was imposed on towns and villages in the ratio of 2-1-1 on city, town and village, became too heavy for them, and was an obstacle to the efficient operation of the law. The ratio has therefore been changed to 7-3-2, by the revised Relief Law.

Special Poor Relief Special poor relief, as against general poor relief, includes (1) Proper attention for those found sick, dying or dead by the roadside, (2) Relief of sufferers from natural calamities, and (3) Relief of impoverished soldiers and their bereaved families.

Regulations now in force, issued in 1899, aim at relieving those people who

are found sick on the road, the disposal of dead bodies, and care of the children who are with them. The heads of the cities or towns where they are found must apply to the prefectures concerned for authority to take charge of them in case there are no relations on whom they can depend. The expenses for their relief, if not met by those who are relieved themselves or their supporters, must be defrayed by the prefectures concerned, and they may be handed over to public or private institutions for further help. There is no limit of time fixed for their relief. In 1935-36, there were 7,965 persons found sick with the money expended for their care amounting to ¥654,642, and 4,522 deaths cared for with an expenditure of ¥58,785.

Calamity Relief Japan suffers particularly from natural calamities ow-

ing to its climate and volcanic activities. Losses from fires and floods alone amount to nearly ¥70,000,000 every year. To relieve the sufferers from these calamities, the Natural Calamities Relief Fund Law and Sea Disaster Relief Fund Law were passed in 1899.

Previous to this date the Central Government in co-operation with the prefectural authorities had been working under the Biko Chochiku Law of 1880, according to which ¥1,200,000 had been paid out of the National Treasury each year, and further appropriations made from public saving funds. Consequently, the total of the funds both of the Central Government and Prefectures had been enormous.

At the end of April, 1935, the total amount of the funds was ¥91,496,777, a decrease when compared with the preceding year. The reason was the unusual disbursements for relief in 1934-35 amounting to ¥3,671,388. Besides the special donation from the Imperial House which amounted to over ¥53,000 for sufferers in prefectures, the public contributed ¥7,640,075 through the Social Bureau in that year.

In March, 1937, the total of the Natural Calamities Relief Fund amounted to ¥89,504,972, and, if Okinawa prefecture and Hokkaido were excepted, the average fund for each prefecture reached ¥1,980,000. Though particular items for which the fund is expended differ and change according to the nature of calamities, the largest amount of the fund is expended on food, shelters, and for business funds. The money expended for the relief amounted to ¥3,716,071 in 1934, ¥753,211 in 1935 and ¥25,926 in 1936.

With the sad experience at the time of the Great Earthquake of 1923 fresh in the public memory, Osaka and Kyoto introduced the Great Calamities' Relief Regulations soon after that terrible event, according to which the Prefectural Offices, the Municipal Offices, the Army Division, and the Gendarmerie Corps are to co-operate in cases of great emergency.

The annual number of marine disasters off the coasts of Japan is over 1,000, and the average number of persons killed, injured or missing in these disasters reaches 600 or 700 a year. For the relief of these persons, the Sea Disaster Relief Law was issued in 1899, by the terms of which the heads of municipalities are invested with certain powers to give relief at the expense of the captain or owner of the ship concerned, but in case the money is not refunded by the captain or owner, or

the relief proves insufficient, the expense incurred is paid by the National Government.

The Revision of the Military Relief Act The Military Relief Act has been in force since January of 1918, a part of it being revised in March, 1931. It aims to give relief at State expense to those non-commissioned officers and men who are injured or suffer illness in war or during their term of service, and are, on that account, dismissed from the services, or to their families or the bereaved; to the families of soldiers and sailors who are called up for service; and to the bereaved of those soldiers and sailors who die of injuries or during their service if they find it difficult to get a living.

The relief, given under this Act, has greatly increased in recent years owing to the economic depression, the effects of the Manchurian Campaign and because of a better understanding of the purpose of the Law. In 1934-35 the number of people who received relief reached 105,772 persons or 31,996 families, the amount expended being more than ¥2,800,000. In 1935-36 the original estimate for relief was ¥2,074,000, but ¥867,000 was added later.

The purpose of the revision of the Act was to extend its sphere, and to ameliorate the conditions or qualifications, under which relief is given, so that the young men who serve in the army or navy may discharge their duties without worry about their families.

The China Affair in 1937 and 1938 is going to demand a more active operation of the Military Relief Act for the increased number of people who need the application of the Act.

MILITARY RELIEF 1930-1937

	Number of Persons Relieved	Amount (In yen)
1930-31	51,856	1,586,095
1931-32	71,843	1,731,614
1932-33	99,023	2,427,496
1933-34	98,905	2,702,935
1934-35	105,772	2,809,248
1935-36	111,533	2,897,665
1936-37	117,943	2,968,839

Private Military Relief The organizations for private military relief work numbered 31 at the end of March 1929, the Japan Red Cross Society and the Imperial Military Aid Society being the most prominent. The organizations are mainly engaged in the giving of relief, generally temporary, to those who are outside the application of the Military Relief Law.

Health Protection

From very long ago, the Imperial Household has paid attention to the care of the sick. Hospitals for the Poor were established in 593, by Prince Shotoku. The present Saisei-Kai, a foundational juridical person, established by the wish of the Emperor Meiji to give medical treatment to the poor, continues the work of these ancient hospitals.

Free Medical Treatment There are many organizations which give free medical treatment, hospitals, medical consultation offices, visiting treatment societies, visiting nursing societies, etc. The Government decided to extend the work to farm-villages and fishing communities with ¥6,000,000, a part of which was donated by the Imperial House. There were 169 public hospitals and 410 smaller branch hospitals or medical clinics, according to the statistics of 1935-36. The number of private medical relief facilities in the same year was 494. The cases treated numbered 1,825,626.

Cost-Price Treatment The Emperor Meiji pointed out, in his edict, that Japan, in general with the rest of the world, was suffering great hardships and that it was most regrettable to see faithful but poor subjects suffering from illness unable to get medical treatment, and that there was acute need to give suitable relief to them; and, as elsewhere mentioned, he donated a large sum of money for this purpose.

The thing most dreaded by the labouring classes is sickness or injury. Once smitten by sickness or rendered idle by injury a workman is thrown out of work, no matter how much he may desire it, and has no means of getting medical treatment; his days of unemployment may be prolonged, and finally he may be stripped of all his possessions and his family may starve.

The Cost-Price Medical Treatment Association, a corporate juridical person, was organized on the 5th September, 1911 by the effort of Mr. Suzuki and Dr. Kato.

The Association has its headquarters in Tokyo and four branch offices in Tokyo, Yokohama, and Osaka and there are now 41 cost-price medical treatment offices established by public bodies in different parts of Japan, and 112 hospitals in which the working-class patients are treated at cost-price.

The Do-ai (mutual love) Hospitals in Tokyo and Yokohama, the Imperial Charity Association, the Red Cross Hospital, the Jikei (benevolence) Association Hospital have recently begun

cheap medical treatment. The Do-ai Hospitals in Tokyo and Yokohama were established with the money given by the American people at the time of the Great Earthquake, 1923, as a memorial of their kind assistance in that period of trial. Mr. Suzuki, who has played a brilliant part in the promotion of this kind of social work, is now insisting upon the national management of all medical business for the thorough protection of the life of the people in view of the unreasonably high cost of medical treatment by common practitioners and consequent loss of life and impoverishment.

Sanatoria, Asylums and Special Hospitals There is to be found a regulation concerning mental disease in the Taiho Laws issued in 701. But the number of sufferers increased in direct proportion to the advancement of civilization. Statistics record the fact that at the end of 1912 there were 32,964 insane persons, by the end of 1922 the figure had risen to 50,891, and in March, 1937 it stood at 86,047, an increase of 2,682 as compared with the preceding year, the ratio being 12.25 in every 10,000 of the population, an increase of 0.21 as compared with the preceding year.

(a) Laws and regulations concerning insane persons. The Law for the Custody of Insane Persons was enacted in 1900, with the object of protecting the public from harm at their hands. It provides for the appointment of a responsible person to take an insane person under his custody, and if necessary, by the approval of the prefectural governor, to confine the said insane person. The expenses, according to this law, shall be borne by the estate of the insane persons or by responsible persons, as the case may be, and in case any insane person protected by the order of the head of a municipality is unable to reimburse the money advanced by the municipality, the prefecture shall bear the expenses.

The Insane Asylums Law, which may be taken as a sub-division of the previous one, gives power to the competent Minister to order and bring prefectures, if necessary, under obligation to establish insane asylums or hospitals (Art. 1), and makes provisions concerning the State subsidy.

(b) Present condition of insane asylums and hospitals. At the end of March, 1936 there were 6 public hospitals for the insane and 46 private asylums. There were 9,792 inpatients in these hospitals and asylums.

(c) Tuberculosis. It is almost impossible to get the exact number of cases

of tuberculosis in this country, but the ratio of patients per 1,000 of the examined in accordance with the provisions of the Law for the Prevention of Tuberculosis was 0.26, a decrease of 0.05 as compared with the previous year. In 1936, 107,157 died from pulmonary tuberculosis, that is 87.1 in every 1,000 deaths, the highest ratio for five years. The Government issued regulations in 1914 for the establishment of tuberculosis sanatoria in cities of more than 30,000 population, and regulated the State subsidy thereto. The present Tuberculosis Prevention Law was enacted in 1919. In 1935-36 there were 36 sanatoria with 9,215 patients. In 1939, H. I. M. the Empress donated a large sum of money for the relief of the patients.

(d) Leprosy. For the prevention of leprosy, the Leprosy Prevention Law was issued in 1908. By this law, aid for indigent lepers out of public funds, the

order of the competent Minister for the establishment of leper-asylums by united prefectures, or the use of private ones in lieu of public ones and other such matters are provided for. The whole country, in conformity with this law, was divided into five Divisions. Besides 9 public leper-asylums, there are 8 private ones. The Koyama Fukusei In, established by the Roman Catholic Church in Shizuoka prefecture, the Dai En in Tokyo prefecture, the famous Kumamoto Kaishun Byoin founded by an English lady, Miss Riddell, and the Tairo In in Kumamoto prefecture have done valuable work for many years, being managed by Christian missionaries. In 1930, H. I. M. the Empress Dowager donated a large sum of money for the work. In 1935-36, there were 18 leper-asylums, 4 of which established by the Government and 5 by public bodies, with 6,659 patients. (See Chapter XXXII on these subjects.)

STATISTICAL TABLE OF SOCIAL WORK IN JAPAN

(Compiled by the Ministry of Welfare)

(Fiscal Year 1935-36)

Name	Organization or Institution	Property and Funds	Expenditure
Organs	2,504	¥79,926,548	¥8,684,633
Unifying organizations	58	5,225,098	1,714,908
Investigation organs	34	850	1,204
Educational organs	3	—	—
Supplementary organs	20	70,226,688	4,033,374
Block committees	80	—	1,396,830
Backing organs of the block committees	2,309	4,473,912	1,538,317
Child protection	1,729	14,689,664	4,213,225
Protection of pregnant women			
(Midwives)	493	27,926	146,240
(Hospitals)	52	1,775,720	867,203
Protection of suckling infants	29	334,796	75,113
Day-nurseries	887	3,379,915	1,017,925
Orphanages	131	12,779,529	1,087,208
Child consultation	152	163,753	133,711
Protection of cripples	2	28,320	7,765
Protection of weak children	9	2,067,658	314,847
Protection of sick children	18	33,670	37,146
Protection of maltreated children	6	33,275	76,869
Education of poor children	40	589,199	119,722
Schools for nursemaids	15	35,942	7,681
Education of working children	10	85,853	11,399
Reformatory education	58	—	805,077
Reformatory protection	32	105,128	52,746
Temporary protection of children	1	113,493	—
Protection of abnormal children	9	892,314	179,135
Stammer correction	4	62,637	22,948
Economic protection	2,376	—	—
Housing work	642	—	—
Common inns	155	—	—
Public markets	278	—	—

Name	Organization or Institution	Property and Funds	Expenditure
Cheap dining rooms	70	—	—
Public baths	170	—	—
Public pawnshops	1,061	—	—
Relief and prevention of unemployment	661	1,877,053	3,072,857
Giving work	72	1,807,053	1,257,834
Employment exchanges	586	—	1,799,577
Vocational guidance	2	70,000	15,446
Poor relief	595	36,818,132	3,639,621
Relief at home	172	4,129,212	360,169
Relief in institutions	140	11,453,769	1,440,315
Protection of cripples and invalids	33	2,367,855	292,841
Protection of the bereaved families of soldiers	250	18,867,296	1,546,296
Medical treatment	747	41,777,140	13,514,409
Charity hospitals	169	31,884,785	8,957,145
Consultation rooms	410	4,240,743	1,760,967
Cared at private hospitals	62	55,062	114,382
Insane hospitals	52	1,117,967	484,620
Tuberculosis sanatoria	36	3,213,708	1,367,661
Leper homes	18	1,264,875	829,634
Miscellaneous	592	106,589,633	24,573,819
Settlement work	169	6,283,515	1,207,761
Consultation bureaux	153	65,818	23,477
Protection of women	26	668,309	182,566
Mother and child protection	15	69,334	23,822
Father and child protection	2	—	1,769
Visiting sick people	12	52,076	39,646
Hygienic education	89	2,334,988	1,092,967
Funeral aid	5	94,235	35,705
Other work	121	97,021,358	21,966,106
Grand Total	9,423	289,379,141	58,448,074

STATISTICAL TABLE OF SOCIAL WORK IN JAPAN

(Continued)

Organs	Name	Results (Cases, etc.)	Workers
		(Cases) 6,767,817	41,711
		(Students) 94	—
Unifying organizations		—	429
Investigation organs		—	36
Educational organs	(Students)	94	45
Supplementary organs		—	124
Block committees	(Cases)	6,767,817	41,077
Backing organs of the block committees		—	—
Child protection		444,232	5,764
	(Cases)	36,347	—
Protection of pregnant women		7,303	498
(Midwives)	(Cases)	25,512	—
(Hospitals)		56,300	469
Protection of suckling infants		120,818	142
Day-nurseries		66,303	2,356
Orphanages		1,710	834
Child consultation	(Cases)	161,503	306
Protection of cripples		53	8
Protection of weak children		1,522	96
	(Cases)	1,773,603	—
Protection of sick children		12,740	78
Protection of maltreated children		111	29
	(Cases)	3,831	—
Education of poor children		6,165	240

Name	Results (Cases, etc.)	Workers
Schools for nursemaids	551	46
Education of working children	615	69
Reformatory education	2,841	509
Reformatory protection	—	—
Temporary protection of children	507	10
Protection of abnormal children	306	57
Stammer correction	5,079	17
Economic protection	(Houses) 33,500	—
	(Cases) 33,354,248	—
	(Sales) ¥54,354,432	—
	(Loans) ¥15,536,332	—
Housing work	(Houses) 33,500	—
Common inns	(Cases) 3,686,593	—
Public markets	(Sales) ¥54,354,432	—
Cheap dining rooms	(Cases) 10,246,608	—
Public baths	(..) 19,421,047	—
Public pawnshops	(Loans) ¥15,536,332	—
Relief and prevention of unemployment	(Hired) 672,460	2,678
	(Cases) 14,371,329	—
Giving work	12,769	303
Employment exchanges	(Hired) 672,460	2,363
	(Cases) 14,371,329	—
Vocational guidance	154	12
Poor relief	283,138	1,393
Relief at home	(Cases) 15,818	233
Relief in institutions	9,764	852
Protection of cripples and invalids	5,025	179
Protection of the bereaved families of soldiers	254,371	129
Medical treatment	2,695,730	14,886
Charity hospitals	1,826,626	8,637
Consultation rooms	814,811	4,316
Cared at private hospitals	29,627	393
Insane hospitals	9,792	809
Tuberculosis sanatoria	9,215	730
Leper homes	6,659	271
Miscellaneous	(Offices) 4,673	2,938
	(Cases) 71,785	—
Settlement work	—	—
Consultation bureaux	43,446	190
Protection of women	(Rooms) 3,434	102
	23,042	—
Mother and child protection	1,130	35
Father and child protection	109	6
Visiting sick people	—	38
Hygienic education	—	35
Funeral aid	(Cases) 5,281	15
Other work	—	2,517
Grand Total	3,440,696	69,370
	(Cases) 57,109,593	—
	(Houses) 33,500	—
	(Sales) ¥54,354,432	—
	(Loans) ¥15,536,332	—

New Social Measures

The Store Law

Legislation regulating the business hours of stores, particularly small stores, has long been under consideration in Japan. The Store Law now in

effect was approved as presented at the 73rd session of the Imperial Diet (1938) and issued as Law No. 28 on March 26th. With the promulgation on August 31st of Imperial Ordinance No. 618 concerning the date of enforcement of

the Store Law, it came into force on October 1st.

Purpose of the Law The primary purpose of the Store Law is to promote health and hygienic conditions in employees of stores.

Examination of the actual conditions prevailing in the operation of stores in Japan reveals that business hours are uselessly long and irregular, as such matters are left entirely in the hands of proprietors. The closing time in numerous cases is later than 11 o'clock or even 12 o'clock at night. The closing time of department stores is fixed under the Department Store Law, while that of restaurants and other eating places is restricted by police regulations. However, there has been no law restricting business hours or fixing the closing time for stores in general from the standpoint of protecting employees, although certain voluntary restrictions exist under agreements reached by commercial organizations. These voluntary agreements have not been operating satisfactorily in most business enterprises with the exception of barber shops. Elsewhere, long working hours are subjecting store employees to over-exertion and are seriously affecting their health.

Results of the recent physical examination for conscription show that men employed in business have inferior physiques to those in other occupations. Among those rated as first-grade conscripts, for example, men engaged in fishing occupied the predominant position, followed by those engaged in mining, transportation, agriculture, manufacturing industries and commerce. Among those who were classed as third-grade conscripts, men employed in commerce outnumbered the others. These facts indicate conspicuously that men employed in stores have very poor physiques.

The secondary purpose of the Store Law is to give store employees an opportunity for self-culture, study and training. Under present working conditions, employees have little time for study and mental development; they are too often denied the opportunity of becoming trained businessmen. This state of affairs is not only unfortunate for the employees themselves, but it constitutes serious losses to the proprietors of stores as well. The nation suffers too, inasmuch as many promising youths are not given chances to grow in usefulness.

With the enforcement of the Store Law, employees will have a little spare time in the evenings and those inter-

ested will be able to utilize holidays to improve and train themselves. If thoughtful proprietors of shops and business leaders take the opportunity created by the enactment of the present law to direct more positive efforts toward the betterment of treatment of their employees and set up cultural institutions and measures designed to raise their physical standard, it will mean that the Store Law has laid a foundation for important improvements in social welfare.

Thirdly, it may be pointed out that to restrict adequately the present uselessly long and irregular business hours is to economize in operating expenses and to rationalize the management of stores. In the case of restaurants and other eating houses, there may be a considerable volume of business even after 10 o'clock at night, but in the case of ordinary stores or barber shops, business would be trifling after this hour. Basically, the total volume of purchases by consumers in a city has certain limits; it fluctuates little according to early or late closings. In general, late closing times cause a reduction in the ratio of business profits to operating expenses. In other words, by closing stores late at night, proprietors sacrifice themselves for the benefit of casual customers.

An official survey conducted in this connection some years ago in the busiest sections of representative cities throughout the country—sections that thrive particularly on evening business—showed that the number of customers after 10 o'clock was but 5.2 per cent of the total for the day; proceeds of sales after 10 o'clock amounted to only 3.5 per cent of the day's business.

There are many cases in which leading stores have been able to rationalize their management and to increase their sales by closing their establishments earlier at night. Regulation of closing times by law would rather be beneficial to stores, enabling them to economize in electric light charges, fuel and diverse other items, since there is no fear that the legal restrictions would cause unfair competition from other stores. Some proprietors advocated the promulgation of such regulations long ago, not simply for the protection of their employees, but because they expected to rationalize their business under these conditions.

Substance of the Law The Store Law consists of 18 Articles. It provides rules governing the closing time and holidays, special rules regarding large stores, rules protecting the health of employees

and prevention of injuries, rules governing store management and penalty provisions.

1. The Scope of Application (Articles 1 and 17)

In view of the fact that restriction of business hours is required mainly in cities, this law is applied to cities. When the Minister of Welfare considers it necessary to prevent injustice to city stores and unfair competition by town and village stores against city stores, the law may be made applicable to towns and villages adjoining cities. The Government has no intention for the time being of applying the law to other rural communities.

The Store Law is applied to merchandise sales businesses, barber shops, hair dressers and beauty parlours. The merchandise sales business includes wholesale and retail stores, but restaurants and other eating places are excluded by virtue of an Imperial Ordinance. From the standpoint of protection of employees, the law should be applied to restaurants, but the Government has decided to exempt these for the present because it is extremely difficult to restrict their business hours in a manner similar to that of other businesses, in view of the peculiar conditions under which they are operated. Special legislation here is being contemplated.

Article 1 of the present law provides that the law is applicable to merchandise sales businesses, barber shops, hair dressers and beauty parlours run for profit. However, Article 17 provides that the law is applicable as well to all such enterprises operated by cities, towns, villages, cooperative industrial societies and cooperative consumers societies on a non-profit making basis. From the point of view of protection of employees, there is no reason for the latter to be exempted.

2. Regulation on Closing Time (Articles 2, 3 and 4)

Working hours must be restricted. However, due consideration must be given to the fact that stores are operated to attract customers, and it is extremely difficult for them to accomplish business purposes within strictly limited hours of operation under the circumstances prevailing in Japan. The present law, therefore, regulates only the closing time and but indirectly restricts the working hours of employees, leaving this latter problem for future solution.

The law in principle fixes the closing hour at 10 o'clock at night. It prohibits sales of merchandise, hair cutting, hair dressing and beauty parlour services

after that time.

A few exceptions are recognized. For instance, the law permits sales and services for customers who enter stores before the closing hour and remain. The law also allows sales of merchandise after closing time to customers who wish to buy articles for emergency purposes.

For districts where business thrives especially during the evening and where it is extremely difficult for stores to close at 10 o'clock, prefectural governors (Metropolitan Police Headquarters in Tokyo) are authorized to extend the closing time to 11 o'clock within certain limited areas. In designating such special areas, decisions are to be made after consulting chambers of commerce and industry or other organizations within the involved districts. In accordance with prescribed rules. Again, during periods of unusual business activity—year-end, new year, mid-summer gift season, holidays, etc.—prefectural governors, when deemed necessary, may extend the closing time or suspend the application of the rules governing the closing time within limited areas and periods of time, all not to exceed 60 days throughout the year.

3. Holidays (Article 5)

The Store Law provides that proprietors of stores must give at least one holiday a month to their employees. It is not necessary to close the stores, although it is considered best to adopt such a system giving complete holidays once a month to employees. In certain lines regular monthly holidays are already established. Yet, under prevailing conditions, it is difficult to enforce a rigid holiday system through legal measures and the Government has avoided it accordingly.

4. Exemption of Stores in Special Districts (Article 6)

Stores attached to amusement enterprises, exhibitions, expositions, fairs or other similar places where it is impossible to close shop at 10 o'clock may be exempted from the provisions of the law with the permission of prefectural governors. Temporary enterprises such as exhibitions and expositions are exempted from the application of the provisions on holidays, provided that the enterprises have been approved by the prefectural governors.

5. Working Hours and Holidays of Large Stores (Articles 7 and 8)

The business of large commercial establishments is conducted systematically. There is no reason why they should be treated differently from factories that come under the Factory Law which

provides the limits of working hours and holidays for minor workers under the age of 16 and female operatives. The Store Law provides, therefore, that large commercial establishments where 50 or more persons are employed regularly are required, as under the Factory Law, to limit the working hours for female and minor employees under the age of 16 to less than 11 hours a day, including 20 minutes rest time to the hour. The law also requires that such employees be given two or more holidays a month.

Large commercial establishments may extend the maximum working hours, as in the case of stores in general, in busy times on the approval of prefectural governors. Such times are limited to 60 days within the year. Large establishments may further extend working hours beyond this 60-day period in cases of extraordinary necessity, on approval of the authorities. Similarly, the number of holidays may be cut to one a month in unusually busy seasons.

6. Promotion of Health and Prevention of Casualties (Article 9)

The Store Law authorizes prefectural governors to issue various orders regarding the prevention of injuries and the promotion of health at all times advisable. The law specifically requires the proprietors of stores with 50 or more employees to provide at least one bench for every three female employees whose work requires them to remain standing over long periods.

7. Street-stalls and Shops on Ships and Trains

The present law is not applied to stores on trains, steamships and other transportation services. Nor does it apply to street-stalls. However, it authorizes prefectural governors to fix the closing time for the latter, since it is possible to cause unfair competition between general stores and street-stalls if the latter are permitted to engage in unrestricted business while the former are required to close at 10 o'clock.

Legislation protecting workers is not new in Japan. Various laws such as the Factory Law, the Mining Enterprises Law, the Law Governing the Minimum Age of Workers and the Health Insurance Law have long been in force. However, there have been no legal measures protecting employees in commercial establishments. The Store Law is indeed the forerunner in its kind, and its importance is to be found in the fact that the Government has established a basis for the systematic protection of commercial employees.

The number of store employees who

receive protection under this law is approximately 1,400,000. The Store Law is applicable to proprietors of stores and their employees only. It imposes no legal obligations on third parties. The law is certain to have far-reaching consequences to society in that it prohibits sales or services to customers after 10 o'clock at night.

Measures Assisting Changes in Occupation

A result of the enforcement of the plan for mobilization of materials has been that considerable numbers of merchants and manufacturers have been forced to suspend or close their businesses, or to curtail business operations. This plan was put into operation in connection with the China Affair and was aimed at securing speedy and adequate manufacture of war supplies and at balancing the country's international accounts through restriction of imports and expansion of exports. Under the plan, strict economy is enjoined on all internal consumption of goods. Should the plight of those affected be left unremedied, the plan might defeat its own purpose by impairing the stability of national life and the nation's economic strength.

Aware of this possible danger, the competent authorities have determined to take the necessary measures to enable such industrialists and tradespeople to tide over the emergency by entering war-supplies industries and such other trades as are calculated to remove anxiety and unrest from these people, their families and employees.

Problems affecting industry and trade will be taken by the Department of Commerce and Industry. Those pertaining to employees and workers will be handled by the Department of Welfare.

The ordinance of the Department of Commerce and Industry of September 21, 1938, provides for the creation in that Department of a temporary Bureau specially devoted to the study of the problem of changes of trade. Officers to take charge of this work are to be specially appointed and attached to all the prefectural offices. These officers, in close touch with the Central Government, will render concerted efforts to facilitate the changes of business. To finance this work, the Government has made an appropriation out of its reserves for the sum of ¥3,410,000.

Principles The basic idea of all measures for ensuring changes in occupations is to minimize the sacrifices that may be entailed in the operation of the

plan for mobilization of materials and to enable persons to continue in existing businesses. Where, however, this is not feasible, all reasonable assistance will be given them to effect the necessary changes. Changes in occupations must be made in one of the following three directions: (a) war supplies industries; (b) export goods industries; (c) substitute goods industries where raw materials are obtainable within Japan.

As to the manner of procedure of the present work, while it is important to ascertain the technical ability of each individual and the condition of his equipment, the measures to be applied should be worked out rationally and systematically. In the actual work to be undertaken, full use should be made of the associations of small- and medium-sized industrialists and merchants already in existence. Where people are without such an organization, they should be induced to form one and receive guidance so as to be able to effect changes of occupations in a rational manner.

Remedial Measures The measures to be pursued by the Bureau in charge of the work, mentioned above, lie along the following lines:

(1) To ensure readjustment in the distribution of orders centering in prosperous industries. Some sort of arrangement may be made with Government offices from which these business orders emanate and with the management of large factories, whereby a portion of the orders can be directed or shared by industries so as to correct the lack of equilibrium that exists in the industrial organization. Officers specially in charge of this work will be attached to prefectural offices to see that the distribution of orders and the maintenance of the standard of manufactures as well as their delivery are regularly observed. Officers will also be attached to the local groups affiliated with the Central Industrial Association. For financing this phase of the work, a sum of ¥42,000 has been allocated by the Treasury for the current year.

(2) Increasing technical experts in the prefectural offices to direct changes of occupations. For the purpose of facilitating changes to new trades it is necessary to give the applicants considerable amount of training. Technical guidance in prefectural offices will be increased and training institutes in each prefecture will be conducted. Also, ways will be provided to enable people to take practical lessons in large factories. The Treasury has made an ap-

propriation for a grant of ¥160,000 for this work.

(3) Further financial aid may be made for mechanical equipment required for effecting changes of trades. When many people seek to have equipment of their own, shortages in the necessary materials will result. A great majority of these people lack means wherewith to provide their own machinery. This state of affairs calls for the organization of associations of small industrialists, which will allow their members to make use of common equipment. These organizations will be partly subsidized by the Treasury. Government grants for the setting up of plants and equipments by the industrial associations for the year 1938-39 will amount to ¥3,300,000 in respect of change to war-supplies industries and to ¥1,000,000 in respect of change to the export and substitute articles industries.

(4) Government subsidies in the manufacture of sample goods for a time immediately after changes in occupations. The war-supplies industry requires speedy manufacture of fine machinery, but in case technical skill is wanting the manufactures are apt to fall short of the standard. This may prove to be a deterring factor in the successful change of trade. Likewise, change to the export and substitute goods industries is by no means easy because of the difficulty in acquiring new outlets due to lack of credit, technical skill and adequate advertising. To lighten the burden of preparing sample goods, at least for an early period, the Government will grant subsidies and has made an appropriation of ¥200,000 for the manufacture of samples of export and substitute articles as well as for the execution of orders taken from war-supplies manufactories.

(5) Prefectural offices will undertake the distribution, in small lots, of raw materials for export goods manufacture. In the manufacture of export goods, it so happens that, in spite of the possession of a large portion of materials, want of a small quantity of some other materials very often delays the completion of manufacture. Prefectural offices will see that small manufacturers in such a difficulty are promptly supplied with the needed materials; this task will be attended to by the technical experts attached to each prefectural office.

(6) Organization and alignment of commercial and industrial advisory organs. Where small- and medium-sized industrialists and merchants are unable to form associations due to lack of

means or numbers, individual technical guidance must be given. There will, therefore, be established in each prefecture a Central Commercial and Industrial Advisory Office, where direction and advice concerning change of trade, management and financing will be given by well-qualified advisers. Advisory organs already in existence will be aligned and brought under the control of the central organ. In aid of this work, the sum of ¥110,000 has been appropriated by the Treasury for the current year.

(7) Financing of capital required in the new trades. In addition to the sundry subsidies to be granted in connection with changes of occupations by people of small means, the Department of Finance, through the Treasury Deposit Bureau, will grant credit for part of the necessary capital up to the aggregate sum of ¥20,000. The manner of administering these credits will be determined by the Departments of Finance and Commerce and Industry. Furthermore, the terms and conditions governing the loans actually extended to the small- and medium-sized industrialists and merchants will be made easier and broader so as to render them available also for the purposes under consideration in the present article. The system of indemnification by the Treasury for losses that may arise with Government guarantees in operation in the prefectures and the six largest cities will be extended to cover the present work.

Care of Wounded Soldiers

With the expansion of hostilities in China, there was established on November 1st, 1937 a Provisional Division for Military Relief within the Bureau of Social Affairs of the Home Office. The Section for Protection of Wounded Soldiers of that division worked as the central organ making investigations and formulating protective measures for sick and wounded soldiers. But when the Department of Welfare was established in January, 1938, the work of dealing with these affairs was transferred to it. The new Department promptly organized the Council on Protective Measures for Sick and Wounded Soldiers, with the Minister of Welfare, Marquis Koichi Kido, as president. The detailed report of this Council which was presented at its second plenary session on January 27th, formed the basis of the present Government policy for the protection of sick and wounded soldiers. The necessary appropriations for 1938 were approved at the 73rd session of

the Imperial Diet, and the Board for the Protection of Wounded Soldiers was established.

The Board has now become the central organ for the work of caring for disabled veterans. Under the jurisdiction of the Department of Welfare also is the work of assisting and directing prefectural authorities and various organizations engaged in similar undertakings.

The Board for the Protection of Wounded Soldiers is under the jurisdiction of the Minister of Welfare, and has charge of affairs pertaining to the healing and rehabilitation of wounded soldiers (including persons considered as such who were wounded or taken ill while in service).

The organization of the Board includes a president, a vice-president, a secretariate of general affairs, and two departments for planning and for general activities. The Planning Department consists of three sections for direction, planning and management, while the General Activities Department is divided into three sections of business, guidance and medical treatment. The presidency of the Board is an honorary office to be held by one with "shin-nin" rank, receiving Imperial appointment. As the first President, General Baron Shigeru Honjo has been appointed. In view of the importance of the work of the Board, as many as five advisers, 15 councillors and a number of technical experts have been selected to serve for two years.

An original appropriation of about ¥140,000 was made in 1937 to provide for the spiritual comfort and vocational guidance as well as medical treatment of disabled soldiers. To provide spiritual instruction and guidance, Major-General Chuon Sakurai, author of the famous book *Human Bullets*, and nine others were engaged. They visited and delivered lectures at all army and navy hospitals of the country. For vocational instruction, ten experts were commissioned by the Board and sent to these hospitals to train the injured veterans in future occupations. As for medical treatment, hospitals and clinics, both public and private, and hotels at various hot-spring resorts were entrusted with the care of the veterans in white.

These were merely emergency measures to meet the immediate situation. With the establishment of the Board for the Protection of Wounded Soldiers, regular and permanent work of protection was inaugurated, four main divisions of which are described below.

Emphasis is placed on the importance

of strengthening the spirit of loyalty in the wounded soldiers so that they will be ready as before to serve the State with honour and pride by exercising proper self-control. At the same time the general public is to be educated so that it will retain always its deep respect and gratitude toward the wounded veterans, who will happily be reinstated in society.

(a) Cultural Instruction for the Wounded

Despatching of lecturers to give spiritual guidance, lecture meetings, joint tours of inspection and study, meetings for moral and cultural advancement, production of motion-pictures, and distribution of suitable literature are among the measures placed in this category.

(b) Education of the General Public

The public is to be educated with a view to improving its attitude toward the disabled, through lecture meetings, encouragement of suitable literary production, and publication and distribution of various literatures. National educational campaigns are to be held every year to train the general populace in that regard in their everyday life.

(c) Other Measures

Public ceremonies in honour of wounded soldiers and the supervision and encouragement of various educational organizations concerned in work for soldiers are contemplated.

Medical Care Appropriate measures have been taken to provide the necessary medical care, in cases of relapse from recovery, tuberculosis and mental disorders after the patients have been discharged from hospitals, and to enable them to be treated in their home districts as far as possible in consideration of their family circumstances.

(a) Establishment of Sanatoriums for Wounded Soldiers

The present plan is to establish a sanatorium for mental diseases (with capacity of one hundred men), recuperatory sanatoriums in hot-spring resorts (ten such establishments at suitable spas, each with a capacity of caring for a hundred men at a time), and sanatoriums for tubercular cases (twenty-five establishments in suitable places in the country, each capable of holding five hundred patients).

(b) Treatments by Commission System

Until the above-mentioned establishments are erected, treatments for the wounded soldiers are entrusted as far as possible to public and private hospitals and hotels at hot-spring spas. Even after the completion of the gov-

ernment sanatoriums, this will be done in case these places are full and cannot care for more patients.

(c) Supply of Appliances and Medical Treatment

Such appliances as perambulators and beds are supplied as required, while medical treatment other than that mentioned in the preceding paragraphs is also given.

(d) Admission into the Institute for Wounded Soldiers

This Institute is located at Odawara in Kanagawa Prefecture.

Vocational Aid To enable the wounded soldiers to utilize their abilities to the fullest extent in accordance with environmental conditions and to face the future with hope, vocational guidance, adult education and assistance in finding suitable employments are given. In affording vocational aid, the policy is that the injured soldiers are, in principle, to be restored to their former occupations; but in the cases of those who cannot be so restored or who had no occupations before, new occupations are to be provided.

(a) Establishments for Vocational Direction

Besides giving vocational instruction at two or three "Institutes for Vocational Training" (accommodating two hundred men) to be established in different parts of the country, the existing establishment, the Keisei-sha, will be expanded to educate a hundred men at a time. Furthermore, in order to give minor vocational training, some fifty "Institutes for Vocational Training" will be founded and managed by different prefectures.

(b) Vocational Guidance

In order to give proper guidance to the wounded soldiers on matters pertaining to the nature of their injuries or illness with reference to occupations suitable to them, as well as to their individual desires and selection of their future occupations, various employment agencies are encouraged to be more active. Vocational advisers and officials in charge of affairs concerning vocational guidance are to be installed in prefectural offices.

(c) Expediting Employment

Efforts will be made to expedite the securing of employment for wounded veterans through redoubled activities on the part of employment agencies. Government offices are to be urged to lead the public in giving work to the injured soldiers and industrial circles are to be urged to cooperate. In the meantime, subsidies are being granted to those employers who make such altera-

tions in working equipment as will meet the requirements of the sick or wounded ex-servicemen.

(d) Encouragement of Independent Proprietors

Proper guidance will be given the wounded soldiers who are independent proprietors of business, and to them business capital will be loaned through protective organizations subsidized by the Government.

(e) Distribution and Repair of Artificial Limbs and Supplementary Apparatuses

To those who have been crippled, artificial limbs or other apparatuses are provided, thereby increasing their efficiency and making it easier for them to obtain jobs.

Relative Works (a) Aid for the Education of Children of Wounded Soldiers

As one of the primary interests of wounded soldiers is in obtaining education for their children, subsidies will be granted to prefectural offices with which supplementary funds for education of these children in intermediate schools will be created.

(b) Subsidy to the Japan Wounded

Soldiers Association

Subsidies are to be granted to the Japan Wounded Soldiers Association, an organization founded by wounded soldiers for their mutual benefit, with which the association will establish its branches in various prefectures. These branches will each have a consultation office for wounded soldiers, which will give advice on personal affairs.

(c) Establishment of a Foundation

As an organ to aid the work for the care of wounded soldiers, an appropriate foundation is to be established which will support the work of finding occupations for wounded soldiers as well as the work of creating State establishments.

All these undertakings have been planned with due regard to the fundamental principle of Japan's polity and with reference to her past experiences and those of other countries. It is believed, therefore, that the enterprise, by virtue of its well-formulated organization and thoroughness, will achieve fully the object of protecting and caring for wounded and sick soldiers.

CHAPTER XXXI

LABOUR AND LABOUR MOVEMENTS

Labour

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

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

CLASSIFICATION OF PEOPLE IN JAPAN PROPER ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS

(The 1930 Census)

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

According to investigations made by the Labour Section of the Social Bureau the classifications of labourers according to kinds of occupation at the end of 1935 was as follows:

Factory workers	2,791,902
Mine workers	274,804
Transport and communication	544,475
Day-labourers and others	2,295,408
Total	5,906,589
Male	4,146,960
Female	1,759,629

Labour Conditions

According to the investigation made by the police stations the total number of labourers in Japan proper was 6,422,333, consisting of 4,534,342 males and 1,887,991 females, at the end of 1937, a gain of more than 331,000 over the previous year. The following table shows the movements of the number of labourers in recent years. (The number of farmers is given in Chapter XIII.)

NUMBER OF LABOURERS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Home Ministry)

At the End of	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Grand Total						
Total	5,126,719	5,764,277	5,906,589	6,090,116	6,422,333	6,765,399
Male	3,592,899	4,066,322	4,146,960	4,280,023	4,534,342	—
Female	1,533,820	1,697,955	1,759,629	1,810,093	1,887,991	—
Factory						
Total	2,234,029	2,539,384	2,791,902	3,067,417	3,406,969	—
Male	1,247,644	1,438,983	1,629,869	1,813,616	2,127,094	—
Female	986,385	1,100,401	1,162,033	1,253,801	1,279,875	—

LABOUR CONDITIONS

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At the End of	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Mine						
Total	227,988	247,186	274,804	320,481	366,171	—
Male	202,862	220,084	247,668	285,414	311,390	—
Female	25,126	27,102	27,136	35,067	54,781	—
Transportation and Communication						
Total	556,929	555,124	544,475	565,264	549,324	—
Male	496,293	488,544	472,101	493,297	476,949	—
Female	60,636	66,580	72,374	71,967	72,375	—
Day Labourers, etc.						
Total	2,107,773	2,422,583	2,295,408	2,136,954	2,099,869	—
Male	1,646,100	1,918,711	1,797,322	1,687,696	1,618,909	—
Female	461,673	503,872	498,086	449,258	480,960	—

Factories and Labourers The number of factories where more than 5 operatives are employed in Japan proper at the end of 1937 was 106,005, an increase of 15,403 or 17.0 per cent as compared with the previous year.

The number of labourers employed in the 106,005 factories above mentioned at the end of 1937 was 2,936,512 (1,727,032 men, 1,209,480 women), gaining 343,825 or 13.3 per cent over the previous year. Classification of the same according to kinds of industry follows:

The number of labourers employed

NUMBER OF FACTORY LABOURERS BY INDUSTRIES IN 1937

Industry:	Sex Distribution		Male	Female
	Number	Percentage to the Total		
Textile	1,032,510	35.2	201,355(19.5%)	831,155(80.5%)
Metal	310,490	10.6	286,551(92.3%)	23,939 (7.7%)
Machinery, tools, etc.	601,684	20.5	547,276(91.0%)	54,408 (9.0%)
Ceramic	112,857	3.8	68,033(78.0%)	24,824(22.0%)
Chemical	322,796	11.0	211,948(65.7%)	110,848(34.3%)
Lumber and wood-working	107,869	3.7	96,564(89.5%)	11,305(10.5%)
Printing and binding	64,652	2.2	56,547(87.5%)	8,105(12.5%)
Foodstuff	185,508	6.3	140,364(75.7%)	45,144(24.3%)
Gas and electric	9,286	0.3	9,234(99.4%)	52 (0.6%)
Miscellaneous	188,860	6.4	89,160(47.2%)	99,700(52.8%)
Total	2,936,512	100	1,727,032(58.8%)	1,209,480(41.2%)

Age Distribution

Industry:	Age Distribution		
	Under 16	16-49	Over 50
Textile	187,407(18.2%)	835,633(80.9%)	9,470 (0.9%)
Metal	9,749 (3.1%)	293,861(94.7%)	6,880 (2.2%)
Machinery, tools, etc.	37,068 (6.2%)	553,766(92.0%)	10,850 (1.8%)
Ceramic	4,681 (4.1%)	103,473(91.7%)	4,703 (4.2%)
Chemical	23,403 (7.3%)	293,431(90.9%)	5,962 (1.8%)
Lumber and wood-working	3,167 (2.9%)	100,145(92.9%)	4,557 (4.2%)
Printing and binding	3,248 (5.0%)	60,075(92.9%)	1,329 (2.1%)
Foodstuff	4,181 (2.2%)	176,169(95.0%)	5,158 (2.8%)
Gas and electric	38 (0.4%)	8,772(94.5%)	476 (5.1%)
Miscellaneous	13,272 (7.0%)	171,362(90.7%)	4,226 (2.3%)
Total	286,214 (9.8%)	2,596,687(88.4%)	53,611 (1.8%)

Labour Conditions in 1938

The Bank of Japan index number of labourers in mills under private management was 108.5 in December of 1936 (base:1926), and it rose to 129.2 in

December, 1938. The rate of increase was 9.4 per cent in 1935, 6 per cent in 1936, 16 per cent in 1937, and 10.1 in 1938.

The change in the index number of labourers in recent years is as shown below. The boom in the munition

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

COMPARISON OF INDEX NUMBERS OF LABOURERS IN 1937 and 1938

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)

(Base, 1926=100)

	Average		Male		Female			Average		Male		Female	
	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938		1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938
Jan.	109.0	122.9	124.2	146.2	94.0	99.8	Aug.	118.6	130.2	135.8	161.0	101.8	99.3
Feb.	110.0	123.5	125.4	148.0	94.8	99.1	Sept.	120.8	131.1	139.2	163.4	102.7	98.7
March	111.8	125.0	127.5	150.9	96.5	99.2	Oct.	122.2	131.9	141.9	165.6	102.8	98.1
April	116.4	129.3	130.4	155.4	102.6	103.3	Nov.	123.3	132.8	144.1	167.3	102.7	98.1
May	117.1	129.8	131.5	156.8	103.1	102.9	Dec.	123.2	133.5	145.2	169.0	101.4	97.8
June	117.6	130.0	132.7	158.3	102.7	101.8	Year	117.3	129.2	134.3	158.5	100.6	99.9
July	117.8	129.9	133.5	159.5	102.3	100.2							

INDEX NUMBER OF FACTORY LABOURERS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)

(1926=100)

Industries	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Silk reeling	60.2	60.3	55.8	54.5	53.7
Cotton spinning	69.4	74.1	72.9	77.8	72.6
Textiles	75.9	79.5	79.9	82.8	78.9
Dyeing	104.7	115.8	122.9	125.5	117.1
Knitting	89.0	93.6	103.8	108.2	104.2
Machinery	168.8	197.6	222.0	280.8	422.4
Shipbuilding	101.9	117.5	143.0	187.7	232.6
Vehicles	104.6	119.4	125.2	134.8	164.9
Instruments	128.6	150.7	171.6	207.9	278.4
Metal wares	117.2	133.0	145.9	168.6	204.0
Ceramics	80.7	85.9	90.8	98.5	99.5
Paper mak'g	80.4	84.5	89.1	94.8	97.2
Pharmaceutical	124.2	134.5	147.3	163.7	186.6
Rubber goods	148.5	147.7	151.0	156.9	141.4
Artificial fertilizers	83.4	96.9	113.3	135.0	158.3
Foodstuffs	84.5	90.1	92.8	97.3	105.9
Printing and book-binding	95.4	97.6	100.8	102.0	101.0
Lumber and furniture	75.9	79.8	82.6	82.4	81.1

INDEX NUMBER OF WAGE RATES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES

(Base 1926=100)

Industries	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Silk reeling	60.4	61.6	61.7	64.2	67.9
Cotton spinning	468.2	67.1	67.3	71.2	75.1
Textiles	72.1	73.4	74.2	77.5	79.3
Dyeing	83.6	82.8	82.8	85.1	87.9
Knitting	73.2	74.3	73.2	75.1	81.2
Machinery	81.1	78.0	76.1	76.3	78.7
Shipbuilding	89.7	88.6	86.9	87.1	88.4
Vehicles	80.8	77.1	76.2	78.7	81.0
Instruments	81.5	78.9	77.1	76.7	79.2
Metal wares	86.6	83.3	82.2	82.7	85.6

Industries	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Ceramics	84.4	83.5	83.8	85.6	89.4
Paper making	88.6	87.3	86.8	89.8	93.7
Pharmaceutical	89.7	86.9	87.0	88.4	90.5
Rubber goods	82.4	81.3	79.0	79.9	85.6
Artificial fertilizers	98.8	97.9	97.6	96.8	96.5
Foodstuffs	91.3	89.2	89.2	91.4	92.9
Printing and book-binding	81.1	78.8	77.6	77.9	80.7
Lumber and furniture	76.7	77.0	75.9	77.4	81.5
Average	82.9	81.3	80.7	82.4	85.4

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

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

UNEMPLOYMENT BY KINDS OF LABOUR

(Compiled by the Welfare Ministry)

(Unit 1,000)

	Total			Salaried Men		
	Investigation made on	Unemployment	Rate	Investigation made on	Unemployment	Rate
Oct. 1925	2,355	105	4.48	615	19	3.15
Dec. 1930	6,890	362	5.25	1,624	63	3.91
Dec. 1931	7,047	470	6.68	1,664	77	4.65
Dec. 1932	7,263	463	6.38	1,692	83	4.94
Dec. 1933	7,410	378	5.11	1,720	69	4.01
Dec. 1934	7,517	360	4.80	1,738	67	3.88
Dec. 1935	7,778	351	4.52	1,787	68	3.82
Dec. 1936	7,919	323	4.08	1,829	66	3.58
Dec. 1937	8,012	270	3.37	1,859	59	3.16
Nov. 1938	7,910	227	2.86	1,880	49	2.62

Labourers

	Day-labourers			Others		
	Investigation made on	Unemployment	Rate	Investigation made on	Unemployment	Rate
Oct. 1925	206	39	19.36	1,533	46	3.02
Dec. 1930	1,615	146	9.07	3,650	151	4.16
Dec. 1931	1,665	188	11.34	3,717	204	5.50
Dec. 1932	1,781	193	10.88	3,788	185	4.91
Dec. 1933	1,789	183	10.24	3,899	126	3.25
Dec. 1934	1,785	176	9.89	3,992	116	2.92
Dec. 1935	1,816	169	9.34	4,174	113	2.72
Dec. 1936	1,839	155	8.43	4,251	103	2.41
Dec. 1937	1,864	130	6.96	4,289	82	1.90
Nov. 1938	1,837	106	5.78	4,193	71	1.69

In factories and mines in 1930 and 1931 dismissals were greater than engagements, but since then the movement

has reversed. Details follow:

MOVEMENT OF EMPLOYMENT AT FACTORIES AND MINES WHERE
MORE THAN 50 OPERATIVES ARE EMPLOYED

	At the Factories			At the Mines		
	Dismissed	Engaged	Total Number of Employed (October)	Dismissed	Engaged	Total Number of Employed (October)
1930	569,433	515,159	1,139,887	163,611	112,930	216,189
1931	656,114	555,055	1,100,730	103,015	69,954	180,427
1932	483,853	540,543	1,071,372	87,173	75,460	170,518
1933	524,937	634,254	1,195,129	114,670	147,059	205,841
1934	568,535	680,876	1,366,630	141,597	153,413	221,664
1935	663,806	793,790	1,402,939	150,178	174,600	237,695
1936	731,960	691,809	1,627,554	194,484	221,446	271,072

Labour Exchanges The conditions of labour exchanges are mentioned in Chapter XXX.

Extraordinary Condition of Unemployment

Certain branches of industry in Japan are now hard hit, while industries supplying war materials, since the outbreak of hostilities in China in July, 1937, have made rapid development. Industries manufacturing goods for export and articles classed as luxuries have suffered greatly, what with the cessation of trade with China, the lack of ships' space and what the practice of thrift and economy by the nation.

In view of the amount of commodities consumed and destroyed in modern warfare, an adequate supply of commodities is an essential condition of successful military operations. At the Cabinet meeting of June 23, 1938, the Government decided on a revised material mobilization plan, which purports to effect more vigorously the adjustment of supply of goods to this huge demand. On the 29th of the same month, laws were put into operation restricting the manufacture, processing and marketing of various important materials for internal consumption. As a result, an increasing number of factories and concerns manufacturing or distributing these commodities have since been compelled to suspend or close their business.

Unemployment Commission Organization of the Unemployment Commission was promulgated by Imperial Ordinance No. 507 of July 16, 1938. According to this Ordinance, the Commission is composed of the Central and Prefectural Unemployment Commissions, whose duty is to investigate the more important matters concerning measures to cope with the situation. The Central Commission is presided over by the Minister of Welfare and has a membership of

not more than forty, while the prefectural bodies are under the direction of prefectural governors and have memberships of not more than thirty persons. In either case, additional members may be appointed. In fact, the Central Commission is composed of forty regular and 17 special members, and includes high officials of Government departments, including Vice-Ministers, the Vice-President of the Board of Planning, members of Parliament, 13 representatives of various industries, and 6 persons with technical knowledge and experience.

Stressing the urgency of the work of checking unemployment and administering relief, Minister of Welfare, made an inquiry at a meeting of the Central Unemployment Commission as to the measures to be taken for the cure and relief of the unemployment that might arise in connection with the China Affair, particularly in consequence of the mobilization of materials. The Commission conducted a careful investigation and submitted a report to the Welfare Minister.

This report consists of an introduction and the report itself which, again, is divided into three parts: (1) general measures, (2) prevention of unemployment, and (3) unemployment relief. While not neglecting the importance of inculcating upon the nation true appreciation and willing cooperation in the cure and prevention of unemployment, the report urges the Government to do its utmost to rid the country of unemployment or, where it is difficult for people to continue in their existing businesses, to guide and aid them in obtaining new employment.

General Measures (1) **Spiritual Guidance.** In line with the National Spiritual Mobilization movement, persons engaged in prosperous industries should be exhorted to use more self-restraint and denial to make positive efforts for

the cure of unemployment. Persons whose business is depressed are encouraged to persevere and work out their own salvation.

(2) **Relief and protection for the families** whose members have fallen in action. Where these families or the soldiers returning from the front are in danger of losing their employment, particular care and production should be administered to them as far as is feasible.

(3) **Organization of Commissions.** Central and Prefectural Commissions are to be created whose duty is to study measures to cope with the existing situation and to put them into operation.

Prevention of Unemployment (1) **Continuation or Change of Employment.** The continuation of business is of course the most effective way for combating unemployment, but, where this is impossible, a change of personnel should be made to the war-supplies industries, to export trades or to the manufacture of the goods to be used as substitutes for mobilized materials. Such changes may be effected by adjusting the allotment of orders for goods. Business orders emanating from Government departments, including the army and navy, may possibly be allotted so that the weakened businesses may share in them. Prosperous industries should be induced to allow the depressed industrialists to do the work of manufacturing simple machine parts or to allot to them orders for primary materials. Depressed businesses should be supplied with substitute materials and, where necessary, the distribution of these materials should be put under control. Research institutions and laboratories may be mobilized; inventions and research work in the manufacture and use of substitute articles should be encouraged.

(2) **Improvement must be made in the technical skill and business management of small and medium-sized tradespeople.** For this purpose, the Central Unemployment Commission recommends that they be grouped to form associations, which will be provided with facilities such as receiving orders and purchasing substitute materials. Here, the people will also be given instruction and training in technical arts and business management.

(3) **To enable small and medium-sized tradespeople in time of depression to effect changes to the war-supplies industries and other prosperous trades,** it will be necessary to supply them with machines and materials and to give them technical training, which can best be done when people are grouped in

associations.

(4) **Loans will be granted to the associations referred to above and to owners of businesses.**

(5) **Advisory organs giving counsels on commercial and industrial questions will be created.**

(6) **In industries where there is danger of unemployment, the discharge of employees should be averted as far as possible by the use of such means as shortening hours and increasing rest-days.** Where discharges become unavoidable, they should be made gradually, having regard to individual circumstances of the workers.

Relief Measures (1) **Assistance in Finding Employment.** Employment bureaus should be in close touch with all fields of employment. The labour exchanges should require proprietors of factories to report to them in advance the number of workmen to be dismissed, the time and order of dismissal, and should then make efforts to get people employed in war-supplies and other industries where labour is much in demand. Where the employed have to travel to the place of employment, travelling and other expenses may be advanced, if deemed necessary.

(2) **Prosperous industries are urged to give employment to more people.** The war-supplies and other prosperous industries are urged to increase the number of employees by adopting the shift system and by making conditions of employment easier.

(3) **The training facilities of employment bureaus should be enlarged, while public and private labour exchanges should be induced to provide facilities for training in crafts.** Where feasible, persons may be sent to private factories to undergo training and instruction.

(4) **Public and private bodies will be asked to cooperate in giving instruction and training in technical matters to persons who, on account of age or previous occupation, have difficulty in adapting themselves to new employment.**

(5) **Household industries must be encouraged among the unemployed and their families, especially in the line of war supplies.** These industries may be supervised by the tradespeople's associations, which will regulate the transactions, distribute materials and train the workers.

(6) **Persons falling in category (4), described above, should, when individual circumstances favour it, be advised to return to farms to till the land; they may be aided in doing so.**

(7) **When persons are capable of emi-**

ACCIDENTS IN MINES

Year	Cases	Deaths	Injured	Total Casualties
1933	66,929	833	66,340	67,173
1934	73,239	880	72,807	73,687
1935	72,348	1,120	71,746	72,866
1936	72,510	1,234	71,812	73,046
1937	78,605	1,031	77,863	78,894

Marine Accidents The number of fishing boats and vessels without engines wrecked in 1937 was 1,270, and that of vessels with engines 558, greatly de-

creasing as compared with previous years. The crews wrecked with those boats and vessels totalled 2,103.

MARINE ACCIDENTS

Year	Total Number of Fishing Boats and Vessels	Fishing Boats and Vessels Wrecked		Amount of Loss (In ¥1,000)	Total Number of Fishermen	Crews on the Wrecked Boats and Vessels		
		Without Engines	With Engines			Perished	Survived	Total
1933	363,473	12,083	1,444	4,797	1,097,254	714	5,115	5,829
1934	364,582	12,596	2,900	4,785	1,103,346	596	3,852	4,448
1935	366,019	3,443	563	1,775	1,098,999	377	1,942	2,319
1936	366,267	2,841	960	1,744	1,102,502	517	2,292	2,809
1937	364,260	1,270	558	1,147	1,078,142	484	1,619	2,103

Labour Hygiene. The hygienic equipment of factories is legally required, but progress of installation and improvement is rather slow and partial. In compliance with the requirements stated in the new ordinance on labour hygiene, factory managers are endeavouring to

make improvements under the guidance of the Government and prefectural authorities, and good results have been reported as to the health of factory labourers where the work has been carried out. (See Chapters on Agriculture, Fisheries, and Mining.)

Labour Measures in the Emergency

Labour Changes and Training Technicians Shortages in labour are causing competition in employing workers or are inducing workers to change employment. A need has been seen of imposing certain restrictions on the movements of workers with the two-fold object of preventing unnecessary shifting of workers from one occupation to another and helping distribute labour equitably and properly.

The present shortage in labour is particularly pronounced among technicians and skilled workers. These technicians and skilled workers cannot be supplied readily at short notice. Many factories and other industrial institutions are already carrying on the training of skilled labour, which, however, is not necessarily being given properly nor does it adequately develop such skilled labour as is needed for the purpose of enlarging the productive power of the nation at large, if such training is left solely to the discretion of the factories and other industrial institutions concerned. The training of skilled labour as is undertaken by factories and other

industrial institutions must be given systematically according to certain plans, with the actual shortage found in skilled labour and the volume of skilled labour to be needed for the future enlargement of productivity taken into due consideration.

For these reasons, the National General Mobilization Council, at its second plenary session held on October 31, 1938, passed a Summary Draft of an Imperial Ordinance Concerning the Training of Technicians at Factories and Other Industrial Institutions. The council followed up this action with the adoption of a Summary Draft of an Imperial Ordinance Restricting Employment of Operatives at its third plenary session held on December 5, 1938. Necessary steps have since been taken to promulgate these projected Imperial Ordinances.

The restrictions thus stipulated for imposition upon the employment of workers are summarized below. In the first place, the scope of workers on whose employment the said restrictions are to be imposed covers the following

four categories:

(1) Men between 16 and 50 years of age who are at the present moment employed and have been employed for more than three months in occupations designated by the Minister of Welfare.

These age limits are the same as the ones for those who are required to file declarations under the provisions of the Ordinance for Declaration of Vocational Abilities, while the occupations so designated by the Minister of Welfare number 93 which are also included in the total of 134 kinds of occupations specified under the Ordinance for Declaration of Vocational Abilities. The 93 different kinds of occupations thus designated include such divisions of mining, metal-work and machine-tool industries as are most seriously in need of skilled labour as well as other occupations such as electric engineering, electric communications, aircraft engineering, shipbuilding engineering, chemical engineering, civil engineering, wood-work engineering, gun-powder manufacturing, electric battery manufacturing, special glass manufacturing, optical glass manufacturing, boiler engineering, rigging manufacturing, etc.

(2) Men between 16 and 50 years of age who, after having been engaged for more than three months in the employment of others for the occupations designated by the Minister of Welfare as mentioned in (1), have terminated such employment after the enforcement of the Imperial Ordinance concerned, provided that such termination of employment occurred less than one year ago in the cases of the graduates of the schools designated by the Minister of Welfare and less than six months ago in the cases of others.

Workers in this category have been included in the cases of labour subject to restrictions on their employment, because undue competition in employing workers or in inducing them to change employment cannot be expected to be prevented effectively unless not only those in actual employment but also those who have until recently been in employment are made subject to the restrictions in question. As regards the periods during which the former employees are made subject to the said restrictions, certain school graduates are distinguished from others, the scope of such school graduates being approximately the same as that of school graduates who are subject to restrictions under the Ordinance for Restricting Employment of School Graduates, which was put into force some time ago under the stipulations of Article 8

of the National General Mobilization Law. Mention must be made, however, of the inclusion in the case under review of the graduates of several schools giving instruction in evening classes, whereas these types of school graduates are excluded in the case of the Ordinance for Restricting Employment of School Graduates.

(3) Those who are at the present moment undergoing training as apprentices under the provisions of the Ordinance for the Training of Technicians at Factories and Other Industrial Institutions, provided that their apprenticeship has lasted for more than three months.

Of those coming under this stipulation, those who are over 16 years of age and are engaged in any of the 93 varieties of work designated by the Minister of Welfare are of course subject to restrictions under the provisions of (1). The other apprentices who are being trained at factories and other industrial institutions under compulsory provisions of the Ordinance for Training Technicians at Factories and Other Industrial Institutions are made subject to restrictions as stipulated here in case they change occupations.

(4) Those who ceased to be apprentices less than six months ago after having been trained as such consecutively for more than three months under the provisions of the Ordinance Pertaining to training of Technicians at Factories and Other Industrial Institutions.

Restrictions to be imposed on the workers of the four above-mentioned categories are to be made effective when a factory or industrial institution is going to employ workers of the said categories, as the prospective employer is required to obtain permission irrespective of the kinds of work for which his workers are to be employed in case he is employing them in his factory or other industrial institution. In case any employer is going to employ these workers in places other than his factory or industrial institution, he is required to obtain permission provided that the work for which these employers are to be employed falls within the scope of the 93 kinds of occupations specified by the Minister of Welfare. However, in case consent has been obtained from the employers who are employing these workers in the kinds of work specified by the Minister or who are training them as apprentices, the permission stipulated above can be dispensed with in newly employing these workers. Similarly, in case consent has been obtained from the former employers of

the workers who have ceased to be their employees after having engaged in any of the occupations specified by the Minister, such workers may be newly employed without the permission stipulated above. In these cases, however, the new employer is required to file a report of the employment of these workers, accompanied by a certificate showing that their former employers have no objection to their new employment.

Applications for the permission stipulated above are required to be prepared in a fixed form and filed with the director of the Government Employment Bureau under whose jurisdiction the factory or industrial institution where the prospective employees have been employed or trained as apprentices is located. In case the factory or industrial institution where these workers are to be employed is under the jurisdiction of the same Government Employment Bureau as the factory or industrial institution where the said workers have previously been employed or trained, it is obvious that the application for the desired permission need not be passed through any other authorities. In case, however, the factory, industrial institution or business office where the workers are to be employed is located in Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, the South Sea Mandated Islands, or any foreign country such as Manchoukuo, North China, Central China, etc., the application will have to be filed directly with the director of the Bureau under whose jurisdiction the said workers have hitherto been placed.

An application for such permission can be cancelled when any falsehood has been reported. When the application contains untrue statements or when the application is accompanied by irregularities, the permission which might have been given in response to the said application will be cancelled.

Further, there have been stipulated provisions for inspections and examinations in order to obtain materials for reference before deciding between permission and non-permission, or in order to see whether the employment has been completed properly after having obtained necessary permission, or in order to find out whether or not there have been irregularities committed in connection with the employment of workers who have been found to require no permission for their employment. Thus, in case one who has obtained necessary permission has employed workers subject to these restrictions,

or in case one has employed such workers without permission, one is required to report such employment to the director of the Government Employment Bureau under whose jurisdiction the concern is located according to a specified form. In case the director of the Bureau deems it necessary in connection with the permission to be given for the projected employment, he is authorized to collect reports from persons interested or send officials in charge to the place of business to inspect the conditions of operation, books or other documents.

In case places of industrial operation of the army and navy, other government-operated works, government offices or prefectural governments employ works subject to restrictions under review, it is deemed inappropriate to make the procedures for obtaining permission applicable to such cases. Therefore, employment of workers in such cases is exempted from the application of the Ordinance for Restricting Employment of Workers.

Training of Technicians The factories and other industrial institutions which are carrying on operations specified by the Minister of Welfare are obliged to train technicians under the provisions of the relative Ordinance, provided that they have more than 200 male workers older than 16 years in their regular employ or that they are engaged in those kinds of work which are specially designated by the Minister of Welfare with less than 200 and more than 50 male workers older than 16 years in regular employ. However, owners of plants regularly employing more than 200 male workers may be exempted from the obligation to train apprentices with permission of the Minister in case it is extremely difficult for them to undertake such training. The industries specified by the Minister of Welfare for this purpose include five important metal-work industries and 17 leading industries manufacturing or repairing machinery and precision instruments. In case one factory or place of industrial operation is engaged in several kinds of work simultaneously, the said concern is to be regarded as coming under the designation of the Minister of Welfare if any of the different kinds of work falls within the scope of designation.

The industries specified for Article 2 of the Ordinance Pertaining to Training of Technicians at Factories and Other Places of Industrial Operation are: metal refining industries; metal rolling industries (exclusive of metal wire

manufacturing industries and metal foil manufacturing industries); blacksmith industries; metal casting industries; metal welding industries; metal-work and woodwork machine-tool manufacturing industries (including steel foundry machine tools manufacturing industries); mining, dressing and refining machine-tool manufacturing industries; industries manufacturing guns, shells, mines and arms; motor-engine manufacturing industries (boilers and gas generators manufacturing industries included); motors and other electric machinery manufacturing industries; electric communications machinery manufacturing industries; chemical engineering machinery and equipment manufacturing industries; manufacturing industries for pumps, water pressure machines, gas compressors, blowers, valves and cocks; manufacturing industries for belt wheels, gears, axles and ball bearings; rails and vehicle manufacturing industries; aircraft manufacturing industries; automobile and bicycle manufacturing industries; crane manufacturing industries; measuring, testing and scientific instruments manufacturing industries; optical machinery and instruments manufacturing industries; and medical instruments manufacturing industries.

Whether or not any factory or place of industrial operation has more than 200 workers older than 16 years, or whether or not it has more than 50 such workers in employ is to be determined by the total number of workers employed in the place as a whole, and not by the number of workers employed in the specified industries alone. Further, the obligation to train technicians devolves upon the factories or places of industrial operation, and therefore in case the management owns several factories or places of industrial operation, each of the latter places is to be considered as being under such obligation if it falls within the scope of the Ordinance in question.

The technicians are to be trained to qualify as "soldiers of industry" and to qualify intellectually as technicians of more than medium standing, with technical knowledge enabling them to pass considerably extensive technical judgments on productive activities and carry on operations even when left to their own discretion. These technicians are further expected to produce from among themselves leaders for the future, and for this reason experts skilled only in their own divisions of work are not qualified for the said training.

The qualifications of apprentices for

such training are stipulated below. In case any factory or place of industrial operation finds it difficult to enlist a required number of such apprentices or in case the nature of the kinds of technicians to be so trained makes it inappropriate to enlist only those who are qualified as specified, it has been stipulated that those who are not fully qualified may be trained as apprentices with permission of the prefectural governor concerned. The qualifications are as follows:

(1) Males over 14 and less than 16 years of age when they start the training.

(2) Those who have finished the two-year course of the higher primary schools or the ordinary course of the young men's schools, or those who have been declared to have scholastic ability equal to or higher than the above-mentioned standards by the Minister of Education.

It has been deemed desirable that those who are under obligation to train technicians should spend a certain period in preparing plans, enlisting required numbers of apprentices and providing for facilities of supervision on training before starting the training, instead of commencing such training immediately on the dates when they find themselves placed under obligation. Therefore, it has been stipulated in principle that those who are placed under such obligation between January 1 and the end of February should start the required training during the month of April in the same year and that those who are placed under such obligation between March 1 and the end of December should do so during the month of April in the following year. For the year 1939, however, those who find themselves under obligation on the day when the Ordinance Pertaining to Training of Technicians at Factories and Places of Industrial Operation, are required to start such training once every year, commencing such training during the month of May in 1939.

Those who are under the obligation of training technicians are required to prepare plans for such training and obtain permission of the prefectural governors concerned. In the first place, these plans are required to include the statement of the kinds of apprentices for whom training is to be started and their number.

The number of apprentices to be trained is, in principle, to be more than the number to be obtained by multiplying the number of those who are required to file declarations under the

system of the national registration of vocational abilities employed in the specified works (exclusive of engineers) by the percentage to be fixed by the Minister of Welfare (which is fixed as 4 per cent in the case of metal industries and 8 per cent in the case of machine-tool industries for the training to be started during 1939). For a factory or place of industrial operation regularly employing more than 1,000 male workers more than 16 years old and equipped with a practice shop or other facilities for training, it is stipulated that the said factory or place of industrial operation may be ordered to start the training of a certain number of apprentices to be fixed between the number corresponding to the fixed percentage and twice the said number. Further in case the number of the apprentices under training is found to be short of the required number at the end of any given year, the management is required to start training the required number plus the number of the shortage for the following year.

In case there exist special circumstances making it impossible for the required number of apprentices to start training according to the above-mentioned stipulations, the number of apprentices to be so trained may be cut with permission of the prefectural governor concerned.

The plans to be prepared are also required to indicate the methods by which the apprentices for training are to be selected and the number of trainers classified according to the different kinds of duties they are to assume. In case the prefectural governor concerned deems it particularly necessary, it is stipulated that he may order the appointment of such trainers as may be required.

The plans for which the permission of the prefectural governor are required are further to indicate the details of facilities of training such as classrooms, practice shops and dormitories. In this connection the governor is authorized to order the building of classrooms and their accessory in the case of a concern regularly employing 200 or more male workers more than 16 years old or the building of a practice shop in the case of a concern regularly employing 1,000 or more male workers older than 16 years.

The other matters to be covered in the plans include the hours to be devoted to the cultivation of moral qualities in apprentices as divided according to their different classes, the different scholastic courses for the apprentices

and the hours of instruction to be given.

The period for training apprentices is fixed at three years in principle, and in cases where apprentices are to be given technical training for more than one year at practice shops or where there exist special reasons warranting the shortening of the training period without lowering the standard of training, the said period of training may be cut to the limit of two years.

The hours of training are stipulated as follows:

(a) More than 50 hours annually for spiritual training.

(b) More than 700 hours for the scholastic curriculum throughout the period of training.

The management may cut the hours to the limit of 550 hours with permission of the prefectural governor concerned in case special circumstances warrant such a cut.

(c) More than 5,000 hours for practice during the entire period of training. In case necessary permission has been obtained to cut the period of training to less than three years, the hours of practice may be cut to more than 3,500 hours.

The plans to be submitted to the prefectural governor prior to the starting of training are also required to state the wages and other allowances to be paid to the apprentices during the period of training. As the management is required to employ the apprentices after their training, it goes without saying that it is required to pay wages to the apprentices during the period of their training.

The hours of work per diem (including hours for training) are also to be specified in the plans to be submitted to the prefectural governor. In case the hours of work are subject to restrictions under other laws or ordinances, the training of apprentices is required to be carried on within such restrictions on working hours.

Holidays and hours for rest, as well as the estimates of expenses needed for the training, also have to be covered in the plans in question, it being stipulated that the burden of expenses for training should not be shared by the apprentices.

Further, in case the management, which in principle is required to train apprentices at its factory or other place of industrial operation, finds it difficult to do so for special reasons, it may train such apprentices at schools or other institutions equipped with facilities well adapted to their training or cause them to be so trained. In addi-

tion to the foregoing, statement must also be made of the following matters concerning the schools or other institutions concerned.

(1) The names and locations of the schools or institutions.

(2) The kinds and number of apprentices to be trained.

(3) The details of the courses to be given for the apprentices.

(4) The period during which the apprentices are to be trained.

In case any employer desires to revise the plans of training apprentices on which permission has been obtained, he is required to obtain permission of the prefectural governor concerned on such revisions. The governor may also order the employer to revise his plans for training apprentices. In case there arise special circumstances, after the commencement of training, making it difficult to continue training any or all of the required number of apprentices, training may be discontinued for any number of apprentices with permission of the governor. In case any of the individual apprentices is considered to have no prospect of becoming a worker of more than medium standing, permission may be obtained to discontinue training of such an individual, in which case the required number of apprentices is to remain short.

It is stipulated further that reports may be collected or official visits or inspections may be made occasionally in order to maintain adequate supervision. To be more exact, the Minister of Welfare or the prefectural governor concerned is authorized to collect reports regarding the training of technicians or send officials in charge to factories, places of industrial operation, business offices or other places to inspect books and other documents concerning the training of apprentices. Moreover, the employers are, it is also stipulated, required to file reports to the prefectural governors concerned regarding the appointment of trainers and regarding other circumstances concerning the training.

Adjustment of Labour in Rural Communities The China Affair, together with the influence it has exerted on the industrial life of the nation, has drained heavily on the labour resources of rural Japan. Since the outbreak of hostilities two years ago, men and horses from the rural communities have been mobilized for military service on the China battlefields. Additionally, the ever-increasing demand for workers in munitions factories and other industries connected with the current emergency

has called a vast number of young men from the farms. This great outflow of men and animals has affected the agricultural labour power of Japan to an unprecedented extent, and the Government has taken the following measures for counteracting unfavourable sequences of the decrease of agricultural labour power and for carrying agricultural production through without difficulty:

1. **Coordination and Adjustment.** The Government now is planning the adjustment of labour power, including animals and machines, taking the conditions of agricultural production into consideration. The Government also is devising plans concerning the absorption of farm labourers by the munitions industry, based on the labour power adjustment programme. For these purposes, an appropriation is provided in the supplementary budget for the 1939-40 fiscal year, enabling the local commissions on regeneration and the agricultural associations to frame basic plans for the investigations of agricultural labour power. On the basis of these plans, the Government is trying to coordinate and carry out all the measures for the purpose. Thus the supply of labour power for the munitions industry will be made according to a definite programme.

2. **Organization of Labour Service Groups.** This is a plan to organize labour service groups in various towns and villages, the unit of these activities being one community. The purpose of these groups is to replenish the shortage of labour in the households of farmers called to the colours, not only stabilizing the livelihood of these families but also maintaining the balance of production. The Government in this manner aided 8,931 agrarian towns and villages in 1937 and 9,989 last year.

3. **Cooperative Work.** Cooperative labour is not an innovation in Japanese rural life. But in the face of the shortage of labour power since the inception of the China Affair, it has become necessary to encourage this practice widely in order to increase efficiency in agricultural labour. Thus the Imperial Agricultural Association and prefectural and local organizations have been aiding in the promotion of joint work. The number of farmers' unions guided by agricultural associations in this connection since the current hostilities stands at 121,176.

4. **Transferring Collective Labour.** Shortage of labour power in some instances cannot be corrected by such measures as labour service groups and

the encouragement of joint work. Particularly in districts where labour power has been supplied by other towns, villages or prefectures during the busy seasons, even in time of peace, necessity is felt all the more keenly for taking further steps for this supply. As a countermeasure for supplying labour power during the busy periods, therefore, a plan has been worked out for the transfer of labour power in groups by taking advantage of the differences in time of the planting and harvest seasons in various rural communities.

5. Distribution and Coordination of Farm Machinery. The situation is becoming such that the consumption of various commodities must be restricted to a considerable extent, by reason of which it is becoming difficult to expand farming equipment by new installations of machinery. This situation, therefore, makes it necessary to make the maximum use of those machines already in existence, by adjusting the uneven distribution among districts, by making joint use of those which are not in full use privately, and by repairing and restoring to service those which are out of order.

6. Means of Production in Agricultural, Mountain, Fishing Villages. (a) Availability of Improved Farming Implements.

The Agricultural Promotion Association and other organizations should furnish various kinds of improved farming implements for joint utility.

(b) Distribution of Implements Operated by Animal Power.

Existing implements should be given wider joint utility in regions where animal power is available.

(c) Encouragement of Simple Water Power Facilities. In agricultural regions where potential water power is available, simple devices should be made for harnessing water power.

(d) Supply of Power Boats for Co-operative Use.

Small power boats used for towing fishing craft should be given wider use to relieve the shortage of labour in fishing villages.

(e) Establishment of Joint Sericultural Facilities.

This is to alleviate labour conditions in the silk producing districts, through joint equipment measures by the Sericulture Promotion Associations.

7. Exchange, Division and Consolidation of Farm Lands. In Japan, farmers own or cultivate patches of land in scattered places, wasting potential labour in getting from one place to another. This situation hampers effi-

cient farm management. The Government recently has revised the Special Tax Law incidental to the China Affair, providing for the exemption of registration taxes in cases where the ownership of land for cultivation and perpetual tenant-right are exchanged, thus facilitating the exchange, division and consolidation of farm lands. This exemption from taxes, allowed in cases of exchange, division and union, is made through the mediation of Farm Land Commissions of cities, towns and villages. Under the direction of the Government, these commissions strive actively to facilitate such arrangements on the part of farmers, subsidizing the operations involved.

8. Supply and Renting of Farm Horses. Due to the requisition of farm horses, the shortage of animal power and the consequent loss of natural fertilizer resources is great. To correct this deficiency, the Government is aiding the joint purchase of horses through prefectural governments and various organizations and also is facilitating renting of horses.

9. Supply of Cattle. Under the current emergency, the number of cattle slaughtered for beef and leather has increased considerably. This measure is designed to encourage cattle raising and to rationalize the distribution of livestock, as it is feared that a serious shortage of animal power and self-supplying fertilizer resources will develop if the present tendency is not checked.

Registration of Vocational Abilities. A system of registering vocational abilities of the people at large, for which preparations had been going on for some time, went into effect as from January 20, 1939, as provided in Ordinance No. 5 promulgated on January 7th, on approval of the National General Mobilization Council.

The system can be explained, briefly, as one in which the State registers working abilities of the people, abilities for mental as well as physical types of work. It can accordingly be called the System for National Registration of Vocational Abilities. The National General Mobilization Law provides, in Article 21, for obliging Japanese subjects to report on and to be examined concerning their vocational abilities. This system of general registration, however, is not applied to physicians, dental surgeons, pharmacutists, veterinary surgeons, and mariners. For with regard to those engaging in medical and related professions and occupations, a separate, special Ordinance for registering their abilities has already been

promulgated, and with regard to the others of this group, similar Ordinances concerning their respective vocational groups will soon be promulgated.

Employment exchanges have been designated to act as agencies for registration under the present system. The change from municipal to national management of these employment exchanges, which was effected in July, 1938, has made them peculiarly fitted for the purpose, since by this change they have come to be widely and adequately distributed throughout the country, improved in organization and activities, and operated with the view of nation-wide, rational adjustment of supply and demand of labour.

In the light of the above-stated purpose of the national registration system, the best way of carrying it out may require the registration of all the members of the nation who are capable of working in some way in time of emergency, regardless of age, sex and occupation. Such a step, however, not only exhausts the time and energy of the competent authorities but is unnecessary for the practical purpose of national labour mobilization. The present system, therefore, specifies certain categories of vocational and other abilities deemed most urgent in war-time labour mobilization as constituting the qualifications for being registered.

They are:

1. Japanese subjects: aliens will not be registered.

2. Male subjects: women also may be included in wartime labour mobilization; however, as men will form the immediate objective of the mobilization, women are excluded from this system.

3. Male subjects above 15 and below 50 years of age: this age restriction is adopted from the consideration that those who are within these ages are most suitable for mobilization; those outside these age limits, therefore, might possibly be mobilized in time of war.

4. Subjects residing within the Japanese Empire: those Japanese subjects residing in foreign countries are excluded from this system.

5. Subjects who are of the categories named below:—

a. Those who have pursued vocations designated by the Minister of Welfare for more than three consecutive months. As for the designated vocations, some 130 classes relating to war industries or those considered as essential for military operations have been named, including mechanicians, miners, forgers and turners. Classes of designated vocations will

increase in the future according to the actual needs. The time restriction is adopted for the purpose not only of ensuring the minimum amount of skill but of preventing complexities in registration arising from cases of leaving and changing vocations, which occur most frequently within the early months after starting in them.

b. Those who have pursued the vocations stipulated in the foregoing for more than one year without intermission within the period of the past five years. The requirement of one year is made out of the consideration that it is the minimum length of time in which can be acquired a fair degree of skill in vocations, and the requirement of within the period of the past five years in consideration of the possible lowering of skill already acquired by extending the period.

c. Graduates of universities, colleges and technical schools designated by the Minister of Welfare, who have taken the authorized courses. Graduates of such educational institutions are considered to have acquired adequate vocational abilities and skill by the fact that they have successfully completed the prescribed courses. The designated institutions are mainly technical schools above the middle grade, and the designated courses are such technical courses as mechanical, electrical, mining and metallurgical engineering and applied chemistry.

d. Those who have completed work in technical training institutes designated by the Minister of Welfare, such as training institutes for mechanics established by the State or municipalities. They are considered as qualified for registration for the same reason as graduates of the schools stipulated in the foregoing.

e. Those who have obtained licences or certificates by passing examinations and tests designated by the Minister of Welfare, such as those for chauffeurs and farriers.

Exemption is made, however, from the registration in the cases of those coming under the categories named below:

1. Men in the services who are on the active list or those who have been called to the colours in time of war and of other emergencies in accordance with Clause 2 of Article 55 of the Military Service Law.

2. Cadets enrolled in the active service.

3. Civilians in the employ of the Army and Navy.

4. Physicians, dental surgeons, pharmacutists, veterinary surgeons, and

mariners coming within the purview of the Mariners Law.

Examination of Vocational Abilities
In view of the objective of the national registration system which lies in the rational mobilization of vocational abilities of the people in time of emergency, keeping the records of their abilities in clear and definite terms is essential. Reporting to be made by the persons concerned and their employers regarding their vocational careers and technical skill according to the given standards is a feasible but by no means satisfactory method of keeping such records and of supplying data for judging and estimating the kinds and grades of their abilities. In order to ensure accuracy in the estimation to the greatest possible extent, therefore, the National General Mobilization Law provides for the examination of vocational abilities of the people. And this examination will be conducted, in principle, by prefectural governors and directors of local employment bureaus under the following procedure.

1. Judging by Computation Formula. This is a method of judging the adequacy or inadequacy of the report concerning the degree of skill by a certain formula or standard worked out by computing statistically inter-relations between years of experience and degrees of skill. In applying this method to a report, if the reported degree of skill agrees with the formula, the adequacy or validity of the report is considered as established and the report is accepted; but if discrepancies are found the reporter is subjected to practical examination.

2. Practical Examination. According to this method, individual registered persons are made to perform a given piece of work, and by their ways of doing things and the results of their work the grades of their skill are adjudged. The important questions are what kinds of work should be given as the test and what methods of grading the results be adapted. With a view to working out such standards, a central institute for examination of technical skill will be created. Test ques-

tions worked out in this institute are to be used by the officials in charge of examinations who are attached to prefectural governments in giving the work-test to individual workers at individual and other establishments.

With regard to certain classes of those employed by the State who are within the purview of this system of national registration, particularly those in the employ of the governmental establishments designated by the Minister of Welfare, which are mostly establishments of the Army and Navy, special provisions are made for reporting, examining and registering their vocational abilities. They are to be reported upon to employment bureaus through those establishments. When, however, those qualified for these exceptional provisions become disqualified, they are placed under the general rules concerning the reports and other requirements.

All these provisions concerning the national registration of vocational abilities will be carried out by empowering directors of employment bureaus and prefectural governors to require other reports deemed necessary for the purpose of the system from persons concerned and to make inspections of factories and other establishments.

Control of Wage Rates For the necessity of controlling the commodity prices, the problem of unchecked rise in wage rates has been studied by the competent authorities in the Ministry of Welfare and the Central Wage Commission in the Ministry decided the standard wage rates of inexperienced operatives at employment as follows at their general meeting which was held on June 24, 1939. The decision was made to keep the average rates in the mine months from April to December, 1938, as standards for the latter half of 1939, or from 10 to 20 per cent lower than the rates prevailing in the first half of 1939. The wages stated in the following table are for 10 working hours (rest hour inclusive) a day in the case of factory operatives and 9 working hours in the case of mine workers in the pit, and for an extra hour 10 per cent increase is allowed.

STANDARD DAILY WAGE RATES FOR INEXPERIENCED OPERATIVES (Male)

At New Employment in Factories

(Unit: yen)

Age	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16	16-17	17-18	18-19	19-20
In the Prefectures of Tokyo, Kanagawa, Aichi, Osaka, Hyogo, Fukuoka and Nagasaki	0.55	0.60	0.65	0.75	0.85	0.95	1.05	1.15

	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16	16-17	17-18	18-19	19-20
Hokkaido, Toyama, Kyoto, Okayama, Hiroshima, and Yamaguchi	0.50	0.55	0.60	0.65	0.75	0.85	0.95	1.05
Fukushima, Ibaraki, Tochigi, Gumma, Saitama, Chiba, Niigata, Yamanashi, Nagano, Gifu, Shizuoka and Mié.	0.45	0.50	0.55	0.60	0.65	0.75	0.85	0.95
Other 22 Prefectures	0.40	0.45	0.50	0.55	0.60	0.65	0.75	0.85

STANDARD DAILY WAGE RATES FOR INEXPERIENCED OPERATIVES

At New Employment in Mines

(Unit: yen)

Age	16-17	17-18	18-19	19-20				
Workers in the Pit (Permanent employment) In the mines in								
Sapporo District								
Coal and Metal	1.40	1.55	1.70	1.85				
Non-Metal	1.05	1.15	1.25	1.35				
Fukuoka District								
Coal and Metal	1.20	1.35	1.50	1.65				
Non-Metal	0.85	0.95	1.05	1.15				
Sendai, Tokyo and Osaka districts								
Coal and Metal	1.00	1.15	1.30	1.45				
Non-Metal	0.95	1.05	1.15	1.25				
Workers in oil-wells								
Age	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16	16-17	17-18	18-19	19-20
Wage	0.45	0.50	0.55	0.60	0.65	0.75	0.85	0.95

Health Insurance As to the business conditions of the State. Health Insurance mentions are given in Chapter XII, Insurance, and here it will be suffice to give mentions on some items directly to do with labour.

Insured persons are entitled to benefit when they are injured while in service or become ill, or in case of maternity. In case of death benefits are paid to their dependents. In the fiscal year of 1936-37, there were as many as 10,848,429 cases for which benefits were given to the amount of ¥45,882,742. Of the total, the number of cases directly arising from work was 1,211,274 with the payment amounting to ¥3,713,674, details of which follow:

	Cases	Amount paid (In Yen)
Medical treatment	921,020	—
Prolonged treatment	14,157	87,670
Medical treatment for the injured	273,956	3,533,818
Funerals	2,141	92,187
Total	1,211,274	3,713,674

Of the total 1,211,274 cases, the number of casualties was 796,678.

The number of cases which directly arose from work and handled by the Health Insurance in recent years was as follows:

Fiscal Year	Cases	Amount Paid in yen
1932-33	526,823	1,752,785
1933-34	639,728	2,024,485
1934-35	807,734	2,558,332
1935-36	1,018,915	3,209,735
1936-37	1,211,274	3,713,674

It is generally understood that the accidents and casualties are increasing with the advance of years, but the yearly increase in figures given above does not necessarily speak of the fact, because the reports of factories and associations from which the figures are compiled are increasing as it is shown in the following table:

mariners coming within the purview of the Mariners Law.

Examination of Vocational Abilities
In view of the objective of the national registration system which lies in the rational mobilization of vocational abilities of the people in time of emergency, keeping the records of their abilities in clear and definite terms is essential. Reporting to be made by the persons concerned and their employers regarding their vocational careers and technical skill according to the given standards is a feasible but by no means satisfactory method of keeping such records and of supplying data for judging and estimating the kinds and grades of their abilities. In order to ensure accuracy in the estimation to the greatest possible extent, therefore, the National General Mobilization Law provides for the examination of vocational abilities of the people. And this examination will be conducted, in principle, by prefectural governors and directors of local employment bureaus under the following procedure.

1. Judging by Computation Formula. This is a method of judging the adequacy or inadequacy of the report concerning the degree of skill by a certain formula or standard worked out by computing statistically inter-relations between years of experience and degrees of skill. In applying this method to a report, if the reported degree of skill agrees with the formula, the adequacy or validity of the report is considered as established and the report is accepted; but if discrepancies are found the reporter is subjected to practical examination.

2. Practical Examination. According to this method, individual registered persons are made to perform a given piece of work, and by their ways of doing things and the results of their work the grades of their skill are adjudged. The important questions are what kinds of work should be given as the test and what methods of grading the results be adapted. With a view to working out such standards, a central institute for examination of technical skill will be created. Test ques-

tions worked out in this institute are to be used by the officials in charge of examinations who are attached to prefectural governments in giving the work-test to individual workers at individual and other establishments.

With regard to certain classes of those employed by the State who are within the purview of this system of national registration, particularly those in the employ of the governmental establishments designated by the Minister of Welfare, which are mostly establishments of the Army and Navy, special provisions are made for reporting, examining and registering their vocational abilities. They are to be reported upon to employment bureaus through those establishments. When, however, those qualified for these exceptional provisions become disqualified, they are placed under the general rules concerning the reports and other requirements.

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1936-37	1,211,274	3,713,674

It is generally understood that the accidents and casualties are increasing with the advance of years, but the yearly increase in figures given above does not necessarily speak of the fact, because the reports of factories and associations from which the figures are compiled are increasing as it is shown in the following table:

At the end of March,	Under Governmental Management		Associations	
	No. of Factories	No. of Persons insured	No. of Associations	No. of Persons insured
1933	48,525	1,122,141	347	598,058
1934	54,356	1,294,026	345	706,555
1935	61,241	1,503,550	349	823,144
1936	113,719	2,096,657	370	947,277
1937	123,605	2,346,637	379	1,104,833

Labour Disputes

The number of labour disputes in 1931 recorded highest with 2,456 including 998 which were accompanied by strikes, sabotages or lockouts. The following 4 years showed a decreasing tendency in labour disputes, their number in 1935 being 1,872 including 590 cases accompanied by strikes, sabotages or lockouts. But in 1936 the number rose once again and in the first half of 1937, it surpassed the corresponding period of the record year 1931, and then suddenly began to decrease after July, 1937, when the North China incident occurred.

The reason for the decrease in the number of labour disputes in 1932 and after may be found in the occurrence of the Manchurian incident in September 1931 and the consequent change of thought among the people in which nationalism gained an ascendancy over the socialistic ideologies of labour lead-

ers. The leaders themselves altered their concepts and showed a spirit of co-operation with capitalists in promoting the benefit of industrial enterprises. The prosperity attending the heavy industries and the export trade also had much to do with the decrease in labour disputes, and the nature of disputes was considerably modified.

The increase in 1936 and the first half of 1937 was caused not by any change in thought but by a purely economic reason, namely, the increase in wage did not correspond to the rise in prices. The sudden decrease in the second half of 1937 was exceptional, being the result of the emergency situation and the national mobilization of men and resources. The tendency prevailed in 1938 and the number of disputes decreased to a half of 1937. The following table is given here to show the general conditions of labour disputes during past 15 years, 1924-38.

LABOUR DISPUTES IN 1924-1938

Year	Totals of Disputes			Disputes accompanied by Strikes, sabotage or lockouts		
	Cases	Partakers	Partakers per case	Cases	Partakers	Partakers per case
1924	933	94,047	101	333	54,526	164
1925	816	89,387	110	293	40,742	139
1926	1,260	127,267	101	495	67,234	136
1927	1,202	103,350	86	383	46,672	122
1928	1,021	101,893	100	397	46,252	117
1929	1,420	172,144	121	576	77,444	134
1930	2,290	191,838	82	907	81,362	90
1931	2,456	154,528	63	998	64,536	65
1932	2,217	123,313	56	893	54,783	61
1933	1,897	116,733	62	610	49,423	81
1934	1,915	120,307	63	626	49,536	79
1935	1,872	103,962	56	590	37,734	64
1936	1,975	92,724	47	547	30,900	56
1937	2,126	213,622	101	628	123,730	197
1938	1,022	53,550	52	—	—	—

LABOUR DISPUTES BY INDUSTRY

Industry:—	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Metal, machinery and tool	281	323	408	394	203
Chemical	332	279	258	290	139

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Textile	226	252	196	286	105
Foodstuff	68	71	55	85	39
Miscellaneous	204	173	313	277	132
Mining	85	79	102	120	78
Gas and electric	17	—	5	—	—
Transportation	201	255	260	348	166
Engineering and construction	179	115	115	100	61
Communication	5	—	—	—	—
Others	316	325	263	226	99
Total	1,915	1,872	1,975	2,126	1,022
Participants	120,307	103,962	92,724	213,622	53,550

CASES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE NATURE OF DEMANDS

	1936	1937	1938		1936	1937	1938
Positive demands				Against revision of working method, etc.	27	23	—
Increase of wages	561	998	429	Against revision of the method of paying wages	70	55	29
Shorter hours	23	17	—	For establishment or im- provement of pension	397	299	207
Recognition of freedom of trade unions	15	11	—	Against dismissals	309	235	82
Better equipments for labourers in factories	9	9	23	Total	934	682	347
Rejection of overseers	44	50	452	Others	389	359	223
Total	652	1,085	29				
Negative demands							
Against lowering of wages	131	70	—				

NUMBER OF LABOUR DISPUTES ACCOMPANIED BY STRIKES,
SABOTAGE OR LOCKOUTS

Year	Cases	Participants	Per case	Lockouts	Cases	Participants	Per case
1933				14	568	40.6	
Strikes	516	33,302	64.5	Total	584	37,650	64.5
Sabotage	59	12,029	203.9	1936			
Lockouts	23	1,456	63.3	Strikes	498	26,772	53.7
Total	598	46,787	78.2	Sabotage	36	3,696	102.7
1934				Lockouts	13	432	33.2
Strikes	559	42,091	75.3	Total	547	30,900	56.4
Sabotage	48	6,975	145.3	1937			
Lockouts	16	412	25.8	Strikes	530	53,429	100.8
Total	623	49,478	79.4	Sabotage	75	67,758	903.3
1935				Lockouts	23	2,543	110.5
Strikes	527	31,811	60.4	Total	628	123,730	197.0
Sabotage	43	5,271	122.6				

Classified by Demands

Demand for	1935		1936		1937	
	Cases	Men	Cases	Men	Cases	Men
Recognition of freedom of trade unions	7	1,159	5	233	7	2,483
Against the reduction of wages	82	3,432	60	3,281	29	1,439
Increase of wages	225	15,285	228	14,259	373	94,844
Against the revision of the method of calculating or paying of wages	46	3,977	38	1,747	24	1,283
Shorter hours	9	152	15	381	12	540
Establishment of holidays	5	128	2	211	2	23
Against the revision of working method or rules	11	409	13	685	9	175
Payment of wages	42	1,909	—	—	19	814

	1935		1936		1937	
	Cases	Men	Cases	Men	Cases	Men
Demand for Better equipment	2	1,152	4	151	5	129
Establishment or increase of pensions	26	922	19	258	21	5,583
Reappointment or against dismissals	46	2,949	45	2,099	37	8,337
Not to punish the leaders of disputes	—	—	—	—	—	—
Rejection of superintendents	30	2,687	29	2,136	31	2,330
Other	53	3,489	89	5,459	59	5,750
Total	584	37,650	547	30,900	628	123,730

Results of Disputes

	Total	Compromised	Demands Accepted	Demands Unaccepted	Defeated	Left Unsettled
1933	598	263(44.0)	123(20.6)	206(34.4)	3(0.5)	3(0.5)
1934	623	271(43.5)	163(26.2)	188(30.2)	1(0.1)	—
1935	584	276(47.3)	157(26.9)	151(25.8)	—	—
1936	547	217(39.7)	176(32.2)	153(27.9)	—	1(0.2)
1937	628	261(41.5)	168(26.9)	197(31.3)	2(0.3)	—

Figures in parentheses represent percentages.

Tenant Disputes

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

TENANT DISPUTES

Year	Number	Tenant Participants	Area Included (In cho)
1933	4,000	48,073	30,343
1934	5,828	121,031	85,129
1935	6,824	113,164	70,160
1936	6,804	77,187	46,036
1937	6,170	63,246	39,255
1938	3,331	31,445	20,871

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

TENANT DISPUTES

	By Causes				
	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Raising tenant rents	86	114	115	227	240
Bad crops	646	1,940	2,451	1,375	1,116
High tenant rents	99	85	66	155	119
Unbalanced production cost	16	7	6	15	—
Cancellation of tenant rights	2,275	2,704	3,031	3,644	3,575
Arrears of farm-rents	485	505	734	871	631
Others	393	473	421	515	499

	By Demands				
	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Temporary lowering of tenant rents	1,013	2,168	2,616	1,621	1,546
Permanent lowering of tenant rents	105	96	96	213	
Against raising tenant rents	72	112	114	197	184
Continuation of tenant rights	2,097	2,421	2,862	3,674	3,274
Recognition of tenant rights	49	44	45	253	202
Compensation for lost tenant rights	120	166	123		
Others	544	821	968	845	964

Results of Disputes

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Compromised	2,568	3,764	5,131	5,162	4,824
Demands accepted	523	922	381	294	277
Demands withdrawn	92	157	160	167	107
Naturally settled	56	76	82	72	76
Unsettled	761	909	1,070	1,109	886

Trade Unions

Annual Meetings in 1936 The fifth annual meeting of the Japan Trade Union Council (Nippon Rodo Kumiai Kwaigi) was held at Yokohama on October 18, 1936, Komakichi Matsuoka presiding over the 69 delegates who were present. Ten decisions were arrived at, of which the most important were "Recommendations to the Government for the establishment of a Ministry of Labour," and a "Resolution against the suppression of the trade union movement among Government factory labourers," besides the declaration of the fifth council which voiced its stand in liberalism in sympathy with the Social Mass Party.

The Japan Trade Union Council lost the Japan General Federation of Trade Unions (Nippon Rodo Kumiai So-rengo) in 1935 from among its important members and was further weakened, in September, 1936, by the prohibition of the trade union movement among labourers in Government factories belonging to the War Ministry. The Council, however, was successful in bringing about the formation of the All-Japan General Federation of Labour and the National Trade Union Federation in 1935, and added to its power by the coming in of the Japan Federation of Ceramic Trade Unions in 1936, it thus remains the largest organization of trade unions in Japan, with a membership of 9 bodies and 263,914 labourers.

The new officials and the present members of the Japan Trade Union Council are as follows:

President, Komakichi Matsuoka
 Vice-president, Manryo Yonekubo
 Chief-secretary, Aichi Kamiyo
 Adviser, Bunji Suzuki
 Executive Committee: Shinichi Yagi,
 Suehiro Nishio, Bunsaku Hamahashi,
 Choel Horiuchi, Hidekichi Koizumi,
 Yasutaro Kawamura, Kichitaro Numada,
 Eiichi Iwanaga.

Members:	Number of Members
Japan Seamen's Union	104,308
All-Japan General Federation of Labour	94,926

	Number of Members
Japan Longshoremen's Union	16,488
Seamen's Association	13,086
Japan Iron Labourers' Union	12,500
Japan General League of Labour	6,068
Tokyo Electric Company Workers' Union	2,450
Japan Federation of Ceramic Trade Unions	3,500
9 bodies	Total 263,914

The first meeting of the All-Japan Convention of Patriotic Trade Unions (Aikoku Rodo Kumiai Zenkoku Konwakwai) which was organized in April, 1936, by the union of all patriotic or nationalistic trade unions with reactionary ideas in general politics, was held at Tokyo on September 27, 1936. The meeting was carefully watched by the public as the Convention stands in opposition to the Japan Trade Union Council. With six planks in its platform "Propagation of the Japanese Spirit," "Demand for the Establishment of an Industry and Labour Council," "Institution of a Law for the Control of Industry and Labour," "A Thorough Industrial Service for the Country," "Nationalization of a Labour Festival peculiar to Japan" and "Unity of the War Front of Labourers and Farmers," the meeting proceeded under the leadership of President Tsunekichi Yamazaki. There were 168 delegates from the different member unions present. Among several reports, there was one which showed the attitude of the Convention towards the Government prohibition of the trade union movement in Government factories. The standing committee had requested the authorities to allow Government factory workers to enter patriotic trade unions only, but apparently in vain.

It passed 6 resolutions, the chief being, "Nationalization of Electric Power," "Request for the Organization of a New Patriotic Political Party" in opposition to the old social and democratic parties, and "Destruction of the People's War Front." They denounced present social and democratic thought as being mere imitation of the West and

contrary to Japan's national constitution, and upheld a reorganization of all trade unions in the spirit of love for the country in the true Japanese spirit.

The Council is composed of 15 unions with an aggregate membership of 80,278. Its officials and member unions are as follows:

Officials:

Standing Committee,

Kyuzo Takayama, Nisaburo Nishiyama, Harufusa Ohashi, Kenji Tsuyukubo, Kinsaburo Yao, Tsunekichi Yamazaki, Shizuna Yagasaki, Tokuju Niizuma.

Treasurer, Shuji Okubo

Secretary, Rikichi Minagawa

Member Unions:	Number of Members
Japan Industrial Labour Club	18,550
Tokyo Electric Company's Patriotic Alliance	1,500
New Japan Seamen's Union	9,750
Japan Labour Alliance	4,400
Patriotic Labour Farmer Society	2,600
Life Defence Alliance	1,780
Japan General Federation of Trade Unions	25,258
Longshoremen's Trade Union in Central Japan	1,090
Central District Committee of the All-Japan Convention of Patriotic Trade Unions	4,300
Great Japan Council of Trade Unions	4,700
Mikawa Patriotic Workers' Union League	1,800
Imperial Lumber Industry Righteous Research Society	800
Japan Sea Society	2,750
Patriotic Lumber Workers' Society	500
Tokyo "Hanao" Industry Union	500
15 unions	Total 80,278

The 15th anniversary of the All-Japan Farmers' Union was celebrated at Osaka for 3 days September 7-9, 1936. This union, which was first organized by M. Sugimoto and T. Kagawa, has the oldest history of all farmers' unions in Japan and occupies the most important position in the trade union movement among farmers. A short history of farmers' union movement in different prefectures is published.

The general meeting was held on September 8, with 399 delegates present. The meeting passed resolutions requesting, (i) the institution of tenant and tenant union laws; (ii) opposing the

proposed increase of taxes that fall on the masses; (iii) requesting the lowering of the price of electric power. (iv) declaring the intention of the union should be to obtain the security of farmers' living by (a) better tenant and farming conditions, (b) the securing of land for practical farmers and ousting of the landowners, (c) the improvement of land and farming technique and management so as to bring about better returns to farmers, (d) organizing an all-Japan farm workers union inviting tenant and half-landed farmers and farm labourers to belong, and finally, (e) establishing a new society through the activities of the All-Japan Farmers' Union in co-operation with city proletarians.

The president of the standing committee of ten is Motojiro Sugiyama and the chief-secretary is Minoru Ito. The number of members of the union is over 40,000.

The first general meeting of the Japan Industrial Labour Club (Nippon Sangyo Rodo Club) was held at Tokyo on October 24, 1936. The club was inaugurated in June, 1933, as a patriotic organization of trade unions on the principle of oneness of capital and labour and no class antagonism, but had had no opportunity of calling a general meeting before. At the meeting 647 representatives were present, and under the leadership of Kumazo Ishii they passed resolutions on the organization of a new patriotic political party and the establishment of an Industry and Labour Council, confirming similar decisions passed by the September meeting of the All-Japan Convention of Patriotic Trade Unions mentioned above, for this club is one of the strongest members of the Convention. The club is composed of 18 smaller unions with an aggregate membership of 18,550.

The tenth general meeting of the Japan General Federation of Trade Unions, another powerful member of the All-Japan Convention, held at Tokyo on November 15, 1936. This Federation had seceded from the Japan Trade Union Council in September, 1935, and entered the Convention, turning from liberalism to nationalism. The meeting passed 10 resolutions among which the most important was that regarding "the promotion of a political war front of patriotic trade unions." The officials of the Federation on the day of the meeting was as follows:

Officials:

President, Kyuzo Takayama
Vice-president, Bukichi Imai
Chief-secretary, Eichi Mori

Advisers, Kesaya Yamazaki, Chukichi Kaneko

Central Executive Committee, Fusaji Ohashi, Minekichi Takahashi, Keiji Takahashi and others.

Membership:

43 unions with an aggregate membership of 29,802.

The 3rd general meeting of the All-Japan Council of Trade Unions was held at Tokyo on November 15 and 16. Among trade unions in Japan this body is most inclined to the left, and is close to the Japan Trade Union Council, their slogans being, "Institution of a Trade Union Law," "Institution of a Labour Protection Law," "War for Higher Wages," "Union of Anti-Fascist Bodies," and "War against the Increase of the Tax Burden of the Masses." At the meeting Kanju Kato presided over the 190 representatives present, who expressed their hope to be united with the Social Mass Party in political matters and with the Japan Trade Union Council in trade union matters. The All-Japan Council of Trade Unions is composed of 42 unions and about 15,000 members. Present officials are:

President of the Central Executive Committee, Kanju Kato

Chief-secretary, Hideo Yamahana

Central Executive Committee, Minoru Takano, Toraichi Nanba, Shikaichi Yasuhira, and others.

Trade Unions in 1937 The activities of the labour movement in 1937 chiefly centred round a demand for higher wages in the face of the rapid rising tendency of commodity prices since the fall of 1936 and an opposition to the raising of the taxes affecting the masses.

The central committee meeting of the All Japan Federation of Labour which was held on January 11 passed a resolution "to begin a movement for increased wages by adoption of peaceful but positive measures," and despatched instructions to its member unions all over Japan on the course of action to be followed. The All-Japan Council of Trade Unions issued orders to its member unions with the same objective and all other trade unions followed suit with the result that a large number of labour disputes based on wage issue were recorded during the first half of the year. The demand was for raising wages from 10 to 30 per cent. Many of the employers showed a compromising attitude and the

disputes ended for the time being with a rise of 5 to 15 per cent in wages. In the meantime the Social Mass Party, which is supported by the Japan Trade Union Council, scored a great victory in the general election of April 30, obtaining 928,000 votes (against 518,000 obtained at the last election) and sent 37 members (against the former 18) to the House of Representatives. The labour movement in the first half of the year made a good advance in both economic and political fields.

The second half, however, turned out to be bad because of the occurrence of the China incident. The emergency situation that followed demanded the co-operation of the entire nation. The expansion of industrial activities and the economic control by the Government put a stop to labour union disputes. The occasion was one which demanded sacrifice for the country and the labouring classes were to bear a large share of it. A large number were called to the colours and sent to the front in China and a considerable amount of human power was mobilized for industries directly or indirectly connected with military operations. The social democratic labour unions changed their ideology, at first, to industrial co-operation with capital and then to nationalism; even the leftist unions showed a compromising attitude toward capital for industrial co-operation.

The Japan Trade Union Council held its 8th general meeting in Osaka on October 10, and declared, "At this period when our country is engaged in an international conflict in which she is throwing all her might our spirit of patriotism is deeply stirred and we cannot allow ourselves to think of our personal interests. The great mission before us is to give ourselves to the country and render our labour inspired by the object of bringing about the general welfare of the entire nation. The Japan Trade Union Council will do its best by upholding these ideals before the labouring classes. . . . The Council is one of the most patriotic bodies in the country because it is a body organized by the masses who are engaged in actual toil for the advancement of the country," and promised its co-operation and service for the country as a representative federation of labour unions. When the Central League for National Spiritual Mobilization was organized the Japan Trade Union Council became a member and promised to give its positive support to the spiritual mobilization movement initiated by the Government, and des-

patched, Bunji Suzuki, one of its leaders, to the United States as a people's ambassador for presenting Japan's case in the present conflict to the labour unions in that country.

The All Japan General Federation of Labour decided to make collections for raising a fund for soldiers and the bereaved families and to urge members to purchase the Patriotic Bonds issued by the Government by monthly instalments declaring, "as long as the present international conflict lasts we are confident that we shall find peaceful and just means for settling all disputes between capital and labour, and do not have to resort to strikes for settlement of our problems."

The old and new Japan Seamen's Unions which had been hostile to each other since their secession in May 1935, were united again into a single Union in March 1938, and seceded from the I.T.F. at Amsterdam in September, 1937.

The Social Mass Party has changed its ideology from class struggle to co-operation, and Isoo Abé, its chief leader, expressed his willingness to bring the Party in line with other national movements in order to cope with the present emergency situation. Kanichiro Kamei, a representative of the Party went to the length of declaring, in his speech in the House of Representatives in September 1937, that the Party did not stand for socialism. On October 15, 1937, the 6th national meeting of the Social Mass Party adopted a new platform which emphasized nationalism.

Arrest of Leftist Leaders The Police Bureau of the Home Department, issued orders to the Tokyo Metropolitan Police and other 17 prefectural police offices on December 15, and had some 400 leaders of the Japan Proletariat Party and the All-Japan Council of Trade Unions arrested. Among those arrested were such popular labour leaders as Kanju Kato, Kin Yamakawa, Tsunao Inomata, Gitaro Omori, and K. Arahata. The Party and the Council were ordered dissolved on December 22, 1937, on the ground that "the Japan Proletariat Party has, as its principal aim, the establishment of anti-Fascist people's front, the true aim of which is the mobilization of the masses toward communist revolution and the changing of Japan's national character in accordance with Bolshevik principles," and that "the All-Japan Council of Trade Unions is the main support of the Japan Proletariat Party, the leaders being common to both, and

seems to be still holding the revolutionary principles of the former labour unions in this country."

As to the nationalists, the Patriotic Labourer Farmer Society and the Japan Industrial Labour Club were amalgamated into one organization under the former name, on August 8, 1937, and the new society held its first national meeting on December 21, and announced that "the Society is a labour union which aims at the realization of Nipponism."

The advance of the nationalistic labour unions in the political field was in general unsuccessful in the first half of 1937, but a plan for organizing a new political party with the former political Reform Council at the centre, was carried out by the nationalists and the Nippon Kakushinto (Japan Reform Party) was organized on July 18 (vide The Japan Year Book, 1937, P. 173).

Birth of the Patriotic Industrial Association

The outstanding event in the annals of the trade union history in Japan was the birth of the Patriotic Industrial Association (Sangyo Hōkoku Kai) in 1938. The organization of the Association was first initiated by the Arbitration Society for the purpose of readjusting the relations between capital and labour in the time of emergency. A special commission in the Society recommended, early in 1938, the organization of such associations in factories and industrial establishments all over the country, and within a few months the number of the Patriotic Industrial Associations became so many that the Central Patriotic Industrial League was organized on July 30th. The Central League, then began a national campaign for the spread of the principles of the association among the employers and workers in all kinds of factories and for the organization of the association in every one of them in all the districts of the country. On August 24, 1938, the Government decided to give a helping hand to the movement and issued an order, in the name of Vice-Minister of the Home and Welfare Departments, to encourage the organization of a patriotic trade union in every factory if possible. Thus the movement became semi-governmental and the number of the Patriotic Industrial Associations rapidly increased. In view of the necessity of national control, the leadership and supervision of the Associations was finally transferred from the Central Patriotic Industrial League to the Gov-

ernment on April 24, 1939, and the National Federation of the Patriotic Industrial Associations was organized, while the Central League was reorganized so as to take the part of education and propaganda only.

According to the report published by the Government on July 20, 1939, the

number of the associations reached 5,332 with a membership of 1,849,000. There is no doubt that the appearance of such patriotic trade unions will bear hard upon the existing trade unions and federations which are confronted with the danger of dissolution or scission among members.

TRADE UNIONS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Welfare)

	Unions	Members	Total Number of Labourers	Union Percentage
1930	712	354,312	4,713,002	7.5
1931	818	368,975	4,729,436	7.9
1932	932	377,625	4,860,276	7.8
1933	942	384,613	5,126,719	7.5
1934	965	387,964	5,764,277	6.7
1935	993	408,662	5,908,589	6.7
1936	973	420,589	6,090,116	6.9
1937	837	395,290	6,422,333	6.1

Farmers' Unions Farmers' unions are changing from temporary to permanent organizations, and are steadily increasing in number. According to the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry in 1921 there were only 681 tenant-farm-

ers' unions, and their growth is shown below. The number of landowners' unions correspondingly increased from 192 in the same span of time. Opposition between the two is apparently much wider in scope and deeper in nature.

FARMERS' UNIONS

	Landowners		Tenant-farmers		Landowners and Tenant-farmers	
	Unions	Members	Unions	Members	Unions	Members
1929	655	55,138	4,156	315,771	1,986	244,943
1930	640	53,278	4,208	301,436	1,980	247,880
1931	645	50,556	4,414	306,301	2,047	255,088
1932	662	50,454	4,650	296,839	2,098	258,613
1933	686	49,645	4,810	302,736	2,309	279,431
1934	633	48,836	4,390	276,246	2,219	271,434
1935	531	38,172	4,011	242,422	1,748	202,785
1936	513	35,703	3,915	229,209	2,878	254,907
1937	448	29,924	3,471	207,228	1,059	123,576

Consumers' Co-operative Movement
The condition of friendly societies among labourers in 1932-1936 was as

follows (As to the cooperative societies of farmers see Chapter XIII, Agriculture.)

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN GOVERNMENT FACTORIES

	(Amount in yen)				
	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Membership	548,282	564,723	563,800	583,187	530,535
Income:					
Paid in, by members	16,808,180	17,741,302	16,230,827	19,087,113	20,035,612
by the Government	13,177,041	13,189,151	12,554,579	14,101,544	14,697,144
Others and Total	44,966,896	47,323,625	46,531,173	50,583,502	54,051,967
Disbursements:					
For deaths	2,950,665	2,973,018	3,124,125	3,282,930	3,349,952
For the disabled	3,641,628	1,406,067	1,311,389	1,474,393	608,388
For injuries and illness		1,311,389	2,549,539	2,516,020	4,970,463
Others and total	20,306,055	23,012,007	22,557,651	26,366,705	24,636,027

LABOUR AND LABOUR MOVEMENTS

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN PRIVATE FACTORIES

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
No. of Societies	3,334	3,394	3,340	3,588	4,179	4,225	4,502
Membership	503,998	486,160	559,834	569,820	685,164	769,049	817,444

CONSUMERS' CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES ORGANIZED BY LABOURERS IN CITY AREAS

(Amount in yen)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
No. of Societies	177	190	178	184	182
Membership	199,281	212,091	221,994	238,962	265,155
Paid-up capital	2,633,021	2,508,405	2,367,070	2,542,980	3,192,741
Reserves	1,333,884	1,574,655	1,637,545	1,854,239	2,076,112
Loans	2,234,494	2,098,557	2,194,781	2,226,156	1,932,354
Profit	2,559,381	3,006,949	3,467,120	3,488,863	4,155,081
Loss	2,071,837	2,514,856	2,812,717	2,714,134	3,219,278
Balance	487,544	492,093	654,403	774,729	935,803

CHAPTER XXXII

MEDICINE AND SANITATION

Introduction

Sanitary affairs of the country were placed under the supervision of the Sanitary Bureau, Home Department, until 1938 when the Bureau was transferred to the new Welfare Department, and divided into two bureaux of public hygiene and of disease prevention. The report for 1937 is, therefore, that of the old Sanitary Bureau. Sanitary establishments under the direct control of the Bureau are 6 health centres in 6 largest cities, the hygienic laboratory, the Institute of Nutrition, 3 national leprosaria, the National Tuberculosis Sanatorium, and the Institute for Infectious Diseases. Special committees or boards are the Committee for the Examination of Medical Practitioners, the Committee for the Examination of Dental Surgeons, the Committee for the Examination of Pharmacists, the Central Board of Health, the Board for the Investigation of the Japanese Pharmacopoeia, the Board for the Investigation of National Hygiene, the Opium Committee, and the National Parks Committee.

Health Preservation Work

Control of Foods and Beverages Milk. In the following table are given the actual number at the end of 1937 of persons engaged in the milking, handling and selling or milking and sell-

ing, or handling and selling or selling of cow's milk, and of dairy farms, milk plants, and of milk-cows, as well as the quantities of milk produced during the same year :—

Persons engaged in milking, handling and selling of milk	4,799
	* 41
Persons engaged in milking and selling of milk	25,111
Persons engaged in handling and selling of milk	1,914
Persons engaged in selling of milk	3,862
Dairy farms	30,422
	* 41
Milk plants	6,445
	* 41
Number of milk-cows	107,878
	* 753
Quantity of milk produced	262,314,993
	(Litres)
	*1,802,813
Quantity of milk handled	160,519,418
	*1,455,369

Note :—* Refers to special milk. Of 41 persons who were engaged in the milking, handling and selling of special milk, 36 had some other additional business, and of 160,519,418 litres of milk handled 118,372 litres was skimmed milk.

GOAT'S MILK

	1937	Compared with 1936
	(Litres)	
Persons engaged in production and sale of goat's milk	606	39 (Incr.)
Number of goat-milk dairies	614	51 (")
Number of milk-goats	6,482	446 (")
Quantity of goat's milk produced	1,575,766	282,977 (")

MILK-PRODUCTS

	1937	Compared with preceding year
	(kg.)	(kg.)
Condensed milk	1,406,212	75,054 (Incr.)
Unsweetened condensed milk	866,303	168,598 (decr.)
Condensed skimmed milk	331,994	139,298 (Incr.)
Powdered milk	117,530	92,164 (decr.)
Unsweetened powdered milk	130,581	21,553 (Incr.)
Powdered skimmed milk	6,130	901 (")
Butter	715,423	605,348 (")

Snow and Ice The number of traders in snow and ice (those who gather and sell natural ice, and those who manufacture ice artificially and sell it for the purpose of consumption) at the

end of 1937 and the quantity of snow and ice gathered and manufactured during the year compared with the figures for the preceding year are given in the following table:—

	1937	Compared with 1936
Traders in snow and ice	1,636 persons	72 (decr.)
Artificial ice	2,699,039,119 kg	410,266,958 (incr.)
Natural ice	59,291,065 ..	66,232,183 (decr.)
Snow	154,752 ..	1,126,416 (..)

Non-alcoholic Drinks The number of manufacturers of non-alcoholic drinks at the end of 1937 was 3,347 showing a decrease of 210 over the preceding year.

	1937	Compared with 1936
Mineral water and Plain Soda Water	668	16 (incr.)
Ramuné	1,835	43 (decr.)
Cider	1,542	39 (..)
Lemonade (including Fruit water, Peppermint water and Cinnamon bark juice)	1,958	58 (..)
Fruit Juice, Syrup and others	1,631	48 (..)
Acid drinks made from milk or milk-products	230	23 (incr.)

The following table gives the quantity of non-alcoholic drinks manufactured in 1937:

	1937 (Litres)	Compared with the Preceding year
Mineral Water and Plain Soda Water	8,291,972	1,334,575 (decr.)
Ramuné	43,744,047	3,323,997 (incr.)
Cider	52,177,373	2,513,718 (..)
Lemonade (including Fruit water, Peppermint and Cinnamon bark juice)	18,486,295	919,819 (..)
Fruit Juice, Syrup and others	17,673,521	2,073,193 (..)
Acid drinks made from milk or milk-products	2,752,981	620,383 (..)
Total	143,126,989	8,114,535 (..)

The total quantity of refreshing drinks as given above, when compared with the total population for the year, comes to 2.01 litres per inhabitant, showing a decrease of 0.09 litres compared with the preceding year.

Waterworks During the year from April, 1937 to March, 1938, sanction was given for the construction of waterworks in the following 34 localities:

*Shirikishina village, Hokkaido; Hachinohe city, Aomori prefecture; *Watanami town, Miyagi prefecture; Onahama town, Fukushima prefecture; Ohta town, Gumma prefecture; *Yoshihama village, Kanagawa prefecture; Tsubame town, Niigata prefecture; *Hirao village, Nagano prefecture, *Sanomaru Waterworks Users Union (pri-

ate), Gifu prefecture; *Kitakano village, Shizuoka prefecture; Mitani town, Aichi prefecture; *Tai waterworks Union (private), Kyoto prefecture; *Nariu Waterworks Union, (private) same prefecture; Ryuge village, Kami village, Ohtori town, Yao town, and Kashiwara town, Osaka prefecture. *Joto Waterworks Union same prefecture; *Naruo village, *Hanshin Waterworks Municipal Union, *Hanshin Express Electric Railway Company (private) (a portion of Muko village) and *Hanshin Express Electric Railway Company (private) (a portion of Sonoda village), Hyogo prefecture; Koriyama town, Nara prefecture; and *Osaka Electric Tramcar Company (private) same prefecture; *Ubano village, *Gamo village, *Tago

village, Tottori prefecture; *Juzo Minato and other three men's Union, Hiroshima prefecture (private), and *Habu town Waterworks Union (private), same prefecture; *Yobuko town Waterworks Union (private), Saga prefecture; *Mogi town, Nagasaki prefecture; Sagano-seki town, Oita prefecture; *Sankasho village, Miyazaki prefecture.

Those places which obtained permission to construct waterworks may be classified as follows:

Undertaken by	No. of Waterworks constructed	No. of Waterworks Completed
Cities	120	117
Towns and Villages	405	368
Town or Village Association	6	6
Prefecture	* 2	* 1
	4	4

Number of houses within the districts in which removal of refuse was carried out

Removal from the above-mentioned houses	4,795,227
{ Refuses	3,390,450,442 kg
{ Dirt	645,449,165 ..
{ Night-soil	14,027,551 kl
Average amount removed per house	{ Refuses 707.0 kg
	{ Dirt 134.6 ..
	{ Night-soil 2.9 kl

Number of houses from which the holder of the land removed refuse under Art. XXI of the Regulation for Enforcement of the Law

Number of incineration plants	150,559
Amount of refuse burnt	152
Water-closets with purifying equipments	1,879,692,200 kg
Number of water-closets directly connected with the main under Art. 12 of the Regulations for the Enforcement of the City Building Law	17,877
	68,817

Note:—(1) The number of houses, incineration plants and water closets was the same as that which existed at the end of 1937.

(2) The figures of night-soil given in the table represent only those for which city authorities are held responsible for its removal.

(3) Number of incineration plants does not include the provisions for burning in the open.

Slaughter-houses The total number of slaughter-houses at the end of 1937 was 714, of which 103 were established by cities, 381 by towns and villages, 43 by live-stock raisers' or industrial associations, 187 by private individuals. When compared with the figures of the preceding year, it shows an increase of 12 in city slaughter-houses, 1 in those established by towns and villages, and 5 in those of live-stock raisers' or industrial associations, and a decrease of 14 in those privately established. If these slaughter-houses are considered according to locality, it is found that

Undertaken by	No. of Waterworks constructed	No. of Waterworks Completed
Private parties	115	108
Total	625	604

Note:—Refers to those established by the city, town or village guild.

Sewerage During the year 1937, permission to construct sewers was given to three places, namely; Seto city, Aichi prefecture, Himeji city and Sumiyoshi village, Hyogo prefecture.

The places which had already obtained permission to construct sewers were 46 places, consisting of 39 cities, 6 towns and one village.

Removal of Foul Matter The following table gives a general idea of the removal of foul matter conducted in 1937 in 146 cities, under the provisions of the Law for the Removal of Foul Matter.

the largest number is Hokkaido which has 65, followed by Kagoshima with 31, and the prefectures of Hyogo, Chiba, Niigata, Nagano, Tokyo, Fukushima, Ibaraki, Gunma, Okinawa, Iwate, Shizuoka, Aichi, Hiroshima, Yamaguchi, Miyé, Shimané, and Oita have each from 15 to 25; the prefecture with the smallest number is Fukui with 5, and Tottori with 6 each, followed by Wakayama and Shiga with 7 each; Miyazaki, Nara, Ehime, Gifu, Toyama and Aomori are also prefectures with but few slaughter-houses, each having not more than 10.

Slaughtering The number of animals of various kinds slaughtered in 1937 for food purpose and its comparison with the figures for the preceding year are given here (those slaughtered in emergencies or for household use are not included):

Kind of Animals	No. of Cattle slaughtered in 1937	Compared with 1936
Cattle	345,385 heads	52,225 (incr.)
Calves	43,661 "	10,421 "

Kind of Animals	No. of Cattle slaughtered in 1937	Compared with 1936
Sheep	2,534 heads	1,037 (incr.)
Goats	4,207 "	152 "
Pigs	1,222,249 "	42,140 "
Horses	71,427 "	23,459 (decr.)

The following table gives the weight of meat yielded in 1937 by the slaughtered animals and a comparison of the yield with that of the preceding year:

	Total weight		Average weight per head	
	1937	Compared with 1936	1937	Compared with 1936
	kg	kg	kg	kg
Cattle	64,523,122	8,978,802 (incr.)	186.82	2.65 (decr.)
Calves	2,647,629	932,709 (")	60.64	9.05 (incr.)
Sheep	46,927	16,269 (")	18.52	0.62 (decr.)
Goats	43,654	4,998 (")	10.38	0.85 (incr.)
Pigs	60,042,749	1,410,177 (")	49.12	0.56 (decr.)
Horses	10,497,131	3,211,382 (decr.)	146.96	2.49 (incr.)

The number of cases of emergency slaughter in 1937 (slaughtered outside slaughter-houses without formal steps being taken on account of injuries or helpless condition by accident, difficulty of delivery, puerperal anesthesia, or acute tympanites) was 1,453 of cattle, 61 of calves, 271 of pigs and 956 of horses and the number slaughtered in the same year for private use consisted of 342 calves, 141 sheep, 1,279 goats and 21,548 pigs.

Inspection of Imported Meat The total amount of meat imported in 1937 at the ports of Yokohama, Tsugaru, Osaka, Kobe, Ujina, Shimonoseki, Moji, Nagasaki and Izuhara was 13,086,484 kilogrammes, of which 3,519 kilogrammes were condemned. Compared with the preceding year, the amount of meat inspected increased by 3,876,669 kilogrammes, and condemned meat by 3,401 kilogrammes. Classified by the kinds of meat, it was as follows:

	The weight of meat inspected (in kg)	The weight of meat condemned (in kg)	Ratio of condemned meat (%)
Fresh Beef	368,557	—	—
Chilled Beef	7,244,488	3,519	0.49
Frozen Beef	5,384,240	—	—
Mutton	52,900	—	—
Goat meat	554	—	—
Horse meat	33,660	—	—
Pork	2,085	—	—
Total	13,086,484	3,519	0.27

Poisoning The total number of persons poisoned in 1937 was 12,666 (a decrease of 7,363 on the preceding year), of which 7,410 (58.50 per cent) were poisoned intentionally, 5,213 (41.16 per cent) by accident and 44 (0.34 per cent) through other's injuries; and of these persons poisoned 3,278 died, of which 2,924 were those poisoned intentionally, 332 those poisoned by accident, and 22 those poisoned by others, so that 39.41 per cent of those intentionally poisoned died, 6.41 per cent of those accidentally poisoned also died, and 55.16 per cent of those poisoned through other's injuries also succumbed. Of poisonous substance the most frequently used in intentional poisoning and poisoning through other's injuries are chemicals, especially a preparation containing phosphorus; accidental poisoning is mostly due to eating poisonous animals, plants or putrefied food.

Burials and Cremations The total number of burial-grounds at the end of 1937 was 975,682 and their total area was 23,405 hectare, making the average area of burial-ground 0.02 hectare, and the total number of crematoria at the end of the same year was 34,534, in which 707,164 bodies were cremated during the year, so that a crematorium burnt on an average 20.48 bodies. In the same year 608,329 bodies were buried uncremated so that those cremated came to 53.76 per cent and those buried uncremated to 46.24 per cent of the total number of burials, which, when

compared with the percentage for the preceding year showed an increase of 1.84 per cent in those cremated.

Insane Persons The total number of insane persons at the end of 1937 was 90,753, showing an increase of 4,706 over the figures for the preceding year. Its ratio to the population of the country

in that year was 12.74 per 10,000, which, compared with the preceding year, shows an increase of 0.49.

The following table gives the number of insane persons at the end of 1937, classified according to the places of their custody or confinement:

	Actual Numbers			Percentage		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Admitted into Insane Asylums under the Law concerning Asylums for the Insane	1,667	883	2,550	2.92	2.63	2.81
Admitted into Substitute Asylums under the same Law	4,127	2,420	6,547	7.22	7.20	7.21
	*2,147	*1,291	*3,438			
Under Custody in the Asylums or Hospitals	4,341	2,329	6,670	7.60	6.93	7.35
Under Custody in other places	5,858	1,350	7,208	10.25	4.02	7.94
Under Temporary Custody	94	28	122	0.16	0.08	0.14
Not requiring Admission or Custody	41,066	26,590	67,656	71.85	79.14	74.55
Total	57,153	33,600	90,753	100.00	100.00	100.00
	*2,147	*1,291	*3,438			

Note:—Figures marked with * refer to those who were under custody at places that may be included among the category of substitute asylum out of the figures just above the line.

Tuberculosis The following table shows the results of health examinations conducted in 1937 by the prefectural governments, in accordance with

the provision of Art. IV, Clause I of the Law for the Prevention of Tuberculosis:

	1937	Compared with the preceding year
Estimated number of persons requiring health examination	1,596,010	207,089 (decr.)
Number of persons examined	1,252,114	190,644 (")
	*73,353	*48,434 (")
Number of persons diagnosed as tuberculosis patients	601	85 (incr.)
Ratio of the patients per 1,000 of the examined	0.45	0.16 (")
Number of persons ordered to suspend from work	90	11 (")

Note:—The figures marked with an asterisk are those for whom more than two examinations were made.

Trachoma The following table shows the result of examination conducted by the prefectural government during 1937,

in accordance with provision of Art. 4, clause 1 of the Law for the Prevention of Trachoma:

	1937	Compared with preceding year.
Number of persons examined	6,522,554	633,192 (incr.)
	*703,782	*456,639 (decr.)
Number of trachoma cases:		
Severe cases	39,453	272 (incr.)
Mild cases	409,495	19,422 (decr.)
Suspected cases	123,549	1,669 (")
Total	572,497	20,819 (")

	1937	Compared with preceding year.
Ratio of cases per 100 persons examined	7.92	0.50 (..)
Number of patients ordered to refrain from work	207	39 (..)

Note:—The figures marked with asterisk are those for whom more than two examinations were made.

Health Examination of Prostitutes The prostitute quarters actually existing at the end of 1937 (the term prostitute quarters does not here and hereinafter necessarily mean segregated quarters, but is also intended for convenience's sake to include all places where licensed prostitutes have been permitted to carry on their trade) numbered 392, being a decrease of 7 from the preceding year. The daily average during the year of licensed prostitutes in these quarters was 44,908, showing an increase of 786 over the preceding year.

The number of health-examination stations for these prostitutes was 368, showing a decrease of 7 from the preceding year, and the total number of examinations made in these stations was 2,770,427, showing an increase of 98,273 over the preceding year, and in 59,454 cases the prostitutes were found diseased. The ratio of cases of diseases to the total number examined was 2.15 per cent, i.e. 0.04 per cent lower than in the preceding year. The number of hospitals for admitting these diseased prostitutes (including places for treatment lacking hospital accommodations) was 138, and the average number of times a prostitute was ad-

mitted into hospital during the year was 1.32 and was same as the preceding year.

The percentage of prostitutes pronounced diseased among those examined for health was, if we examine the different prefectures, highest in Gifu prefecture (4.49%), followed by Shiga (4.32%), Osaka (3.38%), Okinawa (3.08%), Wakayama (2.91%), and Chiba (2.68%), while the lowest was in Ishikawa prefecture (0.30), followed by Iwate (0.49%), Toyama (0.54%), Nagano (0.67%), Ibaraki and Niigata (0.81%), and Kumamoto (0.82%).

The following table gives the number, classified according to diseases, of prostitutes in the whole country who were during the year found to be diseased upon examination; when two or more diseases are found in the same person, the one which appears first in the table is taken to be the principal disease; thus for instance, if a person is suffering from both syphilis and gonorrhoea, she is taken to be infected with the former disease and the latter is added to the number in bracket under gonorrhoea (the percentage for the preceding four years are also given for comparison):

	Actual Number, 1937	In-patients			
		1937	Percentage 1936	Percentage 1935	1934
Syphilis	467	16.54	21.42	15.83	16.41
Gonorrhoea	1,101 (65)	41.30	39.29	34.77	34.17
Chancroid	1,255 (62)	46.65	42.88	56.06	54.23
Total	2,823				

	Actual Number, 1937	Out-patients			
		1937	Percentage 1936	Percentage 1935	1934
Syphilis	1,349	16.37	12.34	14.90	17.70
Gonorrhoea	5,356 (111)	66.35	66.57	73.21	68.11
Chancroid	1,535 (57)	19.32	23.30	14.32	16.35
Total	8,240				

Note:—In the percentage of cases of diseases, the diseases which are found in one and the same person are taken as separate cases, so that their total exceeds 100.

Cholera The total number of cases of cholera in 1937 was 57 with 20 deaths (no case occurred in the preceding year). The ratios of these cases and deaths to

the population in the same year were 0.01 cases and 0.00 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants. Below are given prefectures where cases of cholera broke out:

Prefecture	Cases	Deaths	No. of cases per 10,000 inhabitants
Hiroshima	40	15	0.22
Yamaguchi	10	3	0.08
Okayama	5	1	0.04
Tokyo	1	—	0.00
Hyogo	1	1	0.00

Of the above total number, 43 cases broke out in urban districts, and it represents 75.44% of the total number for the whole country. There were 18 deaths therefrom. The rate of above cases and deaths to the urban population was 0.02 cases and 0.01 deaths to 10,000 inhabitants.

Dysentery, including Ekiri The total number of the cases of dysentery in 1937 was 78,284 and there were 18,427 deaths therefrom which, when compared with the figures for the preceding year, shows an increase of 26,209 cases and 2,687 deaths. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 10.99 cases and 2.59 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, compared with the preceding year, an increase of 3.58 cases and 0.35 deaths.

Typhoid Fever The total number of cases of typhoid fever in 1937 was 38,542 with 8,617 deaths, showing an increase of 1,604 cases and 150 deaths compared with the preceding year. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 5.41 cases and 0.93 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.15 cases and 0.01 deaths.

The total number of cases of typhoid fever reported for urban districts only, during the year was 18,909 which corresponds to 49.06 per cent of the cases for the whole country. Of the above number, there were 3,376 deaths.

The ratios of these cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population was 7.53 and 1.34 respectively, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.24 while that for deaths remained stationary.

Paratyphoid Fever The total number of cases of paratyphoid fever in 1937 was 4,490, of which 292 ended fatally, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, a decrease of 295 cases and 1 deaths. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 0.63 cases and 0.04 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, which shows when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.05 cases while the death-rate remained unchanged.

The total number of cases of paratyphoid fever reported for urban districts only in 1937 was 2,065 which corresponds to 46.09 per cent of the total number of cases for the whole country, and the deaths therefrom numbered 123.

The ratios of cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population was 0.82 and 0.05 respectively, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.02 cases, but with no change in death-rate.

Smallpox In 1937 the total number of cases was 90 with 6 deaths. Compared with the figures of the preceding year, there was a decrease of 88 cases and 23 deaths. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the total population in the same year were 0.01 cases and 0.00 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants. The largest number of cases occurred in Fukuoka prefecture, it being 25 cases with 1 death; in the other prefectures the number of cases was less than 24. (In 1936 there were 178 cases with 29 deaths). The total number of cases of smallpox in urban districts was 32 (2 deaths), corresponding to 35.56 per cent of the total number of cases for the whole country, and the ratio to 10,000 of urban population shows 0.01 cases and 0.00 deaths.

Typhus In 1937, total number of cases of typhus was 17, but there was no death. Compared with the preceding year, cases increased by 16, while deaths decreased by one. The ratio of these cases to the population in the same year was 0.00 per 10,000 inhabitants, being same as in the preceding year.

Scarlet Fever The total number of cases of scarlet fever in 1937 was 17,603 with 480 deaths, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures an increase of 896 cases and a decrease of 7 deaths.

The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 2.47 cases and 0.07 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants. Compared with the preceding year, there was no change in both ratios.

Diphtheria The total number of cases of diphtheria in 1937 was 28,111 with 4,059 deaths, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, a decrease of 123 cases and 135 deaths.

The proportion of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year was 3.95 cases and 0.57 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the preceding year, a decrease of 0.07 cases and 0.03 deaths.

1,431 vessels and 7,409 rats were caught, which, compared with the preceding year, shows a decrease of 160 in the number of vessels and of 120 in that of rats.

Rabies In 1937, there was no case of rabies in men. The number of rabid dogs in 1937 was 5 reported in Tokyo prefecture showing an increase of 2 compared with the preceding year. (In 1937 there was no rabid animal other than dogs). The number of persons bitten by rabid dogs in 1937 was 3 in Tokyo prefecture, showing no change on the preceding year. The number of persons who had preventive injection for rabies in 1937 was 3,748, showing an increase of 601 on the preceding year. Of the above number, 3 were those who had been bitten by rabid dogs, and 3,745 by animals suspected of rabies.

Bacteriological Laboratories The number of bacteriological laboratories at the end of 1937 was 195, consisting of 145 established by prefectural governments, 24 by cities, 1 by towns and villages and 25 by private individuals, showing an increase of 2 in the total number on the preceding year.

If we examine the number of these

laboratories according to locality, we find that Shizuoka prefecture had the largest number with 13, followed by Hyogo prefecture with 12, Osaka and Nagasaki prefectures with 9 each, Hokkaido, Miyagi, and Hiroshima prefectures with 7 each, Ibaraki, Yamaguchi, Fukuoka and Kumamoto with 6 each, while the rest of prefectures all had less than five.

The number of bacteriological examinations made by these laboratories in 1937 were 4,446,393, of which those connected with the notifiable infectious diseases were 3,859,920 and those not connected therewith 586,473, showing an increase of 878,998 in the total number of examinations on the figures of the preceding year.

Medical Affairs

Medical Practitioners The total number of medical licences issued in 1937 was 3,359 (besides, 17 to foreigners), showing an increase, compared with the preceding year, of 40 licences (the number issued to foreigners decreased by 2). In the following table is given the number of persons to whom licences were issued, classified and compared with the preceding year's figures:

	1937	Compared with preceding year
Graduates of universities	1,810	64 (incr.)
Completed course in Government or public colleges of medicine	260	32 (")
Completed course in approved private colleges of medicine	1,276	58 (decr.)
Completed course in foreign colleges (including examination)	7	2 (incr.)
Passed examination	—	— (")
Total	3,359	40 (incr.)

The total number of medical practitioners at the end of 1937 was 61,799 (besides 35 foreigners), showing an increase over the preceding year of 2,093 practitioners (an increase of 5 among foreigners). The following table gives

the number of medical practitioners at the end of 1937 classified and in percentages (the percentages for the preceding four years are also given for comparison):

	At the end of 1937		Percentage			
	1937	1936	1935	1934	1933	
Graduates of universities	21,699	35.11	33.67	32.69	30.96	29.51
Completed course in Government, public or approved private colleges of medicine	30,127	48.75	48.85	48.61	48.80	48.33
Completed course in foreign schools (including examination)	73	0.12	0.13	0.12	0.12	0.12
Passed examination	9,434	15.26	16.41	17.49	18.82	20.42
Licensed on account of official career	29	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.09
In practice from before promulgation of the Law of Medical Practitioners	389	0.63	0.78	0.90	1.08	1.36
In practice within limited districts	48	0.08	0.11	0.13	0.15	0.17
Total	61,799	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Of the above total number, those actually engaged in the diagnosis and treatment of patients were 54,481, being 88.16 per cent of the total.

The total number of those medical practitioners who were actually engaged in the diagnosis and treatment of patients at the end of 1937 was at the rate of 7.65 practitioners per 10,000 inhabitants (1,308 in habitants per physician). Next, if we consider the ratio of practitioners per 10,000 inhabitants in the prefectures, we find the highest ratio in Kyoto prefecture which had 15.66 practitioners, followed by Tokyo with 14.24, Osaka and Ishikawa with 10.61 each, and Miyagi with 9.03. Aichi with 8.78, and Chiba with 8.28 and the prefecture with the smallest ratio was

Okinawa which had 3.04, followed by Fukushima with 4.55, Ibaraki with 4.56, Yamagata with 4.80, Akita with 4.92, Gumma with 4.96 and Tochigi with 4.98.

As to the distribution of medical practitioners between urban and rural districts, there were 12.54 practitioners per 10,000 of population in the urban districts while the corresponding ratio was 4.98 for rural districts.

Dental Surgeons The total number of licences issued to dental surgeons in 1937 was 1,132, being a decrease of 63 when compared with the preceding year. In the following table is given the number of persons to whom the licences were issued in 1937, classified and compared with the preceding year's figures:

	1937	Compared with preceding year
Completed course in Government or approved private dental colleges	992	97 (decr.)
Completed course in foreign schools (including those who passed examination)	6	—
Passed examination	134	34 (incr.)
Total	1,132	63 (decr.)

The total number of dental surgeons at the end of 1937 was 22,072 (besides three foreigners), showing an increase over the preceding year of 1,005 (number of foreigners remained stationary);

the following table gives the number classified and in percentage (the percentages for the preceding four years are also given for comparison):

	At the end of 1937		Percentage			
	1937	1936	1935	1934	1933	
Completed course in Government or approved private dental colleges	12,231	59.94	57.97	56.00	53.62	50.82
Completed course in foreign schools (including examination)	79	0.36	0.35	0.40	0.41	0.43
Passed examination	8,760	39.69	41.67	43.59	45.95	48.72
In practice from the time before the promulgation of the Law of Dental Surgeons	2	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.03
Total	22,072	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Of the above number those who were actually engaged in practice numbered 20,187 which corresponds to 91.46 per cent of the total number of dental surgeons.

The total number of those dental surgeons who were actually in practice was at the rate of 2.83 per 10,000 of the population, and if we examine the ratio of the dental surgeons in prefectures, we find that the highest ratio was that of Tokyo prefecture with 6.21 per 10,000 inhabitants, followed by Osaka with 3.69, Kanagawa with 3.39, Aichi with 3.33, Fukuoka with 3.24, Kyoto with 3.14 and; the lowest ratio was that of Okinawa which was 0.70,

followed by Iwaté with 1.29, Kagoshima with 1.44, Yamagata with 1.53, Toyama with 1.56, and Akita with 1.64.

As to the distribution of dental surgeons in cities and districts of the country the ratio was 4.85 for cities and 1.74 for districts per 10,000 inhabitants. At the end of 1937, besides the above mentioned number of dental surgeons, there were 86 medical practitioners who specialized in dentistry.

Administrative Penalties upon Dental Surgeons In 1937, there were 8 dental surgeons upon whom administrative penalties were inflicted, and the penalties were the following:

Suspension of dental practice for
2 months 1 persons
1 month 6 persons
(There was no case of licence cancelled).

Pharmacists The total number of pharmacists' licences issued in 1937 was

1,853, showing an increase when compared with the preceding year, of 208 licences. In the following table is given the number of persons to whom licences were issued in 1937, classified and compared with the preceding year's figures:

	1937	Compared with preceding year
Graduates of universities	52	34 (incr.)
Completed course in Government or public colleges of pharmacology	*483	117 (")
Completed course in approved private school of pharmacology	1,269	78 (")
Completed course in foreign school (including examination)	3	— (—)
Passed examination	46	21 (decr.)
Total	1,853	208 (incr.)

Note:—*Including the graduates from pharmacological departments attached to government or public medical universities.

The total number of pharmacists at the end of 1937 was 28,156 (besides 1 foreigner), showing an increase, compared with the preceding year's figures, of 1,424 (the number of foreigners re-

mained stationary); and the following table gives the number classified and in percentage (the percentages for the preceding four years are also given for comparison):

	No. at the end of 1937		Percentage			
	1937	1936	1935	1934	1933	1932
Graduated from universities	363	1.29	1.26	1.22	1.23	1.32
Completed course in government, or public or private (designated) colleges of pharmacology	*17,212	61.13	58.71	56.34	53.26	50.02
Completed course in foreign school (including examinations)	33	0.12	0.13	0.13	0.14	
Passed examination (including examination under former regulations)	10,548	37.46	39.91	42.31	45.38	48.52
Total	28,156	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Note:—*Indicates graduates from pharmacological departments of the government or public medical colleges or from the pharmacological departments attached to the government or public medical universities.

Of these pharmacists, (1) the number of practising pharmacists (those who were engaged in the dispensing of medicines in the pharmacy, those who were engaged in the sale of medicines and those who were engaged in the manufacture of medicines) was 18,214 (2) the number of those who being employed by hospitals or other dispensaries, were engaged in the dispensing of medicines was 3,152 and (3) those who were exclusively engaged in the sale of patent medicines numbered 1,712. Those coming under (1) correspond to 84.49 per cent of the total number of pharmacists while (2) and (3) represented 11.19 and 6.08 per cent

respectively.

Pharmacies and Traders in Medicines Pharmacies. The number of pharmacies at the end of 1937 was 13,066, of which 12,759 were run by pharmacists and 307 by non-pharmacists, showing an increase, when compared with the preceding year, of 331 pharmacies run by the pharmacist and 90 pharmacies managed by non-pharmacists.

Traders in Medicines. The total number of persons engaged in the sale of medicines at the end of 1937 was 30,922, showing an increase of 284 persons over the preceding year; among them, the qualified pharmacists who were engaged in the sale of medicines without

opening pharmacies numbered 735 and druggists 30,187. Of these druggists those who were qualified to deal in designated medicines numbered 4,326, of which those employing pharmacists were 2,338, those coming under the provisions of Art. XXXVII, Item 4 of the "Regulations for the Trade in Medicines and the Handling Thereof" were 79 and those coming under the second clause of the supplementary provisions of the same regulations were 1,909.

Medicine-Manufacturers. The total number of medicine-manufacturers at the end of 1937 was 4,074, being a decrease of 144 over the preceding year. Of these manufactures 1,123 were pharmacists, 1,300 those who employ pharmacists, and 1,651 neither pharmacists nor those employing pharmacists.

Midwives The total number of midwives at the end of 1937 was 61,732 (besides two foreigners), showing an increase of 785 (no change in the number of foreigners) over the preceding year; they may be classified into 5,740 persons who completed the course in designated schools or training institutes, 53,091 who passed the examination, and 2,493 who have been in practice from time prior to the operation of the Midwives Regulations, and 407 who practise in limited districts.

Distribution of Midwives The total

number of midwives was at the ratio of 8.66 per 10,000 inhabitants, being a decrease of 0.02 from the preceding year; as to the distribution of midwives between urban and rural districts of the country, the ratio was 11.01 in the urban districts and 7.39 in the rural districts per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the ratio in the preceding year, a decrease of 0.37 in the urban districts and an increase of 0.08 in the rural districts.

Nurses The total number at the end of 1937 of nurses who had obtained licence from the prefectural offices was 124,402 (of which 4,553 were under-nurses) showing an increase of 10,415 over the preceding year (the number of under-nurses increased by 709). The ratio of the above total number to 10,000 of population was 17.46, showing an increase of 1.24 over the corresponding figures of the preceding year.

The number of male nurses at the end of 1937 to whom licences had been issued by the prefectural offices was 295, showing an increase of 50 over the figures of the preceding year.

Acupuncture, Moxicaution, and Shampooing The following table gives the number of persons engaged in acupuncture, moxicaution, and shampooing whose licences had been issued by the prefectural offices at the end of 1937.

	Not Blind			Blind		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Acupuncture	2,597	575	3,172	1,381	315	1,696
Moxicaution	*16,429	*3,093	*19,432	*10,213	*2,228	*12,441
Shampooing	3,179	866	4,045	675	165	840
	*16,436	*3,157	*19,593	*7,565	*1,577	*9,142
Acupuncture and Moxicaution	6,507	3,810	10,317	14,596	9,087	23,683
Acupuncture and Shampooing	*13,336	*4,979	*18,315	*22,541	*10,852	*33,393
Moxicaution and Shampooing	7,555	1,364	8,919	1,346	264	1,610
Acupuncture, Moxicaution and Shampooing	1,127	242	1,369	2,401	617	3,018
	552	105	657	459	116	575
Total	5,150	822	5,972	5,085	1,032	6,117
	26,667	7,784	34,451	25,943	11,596	37,539

Judo treatment for contusion 2,155 (for the whole country) including 6 women.

Note:—Figures marked with * includes those persons who carry out additional calling than that given in the heading.

Public Hospitals (Charity Hospitals, Tuberculosis Hospitals, Insane Asylums, Leprosaria, Infectious Diseases Hospitals, and Hospitals for Prostitutes excluded). At the end of 1937 there were 125 public hospitals, showing an increase of 10 hospitals over the preceding year.

Accommodation for patients	In cities	In towns	In villages	Total
More than 10	11	18	7	36
" 30	9	10	1	20
" 50	16	14	—	30
" 100	37	2	—	39
Total	73	44	8	125

In the following table are given the capacity for admitting patients and the number of patients admitted in 1937 to these hospitals :

Patient Admitting Capacity	11,548
Of the above Capacity:	
For infectious diseases	802
" tuberculosis	327
Number of Patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	4,937
Admitted this year	119,512
Discharged	108,771
Died in hospital	9,747
At the end of the year	5,931
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	2,832,178
Average capacity per hospital	92.38

With capacity for more than 10					
"	"	"	"	"	30
"	"	"	"	"	50
"	"	"	"	"	100
Total					

In the following table are given the number of private hospitals classified

	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
General	849	583	183	1,615
Medicine	207	63	21	291
Surgery	213	40	16	269
Paediatrics	63	4	—	67
Ophthalmology	111	43	25	179
Obstetrics and Gynaecology	206	49	15	270
Dermatology and Venereal and Genito-urinary Diseases	77	3	2	82
Otorhinolaryngology	93	12	3	108
Dental surgery	1	—	—	1
Others	5	—	—	5
Total	1,825	797	265	2,887

In the following table are given the figures in connection with capacity of admitting patients and the number of patients etc. in the private hospitals :

Capacity	85,501
Of the above:	
For Infectious Diseases	4,550
" Tuberculosis	3,040
Number of In-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	32,594
Admitted in 1936	672,742
Left the Hospital	634,535
Died in Hospital	38,828
At the end of 1936	31,973
Aggregate number of In-patients	

Average number of in-patients per hospital	995.59
Average number of days a patient stayed in hospital	22.76

Private Hospitals (Charity Hospitals, Tuberculosis Hospitals, Insane Asylums and Leprosaria excluded). The total number of private hospitals at the end of 1937 was 2,907 (of which 95 had been established by the public juridical persons and 8 by foreigners), which when compared with the figures for the preceding year, shows an increase of 20 hospitals.

The following table gives the number of these hospitals in urban and rural districts according to their capacity of admitting patients :

Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
1,387	593	187	2,167
263	117	37	417
135	47	26	208
95	15	5	115
1,880	772	255	2,907

according to the diseases they treat :

	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
General	849	583	183	1,615
Medicine	207	63	21	291
Surgery	213	40	16	269
Paediatrics	63	4	—	67
Ophthalmology	111	43	25	179
Obstetrics and Gynaecology	206	49	15	270
Dermatology and Venereal and Genito-urinary Diseases	77	3	2	82
Otorhinolaryngology	93	12	3	108
Dental surgery	1	—	—	1
Others	5	—	—	5
Total	1,825	797	265	2,887

treated each day	12,532,114
Average capacity per hospital	29.41
Average number of in-patients per hospital	242.63
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	17.77

Charity Hospitals (Tuberculosis Hospitals, Leprosaria and Insane Asylums excluded). The total number of public and private charity hospitals at the end of 1937 was 46, of which 11 were public and 35 private hospitals, showing, compared with the preceding year, an increase of 1 public hospital and 8 private hospitals.

The following table gives the capa-

city and the number of patients who entered them in 1937.

Admitting Capacity	7,314
Number of In-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	2,787
Admitted in 1937	*133
Left the Hospital	25,708
Died in Hospital	*5,059
At the end of 1937	*266
Aggregate number of In-patients treated each day	1,124,787
Percentage of paying patients	14.56%
Note:—*indicates the number of paying patients.	

Insane Asylums The total number of public and private insane asylums at the end of 1937 was 151, consisting of 12 public and 139 private asylums, showing an increase over the preceding year of one public and four private asylums.

The following table gives their admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1937.

Admitting capacity	21,325
Number of In-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	2,307
Admitted in 1937	*13,752
Left the Asylum	9,927
Died in Asylum	*7,617
At the end of 1937	*1,588
Aggregate number of In-patients treated each day	3,237,544
Average capacity per Asylum	141.23
Average number of in-patients per Asylum	244.44
Average number of days in Asylum of a patient	172.71
Percentage of paying patients	62.20%
*indicates the number of paying patients.	

Tuberculosis Hospitals The number of government, public and private tuberculosis hospitals at the end of 1937 were one Governmental, 30 public and 85 private hospitals, (four of which had been established by foreigners), showing an increase of one government, three public and two private hospitals compared with preceding year.

The following table gives the admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1937.

Admitting Capacity	5,887
Number of In-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	6,104
Admitted in 1937	*11
Left the Hospital	1,536
Died in Hospital	*5
At the end of 1937	*2
Aggregate number of In-patients treated each day	2,345,683
Average capacity per hospital	*4,103
Average number of in-patients per hospital	392.47
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	510.40
Percentage of paying patients	306.92
*indicates the number of paying patients.	

Leprosaria The total number of the Government, public and private leprosarria at the end of 1937 was 15 (one of which had been established by foreigners), consisting of four Government, four public and seven private leprosarria. If we examine those leprosarria according to locality, we find that three were in Kumamoto, two each in Gumma and Tokyo prefectures and one each in Aomori, Yamanashi, Shizuoka, Okayama, Kagawa, Fukuoka, Kagoshima and Okinawa prefectures. The following table gives the admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1937.

Admitting Capacity	5,887
Number of In-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	6,104
Admitted in 1937	*11
Left the Leprosarium	1,536
	*5
	679
	*2

Died in Leprosarium	412	Average number of days in leprosarium of a patient	306.92
At the end of 1937	6,549	Percentage of paying patients	0.21%
	*13	*indicates the number of patients who bear the whole or a part of their expenses.	
Aggregate number of In-patients treated each day	2,345,633	The following are the figures concerning the national leprosaria of "Nagashima Aiseien," "Kuryu Rakusenon," "Hoshizuka Kelaien" and "Miyako-Ryoyojo":	
Average capacity per leprosarium	*4,103		
Average number of in-patients per leprosarium	392.47		
	510.40		

	Nagashima Aiseien	Kuryu Rakusenon	Hoshizuka Kelaien	Miyako Ryoyojo
Capacity of admitting patients	1,200	300	300	100
Number of In-patients:				
Remaining from the preceding year	1,212	351	413	161
Admitted in 1937	353	144	150	81
Discharged	147	41	86	14
Died	80	21	33	11
At the end of 1937	1,338	433	444	217
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	464,330	150,682	153,121	68,912
Average number of days a patient stayed in leprosarium	296.70	304.41	271.97	284.76

Hospitals for Prostitutes At the end of 1937 there were 117 hospitals for prostitutes and the total capacity for them was 4,933 (of which 14 were the infectious diseases rooms). Compared with the preceding year, there was a decrease of 3 in the number of hospitals and of 133 in admitting capacity. The number of patients who had remained over from the preceding year

in the hospitals was 1,362 and those who entered them in 1937, 53,622 making a total of 54,984 (of which 378 were clandestine prostitutes admitted under the provisions of Art. III of the Administrative Execution Law).

The following table gives important ratios respecting facts connected with the above-mentioned hospitals for prostitutes:

Average capacity per hospital	42.16 patients
Average number of patients admitted per hospital	469.95 ..
Average number of days a patient remained in hospital	17.51 days
Average number of days a clandestine prostitute remained in hospital	26.74 ..

Infectious Diseases Hospitals, Isolation Wards, and Isolation Houses (Established under the provision of the Law for the Prevention of Infectious Diseases). The total number of infectious diseases hospitals at the end of 1937 was 1,010, (a decrease of 30 hospitals from the preceding year), consisting of 119 established by cities, 726 by towns, villages and other similar public corporations, and 165 established by town or village associations or other similar associations. The admitting capacity of these hospitals was 23,255 in total (a decrease of 128 from the preceding year), making an average of 23.02 per hospital (an increase of 0.54).

The isolation wards at the end of the same year numbered 7,044, (a decrease of 203 from the preceding year) consist-

ing of 63 established by cities, 6,560 by towns, villages or similar public corporations, and 421 by the town or village associations or similar associations; and the admitting capacity in these isolation wards was 69,246 in total, (a decrease of 1,125 on the preceding year, the average per ward coming to 9.83 (an increase of 0.12).

The total number of isolation houses at the end of 1937 was 66, (a decrease of 3 from the preceding year) of which 8 were those established by cities, 56 by towns, villages or similar public corporations, 2 by the town or village associations or similar associations. The estimated total capacity of these isolation houses was 1,699 (a decrease of 59 from the preceding year) the average capacity per house coming to 25.74 per-

sons (an increase of 0.26).

At the end of 1937, there were 47 disinfecting stations (established under the provision of the Law for the Prevention of Infectious Diseases), showing no change in their number with that of the preceding year.

Medicines The total number of persons who have reported in 1937 to the respective prefectural offices of the manufacture, importation and sale of medicines and preparations not to be

found in any pharmacopoeia was 687 and the number of medicines reported 2,630, showing, compared with the preceding year, an increase of 15 persons and a decrease of 340 medicines.

In the tours of inspection made during 1937, 19,954 places (a decrease of 2,208 when compared with the preceding year) were visited; and the following table gives the places visited and the results of the inspection:

	No. of places visited	No. of places visited per 100 places to be visited	No. of deleterious medicines discovered per 100 places visited		No. of violators of the regulations punished per 100 places visited
			No. of places	No. of medicines	
Pharmacists { with pharmacy	3,821	29.95	25.75	49.46	1.15
{ others	72	4.31	20.83	37.50	—
Non-pharmacists	47	15.31	19.15	36.17	2.13
Druggists	4,847	16.50	6.18	21.46	0.95
Medicine-manufacturers	505	13.48	9.70	13.27	0.40
Hospitals	734	20.15	32.70	68.26	0.54
Medical practitioners	6,958	18.90	36.98	73.64	0.45
Dental surgeons	2,608	13.31	18.71	26.88	0.50
Veterinary surgeons	362	7.72	18.78	35.91	1.55
Total	19,954	17.72	24.41	47.59	0.72

Patent Medicines The total number of patent medicine traders at the end of 1937 was 43,427, showing an increase of 684 compared with the figures of the preceding year. Of this total number, 12,617 were pharmacists, 3,370 medical practitioners and veterinary surgeons, 3,010 those persons who employ pharmacists, 16,784 those persons who come under Art. XXIV of the Patent Medicine Regulations and 7,570 those who come under Art. XXV of the same law, while there were 73 who were engaged exclusively in the importation and sale of patent medicines.

At the end of 1937 the total number of patent medicines for which permission for manufacture or importation was

given was 387,510 (of which 171 were imported), showing an increase of 10,507 when compared with the figures of the preceding year, (permissions for importation decreased by 22).

Patent medicines manufactured or imported in 1937 amounted to ¥108,150,609 (of which ¥670,002 represents foreign imports and the territories), showing an increase of ¥13,613,817 which compared with the preceding year (the amount of importation increased by ¥102,426), and if we compare the amount of the manufacture and importation combined to the population in that year the ratio is ¥1.52 per capita, being an increase of 17 sen compared with the preceding year.

DEATHS BY CAUSES, 1937

Causes of Deaths	Japan Proper			
	Number		Proportion per 1,000 Deaths	
	1936	1937	1936	1937
1. Typhoid fever and Paratyphoid (Typhoid fever)	7,148	7,388	5.8	6.1
2. Eruptive typhus	8,871	7,124	5.6	5.9
	3	1	0.0	0.0

Causes of Deaths	Number		Proportion per 1,000 Deaths	
	1936	1937	1936	1937
3. Smallpox	20	8	0.0	0.0
4. Measles	5,264	10,889	4.3	9.0
5. Scarlet fever	467	454	0.4	0.4
6. Whooping cough	9,751	10,985	7.9	9.1
7. Diphtheria	4,332	4,253	3.5	3.5
8. Influenza	8,670	2,991	7.0	2.5
9. Dysentery and ekiri (Dysentery)	16,721	19,726	13.6	16.3
	3,594	4,694	2.9	3.9
10. Bubonic Plague	—	—	—	—
11. Tuberculosis, lungs and respiratory organs	107,157	104,982	87.1	86.9
12. Tuberculosis, other organs	38,003	39,638	30.9	32.8
13. Syphilis	5,536	5,241	4.5	4.3
14. Purulent infectious septicemia	9,433	9,500	7.7	7.9
15. Malaria	76	65	0.1	0.1
16. Intestinal Worms	2,047	2,255	1.7	1.9
17. Other epidemics and entozoic worms	9,909	10,110	8.0	8.4
18. Cancer and other malignant tumours	49,212	50,648	40.0	41.9
19. Other tumours	2,878	2,932	2.3	2.4
20. Acute articular rheumatism	616	655	0.5	0.5
21. Chronic rheumatism and gout	1,195	1,093	1.0	0.9
22. Diabetes mellitus	2,629	2,812	2.1	2.3
23. Vitamin deficiency (Beriberi)	11,513	11,041	9.4	9.1
	11,097	10,627	9.0	8.8
24. Disease of thyroid gland	433	414	0.3	0.3
25. Other whole body diseases	2,072	2,534	1.7	2.1
26. Anæmia	787	801	0.6	0.7
27. Blood diseases	2,150	2,103	1.8	1.7
28. Alcoholism	286	271	0.2	0.2
29. Other chronic poisoning	113	110	0.1	0.1
30. Meningitis	36,905	36,188	30.0	30.0
31. Myelitis	1,024	1,016	0.8	0.8
32. Cerebral Hæmorrhage, embolism and thrombosis	118,152	118,761	96.0	98.3
33. Paralytic dementia	2,420	2,716	2.0	2.2
34. Dementia præcox and other mental diseases	3,413	3,447	2.8	2.8
35. Epilepsy	1,103	1,076	0.9	0.9
36. Other diseases of the nervous system	13,263	13,167	10.8	10.9
37. Diseases of eyes, ears, etc.	572	568	0.4	0.5
38. Pericarditis	761	710	0.6	0.7
39. Acute endocarditis	725	648	0.6	0.5
40. Chronic endocarditis, valvular disease	22,949	22,897	18.7	19.0
41. Diseases of heart sinews	2,879	2,872	2.3	2.4
42. Diseases of the coronary arteries and stricture of the heart	5,251	5,425	4.3	4.5
43. Other heart diseases	10,345	10,270	8.4	8.5
44. Aneurism	422	467	0.3	0.4
45. Arterio-sclerosis and gangrene	5,174	4,966	4.2	4.1
46. Other diseases of circulation organs	1,173	1,086	1.0	0.9
47. Bronchitis (Acute bronchitis)	26,120	24,030	21.2	19.9
	5,302	5,198	4.3	4.3
48. Pneumonia	112,204	108,256	91.2	89.6
49. Pleurisy	18,036	18,842	14.7	15.6
50. Other diseases of the respiratory organs	15,830	14,226	12.9	11.8
51. Ulcer of the stomach or duodenum	11,977	12,322	9.7	10.2
52. Diarrhœa and enteritis (under 2 years)	70,539	66,698	57.3	55.2
53. Diarrhœa, enteritis and ulcer of the entrails (above 2 years)	50,594	53,293	41.1	44.1
54. Appendicitis	2,553	2,695	2.1	2.2
55. Hernia and intestinal obstruction	5,618	5,417	4.6	4.5

Causes of Deaths	Number		Proportion per 1,000 Deaths	
	1936	1937	1936	1937
56. Cirrhosis of the liver	4,887	4,912	4.0	4.1
57. Other diseases of the liver and gall-duct	8,134	8,445	6.6	7.0
58. Other diseases of the digestive organs	39,175	39,607	31.9	32.8
59. Nephritis	57,771	56,285	47.0	46.6
60. Other diseases of the kidney, and the ureter	3,258	3,339	2.7	2.8
61. Urinary calculus	173	182	0.1	0.1
62. Diseases of the bladder	1,187	1,121	1.0	0.9
63. Diseases of the urethra	163	146	0.1	0.1
64. Diseases of the prostate	87	95	0.1	0.1
65. Diseases of the genitals	673	692	0.5	0.6
66. Accidents of pregnant women	569	507	0.5	0.4
67. Hæmorrhage at childbirth	1,241	1,268	1.0	1.0
68. Puerperal fever	1,314	1,307	1.1	1.1
69. Puerperal sepsis and toxemias of pregnancy	1,633	1,654	1.3	1.4
70. Other puerperal diseases	627	708	0.5	0.6
71. Diseases of the skin and connective tissue	3,350	3,358	2.7	2.8
72. Diseases of bones and motor organs	2,260	2,136	1.8	1.8
73. Congenital malformation	4,308	4,295	3.5	3.6
74. Congenital debility (under 1 year)	67,986	63,387	55.3	52.5
75. Premature parturition	6,328	5,929	5.1	4.9
76. Accidents of childbirth	407	441	0.3	0.4
77. Diseases peculiar to early infancy	10,526	9,645	8.6	8.0
78. Senility	91,936	84,766	74.7	70.2
79. Suicide	15,423	14,295	12.5	11.8
80. Killed	468	450	0.4	0.4
81. Accidental death	*29,974	30,011	24.4	24.8
82. Other violent death	106	84	0.1	0.1
83. Death in battle	—	—	—	—
84. Capital punishment	26	26	0.0	0.0
85. Doubtful diseases and causes	*37,865	32,849	30.8	27.2
Total	*1,230,278	1,207,899	1,000.0	1,000.0

Note: The figures marked with asterisk include both sexes which are indistinctive.

DEATHS CLASSIFIED BY AGE AND CAUSES, 1937

The cause of death	Japan Proper						
	Total	Total	0	1	2	3	4
Total	1,207,899	386,506	230,701	72,991	38,995	26,005	17,854
Infectious and parasitic diseases	228,486	56,109	20,725	12,440	9,422	7,676	5,846
Cancer and other malignant tumours	53,580	381	145	70	71	57	38
Rheumatic diseases, diseases due to deficiency of vitamin, Diseases of thyroid and parathyroid glands, and other constitutional diseases	18,549	8,404	6,244	751	580	475	354
Diseases of the blood and blood forming organs	2,904	648	299	146	64	70	69
Alcoholism and other chronic poisoning	381	14	5	4	2	2	1
Diseases of the nervous system and sense organs	176,939	27,770	12,299	5,634	4,209	3,242	2,386
Diseases of the circulatory system	49,341	1,630	727	355	194	172	182
Diseases of the respiratory system	165,354	85,250	51,133	20,884	7,349	3,615	2,269
Diseases of the digestive system	193,389	96,664	43,074	27,828	13,189	7,902	4,671
Diseases of urinary and genital organs	61,860	5,847	1,796	953	1,180	1,111	807
Diseases of pregnancy and childbirth	5,444	—	—	—	—	—	—

The cause of death	Total	Total	0	1	2	3	4
Diseases of the skin and cellular tissue	3,358	1,517	1,210	209	59	31	8
Diseases of the bones and organs of locomotion	2,136	406	252	63	31	23	37
Congenital Malformations	4,295	4,000	3,487	293	111	66	43
Diseases peculiar to early infancy	79,402	79,402	79,402	—	—	—	—
Senility	84,766	—	—	—	—	—	—
Suicide, violence, accidents and others	44,866	7,356	1,327	2,153	1,869	1,149	858
Cause of death not specified or ill defined	32,849	11,108	8,576	1,208	625	414	285

The cause of death	Total	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	15-29
Total	35,367	25,280	56,686	59,173	46,939	
Infectious and parasitic diseases	11,377	10,741	32,251	32,556	23,215	
Cancer and other malignant tumours	152	152	192	313	603	
Rheumatic diseases, diseases due to deficiency of vitamin, diseases of thyroid and parathyroid glands, and other constitutional diseases	474	419	1,098	989	724	
Diseases of the blood and blood forming organs	208	175	168	166	175	
Alcoholism and other chronic poisoning	3	1	4	17	29	
Diseases of the nervous system and sense organs	5,093	2,687	3,031	2,720	2,646	
Diseases of the circulatory system	813	1,078	1,423	1,426	1,539	
Diseases of the respiratory system	4,408	2,923	6,341	6,507	5,142	
Diseases of the digestive system	6,730	3,731	5,807	5,322	4,507	
Diseases of urinary and genital organs	2,163	1,230	1,503	1,910	1,861	
Diseases of pregnancy and childbirth	—	—	182	945	1,208	
Diseases of the skin and cellular tissue	74	36	87	107	94	
Diseases of the bones and organs of locomotion	181	202	124	144	116	
Congenital Malformations	102	69	53	24	12	
Diseases peculiar to early infancy	—	—	—	—	—	
Senility	—	—	—	—	—	
Suicide, violence, accidents and others	2,865	1,290	3,645	4,860	3,794	
Cause of death not specified or ill defined	724	546	779	1,167	1,274	

The cause of death	Total	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59
Total	35,441	34,693	33,155	37,006	46,081	59,764	
Infectious and parasitic diseases	14,417	10,683	7,775	6,648	5,926	5,598	
Cancer and other malignant tumours	1,149	2,091	2,998	4,598	6,317	8,537	
Rheumatic diseases, diseases due to deficiency of vitamin, diseases of thyroid and parathyroid glands, and other constitutional diseases	565	579	531	564	706	845	
Diseases of the blood and blood forming organs	168	192	168	156	173	152	
Alcoholism and other chronic poisoning	22	34	48	35	45	49	
Diseases of the nervous system and sense organs	2,803	3,860	5,107	7,297	11,012	15,796	
Diseases of the circulatory system	1,459	1,946	2,125	2,711	3,739	4,982	
Diseases of the respiratory system	3,750	3,494	3,250	3,632	4,467	6,179	
Diseases of the digestive system	3,764	3,970	4,228	4,839	6,286	8,535	
Diseases of urinary and genital organs	1,925	2,304	2,343	2,659	3,415	4,676	
Diseases of pregnancy and childbirth	1,143	1,250	640	75	1		
Diseases of the skin and cellular tissue	100	121	130	148	153	175	
Diseases of the bones and organs of locomotion	87	106	81	100	96	103	
Congenital Malformations	6	3	4	6	2	4	
Senility	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Suicide, violence, accidents and others	2,856	2,572	2,231	2,102	2,028	2,052	
Cause of death not specified or ill defined	1,227	1,488	1,496	1,436	1,715	2,084	

The cause of death	60-64	65-69	70-79	80-89	90 and above	Doubtful
Total	70,403	70,046	138,048	67,399	5,838	74
Infectious and parasitic diseases	4,415	2,950	3,082	704	39	5
Cancer and other malignant tumours	9,228	7,397	8,137	1,308	27	—
Rheumatic diseases, diseases due to deficiency of vitamin, diseases of thyroid and parathyroid glands, and other constitutional diseases	925	721	859	141	5	2
Diseases of the blood and blood forming organs	153	99	84	17	2	—
Alcoholism and other chronic poisoning	38	19	22	1	—	—
Diseases of the nervous system and sense organs	20,328	20,901	35,041	10,385	452	8
Diseases of the circulatory system	6,184	5,911	9,388	2,827	160	—
Diseases of the respiratory system	7,276	7,060	11,751	3,715	205	4
Diseases of the digestive system	9,290	8,548	14,898	5,873	396	1
Diseases of urinary and genital organs	5,984	6,437	12,497	4,794	309	3
Diseases of pregnancy and childbirth	—	—	—	—	—	—
Diseases of the skin and cellular tissue	179	141	227	68	1	—
Diseases of the bones and organs of locomotion	134	91	126	38	1	—
Congenital Malformations	6	—	4	—	—	—
Senility	2,471	6,476	39,378	35,347	4,092	2
Suicide, violence, accidents and others	1,899	1,608	2,689	930	49	40
Cause of death not specified or ill defined	1,893	1,687	2,865	1,251	100	9