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THE JAPAN
YEAR BOOK

1942-43

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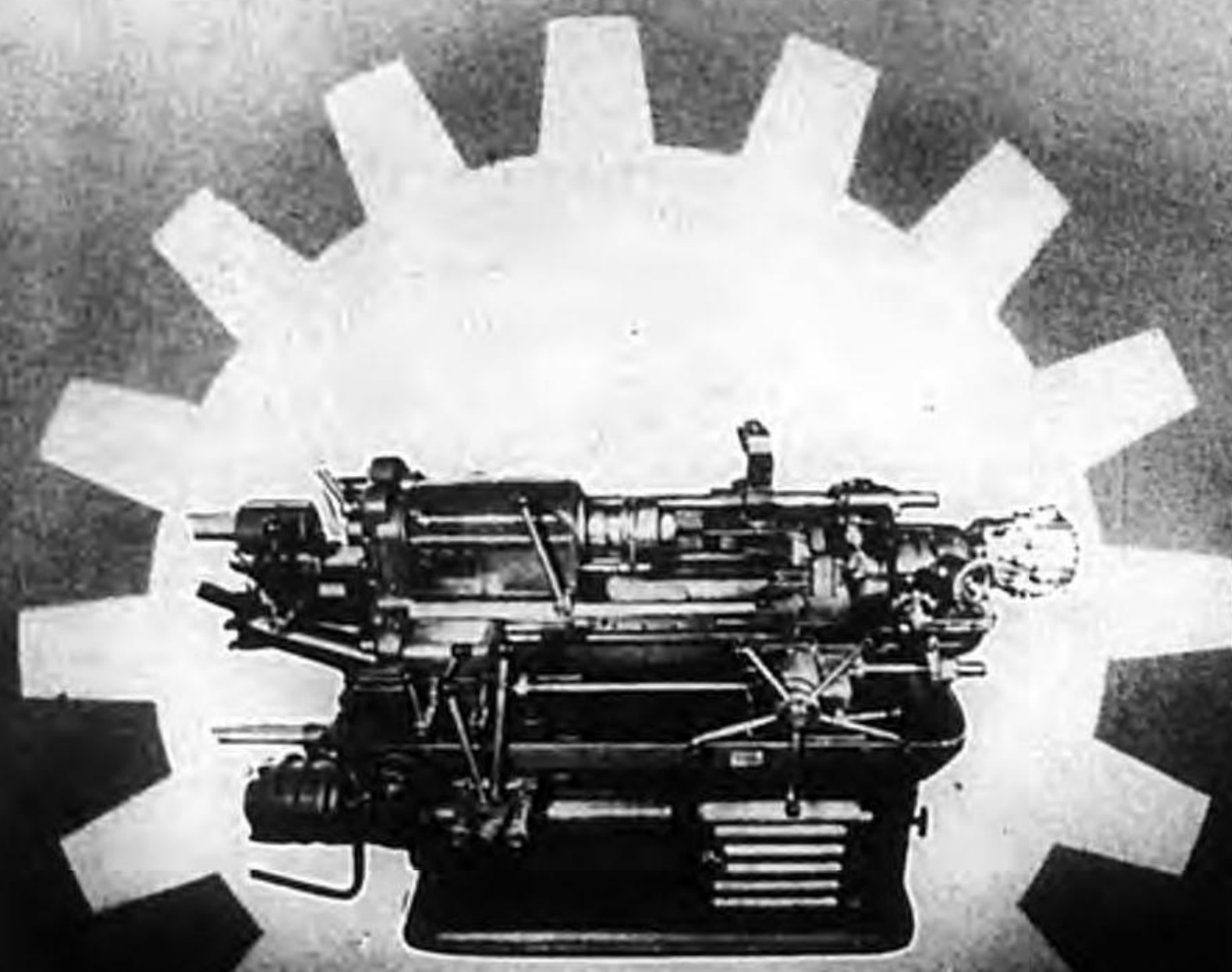
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THE JAPAN YEAR BOOK

1942-43

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THE JAPAN YEAR BOOK

1942-43

THE JAPAN TIMES PRESS

THE JAPAN YEAR BOOK

1942-43



In the country of Japan, the year 1942-43 was a year of great activity and progress. The Japanese people have achieved many remarkable feats in the fields of industry, science, and culture. This book provides a comprehensive and detailed account of the events and developments of this important year.

The book is written in a clear and concise style, and is suitable for reading by all who are interested in the progress of Japan. It is a valuable reference work for students, scholars, and anyone who wishes to know more about the country of the rising sun.

The book is published by The Foreign Affairs Association of Japan, and is available in both Japanese and English editions. It is a must-read for anyone who wishes to understand the current situation in Japan and the Far East.

We are very grateful to the many individuals and organizations who have assisted us in the preparation of this book. We hope that it will be of great value to all who read it.

Tokyo, October 1942

The Editor

THE FOREIGN AFFAIRS ASSOCIATION



JAPANESE WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

Weights

Kan (Kwan)=1,000 mommé=	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 8.26733 \text{ lb. (Avoir.)} \\ 10.04711 \text{ lb. (Troy)} \end{array} \right\}$	=3.75000 kilograms
Mommé =	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0.13228 \text{ oz. (Avoir.)} \\ 0.12057 \text{ oz. (Troy)} \end{array} \right\}$	=3.75000 grams
Kin=160 mommé =	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1.32277 \text{ lb. (Avoir.)} \\ 1.60754 \text{ lb. (Troy)} \end{array} \right\}$	=0.60000 kilogram
Koku (fish)=40 kan		
Metric system,		
Kilogram=	2.20459 pounds (Avoir.)=0.26667 kan	
Gram =	15.43210 grains (Avoir.)=0.26667 mommé	
Ton =	1,000 kilograms=2,204.6 pounds	
Gross ton=	1,016.064 kilograms=2,240 pounds	

Measures of Length

Ri=36 cho=2,160 ken	=2.44030 miles	=3.92727 kilometers
Ken=6 shaku	=5.96516 feet	=1.81818 meters
Shaku=10 sun	=0.99419 foot	=0.30303 meter
Shaku (cloth measure)	=1.25 shaku	
Tan (a roll of cloth)	=about 35 shaku	
Metric system,		
Kilometer=	0.62137 mile=3,280 feet 10 inches=9.16667 cho	

Measures of Surface

Square ri=1,296 cho	=5.95505 sq. miles	=15.42347 sq. kilometers
Cho (chobu)=10 tan=3,000 tsubo	=2.45084 acres	=99.17355 ares
Tsubo (bu)=3.95369 sq. yards	=3.30579 centiares	
Ko (Formosa)=2,934 tsubo		
Metric system,		
Hectare=10,000 m ²	=2.471 acres	=1.00833 cho
Are=100 m ²	=119.6 sq. yards	=30.25000 bu
Sq. kilometer=0.386 sq. mile	=247.10 acres	=0.06484 sq. ri

Measures of Capacity

Koku=10 to=100 sho=1,000 go=	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 4.96005 \text{ bushels} \\ 5.11902 \text{ " (U.S.A.)} \\ 47.95389 \text{ gallons (U.S.A.)} \\ 39.6804 \text{ " (British)} \end{array} \right\}$	=1.80391 hl.	
Koku (capacity of vessels)=10th of a ton			
Koku (timber)	=about 1 cubic foot×10		
Shakujimé (timber)	=about 1 cubic foot×12		
Taba (fagot, etc.)	=about 3×6×6 feet		
Metric system,			
Hectoliter	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 2 \text{ bush., 3.35 pecks (Dry)} \\ 26.42 \text{ gal. (Liquid)} \end{array} \right\}$		=5.54352 sho

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MAPS OF JAPAN AND MANCHOUKUO, AND CHINA

IMPERIAL COURT

IMPERIAL COURT



IMPERIAL COURT

At the heart of the Japanese nation and at the head of the Japanese State is the Emperor,¹ known to the people as the Tenshi, the Son of Heaven, or Tenno, Heavenly King. Though the ancient title Mikado persists in foreign countries, it has lost currency in Japan itself except in poetry or on very formal occasions.

The Imperial Dynasty of Japan is the oldest reigning family in the world, Japanese history dating its earthly origin from 660 B. C. The present Emperor is the 124th of the line.

H.I.M. THE EMPEROR

His Imperial Majesty HIROHITO, Emperor of Japan, 1st son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born in the Aoyama Palace, Tokyo, on April 29, 1901, and shortly afterwards was entrusted for bringing up to the family of Count Kawamura (Sumiyoshi),² a retired Admiral. Upon the Count's death in 1903, the Imperial Prince entered the Imperial Palace, with Marquis Kido (Takamasa) and later Kinsaku Maruo, chamberlain at the Aoyama Palace, in charge of his affairs.

On completion of the elementary course in the Peers' School in 1914, he continued the study of various subjects in a special school instituted for the purpose under Admiral Togo. Ending his special studies in 1921, His Majesty toured Europe, the first Crown Prince to do so.

Because of the Emperor Taisho's illness, he was appointed Regent on November 25, 1921. Marriage to

Princess Nagako took place on January 26, 1924. On the demise of the Emperor Taisho, December 25, 1926, he succeeded to the Throne, and the new era was named Showa, meaning Light and Peace. Formal enthronement took place in Kyōto on November 10, 1928, and the grand ceremony of making offerings to the Imperial Ancestors was held on November 14 and 15.

H.I.M. THE EMPRESS

Her Imperial Majesty NAGAKO, Empress of Japan, was born on March 6, 1903, 3rd child and 1st daughter of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyoshi), in his residence at 1, Roppongi-machi, Azabu-ku, Tokyo. She entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in April 1909, and advanced to the higher course in March 1915. Shortly after becoming Crown Princess-elect on January 17, 1918, she left the Peers' School for Girls and engaged in special study at home. Imperial sanction was given for marriage to the Crown Prince in June of the same year, and their betrothal took place on September 28, 1922. She was proclaimed Crown Princess on the day of the marriage, January 26, 1924, and Empress on December 25, 1926.

H.I.M. THE EMPRESS DOWAGER

Her Imperial Majesty SADAHO, the Empress Dowager, was born on June 25, 1884, 4th daughter of the late Prince Kujo (Michitaka) [Peer]. Her marriage to Crown Prince Yoshihito, later the Emperor Taisho, took place on May 10,

1 For the powers of the Emperor, see Chapter IV, and Articles I—XVII of the Constitution (Appendix).

2. The personal names of members of the Imperial Family and Peers are parenthesized.

1 Prince (Shinno or O) means Prince of the Blood except when the name is followed by the word Peer in brackets, thus [Peer]. For the difference between Shinno and O see the Imperial House Law, Chapter VII, Art. XXXI (Appendix).

1900. She was proclaimed Crown Princess on that day; Empress on July 30, 1912, and Empress Dowager on December 25, 1926.

H.I.H. THE CROWN PRINCE

H.I.H. Prince TSUGU (Akihito) was born on December 23, 1933, and is Heir-Apparent. He entered the elementary department of the Peers' School in April 1940.

OTHER CHILDREN OF THE EMPEROR

H.I.H. Princess TERU (Shigeko) was born on December 6, 1925, and entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in 1932, and advanced to the middle school course in 1936.

H.I.H. Princess TAKA (Kazuko) was born on September 30, 1929, and entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in 1936.

H.I.H. Princess YORI (Atsuko) was born on March 7, 1931, and entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in 1937.

H.I.H. Prince YOSHI (Masahito) was born on November 28, 1935.

H.I.H. Princess SUGA (Takako) was born on March 2, 1939.

BROTHERS OF THE EMPEROR

H.I.H. Prince CHICHIBU (Yasuhito), Colonel in the Army, was born on June 25, 1902, 2nd son of the late Emperor Taisho. The name Atsu was given to him at first. In 1909, he entered the Peers' School and on completion of the second year of the middle course in 1917 was enrolled in the Central Military Preparatory School. This course he finished in 1920, when he joined the 3rd Infantry Regiment, Azabu-ku, Tokyo, as a first private. Later in the same year, he entered the Military Academy, completing the regular course in 1922.

On attaining his majority in 1922, he took the name Chichibu and by Imperial order founded a new house. He was promoted to the rank of Second Lieutenant, attached to the 3rd Infantry Regiment. After becoming Lieutenant in May 1925, he went abroad, studying at Oxford University until the illness of the Emperor Taisho compelled his return to Japan in January 1927. While in England, he was decorated by the late King George V with the Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order.

Marriage to Miss Setsuko Matsudaira,

born on September 9, 1909, niece of Viscount Morio Matsudaira and 1st daughter of Tsunéo Matsudaira (at present Minister of the Imperial Household), took place on September 28, 1928. The Imperial Prince was promoted to the rank of Captain in 1930 and to that of Major in 1935. After a course in the Military Staff College and a term as Company Commander in the 3rd Infantry Regiment, he was attached to the General Staff, then removed to Hiroaki as Battalion Commander in the 31st Infantry Regiment on August 1, 1935. The Prince and Princess left Yokohama on March 18, for London where they represented the Throne at the Coronation of King George VI of Great Britain, which was held on May 12, 1937, and returned to Tokyo on October 15 by way of Canada. He was promoted to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel in 1939 and Colonel in 1940. His residence is at Omotécho, Akasaka-ku, Tokyo.

H.I.H. Prince TAKAMATSU (Nobuhito), Commander in the Navy, 3rd son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born on January 3, 1905. At first he was named Teru. He entered the Peers' School in 1911 and left in 1920 to enroll in the Naval College. On graduation four years later, he was granted the name of Takamatsu and founded a new house to revive that of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, which had become extinct.

In 1925, on appointment as Sub-Lieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy, he was ordered to take up duties aboard the battleship Fuso. Promotion to the rank of Sublieutenant, 1st Class, came in 1927, Lieutenant-Commander in 1935 and Commander in November 1940.

On February 4, 1930, he married Miss Kikuko Tokugawa, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Tokugawa (Yoshihisa) [Peer], who was born on December 26, 1911. The mother of the Princess was the 1st daughter of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, whose house Imperial Prince Takamatsu revived. In April of the same year, the Imperial Prince and his consort started on a tour of the world. They returned the courtesies shown by the late King George V of England in sending a mission to Japan to present the Order of the Garter to the Emperor. They returned to Japan in June 1931, and took up residence in a new house at Takanawa, Shiba-ku, Tokyo. He became Honorably President

of the Italo-Japanese Society in October 1941. In order to express felicitations to the Emperor of Manchoukuo on the occasion of the 10th Anniversary of the founding of Manchoukuo, he was dispatched to that country by Imperial Order in May 1942.

H.I.H. Prince MIKASA (Takahito), Captain in the Army, 4th son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born on December 2, 1915, and was named Sumi. He entered the Peers' School in 1922 and left it in 1932 to enter the Military Academy. On graduation from the Academy in June 1936, he was attached to the 15th Cavalry Regiment, then entered the Military Staff College in December 1940. He was united in marriage with Miss Yuriko Takagi, 2nd daughter of Viscount Masanari Takagi in October 1941, and in December the same year, graduated from the Military Staff College. On attaining his majority in 1935, he was granted the name of Mikasa and founded a new house. The residence is the Aoyama Higashi Palace located in the grounds of the Aoyama Palace.

OTHER PRINCES

KAN-IN. The present and 6th head of the House is H.I.H. Prince Kan-in (Kotohito), Field Marshal, who was born on November 10, 1865, the 16th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kunihé), and adopted in 1867 by the Emperor Komei, the immediate predecessor of the Emperor Meiji. Ordered to France in 1882 for military studies, he remained there until 1891. After participation in the wars with China and Russia, his rise in the Army was rapid, and in 1912 he was appointed General and member of the High Military Council. In 1916, he was ordered to Russia for returning courtesies to the Russian Grand Duke's visit. The Imperial Prince became a Field Marshal in 1919, accompanied the Crown Prince to Europe in 1921 and headed the commission in charge of the Enthronement in 1928. In December 1931, he was appointed Chief of the General Staff and remained in the office until October 1940.

His consort, H.I.H. Princess Kan-in (Chieko), whom he married in 1891, was born on June 30, 1872, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Sanjo (Sanetomi) [Peer].

The heir is H.I.H. Prince Kan-in (Haruhito), Colonel in the Army, the 2nd son, who was born on August 3,

1902. He was graduated from the Odawara Middle School in 1921, appointed Lieutenant in 1927, promoted to the rank of Captain in 1932 and in the same year, following a course in the Military Staff College, appointed a member of the Faculty of the Cavalry School. On July 14, 1926, he married Princess Ichijo (Naoko), 4th daughter of the late Prince Ichijo (Sanetaru) [Peer], who was born on November 7, 1908.

The House of Kan-in was founded in 1718 by Prince Naohito, a son of the Emperor Higashiyama. The residence is at Nagata-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

HIGASHI-FUSHIMI. H.I.H. Princess Higashi-Fushimi (Kaneko), consort of the late Imperial Prince Higashi-Fushimi (Yorihito), was born on August 21, 1876, 1st daughter of the late Prince Iwakura (Tomosada) [Peer]. The residence is at Tokiwainatsu-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

FUSHIMI. The 23rd head of the House is H.I.H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyasu), Admiral of the Fleet, who was born on October 16, 1875, 1st son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Sadamaru). Ordered to Germany in 1889, he studied there for five years. He was appointed Admiral in 1922, a member of the High Military Council in 1925, Chief of the Naval General Staff in February 1932, Admiral of the Fleet in April of the same year, and left the Naval General Staff office in April 1941.

The consort of the late first son, Tokiko, 3rd daughter of the late Prince Ichijo (Sanetaru) [Peer], was born on June 20, 1902. Their 1st son H.I.H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroaki), was born on January 26, 1932. Their first daughter, H.I.H. Princess Fushimi (Mitsuko), was born on July 28, 1929. The third daughter, H.I.H. Princess Fushimi (Ayako) was born on February 11, 1934.

The House of Fushimi was founded by a great-grandchild of the Emperor Gofushimi. The residence is at Kioi-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

YAMASHINA. The 3rd head of the House, H.I.H. Prince Yamashina (Takéhiko), Lieutenant-Commander in the Navy (1st reserve service), was born on February 13, 1898, 1st son of the late Prince Yamashina (Kikumaro). His residence is at Fujimi-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

The House of Yamashina was founded in 1864 by the late Prince Yamashina

(Akira), 1st son of H.I.H. Prince Fushimi (Kunilé), who had earlier entered the priesthood and taken the name Kan-shuji.

KAYA. The 2nd head of the House, H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Tsunéno), Major-General, was born on January 27, 1900, 1st son of the founder, the late Prince Kaya (Kuninori). He was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Cavalry in 1920 and Major-General in 1940 and a member of the Faculty of the Staff College. On March 9, 1934, he left Tokyo, with his consort, for a tour round the world and returned to Tokyo on September 18 of the same year.

On May 3, 1921, he married Toshiko, who was born on May 16, 1903, 5th daughter of the late Prince Kujo (Michizané) [Peer]. They have seven children: H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Kuninaga), born on April 21, 1922; H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Harunori), born on July 3, 1926; H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Akinori), born on August 17, 1929; H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Fuminori), born on July 12, 1931; H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Munenori), born on November 24, 1935; H.I.H. Princess Kaya (Michiko), born on July 29, 1923, and H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Takenori), born on August 5, 1942.

Princess Kaya (Yoshiko) consort of the late Imperial Prince Kaya (Kuninori) died on November 26, 1941.

The House of Kaya was founded in 1892 by the late Prince Kaya (Kuninori), 2nd son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). The residence is at Sanban-cho, Kojima-ku, Tokyo.

KUNI. H.I.H. Prince Kuni (Asakira), Commander in the Navy, 3rd of the line, was born on February 2, 1901, 1st son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyoshi). His consort, H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Tomoko), whom he married on January 26, 1925, was born on May 18, 1907, 3rd daughter of H.I.H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyasu). They have seven children: H.I.H. Prince Kuni (Kuniaki), born on March 25, 1929; H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Masako), born on December 8, 1926; H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Asako), born on October 23, 1927; the third daughter, H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Michiko) was born on September 4, 1933; the fourth daughter H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Hidéko) was born on July 21, 1937; the second son H.I.H. Prince Kuni (Asatake) was born on May 11, 1940, and, the fifth daughter H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Noriko) was born on September 18, 1941.

H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Chikako) consort of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyoshi), mother of H.I.H. the Empress, was born on October 19, 1879, 7th daughter of the late Prince Shimazu (Tadayoshi) [Peer].

H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Shizuko), consort of the late Prince Kuni (Taka) was born on September 25, 1884, 1st daughter of the late Viscount Minasé (Taka-suké). There are two children remaining: H.I.H. Prince Kuni (Ichiko), born on March 17, 1920; and H.I.H. Prince Kuni (Norihiko), born on November 19, 1922.

The House of Kuni was founded in 1875 by the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko), 4th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kunilé). The residence is at Miyashiro-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

NASHIMOTO. H.I.H. Prince Nashimoto (Morimasa), Field Marshal, and Chief Priest of the Grand Shrines of Isé, was born on March 9, 1874, 4th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko); ordered to inherit the Nashimotos, December 2, 1885; entered Central Military Preparatory School, 1886; graduated from Military Academy, May 27, 1893; Second Lieutenant, January 1899; Captain, March 1901; sent to Europe for study, 1903; returned home and immediately sent to the front in the Russo-Japanese War, 1904; again in Europe for study, August 1906—July 1909; Lieutenant-General and Commander of the 16th Division, August 1917; High Military Councillor, November 1919; General, August 1923; Field Marshal, August 8, 1932; appointed Chief Priest of the Grand Shrines of Isé, October 1937.

His consort, H.I.H. Princess Nashimoto (Itsuko), whom he married on November 28, 1900, was born on February 2, 1882, 2nd daughter of the late Marquis Nabeshima (Naohiro). The residence is at Mitaké-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

ASAKA. H.I.H. Prince Asaka (Yasu-hiko), General, was born on October 2, 1887, 8th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). He founded the House of Asaka in 1906, was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Army in 1908, studied in Europe from 1922 to 1925 and is now a member of the High Military Council. The Prince was promoted to the rank of General in August 1939.

H.I.H. Prince Asaka (Takahiko), Cap-

tain in the Army, 1st son, born on October 8, 1912, and married Chikako, 5th daughter of Count Tōdō (Takatsugu) on December 16, 1938. They have a daughter, H.I.H. Princess Asaka (Fukuko) who was born on December 11, 1941. The residence is at Shirokané Dai-machi, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

HIGASHI-KUNI. H.I.H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Naruhiko), General, was born on December 3, 1887, 9th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). He founded the House of Higashi-Kuni in 1906, was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Infantry in 1908, studied in France from 1920 to 1927, was given command of the 3rd Infantry Regiment of the Imperial Guard Division in 1928, was promoted to command of the Nagoya Brigade in 1930, Commander of the Fourth Division in 1934; High Military Councillor, 1935, Head of the Military Aviation Bureau, 1937, and again High Military Councillor, 1939. The Prince was promoted to the rank of General in August 1939.

H.I.H. Princess Higashi-Kuni (Toshiko), his consort, whom he married on May 18, 1915, was born on May 11, 1896, 9th daughter of the Emperor Meiji. There are two sons remaining in the House: H.I.H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Morihiro), Captain in the Army, 1st son, born on May 6, 1916; and H.I.H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Toshihiko), 4th son, born on March 24, 1929. The residence is at Ichibé-cho, Azabu-ku, Tokyo.

KITASHIRAKAWA. H.I.H. Prince Kitashirakawa (Nagahisa), died in Mongolia on September 4, 1940. His consort, H.I.H. Princess Sachiko, whom he married on April 26, 1935, was born on August 26, 1916, second daughter of Baron Yoshikuni Tokugawa. H.I.H. Prince Kitashirakawa (Michihisa), their first son, was born on May 2, 1937. H.I.H. Princess Kitashirakawa (Hatsuko), their first daughter, was born on November 13, 1939.

H.I.H. Princess Kitashirakawa (Fusako), consort of the late Prince Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa), 3rd of the line, was born on January 28, 1890, 7th daughter of the Emperor Meiji.

The House of Kitashirakawa was founded in 1870 by the late Imperial Prince Kitashirakawa (Tomonari), 8th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kunilé). The residence is at Takana-wa Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

TAKEDA. H.I.H. Prince Takéda

(Tsunéyoshi), Major in the Army, 2nd of the line, was born on March 4, 1909, only son of the late Imperial Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa). He married Miss Mitsuko, 2nd daughter of Prince Sanjo (Kintéru) [Peer], on May 12, 1934. H.I.H. Prince Takéda (Tsunétada), their first son, was born on October 11, 1940.

The House of Takéda was founded in 1906 by Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa), 1st son of the late Prince Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa). The residence is at Takana-wa Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

Royalty of Chosen

Treatment equal to that accorded members of the Imperial House is given to those of the Royal House of Chosen, and a Civil List of ¥1,800,000 for their maintenance is included in the budget of the Chosen Government-General.

H.I.H. Prince Ri* (Gin), Lieutenant-General, head of the House of Shōtoku-kyū since the death in 1926 of his brother, Prince Ri (Séki), former Emperor, was born on October 20, 1897, 7th son of the late Grand Prince Ri (Kei). He studied at the Peers' School in Tokyo and the Military Academy in preparation for a military career. He was promoted to the rank of Major-General in July 1938, and Lieutenant-General in December 1940.

H.I.H. Princess Ri (Masako), whom the Prince married in 1920, was born on November 4, 1901, 1st daughter of H.I.H. Prince Nashimoto (Morimasa). On promotion to the rank of Captain in 1923, the Prince was attached for a time to the Headquarters of the General Staff and in 1927-28 he and Princess Ri made a year's tour of Europe. They have a son Ri (Kyu) who was born on December 29, 1931.

H.I.H. Princess In, consort of the late Prince Ri (Séki), was born on September 19, 1894, 1st daughter of Marquis In Taku-éi.

In Keijo, the capital of Chosen, the residence of this branch of the Royal House of Chosen is the Garyudo, and in Tokyo its residence is at Kioi-cho, Kojima-ku.

H.I.H. Prince Ri (Ken), Major in the Army, heir of the retired Prince Ri (Ko), was born on October 28, 1909. On graduation from the Military Aca-

* The house name of the Chosen Royalty is pronounced "Yi" in Chosen, but here it is given as "Ri" according to Japanese pronunciation.

demy in 1930, he was appointed Lieutenant in the Cavalry, Captain in 1936, and Major in 1940.

H.H. Princess Ri (Yoshihiko), whom Prince Ri (Ken) married in 1931, was born on October 6, 1911, 1st daughter of Yutaka Matsudaira, of the house of Count Hirohashi. Their first son, Ri (Chu), was born on August 14, 1932, second son Ri (Ki) on March 4, 1936, and the first daughter Ri (Haruko) on December 19, 1938.

H.H. Prince Ri (Ko), 5th son of the late Grand Prince Ri (Kei), father of Prince Ri (Ken), was born on March 30, 1877. His consort, H.H. Princess Kin, whom he married in 1893, was born on December 22, 1880, 1st daughter of the late Baron Kin Shi-éi.

H.H. Prince Ri (Gu), Captain in the Army, 2nd son of Prince Ri (Ko), was born on November 15, 1912, and in 1917 was made successor to the late Prince Ri (Shun), who had died heir-

less.

H.H. Princess Ri (Sanshu), whom Prince Ri (Gu) married on May 3, 1935, was born on November 11, 1914, granddaughter of Marquis Boku Ei-ko. They have two sons, Prince Ri (Sei) who was born on April 23, 1936, and Prince Ri (So) who was born on November 8, 1940.

H.H. Princess Ri, consort of the late Prince Ri (Ki), was born on July 10, 1883.

H.H. Princess Kin, consort of the late Prince Ri (Shun), was born on July 8, 1878, 1st daughter of Kin Zal-tai.

Former Princes

In accordance with the Imperial Household Law, Princes of the Imperial Family may be created peers, either by order of the Emperor or by petition, with family names to be granted by the Emperor. The following table shows those living who have renounced membership in the Imperial Family:

Name	Princely Father	Year of Change
Marquis Komatsu (Térühisa)	Late Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	1910
Marquis Yamashina (Yoshimaro)	" Yamashina (Kikumaro)	1920
Marquis Kwacho (Hironobu)	Fushimi (Hiroyasu)	1926
Marquis Tsukuba (Fujimaro)	Late Yamashina (Kikumaro)	1928
Count Katsuragi (Shigémaro)	" "	1929
Count Higashi-Fushimi (Kunihidé)	" Kuni (Kuniyoshi)	1931
Marquis Otowa (Tadahiko)	Asaka (Yasuhiko)	1936
Count Fushimi (Hirohidé)	Fushimi (Hiroyasu)	1936
Marquis Awata (Akitsuné)	Higashikuni (Naruhiko)	1940

Former Princesses

The following table shows Princesses of the Imperial Family and the Royal

House of Chosen who have married into the families of Peers:

Name	Princely Father	Consort	Year of Marriage
Ayako	Late Kuni (Asahiko)	Viscount Takénouchi (Korétada)	1892
Eiko	" "	Viscount Higashizono (Motoharu)	1899
Teiko	" Fushimi (Sadanaru)	Marquis Yama-uchi (Toyokagé)	1901
Sadako	" Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Count Arima (Yoriyasu)	1903
Mitsuko	" "	Count Kanroji (Osanaga)	1904
Suzuko	" Kuni (Asahiko)	Count Mibu (Motoyoshi)	1906
Takéko	" Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Viscount Hoshina (Masaaki)	1911
Shigéko	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Marquis Kuroda (Nagamichi)	1914
Yukiko	Late Kaya (Kuninori)	Machiiri (Kazumoto)	1915
Hiroko	" Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	heir of Viscount Count Futara (Yoshinori)	1915
Yukiko	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Viscount Ando (Nobuaki)	1915
Yasuko	Late Yamashina (Kikumaro)	Asano (Nagataké), heir of Marquis	1920
Satoko	" Kuni (Kuniyoshi)	Count Otani (Kocho)	1924
Nobuko	" "	Sanjo-nishi (Kin-osa),	1924
Noriko	Nashimoto (Morimasa)	heir of Viscount Count Hirohashi (Tadamitsu)	1926
Hanako	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Marquis Kwacho (Hironobu)	1926
Tokukei	Late Ri (Kei)	Count So (Takéyuki)	1931

Name	Princely Father	Consort	Year of Marriage
Kikuko	Asaka (Yasuhiko)	Nabeshima (Naoyasu), heir of Marquis	1931
Minéko	Late Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	Tachibana (Tanekatsu), heir of Viscount	1933
Ayako	Late Takéda (Tsunéhisa)	Sano (Tsunémitsu), heir of Count	1934
Shinén	" Ri (Shun)	In (Gen-zen)	1934
Sawako	" Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	Viscount Higashizono (Motobumi)	1935
Kuniko	" Kuni (Taka)	Prince Niho (Sukémoto) [Peer]	1939
Taéko	" Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	Tokugawa (Kuniyoshi), 2nd son of Prince	1941
Kiyoko	Asaka (Yasuhiko)	Count Ogyu (Yoshitatsu)	1941

Palaces, Gardens, etc.

Imperial Palace. The residence of the Emperor covers an area of about 531 acres in Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo. Originally built in 1457 by a feudal chieftain, Dokan Ota, who named it Yédo Castle, it became the headquarters of the Tokugawa Shogunate in the 16th century and was greatly extended. With the transfer of the capital from Kyoto to Tokyo in 1869, the second year of the Meiji Restoration, it was selected as the Imperial Residence and renamed Tokyo Castle. Much of it was destroyed in the great fire of 1873. The present palace, built between 1880 and 1888, cost ¥3,968,000. On completion, the name was changed to Kyujo, or Imperial Palace.

Other Palaces (1) Kyoto Palace. Situated in Kamikyo-ku, Kyoto, it was the Imperial Residence for 1,075 years, from 794 A. D., when the capital was moved from Nara to Kyoto, until 1869, when the seat of government was transferred to Tokyo. In accordance with the Accession Law, the ceremony of ascension to the Throne is always held here. The grounds cover about 229 acres.

(2) Aoyama Palace. Situated in Akasaka-ku, Tokyo, the palace was formerly the residence of the Lord of Tamba, but in 1873 the late Empress Dowager Eisho made it her home. Within its grounds is the residence of the Imperial Prince Mikasa.

(3) Omiya Palace. Also within the grounds of the Aoyama Palace, it is the residence of the Empress Dowager, mother of the reigning Emperor.

(4) Shinjuku Imperial Garden. At Naito-Shinjuku-machi, Yotsuya-ku, Tokyo, the garden was originally the site of the residence of the Lord of Takato, Nagano Prefecture, but in 1879 it came under the control of the Imperial Household Ministry and in 1906 was given its present name. Here are held the spring and autumn Imperial garden

parties.

(5) Akasaka Detached Palace. On part of the former property of the Lord of Kii, in Akasaka-ku, Tokyo, it was made a detached palace in 1872 and became a temporary residence of the Imperial Family from 1873 to 1889 during the construction of the present Imperial palace. Royal and princely visitors from abroad are guests here while in Tokyo.

(6) Hama Detached Palace. Situated in Tsukiji, Kyobashi-ku, Tokyo, its grounds were used by the Shoguns in feudal times for falconry and are now the scene of Imperial duck-hunting parties.

(7) Kasumigaséki Detached Palace. Formerly the residence of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, it is located behind the Foreign Office in Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

(8) Katsura Detached Palace. Located at Katsura, Ukyo-ku, Kyoto, it was formerly the residence of Prince Katsura [Katsura-no-miya] and became a detached palace in 1883.

(9) Shugakuin Detached Palace. Widely known for its beautiful garden, it was built by the Tokugawa Shogunate in the reign of the Emperor Gomizuno-o at what is now Shugakuin, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto, and was made a detached palace in 1883.

(10) Hakoné Detached Palace. On Lake Ashi in the Hakoné region, it was seriously damaged in the 1923 earthquake and has been left unrepaid.

(11) Muko Detached Palace. At Suma, Kobé, it became a detached palace in 1908.

(12) Hayama Imperial Villa. Because of its proximity to Tokyo, at Hayama-machi, Kanagawa prefecture, it is a favorite retreat, especially in the winter. Here the Emperor Taisho died in 1926.

(13) Isé Detached Palace. It is located at Doal, Mie Prefecture, specially

built for Imperial use on the occasions of His visits to the Grand Shrines of Ise.

(14) Taté-ishi Rest-House. It is located at Nishiura-mura, Miura-gun, Kanagawa prefecture.

(15) Numazu Imperial Villa. The palace is at Agehara-machi, Numazu, on Suruga Bay, Shizuoka prefecture.

(16) Nikko Imperial Villa. Nikko-machi, Tochigi prefecture, is the location.

(17) Tamozawa Imperial Villa. This also is at Nikko-machi, Tochigi prefecture.

(18) Shiobara Imperial Villa. The palace is at Shiobara-machi, Tochigi prefecture, a district noted for its maples.

(19) Ikao Imperial Estate. This estate or preserve is at Ikao-machi, a mountain resort in Gumma prefecture.

(20) Nasu Imperial Villa. Mountain views are the main attraction of Nasu-mura, Nasu-gun, Tochigi prefecture, where the palace is situated.

(21) Nagara River Preserve. This preserve for ayu lies in Gujo-gun, Mugl-gun and Inaba-gun, Gifu prefecture.

(22) Yédo River Preserve. There are two parts, one in Higashi-Katsushika-gun, Chiba prefecture, and the other in Minami-Saitama-gun and Kita-Katsushika-gun, Saitama prefecture. The preserve abounds in water-hens, herons, snipes, quails, white swans, wild geese, ducks, plovers, pheasants, water-rails, etc.

(23) Jintsu River Preserve. This preserve for trout, salmon and other fish is located in Nei-gun and Kami-Niikawa-gun, Toyama prefecture.

Imperial Household Finance

The Civil List is appropriated by the National Treasury and no approval of the Diet is necessary except when an increase in amount is required. At present, it amounts to ¥4,500,000. The Board of Imperial Auditors is located in the Imperial Household Ministry and its present Director-General is Mr. Michio Kinoshita. Baron Ikki and Count Makino are financial advisers to the Imperial Household.

The total Imperial Household expenditure is estimated at approximately ¥20,000,000 annually and is met by the Civil List, and by receipts from the Imperial forests, Imperial estates and other Imperial property.

The area of the land possessed by the Imperial House was 1,307,652 cho in

1938, details being as follows:

	Area in "cho"
Palace grounds	714
Woodlands	1,262,998
Farms	39,391
House-lots	226
Miscellaneous	4,323
Total	1,307,652

The Naidaijin-fu

The Naidaijin, Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, who has been so called from olden times, is a dignitary of the Imperial Household with the function of keeping the Imperial and State Seals and of administering matters regarding Imperial decrees and documents of the Imperial Household. He is a State functionary of the Shinnin rank, or one appointed directly by the Emperor, and is assisted by three secretaries.

Present Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals is Marquis Kôichi Kido.

The Imperial Household Ministry

The Imperial Household Ministry is divided into eleven principal subsidiary offices, namely, the Secretariat of the Minister, the Board of Chamberlains, the Board of Ceremonies, the Imperial Family and Peerage Board, the Imperial Mausolea Bureau, the Imperial Archives Bureau, the Court Physicians Bureau, the Bureau of the Imperial Table, the Imperial Treasury Bureau, the Maintenance and Works Bureau, and the Imperial Stables Bureau, and is charged with the conduct of affairs pertaining to the Imperial Household. There are, in addition to those above mentioned, such other institutions as are mentioned below coming under the supervision of the Minister of the Imperial Household:

- The Office of H. I. M. the Empress' Household,
 - The Office of H. I. M. the Empress Dowager's Household,
 - The Board of the Imperial Auditors,
 - The Imperial Forests and Estates Board,
 - The Imperial Poetry Bureau,
 - The Imperial Museums (at Tokyo and Nara),
 - The Peers' School,
 - The Peers' School for Girls,
 - The Temporary Board for the Compilation of the History of the Emperor Meiji.
 - The Kyoto Office of the Imperial Household.
- Since 1884, it has been placed outside

the pale of the administrative system, so that the Minister is in no way affected by any Cabinet change.

The present and preceding Ministers of the Imperial Household Ministry are:

Name	Time of Appointment
Prince Hirobumi Ito	Dec., 1885
Marquis Hisamoto Hijikata	Sept., 1887
Viscount Mitsuaki Tanaka	Feb., 1898
Prince Tomosada Iwakura	June, 1909
Viscount Chiaki Watanabé	April, 1910
Baron Takatada Hatano	April, 1914
Baron Yujiro Nakamura	June, 1920
Count Nobuaki Makino	Feb., 1921
Baron Kitokuro Ikki	Mar., 1925
Kurahéi Yuasa	Mar., 1933
Tsunéo Matsudaira	Mar., 1936

The Privy Council

The Privy Council is a consultative body to advise the Emperor on questions of grave importance. In regard to its organization and function see "the Privy Council" in Chapter IV, Government. The present and preceding presidents of the Privy Council are given below:

Name	Year of Appointment
Count Hirobumi Ito	1888
Count Takato Ohki	1889
Count Hirobumi Ito	1891
Count Takato Ohki	1892
Count Aritomo Yamagata	1893
Count Kiyotaka Kuroda	1895
Marquis Kinmochi Saionji	1900
Marquis Hirobumi Ito	1903
Marquis Aritomo Yamagata	1905
Prince Hirobumi Ito	1909
Prince Aritomo Yamagata	1909
Viscount Keigo Kiyoura	1922
Viscount Arata Hamano	1924
Baron Nobushigé Hozumi	1925
Dr. Yuzaburo Kuratomi	1926
Baron Kitokuro Ikki	1934
Baron Kishiro Hiranuma	1936
Prince Fumimaro Konoe	1938
Dr. Yoshimichi Hara	1940

The Peerage

The modern system of the Peerage, with its five grades of Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount and Baron, dates from 1884, but prior to this there was a well-established aristocracy. Up to the time of the Meiji Restoration, there were two groups, the Court Nobles, called Kugé, most of whom were descendants of younger sons of Emperors, and the Feudal Lords, called Daimyo or Tonosama,

most of whom had attained their standing through military prowess. With the Restoration, these were amalgamated under the name of Kwazoku (Peerage). In 1884, an Imperial edict was issued establishing the five grades of the present Peerage, and to the members of the Kwazoku, were added subjects who had assisted in the work of the Restoration. In the first list there were 11 Princes, 24 Marquises, 76 Counts, 376 Viscounts and 382 Barons.

When Chosen was annexed in 1910, 76 Chosenese of distinction were selected to become Peers, 6 Marquises, 3 Counts, 22 Viscounts and 45 Barons.

The families of the Peerage stood as follows at the end of August 1941.

Grade	Number of Families
Prince	19
Marquis	42
Count	108
Viscount	372
Baron	407
Total	948

The number of the Chosen peerage was 7 marquises, 3 counts, 17 viscounts, and 32 barons.

Decorations

To recognize and reward persons who render distinguished and meritorious services to the State, orders of merit and decorations were created in 1875 and supplemented in later years. The orders of merit, of which there are nine—the Grand Order and numerical orders from 1st to 8th—are only nominal and serve to indicate the class of decoration to which a holder is entitled. The decorations themselves are of 9 kinds:

Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum. There are two kinds, the Collar of the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum and the Grand Cordon of the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum, both reserved for those given the Grand Order of Merit. The first, the highest Japanese decoration, is a gold chain or collar from which is hung a small badge representing a chrysanthemum, to which is fastened a large sunburst flanked with chrysanthemum flowers and leaves. The second is marked by the same badges, worn at lower left side at the bottom of a cordon or ribbon of red with purple edges hung from the right shoulder.

Rising Sun and Paulownia. This is a single decoration, combining the de-

vices of two lesser orders, known as the Grand Cordon of the Imperial Order of the Rising Sun with Paulownia Flowers which is awarded only to holders of the 1st Class Order of Merit. From a cordon of red with two white stripes, worn over the right shoulder, resting on lower left side, are suspended a small badge showing paulownia flowers and leaves and a larger badge, below it, of a double-rayed rising sun flanked with paulownia flowers.

Rising Sun. There are six classes, from the Grand Cordon of the Rising Sun, to which holders of the 1st Class Order of Merit are eligible, to the 6th Class Order of the Rising Sun, which holders of the 6th Class Order of Merit may receive.

Paulownia. Two classes exist, sometimes referred to as the 7th and 8th classes of the Order of the Rising Sun. The Order of the Blue Paulownia is for holders of the 7th Order of Merit, and the Order of the White Paulownia for holders of the 8th Class Order of Merit.

Sacred Treasure. Known as the Imperial Order of the Sacred Treasure. Of this order there are eight classes. The badge represents the Mirror and Gem of the Imperial Regalia, and the cordon is of light blue with two orange stripes.

Sacred Crown. Its full name is the Imperial Order of the Sacred Crown. The eight classes of this order are bestowed on women only, who were barred from receiving any other decoration until 1919, when they were also made eligible for the Order of the Sacred Treasure. The badge shows the Sacred Crown, with cherry blossoms and bamboo, and the cordon is of yellow with two scarlet stripes.

Golden Kite. Purely a military order, known as the Imperial Military Order of the Golden Kite, this has seven classes. The cordon is green with two white stripes. It carries a life annuity, fixed in 1916 at ¥1,500 for the 1st Class; ¥1,000, 2nd Class; ¥700, 3rd Class; ¥500, 4th Class; ¥350, 5th Class; ¥250, 6th Class, and ¥150, 7th Class. This is granted to the family for one year following the recipient's death, and, if he has died within five years of being decorated, until the end of that period.

Cultural Decoration. Creation of the cultural order to be awarded to those

who have made outstanding contributions to science, arts, literature or other fields of culture was announced on February 11, 1937. There are no grades or classes in the decoration. The device consists of three replicas of the Sacred Jewels, symbolizing philanthropy and virtue, placed in the centre of a white tachibana blossom (a kind of mandarin orange, Citrus tachibana Tanaka), and the decoration is suspended from a light purple ribbon worn around the collar.

Ribands of Honor. The Red Riband is conferred on persons who risk their lives in rescuing others; the Green Riband on those who distinguish themselves for filial piety, feminine virtues, devotion to the aged and loyalty to masters; the Blue Riband on those who aid public and private undertakings by important discoveries or inventions; the Dark Navy Blue Riband on those who contribute money or property for public welfare; and the Yellow Riband, divided into two classes, gold and silver, on persons who help undertakings connected with coast defense.

Holders of any decorations who are sentenced to death, penal servitude or imprisonment for more than three years are deprived of decorations, accompanying diplomas and, if any, annuities. They may also be ordered to surrender them if guilty of acts of dishonour, depending on the circumstances.

Court Rank

Court rank is specially conferred on persons who distinguish themselves in service to the State, peers and their heirs, officials and army and navy officers. There are 16 grades, from the senior grade of the first rank to the junior grade of the eighth rank, and all affairs pertaining to them are administered by the Imperial Family and Peerage Board in the Imperial Household Ministry in accordance with the Court Rank Act, promulgated in 1926.

There were 357,742 holders of Court rank at the end of August 1941, divided as follows:

	Senior	Junior
First	—	—
Third	569	1,092
Second	29	75
Fourth	2,513	6,505
Fifth	11,815	14,971
Sixth	17,869	23,966
Seventh	51,178	117,772
Eighth	107,246	2,139

Stick Granted to the Aged

In the 12th century, Toshinari Fujiwara, a Court noble, was granted on the celebration of his 90th birthday a stick for use at Court by the Emperor Gotoba. This honor, known as Kyuchuzué or Hatozue because the stick has a pigeon top, is today bestowed on Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank who have attained the age of 80 in recognition of signal service to the Court and the State, though it is marked by a monetary gift in lieu of an actual stick. Living holders follow:

Baron Kuratomi (Yuzaburo)
Baron Yamamoto (Tatsuo)
Baron Uchiyama (Kojiro)
General Shiba (Goro)
Count Makino (Nobuaki)
Admiral Arima (Ryokitsu)
Dr. Mano (Bunji)
Lieut.-General Oshima (Kenichi)
Machida (Chuji)
Baron Ohi (Narimoto)

Court Artists

For the promotion and encouragement of fine arts, representative artists are chosen by a special committee in the Court and their appointment as Court artists is made by the Minister of the Imperial Household. The artists may produce objects of art for the Court or present opinions upon Imperial enquiries on questions pertaining to arts. The present Court artists are as follows:

Sculptor	Choun Yamazaki
Painters	Séiho Takéuchi
	Gyokudo Kawai
	Talkan Yokoyama
	Yukihiko Yasuda
	Kansétsu Hashimoto
	Kéigétsu Kikuchi
	Eisaku Wada
	Takéji Fujishima
Metal Carver	Kamézo Shimizu
Metal Worker	Shushin Katori
Ceramist	Hazan Itaya

State Funerals

The Imperial Ordinance for State Funeral was issued in 1926. According to the Ordinance, the State Funeral is held with distinguished rituals, its expenses being borne by the National Treasury. There are two kinds of State

Funeral, i.e. the one for Imperial Personages and the other for the subjects. The former is still divided into two kinds; the first is called the Grand Funeral and is for the Emperor, the Great Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager and the Empress, while the second is called the Imperial Funeral and is for the Crown Prince, the Crown Princess, the Emperor's grandson and his consort, the Regent Imperial Prince or Emperor's daughters or children. Both the Grand and Imperial Funeral services are conducted with special rituals according to the Provisions of the Imperial House Funeral Ordinance.

The State Funeral for the subjects is held in honor of those who rendered distinguished services to the country by the special order of the Emperor and the ritual and order of the Funeral is fixed by the Premier with the Imperial sanction.

State Funerals have been accorded to the following since the beginning of the Meiji Era:

Okubo (Toshimichi)	1869
Prince Iwakura (Tomomi)	[Peer] 1883
Prince Shimazu (Hisamitsu)	[Peer] 1887
Prince Sanjo (Sanetomi)	[Peer] 1891
Prince Arisugawa (Taruhito)	1895
Prince Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	1895
Prince Mori (Motonori)	[Peer] 1896
Prince Shimazu (Tadayoshi)	[Peer] 1897
Prince Komatsu (Akihiko)	1903
Prince Ito (Hirobumi)	[Peer] 1909
Prince Arisugawa (Takéhito)	1913
Prince Oyama (Iwao)	[Peer] 1916
Grand Prince Ri (Kei)	1919
Prince Yamagata (Aritomo)	[Peer] 1922
Prince Fushimi (Sadanaru)	1923
Marquis Matsukata (Mitsuyoshi)	1924
Prince Ri (Séki)	1926
Marquis Togo (Héihai)	1934
Prince Saionji (Kimmochi)	[Peer] 1940

Imperial Interest in Social Work

On various occasions of great importance in the Imperial Household, grants of money are made from the Privy Purse for social welfare, instances of which follow:

Year	Occasion	Purpose or Recipient	Amount in Yen
1897	Empress Dowager Elsho's Funeral—Charity		400,000
1912	Emperor Meiji's Funeral—Charity		1,000,000
1914	Empress Dowager Shoken's Funeral—Charity		600,000
1915	Emperor Taisho's Enthronement—Charity		1,000,000
1924	Prince Regent's Wedding—Promotion of social work		1,000,000
	—Encouragement for the poor to send children to school		1,000,000
1925	Emperor Taisho's Silver Wedding		
	—Young Men's and Women's Ass'ns		750,000
	—Cultural bodies in the Territories		250,000
1927	Emperor Taisho's Funeral—Charity		1,500,000
1928	Demise of Princess Hisa, the Emperor's daughter		
	—Protection of the young		50,000
1929	Emperor's Enthronement—Charity		1,500,000
1934	Birth of the Crown Prince, Akihito		
	—Protection of mothers and the young		750,000

Since 1879, it has been the custom of the Imperial House to make monetary contributions when there are floods, fires, railway accidents, violent winds, shipwrecks, earthquakes, famines, volcanic eruptions, mine explosions, etc. Immediately after the great earthquake and fire of 1923, a grant of ¥10,000,000 was made for relief.

A fund of ¥1,500,000 in 1911 for extension of medical treatment to the poor was used to found the Saisai-kai, the Imperial Charity Association. Additional money for this work was included in the grant of ¥3,000,000 in 1932 for relief of the poor, and it was extended to overseas territories by a grant of ¥300,000 to the Overseas Ministry.

With the ¥1,000,000 granted on the occasion of the wedding of the present Emperor was established the Keifukukai, Beatitude Association, for promotion of social work done by private bodies.

On every Kigensetsu, the anniversary of the foundation of the Empire, which takes place on February 11, Imperial grants are made to public and private social welfare organizations, the number of which now reaches over 800.

In 1932, a grant of ¥1,500,000 was made to the Association for the Promotion of Learning through the Education Minister.

The Empress Dowager is particularly interested in the relief of lepers and in 1930 granted funds to all bodies engaged in this work.

In April 1939, H.I.M. the Empress granted funds to the sum of ¥500,000 for the prevention of tuberculosis and treatment of the patients.

Court Rituals

GRAND RITUALS. The Grand Rituals are those conducted by the

Emperor personally, with Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank in attendance. Brief descriptions follow:

Genshisai, the celebration of the auspicious origin of the Imperial Throne at the beginning of the year, is performed on January 3 by the Emperor at the Three Shrines in the grounds of the Imperial Palace, the Kashikodokoro, where the Sacred Mirror is installed, the Koréiden, the shrine of the Imperial Ancestors, and the Shinden, the sanctuary of Shinto deities.

Kigensetsusai, to celebrate the ascension to the Throne of the Emperor Jimmu, is performed by the Emperor at the Three Shrines on February 11. In the evening sacred music and dances are given in a pavilion in front of the Koréiden.

Shunki-Koréisai, for the worship of preceding Emperors and Empresses and Princes and Princesses of Imperial lineage, takes place in the Koréiden on the day of the vernal equinox.

Shunki-Shindensai, performed on the same day in the Shinden, is to offer thanks to the Gods of Heaven and Earth for their blessings and to petition for their continuance.

Jimmu-Tennosai, which takes place in the Koréiden, marks the anniversary of the demise of the founder of the country, the Emperor Jimmu, on April 3. To his mausoleum is dispatched on the same day a Court official representing the Emperor to make offerings. At fixed intervals, the Emperor personally conducts the rite at the mausoleum.

Shuki-Koréisai and Shuki-Shindensai are identical in form and purpose with

the vernal equinox rituals but take place on the day of the autumn equinox.

Kannamé-no-Matsuri, the ritual of offering thanks for the harvest and new rice to the soul of the Imperial Ancestress, Amaterasu-Omikami, which takes place in the Grand Shrines of Isé on October 16 and 17, is duplicated in the Kashikodokoro at the Imperial Palace on October 17.

Ninamé-no-Matsuri, conducted between November 23 and 24, is marked by the Emperor partaking of new rice after offering it to the Imperial Ancestress, Amaterasu-Omikami, and all the Gods of Heaven and Earth. The same ritual, when performed at the Emperor's enthronement, is called Daijo-sai.

Taisho-Tennosai marks the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Taisho, H.I.M. the Emperor's father, and is celebrated in the Koréiden on December 25. In the evening, sacred music and dances are performed in a pavilion in front of the shrine. A court official representing the Emperor is sent on the same day to the mausoleum of the Emperor Taisho to make offerings, a rite which the Emperor himself performs at fixed intervals.

ORDINARY RITUALS. These are Court rituals which the Emperor does not conduct personally, but which he attends with the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank.

Saitansai, held at dawn on January 1 at the Three Shrines, is for worship of the Imperial Ancestors and the Gods, offering thanks to them for the grace of Heaven and supplicating for its continuance.

Koméi-Tennosai marks the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Koméi, great-grandfather of H.I.M. the Emperor, and is held in the Koréiden on January 30. The rite of presenting offerings at his mausoleum is performed on the same day.

Kinensai, held on February 17 in the Three Shrines, is the ritual of praying for a bountiful harvest and for the continued prosperity and well-being of the Imperial House and the nation. A Court official representing the Emperor is dispatched on the same day to the Grand Shrines of Isé to make offerings, and offerings are also presented at various other shrines.

Ninko-Tennosai, marking the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Ninko, great-great-grandfather of H.I.M. the Emperor, is performed on February 21 in the Koréiden. Offerings are made and a ritual conducted at his mausoleum on the same day.

Tenchosetsusai, held in the Three Shrines on April 29, the birthday of H.I.M. the Emperor, is the ritual of praying for the longevity of His Majesty.

Meiji-Tennosai is observed in the Koréiden on July 30 to mark the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Meiji, grandfather of H.I.M. the Emperor. Offerings are made and a ritual performed at his mausoleum on the same day.

Meijisetsusai is held on November 3 to praise the great achievements of the Emperor Meiji, to remember his high virtues, to invigorate and develop the spirit of the national revival in the Meiji Era and to pray for increased national prosperity.

Kashikodokoro-Mikagura, a sacred dance, is held in the Kashikodokoro in the middle of December. As no definite date is fixed, an auspicious day is named every year by Imperial order.

OTHER RITUALS. The Imperial Court also observes several rituals not specified in the Court Ritual Act:

Shunsai, Tenth-day Ceremony, is held on the 1st, 11th and 21st of every month except January 1, the Emperor observes the ceremony for the Gods more elaborately than on the usual days.

Futsukasai and Mikkasai are performed on January 2 and 3, with the New Year's Day Ceremony. These are observed with specially elaborate rituals.

Joyasai, New Year's Eve Ceremony. At the end of the year the Emperor gives thanks to the Gods for their benevolence throughout the year and prays for blessings in the coming year.

Yo-ori, the rite for purification of the person of the Emperor, is held in the Phoenix Hall of the Imperial Palace on June 30 and December 31.

O-harai, held on the same days as Yo-ori, is a similar rite for the purification of all officials and officers from sins committed unconsciously.

SPECIAL CEREMONIES. Two special ceremonies at the Imperial Court are worthy of note:

Kosho-Hajimé, or the ceremony of delivering lectures in the Court at the beginning of the New Year, takes place in the presence of the Emperor and Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood and Court dignitaries in the Phoenix Hall. Usually three lecturers are chosen, with three others held in reserve, from the nation's most erudite scholars of Japanese classics, Chinese classics and Western learning to lecture on subjects related to their specialties.

Utakai-Hajimé, or the Imperial New Year Poetry Party, is usually held in the middle of January in the presence

of the Emperor and Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood and high Court dignitaries. Though long in existence, it became one of the most important annual ceremonies in 1869. A few months in advance, the Imperial Household Minister announces the theme for the waka, or tanka, poems of 31 syllables, to be submitted. For the honour of having a poem read in the ceremony, anyone may compete. In addition to those by subjects, poems by the Emperor and Empress and other members of the Imperial Family are read.

CHAPTER I

GEOGRAPHY

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Position and Extent

The Japanese Empire, wholly within the Asiatic half of the North Pacific, consists of Japan proper and various territories. At the time of the Meiji Restoration, 1868, there were the four large continental islands of Honshu, or Hondo, usually known as the Mainland, Kyushu, Shikoku and Hokkaido, or Ezo, and 4,068 adjacent islands of smaller size. Russia ceded the long chain of islands called the Chishima, or the Kuriles, in 1875. The Ogasawarajima, or Bonin Islands, were formally annexed in 1877, and the Ryukyu, or Loochoo Islands, in 1879, though both groups had been early under Japanese control. All these areas today constitute Japan proper.

The Territories The first territories, Taiwan, or Formosa, with the adjacent islands called the Bokoto, or Pescadores, was ceded by China in 1895 following the Sino-Japanese War. The Russo-Japanese War brought Karafuto, or the southern half of the island of Saghalien, and, in Manchuria, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone which was transferred to Manchoukuo in 1937. Chosen, or Korea, was annexed in 1910. The mandated Caroline, Mariana and Marshall Islands, former German possessions in the South Seas, were received by Japan at the Versailles Peace Conference, 1919.

Occupied Territories As the result of the Greater East Asia War beginning 1941 Japan now occupies Hong Kong, The Philippines, Malaya, Burma, Borneo and other East Indies, Guam and other islands in the Pacific east of the Philippines, which were formerly the possessions of Great Britain, the United States of America and the Netherlands, with an aggregate area of about 2,521,510 square kilometers as outstanding at the end of May 1942.

Area

The Home Ministry's revised investigation puts the total area of the Empire at the end of 1938, at 681,012.03 square kilometers, distributed as shown in the

following table:

	Area in sq. km.
Grand Total	681,012.03
Japan proper	382,560.83
Honshu	230,549.01
Shikoku	18,771.45
Kyushu	42,078.49
Hokkaido	88,775.04
Ryukyu	2,386.24
Chosen	220,788.44
Taiwan	35,834.35
Bokoto	126.86
Karafuto	36,090.30
Kwantung Leased Territory	3,462.45
South Sea Mandated Islands	2,148.80

Of 675,400.78 square kilometers, exclusive of the two territories last named, Japan proper occupies 56.6 per cent of the total area, while Chosen occupies 32.6 per cent, Taiwan 5.3 per cent, and Karafuto 5.3 per cent.

The areas of the newly occupied territories are as follows:

	Estimated Area in Square Kilometer
Hong Kong	1,126
The Philippines	296,294
Malaya	132,079
Burma	677,774
Java and Madura	132,000
Sumatra	456,000
Borneo	750,250
Other Islands	75,978
Total	2,521,510

(In regard to detailed information on these territories the readers are referred to the new chapter on the Greater East Asia War and "The South Seas Handbook" published with this volume.)

The area of each prefecture in Japan proper arranged in the order of size follows:

AREA OF PREFECTURES

(In sq. km.)

		%
1. Hokkaido	88,775.04	23.2
2. Iwaté	15,235.31	4.0
3. Fukushima	13,781.98	3.6
4. Nagano	13,626.18	3.6
5. Niigata	12,578.05	3.3
6. Akita	11,663.94	3.0

7. Gifu	10,494.73	2.7
8. Aomori	9,630.92	2.5
9. Yamagata	9,325.66	2.4
10. Kagoshima	9,103.81	2.4
11. Hiroshima	8,438.58	2.2
12. Hyogo	8,323.37	2.2
13. Shizuoka	7,769.90	2.0
14. Miyazaki	7,738.85	2.0
15. Kumamoto	7,433.41	1.9
16. Miyagi	7,273.36	1.9
17. Kochi	7,103.85	1.8
18. Okayama	7,046.47	1.8
19. Shimané	6,625.46	1.7
20. Tochigi	6,436.59	1.7
21. Gumma	6,335.87	1.7
22. Oita	6,333.87	1.7
23. Ibaraki	6,091.14	1.6
24. Yamaguchi	6,084.49	1.6
25. Mié	5,765.28	1.5
26. Ehime	5,667.42	1.5
27. Aichi	5,084.33	1.3
28. Chiba	5,062.09	1.3
29. Fukuoka	4,943.54	1.3
30. Wakayama	4,718.59	1.2
31. Kyoto	4,621.29	1.2
32. Yamanashi	4,465.87	1.2
33. Fukui	4,264.45	1.1
34. Toyama	4,257.42	1.1
35. Ishikawa	4,192.42	1.1
36. Tokushima	4,143.22	1.1
37. Nagasaki	4,075.98	1.1
38. Shiga	4,050.93	1.0
39. Saltama	3,802.68	1.0
40. Nara	3,693.52	1.0
41. Tottori	3,489.48	0.9
42. Saga	2,449.03	0.6
43. Okinawa	2,386.24	0.6
44. Kanagawa	2,360.80	0.6
45. Tokyo	2,144.80	0.6
46. Kagawa	1,856.96	0.5
47. Osaka	1,813.63	0.5
Total	382,560.83	100.0

Geological Formation

The Japanese Islands lie at the east end of the Eurasia Continent, spreading more than 3,800 kilometers on the Pacific. They are arranged in the form of a festoon or a breakwater for the Continent against the Pacific waves. The numerous islands may be divided into four groups or bows: the Nippon Bow, the Chishima Bow, the Ryukyu Bow and the Ogasawara or Bonin Bow. The Nippon Bow is composed of the Mainland (Main Island) and the small islands around it. The Main Island itself draws an arc, its convex surface projecting into the Pacific and its concave surface facing the Japan Sea, because the whole Nippon Bow was pushed out toward the ocean by a mountain-making process from the

side of the Japan Sea. The Nippon Bow again is composed of two mountain systems, with the Fuji volcanic range as the dividing line: they are the Northern range, or the Karafuto mountain system, and the Southern range, or the Kwanlun mountain system.

Recent excavations seem to show that it is almost impossible to find the oldest rocks in the formation of the Japanese Islands, but it was formerly assumed that gneiss and crystalline schist, which belong to the oldest geological eras, were found in Japan.

Gneiss Distribution Gneiss is distributed mostly in the Nippon Bow and Chosen and cannot be found in the Ryukyu and the Chishima Bows. It runs through the center of the southern half of the Nippon Bow, while in the northern half it may be found in the plateau of Abukuma. In Chosen it is spread over a wide area. Crystalline schist runs generally along the outside of the gneiss system. In the southern part of the Nippon Bow, it starts at the Akatsuki range and runs through the Kii range to Shikoku, where it develops in a wide area, taking the place of gneiss; then it crosses the strait to Kyushu and sinks under the Aso volcanic chain to appear again at Nagasaki. In Taiwan it forms the eastern part of the Taiwan mountain range. In the northern half of the Nippon Bow, it appears in the Kanto range and may be found in the Ezo mountain system of Hokkaido and in Karafuto.

Palæozoic System The Japanese Palæozoic system is largely aqueous rock, composed mainly of slate, sandstone, silica stone, limestone, grit stone and graywacke, with a compound of such igneous stones as granite and diorite. It is widely distributed and has much to do with the geological formation of Japan. But at the Palæozoic era the Japanese land lay deep in the waters and did not treasure up coal as did the Palæozoic stratum of the Continent. The oldest stratum of the Main Island which has been proved with a fossil is the Carboniferous system, and any decision on older beds must remain uncertain until similar proof is available. The Palæozoic system forms the bones of the big mountain ranges developing at the circumference of the Archæan system of the southern part of the Nippon Bow and is distributed in the Akatsuki, Kii, Shikoku and Kyushu mountain ranges. Traces are also visible in the Hida

range, Hida plateau, Tamba plateau, Chugoku range and Tsukushi range. In the northern half, it runs through the Kanto, Ashio, Hachimizo, Abukuma and Kitakami ranges to the Ezo range and Karafuto. It can also be seen in Taiwan and Chosen in wide areas.

Mesozoic System The Mesozoic stratum of Japan is composed of stones similar to those of the earlier stratum. Fossils are sufficiently numerous to assure the era in which it was formed. It appears in the Kii range, the southern part of Shikoku, the Kyushu range and the Taiwan range. In Chosen, it is found in the Keisho district. In the Chugoku district, the western part of the Main Island, it comes to the surface, leading to the belief that the plains of this district were formed in this era.

Neozoic System The Neozoic stratum is composed mainly of aqueous rock and volcanic stones. In this era, the transformation of land and sea was incessant, and volcanic activities were most vigorous, creating most of the present volcanic chains. Through the tertiary and quaternary periods, andesite and basalt were emitted in great volume. Most of the coalfields, oil-fields and metal mines of Japan were formed in the tertiary period. In the diluvial day of the quaternary period, volcanic explosions followed one after another, and the hills by the rivers and the higher plains of the Kanto took their present form. In the alluvial, or the most recent period of the same era, the lowest and the newest beds at rivers, lakes and the sea shore, or sand-banks and sand hills, came into existence. According to the investigation of the Geological Research Office, the areas of rocks of different geological eras in Japan proper are as follows:

	Sq. km.	%
Archæan stratum	14,189	3.50
Palæozoic ..	53,149	12.74
Mesozoic ..	29,844	7.15
Neozoic ..	196,079	49.87
Tertiary vomitted rocks	44,157	10.58
Quaternary vomitted rocks	79,970	19.16
Total	417,388	100.00

Block Movements According to this investigation, two-thirds of the land is of the Neozoic stratum, showing that Japan must have been upheaved upon the surface of the sea in the most recent geological era, and the large volume

of vomitted rocks speaks of violent volcanic activities.

In the Palæozoic era, the islands were all hidden under shallow waters. Even the Hida and Akatsuki mountain peaks, which form the ridge of the Mainland, are composed of the sediment on the sea-bottom in those days. At the end of this era, the highest mountain ranges began to expose their heads above the waters. It was a golden age for the Mollusca and fishes, the Amphibia coming to existence at the end of it. In the vegetable kingdom, Cryptogamia grew in great forests which disappeared with the end of the era.

At the Jurassic period of the Mesozoic era, China and most of Chosen appeared upon the surface of the sea, but the land of Japan was still covered with waters, except for the great mountain ranges, which began to show their complete figures. It was the age in which the cycad, the ginkgo and the Coniferae grew in abundance and toward the end of which the latifoliate trees came into existence. In the animal kingdom, the reptiles made great progress, and queer gigantic animals lived everywhere in the sea, in the air and on the land.

When the Neozoic era dawned, Japan became a stage of great block movements of earth, and it was severed from the continent, taking the form of a chain of countless islands. The present location was assumed, although the northern part was a little later than the southern half. The line which connects the islands runs from south to north because the pressure of the block movement was from west to east. As the movements gradually ceased and the dividing lines of land and sea became stationary, the present animals and vegetables began to grow, and finally primitive men appeared.

Relationship with Continent The close connection of the islands with the Continent is supported by considerable evidence. It is asserted by most scholars that they are continental islands, which are usually located near a continent, from which they were severed in the latest geological era. It is clear that the mountain ranges of Japan have a close connection with the Kwanlun mountain system. The north range of the Chinese mountains, after sinking into the sea, appears again in the northern part of Kyushu and reaches the central part of the Main Island, running

through the Chugoku district, and the eastern end of the China mountain system reappears in southern Kyushu, from where it reaches to the Akaiishi range through Shikoku Island and Wakayama prefecture. It is also known that the sea between the Japanese Islands and the Continent is but 200 meters deep at the maximum from Taiwan to Chosen. That is, if the waters fell by this distance, the East China Sea, the Yellow Sea and the Gulf of Chihli would be dried up, and Kyushu, Shikoku, the Mainland, Hokkaido and Karafuto would be connected by land. In sharp contrast, the sea to the east and south of the islands suddenly becomes as deep as 4,000 metres and even more in some places. These facts prove that the Japanese Islands were once a part of the Continent of Asia.

Japanese animals belong to those species which are included in the old northern division in the animal distribution of the world, and Japanese plants have very close relations with those on the Continent of Asia and are quite different from those of the American Continent. Finally, palaeontology provides further proof that Japan was formerly a part of the Asiatic Continent. In the layers which belong to the tertiary period or the diluvial day of the quaternary period, fossil teeth of elephants are often found, and some are of the same kind as those excavated in the southern districts of China. Thus it may be concluded that the Islands of Japan were connected with the Continent of Asia in a prehistoric but comparatively new geological era.

Natural Features

The mountains of Japan are divided into two great systems, one to the north and the other to the south. The Karafuto system, framing Northern Japan, is composed of the Ezo, Kitakami, Abukuma, Kanto and Echigo ranges, arranged from north to south, roughly speaking. Southern Japan is framed by two branches of the Kwenlun system, which has its origin in China. One branch first appears in the northern part of Kyushu as the Tsukushi range and then runs to the east, forming the Chugoku range, the Tamba plateau, the Hida plateau and the Kiso range. The other branch appears in the southern part of Kyushu, forming the Kyushu range, from which it runs east, becoming the Shikoku, Kii, Suzuka and Akaiishi ranges.

Japanese mountains have characteristic fine creases, cut by the rainfall, which is specially heavy in this country. The Kyushu, Shikoku and Akaiishi ranges were formed by the creasing process; such mountains as Fuji, Nasu, Chokai and Kirishima resulted from volcanic activities, and the Kongo, Kasagi, Suzuka and Maitsu mountain ranges were born in dislocative earthquakes. As for age, the mountains of the Chugoku and Abukuma ranges, with their dull curves, are the oldest; the Shikoku range, the Japan Alps and the Ohu range, or the range in the northeastern Mainland, are rugged and young, and the plains of the Kanto district and Gifu and Aichi prefectures are very young. The combination of these mountains and plains of diverse ages is peculiar to Japan.

Volcanic Chains According to the Geological Research Office, the total number of volcanoes in Japan is 192, of which 58 are active. They may be grouped in 11 chains:

(1) The north Japan inner, or Chokai, volcanic chain, which starts at the southwestern offing of Hokkaido, or Oshima and Ko-jima, and runs through Iwaki-yama, Kamopuzan, Mori-yoshi-yama Chokai-san, ending with Gatsusan.

(2) The south Japan inner, or Hakusan, volcanic chain, extending from Hakusan along the Japan Sea to the west through Daiseo, Mitsubé-yama, Aono-yama and other smaller volcanoes and then to the Goto Islands of Kyushu.

(3) The Hokkaido volcanic chain, which links such mountains as Hakodate-yama, Komaga-daké, Tarumayé-daké and some islands in the peninsular part of western Hokkaido.

(4) The north Japan central, or Nasu, volcanic chain, including Osoré-yama, Hakkoda-san, Towada Lake, Iwaté-yama, Komaga-daké, Kurigoma, Numasawa, Arao, Funagata, Za-oh, Bantai, Azuma, Adatara, Nasu, Nantai, Shirané, Akagi, Haruna, Tsuno-otoshi and Arafuna, which are mostly active volcanoes.

(5) The Hida volcanic chain, composed of the seven volcanoes of Hera-daké, Taté-yama, Ko-tombi, Washiba-daké, Iwo-daké, Norikura-daké and On-také.

(6) The Mikasa volcanic chain, to the west of the Hida volcanic chain, beginning with Horaji-san, of Aichi prefecture, and running westward to O-hara-yama, Mikasa-yama, Miminari-

yama, Futakami-san and Kabuto-yama of Hyogo prefecture.

(7) The Seto, or Inland Sea, volcanic chain, embracing the old volcanic mountains along the coasts of the Inland Sea and extending to Kyushu, including such mountains as Futako, Kokonoyé, Yufu, Onsen and Tara. The volcanoes are all dormant.

(8) The Ryukyu volcanic chain, starting with the Aso volcano, taking in Kirishima, Sakurajima and Kalmon and extending to the Ryukyu Islands, where it connects Iwojima, Kuchino-Irabé-jima, Kuchinosé, Nakano-jima, Suwanosé, Waraiwa-jima, Tori-shima and Aguni-shima.

(9) The amphibolite andesite volcanic chain, which connects Aono-yama of Shimane prefecture and Tokusa of Yamaguchi, appears then in Kinpo-zan and Shiguma-daké near Tokuyama, and Himé-jima of Suo, meets with the Inland Sea chain and runs to Yufu, Kokonoyé and a part of Aso, and extends as far as Luzon Island, sinking to the bottom of the ocean west of the Ryukyu Islands on the way and then running along the eastern coast of Taiwan.

(10) The Fuji volcanic chain, which cuts across the heart of the Main Island from the coast of the Japan Sea to that of the Pacific Ocean, and continues to the Izu, Bonin, Sulphur, Mariana and Caroline Islands, including such mountains as Myoko, Togakushi-yama, Tate-shina-yama, Yatsuga-daké, Fuji-san, Hakoné and Amagi on the Main Island.

(11) The Chishima volcanic chain, which comes into Hokkaido from the Chishima, runs along the Ezo mountain system, suddenly turns to the north and seems to disappear in Karafuto.

The Japanese volcanic mountains are composed of four kinds of rocks: pyroxene andesite, amphibolite andesite, bronzite andesite and basalt. Fuji, Iwaki, Chokai, Gatsu-san, Nasu, Hakkoda, Iwaté, Bantai, Akagi and Haruna are of pyroxene andesite. In southern Japan, the Kirishima volcanic range is composed of the same rock, which is, indeed, the most widely distributed in the Japanese volcanoes. Amphibolite andesite is discovered in the mountains which belong to the inner volcanic chains—Hakusan, Dai-sen and Mitsubé-yama. It shows itself in Taté-yama, Norikura and Ontaké also, but is most evident in the Kyushu volcanoes. Bronzite andesite is limited to the district of Kinki, near Osaka, and the volcanic mountains and islands in and along the

Inland Sea. Basalt is distributed in Chugoku and the northern Kyushu districts, exposing itself at the Basalt Cave of Toyooka, Hyogo prefecture, Oné-shima, Hamada, Hagi, the Aburatani Gulf and Fukué of the Goto Islands.

Seas and Coast-line

With the exception of the northern frontiers of Chosen and Karafuto, every part of the Empire is surrounded by water. To the east is the Pacific, washing the Chishima, Hokkaido, Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu, the Ryukyu, Taiwan and the mandated islands north of the equator. Between the Chishima and Karafuto is the Sea of Okhotsk, and between Karafuto and the continent the Gulf of Tartary, known to the Japanese as the Mamiya Straits. The Sea of Japan lies between Honshu and the eastern shore of Chosen. To the west of Chosen is the Yellow Sea, or Hwanghai, opening into the Eastern China Sea, or Tunghai, which touches Kyushu, the Ryukyu and Taiwan. Purely Japanese is the famous Inland Sea, enclosed by Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu.

The Depths The greatest depth yet discovered in these surrounding seas is 9,439 meters, sounded by the warship *Manshu* in 1926 between Honshu and Ogasawara Is. 30° 49' N. Lat. and 142° 18' E. Long. Previously the record was the 8,517 meters of the *Tasccarora* Deep, named for the American warship which made a survey in 1874, sometimes called the Kurile-Japanese Trench, which lies along the Chishima for about 644 kilometers. The other seas are shallower than the Pacific. The Sea of Okhotsk, which is estimated to have an area of 1,527,007.73 square kilometers, has a mean depth of 838 meters. The Sea of Japan, estimated to extend over 1,007,307.41 square kilometers, has a maximum depth of 3,440 meters and a mean depth of 1,350 meters. The Eastern China Sea, except near the Ryukyu and Taiwan, is less deep. With a length of about 354 kilometers and a maximum width of 77 kilometers, the Inland Sea covers 3,430.43 square kilometers and reaches its greatest depth at 124 meters.

The Currents Two ocean currents with important climatic effects are the Kuroshio, meaning black current, which sailors know as the Japan stream, and the Oyashio, meaning main current, which foreigners often call the Kurile stream. The first is warm and the second cold. Arising from the North

Equatorial Current north of the Philippines, the Kuroshio flows along the eastern side of Taiwan and the southern islands of the Ryukyu to about 20° N. Lat., where it splits, the main part moving to the eastern coasts of Kyushu, Shikoku and Honshu and then bearing eastward past the Aleutian Islands to the North American coast and the offshoot flowing to the west of Kyushu and into the Sea of Japan. Varying in width from 160 to 805 kilometers, depending on the position and the season of the year, it is usually from 5° to 15° C. warmer than the rest of the ocean. The Oyashio originates in the Arctic, washes the eastern shores of the Chishima, Hokkaido and Honshu, meeting the Kuroshio at Kinkazan. From the Sea of Okhotsk, another cold current enters the Sea of Japan through the Gulf of Tartary and flows along the Chosen coast.

Tides Tides in the Japanese Empire show wide variation. High on the shores of the Yellow Sea and the Eastern China Sea, they reach from 10.4 to 10.7 meters at Jinsen, or Chemulpo, Chosen, and 5.5 meters at Milke, Omuta on Tsukushi Bay, Kyushu, but in the Sea of Japan they average little more than 0.6 meter. Along the Sea of Okhotsk, they range from 1.2 to 1.5 meters; along the Pacific coast, from 1.8 to 2.7 meters; and in the Inland Sea, from 1.8 to 4 meters.

Coast-line The coast-line is exceptionally long, being 32,231.787 kilometers for the whole Empire, exclusive of the Kwantung L.T. and the mandated South Sea Islands. For Japan proper, it is 30,605.458 kilometers, which means a kilometer to every 12.43 square kilometers of area, and for Chosen 18,203.726 kilometers, a kilometer to every 12.12 square kilometers. The shores of the Sea of Japan are comparatively regular, but those on the Pacific are indented with a large number of gulfs, bays and inlets, many of which afford excellent anchorages. Japan proper has more than 1,400 harbors, about half of which are utilized for trading. The best harbors of Chosen are on the Yellow Sea and the Chosen Channel. Hokkaido, Karafuto and Taiwan are less fortunate in capacious shelters for ships.

Mountains

In Japan proper, there are 250 mountains with peaks higher than 2,000 meters above sea level, the highest be-

ing the celebrated Mount Fuji, which lifts its white cap sublimely 3,773 meters above the beautiful Suruga Gulf. Chosen has 51 and Taiwan 130 mountains in the same category, but the latter has five peaks higher than Mount Fuji, Nittaka-yama, 3,950 meters, being the highest mountain in the Japanese Empire. The highest mountains in Japan proper are converged in the central part of the Main Island in the prefectures of Nagano, Toyama, Yamanashi, Shizuoka and Gifu, but there are, of course, many other mountains famous geographically and historically in other parts of the country.

MOUNTAINS

(Above 2,500 meters)

Name	Location	Height (m.)
Japan Proper		
Fuji	Shizuoka	3,773
Kita	Yamanashi	3,192
Manodaké	Shizuoka	3,189
Yarigadaké	Nagano	3,180
Akaiishi	Nagano	3,120
Okuhotaka	Nagano	3,103
Higashimata	Nagano	3,095
Shirané	Nagano	3,093
Ontaké	Nagano	3,093
Hotaka	Nagano	3,090
Arakawa	Shizuoka	3,083
Shiomi	Shizuoka	3,047
Senjo	Yamanashi	3,033
Minamidaké	Nagano	3,032
Kitahotaka	Gifu	3,032
Nootori	Shizuoka	3,026
Norikura	Gifu	3,026
Hijiri	Shizuoka	3,011
Tsurugi	Toyama	2,998
Tatéyama	Toyama	2,992
Suisho	Toyama	2,977
Komagadaké	Yamanashi	2,966
Marishiten	Gifu	2,959
Shiroma	Toyama	2,933
Yakushi	Toyama	2,926
Goro	Toyama	2,924
Mae-Hotaka	Gifu	2,908
Yari	Toyama	2,903
Akadaké	Nagano	2,900
Kasa	Gifu	2,897
Kashima-Yari	Toyama	2,890
Wakaréyama	Toyama	2,885
Mitsudaké	Nagano	2,873
Jodo	Toyama	2,872
Mamaoya	Gifu	2,868
Komori	Shizuoka	2,865
Akaushi	Toyama	2,864
Karaki	Nagano	2,864
Rengé	Nagano	2,860
Sugoroku	Nagano	2,860
Mamako	Gifu	2,858

Name	Location	Height (m.)	Name	Location	Height (m.)
Misawa	Nagano	2,840	Nokogiri	Nagano	2,605
Minami	Nagano	2,840	Dainichi	Toyama	2,605
Ho-o	Yamanashi	2,841	Chausu	Nagano	2,600
Washiwa	Toyama	2,841	Kimpo	Yamanashi	2,599
Nakanomata	Toyama	2,840	Fudo	Toyama	2,595
Nakadaké	Toyama	2,839	Kokushi	Yamanashi	2,592
Subari	Nagano	2,838	Hikari	Nagano	2,591
Mitsumata	Nagano	2,835	Tsuji	Yamanashi	2,585
Yoko	Nagano	2,830	Shirané	Tochigi	2,577
Misumi	Nagano	2,830	Nagabéi	Nagano	2,565
Masago	Nagano	2,826	Okaramatsu	Yamanashi	2,555
Ebisu	Gifu	2,823	Itotaké	Nagano	2,554
Osawa	Shizuoka	2,819	Nanakura	Nagano	2,550
Nukido	Gifu	2,812	Asama	Guruma	2,542
Kogochi	Nagano	2,805	Kurohi	Nagano	2,540
Kamikochi	Nagano	2,803	Tatésima	Nagano	2,530
Rengé	Toyama	2,799	Ushikubi	Toyama	2,527
Choko	Yamanashi	2,799	Amikasa	Yamanashi	2,524
Onidaké	Nagano	2,799	Nittadaké	Shizuoka	2,524
Asahi	Nagano	2,786	Maédaké	Nagano	2,520
Gongen	Nagano	2,786	Kohikagé	Nagano	2,505
Takaminé	Yamanashi	2,779	Minoto	Nagano	2,500
Rengé	Nilgata	2,769	Chosen		
Akaiwa	Nagano	2,769	Hakuto	Kankyondo	2,744
Tsubakuro	Nagano	2,763	Kanbo-san	Kankyohokudo	2,541
Yakushi	Yamanashi	2,762	Hokusuhaku	Kankyondo	2,522
Jonen	Nagano	2,757	Shonichi	Kankyondo	2,506
Tatésawa	Nagano	2,754	Taiwan		
Yotsutaké	Gifu	2,744	Nittaka	Taichushu	3,950
Iwo	Nagano	2,742	Tsugitaka	Taichushu	3,931
Shogigashira	Nagano	2,727	Shukoan	Karenkocho	3,833
Kotaro	Yamanashi	2,725	Maboras	Taichushu	3,806
Kiso	Nagano	2,721	Nankotaizan	Karenkocho	3,797
Minamimasago	Nagano	2,710	Chuosenzan	Karenkocho	3,715
Alcazawa	Nagano	2,706	Kanzan	Kantochu	3,667
Hoéisan	Shizuoka	2,702	Taisukutsu	Taichushu	3,645
Shiasan	Nagano	2,700	Kirai-shuzan	Karenkocho	3,605
Kitarakawa	Shizuoka	2,698	Toguntaisan	Taichushu	3,605
Jiji	Nagano	2,657	Daisétsu	Taichushu	3,600
Karamatsu	Nagano	2,646	Taihasenzan	Shinchikushu	3,573
Narusawa	Nagano	2,697	Sétsupó	Takaoshu	3,569
Chogataké	Nagano	2,664	Takushatai	Taichushu	3,488
Kitanomata	Toyama	2,661	Tórantáizan	Taichushu	3,465
Kamigataké	Nagano	2,667	Gókanzan	Taichushu	3,394
Kitami	Nagano	2,667	Nangyoku	Takaoshu	3,391
Iwagoyazawa	Nagano	2,696	To-zan	Shinchikushu	3,390
Néishi	Toyama	2,661	Shinkan	Karenkocho	3,381
Karasawa	Nagano	2,632	Hitsuroku	Karenkocho	3,379
Hakusan	Ishikawa	2,631	Tantaizan	Karenkocho	3,371
Zarugataké	Shizuoka	2,629	Hakkotaizan	Taichushu	3,349
Gakidaké	Nagano	2,627	Nansoto	Karenkocho	3,333
Minamizawa	Nagano	2,625	Nókozannanpó	Karenkocho	3,333
Washitaké	Toyama	2,625	Pinnanshuzan	Takaoshu	3,305
Eboshitaké	Nagano	2,621	Kantakumanzan	Taichushu	3,304
Fudosan	Nagano	2,621	Kashipanán	Karenkocho	3,294
Senninyama	Toyama	2,617	Guntaizan	Taichushu	3,292
Tobiyama	Toyama	2,614	Tarokotaizan	Karenkocho	3,292
Otakiyama	Nagano	2,614	Koséki	Takaoshu	3,255
Koéhyaku	Nagano	2,613			
Yukikura	Toyama	2,611			

Name	Location	Height (m.)
Nōkō	Karenkocho	3,252
Byobu	Karenkocho	3,234
Taibu	Taitocho	3,232
Senzan	Karenkocho	3,222
Batotsunofu	Taihokushu	3,221
Hainotonan	Taitocho	3,175
Mablsan	Taihokushu	3,167
Hakusēki	Karenkocho	3,138
Wanoshin	Takaoshu	3,132
Antogun	Karenkocho	3,089
Rantalzan	Taichushu	3,076
Kanmon	Karenkocho	3,052
Taisēkiko	Karenkocho	3,048
Kosētsu	Taichushu	3,043
Bokyo	Taichushu	3,028
Unsu	Kantocho	3,010
Burakusan	Kantocho	2,992
Ronbutan	Karenkocho	2,948
Sēkisui	Tainanshu	2,895
Kokolbo	Karenkocho	2,883
Hēigan	Taichushu	2,879
Sēkisan	Takaoshu	2,877
Sentogan	Takaoshu	2,862
Rokurin	Taichushu	2,859
Hattsusēki	Taichushu	2,841
Manmen	Takaoshu	2,840
Nantaibu	Kantocho	2,831
Mito	Takaoshu	2,822
Toho	Taichushu	2,809
Surabatan	Takaoshu	2,747
Kinajiri	Shinchikushu	2,713
Sēkisan	Taichushu	2,694
Sansui	Karenkocho	2,692
Rokujotal	Shinchikushu	2,684
Taito	Taichushu	2,663
Takai	Taihokushu	2,657
Kēinan	Takaoshu	2,642
Sui	Tainanshu	2,627
Futako	Karenkocho	2,577
Kodama	Tainanshu	2,568
Rinparapara	Takaoshu	2,555
Matsuyama	Taichushu	2,551
Gunko	Taichushu	2,532
Tozan	Tainanshu	2,520
Mubēyama	Karenkocho	2,514
Shukusan	Taichushu	2,504

OTHER FAMOUS MOUNTAINS

(Below 2,500 m.)

Oh-u district

Name	Height (m.)
Iwaki-yama ¹	1,625
Hakkoda-yama	1,585
Moriyoshi-yama	1,454
Iwatē-yama	2,041

¹ The suffixes: yama, také, daké, san, zan, miné, and sen—all mean "mountain."

Name	Height (m.)
Komaga-také	1,637
Chokai-san	2,230
Gassan	1,924
Zao-san	1,841
Funagata-yama	1,500
Azuma-san	2,024
Adachitaro-yama	1,700
Bandai-san	1,819
Otakiné-yama	1,193
Nasu-san	1,917
Taishaku-san	2,060
Nantai-san	2,484
Akagi-san	1,828
Haruna-san	1,448
Myogi-san	1,104
Mikuni-yama	1,828
Kobushi-také	2,483
Tanzawa-yama	1,567
Hakoné-yama	1,439
Tsukuba-yama	878

Kinki district (Kyoto, Osaka)

Oé-yama	833
Ibuki-yama	1,377
Hira-také	1,174
Kurama-yama	670
Hiei-san	848
Atago-yama	924
Rokko-san	932
Ikoma-yama	642
Kongo-san	1,112
Sanjo-také	1,720
Odaigahara-san	1,695
Shaka-také	1,800
Koya-san	985

Chugoku district

Kori-yama	1,510
Dalsen	1,713
Kanmuri-yama	1,339
Aono-yama	908

Shikoku Island

Tsurugi-yama	1,955
Sasaga-miné	1,860
Ishizuchi-yama	1,921
Onigashiro-yama	1,142

Kyushu district

Tsurumi-yama	1,375
Yufu-také	1,584
Tara-také	983
Aso-san	1,592
Unzen	1,360
Shiraga-yama	1,417
Sakurajima-také	1,118
Kaimon-také	924
Yaé-yama	1,935

Rivers

The Empire is abundantly watered by

numerous rivers, usually wide where they empty into the sea, but comparatively short in course and not navigable for many miles inland except by flat-bottomed craft. During the summer rainy season and when the mountain snows melt in the spring, torrents rush down them, often overflowing and causing damage; during the rest of the year, they dwindle to narrow and shallow streams. If of little use for transportation, they serve as reservoirs from which water is drawn for irrigation and increasingly as sources of electric power.

Total available hydro-electric power of rivers in Japan proper is estimated at 14,090,000 h.p., the power actually developed by the end of 1936 was about 5,039,321 h.p.

The major rivers, with navigable length, follow:

	Navigable Length in Length in Km. Km.	
Honshu		
Shinano	369	283
Toné	322	275
Kitakami	243	232
Kiso	232	86
Mogami	216	196
Tenryu	216	216
Gonokawa	200	153
Abukuma	196	149
Ara	177	89
Aka	169	149
Kumano	161	127
Hidaka	161	134
Fuji	161	70
Oh	154	86
Ohmono	149	137
Sho	149	55
Ibi	142	35
Yura	141	110
Sagami	141	75
Shikoku		
Yoshino	236	110
Shimanto	177	75
Kyushu		
Chikugo	141	86
Hokkaido		
Ishikari	365	361
Teshio	306	181
Tokachi	196	86
Tokoro	145	—
Karafuto		
Horonai	137	—
Taiwan		
Dakusulkéi	165	—
Shimotansulkéi	156	—
Sobunkéi	132	—

	Navigable Length in Length in Km. Km.	
Tansuigawa	130	—
Chosen		
Ohryokko	790	698
Rakutoko	525	344
Tomanko	521	85
Kanko	514	330
Daldoko	439	260
Kinko	401	130
Ringhinko	254	124
Séisenko	199	152
Réiséiko	174	65

Lakes

The Empire contains numerous lakes, especially in Honshu and Hokkaido, remarkable for their beautiful setting rather than extent. The most interesting are those high above sea level, formed in most cases by volcanic eruptions damming the head-waters of rivers.

The major lakes, with their height above sea level, area and depth follow:

	Above Sea Level Area Depth (m.) (Sq. km.) (m.)		
Honshu			
Biwako	86.3	716.31	95.0
Hachirogata	0	223.29	4.7
Kasumigaura	2.0	189.17	7.6
Inawashiroko	514.0	104.83	102.0
Nakanoumi	0	101.60	14.0
Shinjiko	1.0	82.32	6.4
Towadako	401.0	78.02	378.0
Hamanako	0	72.04	15.8
Ogaranuma	1.5	62.26	27.0
Kitaura	1.0	39.85	10.0
Imbanuma	2.5	25.95	1.0
Tazawako	250.0	25.65	425.0
Kahokugata	0.8	22.85	2.0
Jusangata	0	20.87	3.0
Ibauchiko	86.3	15.40	3.1
Suwako	759.0	14.45	7.0
Karénuma	—	12.20	3.3
Teganuma	2.5	11.88	2.9
Chuzenjiko	1,271.0	11.29	170.0
Oguraiké	10.0	7.90	1.7
Hirofuchiko	3.0	7.12	2.3
Ashinoko	723.2	7.09	43.5
Kumihamako	0	7.08	20.0
Kyushu			
Ikédako	66.0	10.98	233.0
Hokkaido			
Saromako	0	150.53	19.0
Kutcharoko	120.0	85.54	125.0
Shikotsuko	248.0	76.18	363.0
Toyako	83.0	74.54	183.0
Notoriko	0	58.49	22.0
Furenko	0	52.13	11.0

	Above Sea Level (m.)	Area (Sq. km.)	Depth (m.)
Abashiriko	0	34.04	17.6
Akkéshikanko	0	31.09	6.9
Mashuko	345.0	20.00	211.5
Tonbetsuko	0	15.00	3.2
Akanko	399.0	12.93	36.6
Karafuto			
Taralkako	0	180.06	1.8
Tominakko	0	168.18	34.0
Tofuchiko	0	40.43	6.4
Kuchishiko	0	34.77	3.7
Waniko	0	34.18	6.4
Chibésanko	0	11.20	7.7
Ontoko	0	7.61	4.6
Taiwan			
Takaokanko	1.2	22.66	1.2
Jitsugétsutan	5.2	4.44	5.2
Chosen			
Hiroko	—	13.28	—
Koshitashiko	—	8.27	—
Amaké	—	7.74	—
Choenko	—	7.42	—

Flora

In summer the southern part of Japan experiences tropical weather, while in winter the districts north of the north-eastern provinces are subject to arctic cold. But owing to ample rainfall, the growth of plants in Japan is in general very rich, yet agriculture occupies so large a proportion of area as to restrict not only the natural distribution of flora and fauna, but a scientific study of the subject as well.

The flora of Japan is by most botanists divided into four zones:

- Tropical forest zone, or the banian (*Ficus retusa*) zone.
- Subtropical forest zone, or the kashi (*Quercus acuta*) zone.
- Temperate forest zone, or the beech-tree (*Fagus Sieboldi*) zone.
- Arctic forest zone, or the dwarf mountain fir (*Pinus pumila*) zone.

I. The Tropical Forest Zone The tropical forest zone, or the banian zone, covers those portions of the plain of Taiwan lower than 450 m. above sea level, as well as the Ryukyu, Ogasawara, Sulphur and the South Sea Islands. The aerial roots of the *Ficus retusa* are not so large as those of the banian in India, but the species grows in abundance and to a great height, sending down its aerial roots into the ground like the tentacles of an octopus. In some parts of Sulphur Islands, the Ryukyu Islands and Taiwan it forms impenetrable for-

ests. The coconut tree is rare but grows well. In Taiwan the pineapple thrives naturally, while the Agave American grows quite tall. The cycad (*Cycas revoluta*), the tree fern (*Cyathea spinulosa*), the coffee plant (*Coffea Arabica*), the gum tree, the orange tree, the sugarcane, the mangifera (*Mangifera Indica*) and the papaw-tree (*Carica papaya*) grow luxuriantly.

II. The Subtropical Forest Zone The subtropical forest zone, or the oak zone is limited to altitudes of from 450 to 1,800 m. in Taiwan, and as low as sea level in the northern half of the Ryukyu Islands. The plains of Kyushu, Shikoku, that part of the Main Island south of 35 degrees North Latitude, and the southern half of the Chosen peninsula belong to this zone, the temperature here being from 13° to 21°C. (55° to 70°F), and the altitude below 1,120 m. at Mount Kirishima in Kyushu; 650 m. in the northern part of the same island; 760 m. in Shikoku, 800 m. in Chugoku or west of Kobé; 500 m. in the Tokaido districts; and 460 m. at Tsukuba-yama in the Kanto district.

Plants peculiar to this zone are those which belong to such species as the camphor-tree, the oak, the camellia, and the Ternstroemia Japonica, evergreen and latifoliate. On sandy shores, where the sea wind is strong, the black pine (*Pinus thunbergii*) grows, with spreading, contorted branches, an indispensable element of the Japanese landscape, made familiar to the world through the paintings of Hokusai and Hiroshige. In the southern part of this zone the camphor-tree (*Cinnamomum camphora*) is abundant. The hemp-palm (*Trachycarpus excelsa*), the Nagi (*Podocarpus nagi*), the banana plant (*Musa basjoo*) and the cycad are planted as ornamental trees, and grow to a good size. Agricultural plants in this zone are rice, barley, soy-bean, red-bean, German millet, the field cabbage (*Brassica campestris*), colza, cotton (*Gossypium herbaceum*), indigo-plant, tea-plant, mulberry-tree, mandarin orange, as well as the sugar-cane and the potato. In this zone there is only one rice crop a year while in the first zone it is harvested twice a year.

III. The Temperate Forest Zone The temperate forest zone, or beech-tree zone, lies north of the 2nd zone in the Main Island, the south-western part of Hokkaido, more than half of its whole

area, and in the mountainous portions of Chosen; it begins at 37.5 degrees north latitude at the coast and 35° in the Main Island, and ends at 43.5° in the central part of Hokkaido. The temperature of these areas is from 6° to 13° C. (42°-56° F.). In Taiwan, the mountain valleys which are between 1,800 and 4,550 m. above sea level belong to this zone, and there grow the crytomeria, the *Picea jezoensis*, the hemlock and the Taiwan five-leaf pine (*Pinus parviflora*). The representative species of this zone in the Main Island is the beech, but it is almost extinct because of commercial exploitation. In Niigata prefecture grow many species of deciduous latifoliate trees, such as the oak (*Quercus glandulifera*), the *Quercus crispula* and the horse-chestnut (*Aesculus turbinata*), while among these, in some places are found varieties of acerous trees such as the Japanese cypress, the *Chamaecyparis obtusa*, the hatchet leaved arborvitae (*Thuopsis dolabrata*), the fir (*Abies firma*), the *Tsuga Sieboldii*, the *Abies homolepis*, the Chosen pine (*Pinus koraiensis*), the *Larix kaempferi*, and the like. The timber line of this zone is 4,550 m. in Taiwan,—Kyushu, Chugoku, Kinki or the Kyoto-Osaka districts have no mountain which rises above this line; 2,000 m. in Shikoku; 1,700-1,760 m. in Shizuoka prefecture; 1,500 m. in Nagano and Yamanashi prefectures; 1,400-1,000 m. in the northern districts of the Main Island; 450 m. in the southern part of Hokkaido, and down to sea level in the center of Hokkaido.

The agricultural plants in this zone are barley, wheat, soy-bean, red-bean, German millet, the *Panicum frumentaceum* and the peanut. In the north rice is often subject to damage from early frost. The forests in the southern half of this zone are the most beautiful in Japan, especially those sections dominated by trees of the Kiso valley, namely the Japanese cypress, the *Thuja standishii*, the *Thuopsis dolabrata*, and the *Sciadopitys verticillata*. The crytomeria forms vast natural forests in Akita prefecture.

IV. The Arctic Forest Zone The arctic forest zone, or the dwarf mountain fir zone, occupies the mountain elevations above 4,500 m. in Taiwan, and does not exist in Kyushu, except in small patches above 800 m. on the mountains. In the central part of Japan, Fuji, Ontaké, the Nikko and many other mountains are in this zone, while in

Shikoku the belt lies between 1,800 m. to 2,580 m. The *Abies veitchii*, the fir-tree (*Abies sachalinensis*), the hemlock, the *Larix kaempferi*, the *Abies firma*, the yew-tree, the *Alnus firma*, the *Sorbaria randaiensis* and the Alpine-rose (*Rhododendron bymianthes*) grow in this zone, but the principal trees differ according to districts. In Taiwan, the *Abies sachalinensis* is the principal tree, the *Abies veitchii* on Kiso, Fuji, the Nikko and other high mountains located within 40 degrees north latitude in the Main Island; the *Abies firma* and the *Larix kaempferi* in the districts further north, and the *Abies sachalinensis* again in Aomori prefecture. In Hokkaido and Karafuto the *Abies sachalinensis* and the spruce (*Picea ajanensis*) grow plentifully, but are not found in the Main Island. In addition, in Karafuto, the larch flourishes, as also does the *Juniperus chinensis* along the seashore.

Marine Flora According to Dr. Okamura, the marine flora of Japan in the Pacific Ocean is divided into two by Oshima Island, to the south of which, including the Ogasawara Islands, is the Tropical division, while from north of Oshima to Kinkazan lies the Temperate division. The ocean district north of Kinkazan belongs to the Arctic division, although at the southern end of this division can be found, to a certain extent, Temperate-zone seaweeds. On the western side of Japan, that is, along the coast of the Japan Sea, the Tropical and Temperate seaweed zones are divided at Makurasaki or Noma Peninsula at the west end of Kyushu Island, while the arctic zone begins at the Tsugaru Straits.

Chosen As may be inferred from the geographical relation existing between the continent and the peninsula on the one hand and between the latter and Japan on the other, the flora of the northern part (38°-43° N.Lat.) of the peninsula bears a great resemblance to that of the eastern Asiatic continent, while the flora of the southern part has a close resemblance with that of the western part of the Main Island of Japan.

Dense forests of conifers are frequently seen in the northern districts. *Pinus koraiensis* is a species commonly found there. The flora of the northern half has many northern elements and bears a close relation to the flora of Manchuria and Siberia.

Elements characteristic of northern China are also to be found in the flora of the western part of Chosen. Endemic genera are comparatively few,—a characteristic of continental floras. Among the endemic genera, *Hanabusaya Nakai* and *Chosenia Nakai* may be mentioned as the most interesting. Both genera are monotypic, the former belonging to the family Campanulacæ, and the latter to the family Salicacæ.

The South Sea Islands *Pamphis acedula*, *Scaevola frutescens* and *Tournefortia agentea* grow on the shore. Coconut palms and screw pines grow among the littoral bushes. *Allophylus timorensis* and *Wedelia biflora* are the most common species and form a dense growth in the interior of the islands. Generally speaking, the flora of the islands is extremely poor as far as the number of species is concerned. This suggests that it is of comparatively recent origin.

Classification For a full classification of nearly 20,000 species of Japanese flora we refer to the "Illustrated Book of Botany" published by a Tokyo Botanical Association.

Fuji, Sakura, Sumiré, Susuki, and Kiku

According to Dr. Makino species of the phanerogamæ alone number from 8,000 to 10,000 in Japan proper. Among this great number of plants, there are many which are specially Japanese and unique in the botanical world. Several of the most prominent of these plants are briefly dealt with in the following paragraphs.

Fuji (*Kraunhia floribunda*) Fuji or wistaria is a plant peculiar to Japan. Chinese wistaria differs from that of Japan, and strangely enough no Chinese wistaria is transplanted in Japan, while it is found in Europe and America. The Chinese wistaria is the so-called *murasaki fuji*, or purple wistaria.

The Japanese wistaria is divided into two species, viz. fuji and yama fuji (*Kraunhia brachybotrya*), or wild wistaria. Both grow in mountains, but are often cultivated in gardens. Yama fuji grows wild in Shikoku, Kyushu, and Chugoku and their vines are sinistral. Its flower is larger in size, but the raceme is short. Some yama fuji found in nurseries have white flowers and are called *shira fuji*, or white wistaria. It is a variety of yama fuji. The ordinary

fuji grows wild all over Japan and its vines are dextral. Wistaria found in Nara Park and that in Kasukabé in Saitama prefecture belong to this species. Its flower-clusters sometimes measure several feet long.

Sakura Sakura, or cherry-blossom, is celebrated in Japan from olden times. Yama-zakura (zakura is the euphonic form of sakura in the compound), (*Prunus serrulata* var. *spondanea*), or wild cherry blossom, is the most important of all species of cherry blossoms.

This species grows in the districts stretching from Kyushu in the south to Kinki (near Kyoto) in the Main Island. Many places which are noted for this sakura are found in the belt lying between these two districts. The most famous of them is Yoshino Yama near Nara.

Certain scientists have attempted to call it *shiro yamazakura*, or white wild cherry, because they have the name of *beni yamazakura*, or red wild cherry, to the other species. But the name *oyamazakura* (*Prunus serrulata* var. *sachalinensis*) has already been given to this red wild cherry.

Oyamazakura grows in the mountain districts of the Central provinces, Tohoku, Hokkaido and Karafuto.

The ordinary yamazakura grow in mountains and are planted in public and private gardens or along public roads.

The so-called *satosakura*, or village cherry, does not grow in the mountains. They must have varied from the original yamazakura.

The sakura which is called *Yoshino-zakura* by florists and is widespread today all over the country with Tokyo as the center, is known as *somel-yoshino* (*Prunus yedoensis*), among botanists. It appeared in Tokyo at the beginning of the Meiji Era. But where florists at *Somel* got its seedlings is not known. It was about 1872 that they were planted in Ueno Park.

The *somel-yoshino* was found only in Tokyo up till 1902, when it was transplanted elsewhere.

Higan-zakura belongs to a different species. It is divided into two classes in botany. The trunk of one class is large, while that of the other is small. The former is found in Ueno Park, Tokyo, and the latter is rarely seen in the Kanto district.

The small *higan-zakura*, however, is found everywhere in Kansai (West Main-

land) district and its blossoms are prettier than the other variety.

The large *higan-zakura* is not found in such great numbers as the other. *Jindai-zakura* of Nagano, and *Ishiwari-zakura* of Iwaté belong to this species. *Shidaré-zakura* (the willow sakura) also comes from this species and is called *azuma-higan*.

Sumiré (*Viola mandaurica*) The species of *sumiré* is called *viola* in botany and *violet* is the popular English name, while *sumiré* is the popular Japanese name. This name is said to have derived from the carpenter's "sumitsubo" or "sumiré," or India inkstand made of wood resembling the flower in shape. Hence "sumiré" became gradually "sumiré."

In botany, *sumiré* is restricted to a species with flowers of deep purple-colour. Varieties are *ko-sumiré*, *tsubo-sumiré* (*Viola verecunda*), *tachitsubo-sumiré* (*Viola grypoceras*) *akané-sumiré* (*Viola phalacrocarpa*), *ezo-sumiré*, *Ki-sumiré*, *tsukushi-sumiré* (*Viola diffusa*), etc.

In Japan there are more than a hundred species. No other country in the world compares with Japan in this respect.

Susuki (*Miscanthus sinensis*) *Susuki*, or pampass grass is called in some places *kaya*. The tassel-like bunches of its flowers are called "obana," which is included among *Nanakusa*, or seven herbs. (See Chap. XXXVII, Calendar of Annual Events).

The graceful form of *susuki* with *obana* on them has been the subject of many celebrated poems. *Susuki* grows abundantly on mountains and in fields.

Kiku (*Chrysanthemum sinense*) *Kiku* or chrysanthemum is a celebrated flower in Japan. It is the national flower and is used as the Imperial crest.

The Chinese chrysanthemum, from which the Japanese *kiku* is derived, had been cultivated in China before it was transplanted to Japan.

The scientific name of this flower is *Chrysanthemum sinense*. *Sinense* is the name of the species and means China. *Chrysanthemum sinense* means the Chinese chrysanthemum and *Chrysanthemum japonicum*, is the scientific name of the Japanese chrysanthemum or *ryuno-giku*. *Chrysanthemum arcticum*, or arctic chrysanthemum, is the scientific name for *kohamagiku*.

The chrysanthemums which were cultivated by Chinese horticulturists were

brought into Japan and grew into countless varieties of the chrysanthemum of to-day. In 1884 it was found by Dr. T. Makino, that the original *Chrysanthemum sinense*, which were thought to have existed only in the old China, grows in Ryukyu Islands, Kyushu, Shikoku and the part of the Main Island west of Kobé. He gave it the name of *nojigiku* (*Chrysanthemum sinense* var. *japonense*).

Fauna

Japan possesses an exceedingly rich and varied fauna closely related to the adjacent continent and classified into two principal groups, the Palearctic, and the Oriental. Of these the Palearctic elements are chiefly found in the northern territories, such as the Kuriles, Karafuto, Hokkaido, Japan proper, and Chosen, while the Oriental ones range over the islands of Taiwan and Ryukyu.

Because birds and animals can move their habitat it is more difficult to classify them but, in general, Taiwan, the Ryukyu, and the Ogasawara Islands belonging to the so-called Oriental zone, according to the world biological division, and include such tropical animals as the buffalo (*Bubalus bubalis*), the Taiwan leopard (*Felis dardi brachyurus*), the Manis pentadactyla and the big snakes. Tropical insects are found in abundance. In Ryukyu live such rare species as the *Trimeresurus flavoviridis*, a poisonous snake, and the leaf-butterfly (*Kallima inachus formosana*). South of Bird Island, Izu, albatross frequent the blue waters; while in the Ogasawara Islands and southward the Japanese white-eye congregate. On Sulphur Island tropical birds with red tails can often be seen. From Kyushu northward according to the biological theory, extends the Palearctic zone with its fauna of the Temperate zone, specially domestic animals; while the wild animals found are the antelope (*Capriornis crispus*), deer (*Sika nippon*), wild boar (*Sus leucomystax*), bear (*Ursus torquatus japonicus*), fox (*Vulpes vulpes japonicus*), badger (*Nyctereutes procyonoides*), the *Meles anakuma*, the *Martes melampus*, and the squirrel (*Sciurus lis*). Different species of monkeys are also found. Among birds there are the green pheasant (*Phasianus versicolor versicolor*), copper pheasant (*Graphophasianus soemmerringii scintillas*), snowy heron (*Egretta garzetta garzetta*), hawk

(*Astus gentilis schvedowi*, etc.); the crow (*Corvus coronoides japonensis*) is most common. In the northeastern districts of the Main Island, and in the high mountains, are found all the birds of the north, and also such arctic rovers as the hare (*Lepus brachyurus brachyurus*) and the ptarmigan (*Lagopus mutus japonicus*) both of which become white in winter. In Chosen, the hedgehog (*Erinaceus koreanus*), tiger (*Felis tigris coreensis*), Chosen pheasant (*Phasianus colchicus karpowii*), crane (*Megalonis japonensis*) and the like are seen.

As there is a wide difference between the kinds of animals in the Main Island and Chosen, so also is there quite a difference between those of the Main Island and Hokkaido. In Hokkaido the monkey is no longer seen; the Hokkaido bear (*Ursus arctos yesoensis*) takes the place of the bear (*Ursus torquatus japonicus*); while the species of deer, rat, squirrel and ptarmigan are unlike those of the Main Island.

Karafuto again differs from Hokkaido in its species of animals. The rat, squirrel and the *Ursus arctos yesoensis* are the same, but there are also such species as musk-deer (*Moschus moschiferus parvipes*) and wild cat (*Lynx lynx borealis*), while in winter the tiger comes across the frozen sea from the nearby continent.

Coming to the urodele, there are various species, the majority of them being considered as peculiar and finding their homes in the southern district. Such species are represented by *Hynobius peropus*, which is found at high denburgi, etc. One of the most noteworthy is the giant salamander (*Megalobatrachus japonicus*), which inhabits the cool mountain streams of provinces in Honshu, south of Gifu, and also in Kyushu. As the representative of the northern district may be recorded *Hynobius peropus*, which is found at high altitudes. Extensively distributed in Japan proper are *Diemictylus pyrrhogaster* and *Onychodactylus japonicus*, the former being the commonest of all.

Freshwater fishes are known for their immense variety of species, but many of them appear to be rather limited in distribution. Some are confined to particular river valleys, others inhabit the lakes of a limited district only, while still others are restricted to a comparatively narrow area. Generally speaking, the following species inhabit the south-

ern districts: *Achellognathus limbatus*, *Sarcocheilichthys variegatus*, *Opsarichthys uncirostris*, *Zacco temminskii*, *Brittosus kawamebari*, *Sicyopterus japonicus*, *Rhinogobius hadropterus*, etc. Ranging over the northern area are found such species as *Oncorhynchus*, *Pseudoperilampus typus*, *Chloea senbae*, etc. Widely spread over Japan proper occurs ayu or *Plecoglossus altivelis*. The river Nagara, in Gifu prefecture, is famous for its fishing with the cormorant.

MARINE FAUNA

Greatly influenced by ocean currents Japanese waters command a very rich and varied marine fauna, there being found two types of animal life, the northern and the southern. Neglecting here some southern and northern elements, which have their northern limits in the Behring Sea and the southern off the Ogasawara group respectively, the following three faunal areas may be more or less clearly recognized, though contiguous zones blend one into the other.

Northern Zone (Chishima to Kinkazan) This district is frankly sub-arctic, containing animals characteristic of the Behring Sea on the one hand, and of the Okhotsk Sea on the other. Amongst the carnivorous mammals the sea otter (*Enhydra lutris*) is circumpolar in range, being confined to the north of Hokkaido, while the Stellar sea lion (*Eumetopias jubata*) and several seals (*Phoca vitulina*, *Ph. fasciata*, etc.) frequent the more southern waters, some of them occasionally appearing in the seas off Hokkaido and Amurland. The northern fur seal (*Callorhynchus ursinus*) which is of economic importance particularly abounds in Kaihyo-to (Seal I.), a small island near Saghalien and also on some islands of the Chishima group.

Turning to cetacea, there are three whalebone whales, such as *Balaena glacialis*, *B. mysticetus*, and *Rhachianectes glaucus*.

Around the Chishima group, Hokkaido, and Saghalien are found in immense quantities fishes like the cod, salmon, and herring.

In comparatively shallower waters are found some ascidians, like *Halocynthia roretzi*, *Chelyosoma siboga*, *Molgula crystallina*, *M. redikorzevi*, etc. The first two are largely eaten in this country. Much less developed here than in the tropics are a number of echino-

derms.

Ranging from the Behring Sea to the Japan Sea occurs *Paralithodes camtschatica*. Its famous fishing grounds are the coasts of Kunashir and Saghalien. With this is associated the most edible crab, *Chionectes opilio*.

A large number of molluscs are found in this district, of which the most valuable species are *Ostrea gigas*, *Maclur sachalinensis*, *Pecten yesoensis*, *Ommastrephes sloani pacificus*, etc.

Amongst medusae, such forms as *Halicystus* spp., *Aurelia limbata*, *Cyanea* spp., *Chrysaora* spp., *Staurophora discoides*, and *Sarsia* spp. frequent the northern waters.

Middle Zone (Kinkazan to Shimonoseki) In this district the arctic or subarctic overlaps the tropical or subtropical fauna, there being distinguished a great variety of animals. Most of the types characteristically Japanese belong here, abounding in rock pools and about the rocky islands. Setting aside some mammals, northern and southern, some whalebone whales may be recorded here. The blue whale (*Balaenoptera Sieboldi*) which is of wide distribution and of migratory habits, appears off Kinkazan and Hokkaido in summer, and about Shikoku and Kyushu in winter. Swimming in schools in the seas around Japan proper and Hokkaido is found the common fin whale (*Bal. physalus*) which appears in the north in summer, and in the south in winter. The Sei whale (*Bal. borealis*) has a range almost similar to the preceding, extending from the southern Kuriles in the north to as far south as the Goto group. Their famous hunting grounds are off the southern Kuriles, Nemuro in Hokkaido, Kinkazan, the Shionomisaki, the Goto group, and Chosen.

Here intruded from the southern seas are found a few species of reptiles, like *Distoria cyanocincta*, *Hydrus platulus*, *Caretta olivacea*, and *Eretmochelys squamosa* which sometimes extend north up to Hokkaido.

The chief species of fishes, the occurrence of which marks this zone off from the others, may be said to be *Cynias manazo*, *Hyporhamphus sajori*, *Apogon semilineatus*, *Halichoeres poecilopterus*, etc. Some valuable fishes, as the Japanese porgy, bonito and tunny are caught here in immense quantities. Of scombroid fishes, *Scomber japonicus* and *Thunnus orientalis*

are found on both sides, the Pacific and the Japan Sea, extending from Saghalien and Hokkaido in the north to the East China Sea in the south. Besides, this district abounds in sardine (*Sardinea melanosticta*), which is replaced in the north by the herring and in the south by *Etrumeus micropus*. *Engraulis japonicus* also occurs in great abundance, having a range somewhat wider than the sardine. Here it may be noticed that, assuming the Boso peninsula near Tokyo to be a boundary, the species of the northern area gradually drop off, and the species of the southern area become more and more conspicuous. The reverse is true of the southern elements.

Amongst ascidians there are some species like *Halocynthia karasuboya*, *Microcosmus hartmeyeri*, *Styela kroboja*, etc.

Echinoderms are plentiful, being comprised of a number of interesting species of *Ophiostiba hidekii*, *Asteroschema japonicum*, brittle-stars, sea-urchins, and sea-cucumbers.

Amongst crustaceans, one of the most notable is a giant crab, *Macrocheira kaempferi*, which appears to be confined to this zone, on the Pacific side. *Neptunus trilobatus* is also endemic and ranges all around Japan proper. Having a range nearly similar to the giant crab is an edible spiny lobster, *Pallinurus japonicus*. Besides, there is a good catch of penaeid prawns which are decidedly stragglers from the southern zone.

In the Japan Sea the water is by no means simple or isolated, but compound and connected with those of other seas. Of fishes the bonito and *Euthynnus* are scarcely found in the Sea. Some crabs, like *Chionectes opilio*, etc., are of great commercial value and huge quantities are caught. Besides, some shrimps and prawns, belonging to the genera *Pandalus* and *Crangon*, are also found in abundance. Amongst the cephalopods, one of the most notable is an oegopsid, *Watasenia scintillans*, which emits luminescence. It appears abundantly in Toyama Bay, about May. *Ommastrephes sloani pacificus* is thickly and extensively distributed in the Sea, its thickest distribution roughly coinciding with the extension of the Tsushima stream.

Southern Zone The fauna about Kyushu and Shikoku is less charac-

teristically Japanese, having much in common with the neighboring shores of the islands of Ogasawara, Ryukyu, and Taiwan, where there are forms which are almost or quite identical with those met with about the southern islands of Java, Celebes, Borneo, etc.

Exclusive of the hair seal (*Zalophus lobatus*), occasionally appearing in this zone, there can be seen a few species of whalebone whales and toothed whales.

Extensively spread over this zone are some species of reptiles, such as *Laticauda laticaudata*, *L. colubrina*, *Emydocephalus ijimae*, *Disteira melanocephala*, etc., most of them being found not to range over to the middle zone.

Of fishes there is a number of forms which are of great economic importance. Of scombroid fishes, such forms as *Rastrelliger chrysozonus*, *Grammatocynus bilineatus*, and *Gymnosarda nuda* which inhabit the tropical seas have their range to Ryukyu; *Acanthocybium solandri* and *Euthynnus yaito* are spread, on the Pacific side, into the middle zone; and *Katsuwonus pelamis* is of very wide distribution, ranging from Taiwan to Hokkaido, on the Pacific side, and to middle Honshu, on the Japan Sea side, though very few in number. *Cybitum chinense* and *Sarda orientalis* are rather abundant about Kyushu, but they are found in northern Honshu, both off the Pacific and the Japan Sea coasts. Of other important fishes, *Pagrosomus major*, *Eynnus cardinalis* and *Talus tumifrons* are distributed from Taiwan to middle Honshu. Besides, some forms like *Embolichthys mitsukurii*, *Halichoeres*

opercularis, *Chaetodon setifer*, *Ch. vagabundus*, and others are found to extend to, or about southern Kyushu; *Kuhlia marginata* ranges from the southern seas to Izu, and *Safole tonlura* to Misaki.

As they proceed southwards, ascidians seek a lower level of the sea for their habitat. Echinoderms are very much in evidence, presenting a number of species which inhabit the southern tropical seas. Some crabs like *Scylla serrata*, *Neptunus pelagicus* and *Trapezia* extend their range northwards to about Ryukyu and Kyushu.

Ranging from off the Goto group to the Kumano Sea is a famous coral-bed, where there are such forms as *Corallium japonicum*, *C. elatius*, *C. konojoi*, and *C. inutile*. The first two corals are also found forming a bed in the waters near the Ogasawara group, as well as north to Taiwan.

The sponges are very rich and varied. The sponge of some commercial value is represented by *Euspongia irregularis*, which abounds in the southern seas.

Classification. For the classification of more than 20,000 species of animals in Japan see the "Illustrated Book of Japanese Animals," by Mr. S. Uchida and others.

Earthquakes

Italy and Japan are the two countries in the world which are most frequented by earthquakes. But earthquakes are usually harmless, and only 14 major ones are recorded in the past three centuries, the Kanto Earthquake and Fire of 1923 leading the list.

GREAT EARTHQUAKES IN JAPAN

Date	A.D. Japanese Year	Districts	Number of Persons killed
Jan. 31	1605 (Keicho 9)	Pacific coasts from Kyushu to Tokyo Bay	8,800
Sept. 27	1611 (Keicho 16)	Aizu (North east district)	3,700
Dec. 2	1611 (Keicho 16)	North-east and Hokkaido coasts	4,783
Dec. 31	1703 (Genroku 16)	Tokyo and Tokaido district	5,233
Oct. 28	1707 (Kan-éi 4)	Pacific coasts of Central district	4,900
May 21	1792 (Kanséi 4)	Mt. Unzen (Kyushu)	15,200
May 8	1847 (Koka 4)	Nagano and Niigata prefectures	12,000
Dec. 24	1854 (Anséi 1)	Kyushu, Shikoku, Isé	3,000
Nov. 11	1855 (Anséi 2)	Tokyo and vicinity	7,000
Oct. 28	1891 (Meiji 24)	Gifu and Aichi prefectures	7,275
June 15	1896 (Meiji 29)	Miyagi, Iwaté and Aomori prefectures	27,122
Sept. 1	1923 (Taisho 12)	Kanto district	44,279
March 7	1927 (Showa 2)	Western Kyoto prefecture	3,017
April 21	1935 (Showa 10)	Shinchiku, Taichu in Taiwan	3,185

CHAPTER II POPULATION

CHAPTER II

POPULATION

General Survey

The outstanding aspects of the population of Japan are that it has virtually trebled in the past 65 years, that the excess of its birth rate over the death rate is one of the highest in the world, and that its density (199 per square kilometer) is such that the land within Japan proper leaves scant room for expansion.

(This chapter deals mainly with the population of Japan proper, because that of each territory is given in its own chapter.)

The fifth quinquennial national census, taken on October 1, 1940, showed a total population for the Empire of 105,226,101 including Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Sea Mandated Islands. Though lack of statistics makes it impossible to trace the growth with any accuracy from early days, it has been variously estimated that in the 7th and 8th centuries the population ranged between 5,000,000 and 8,000,000 or 9,000,000. Figures compiled at regular intervals between 1721 and 1846, despite their understatement of the actual population because of certain known omissions, indicate comparative stability at about 26,000,000 for more than a century preceding the Meiji Restoration.

The first estimate of population after the Restoration, made in 1872, was roughly 33,000,000. By 1889, the total was 40,000,000, and the 50,000,000 mark was passed in Japan proper about 1909. Each decade showed an accelerated increase:

1870-1880	5%	1900-1910	12%
1880-1890	7.6%	1910-1920	13%
1890-1900	10%	1920-1930	15%

This increase, it is to be noted, started with the opening of the country to world commerce and parallel Japanese economic expansion. As means of subsistence gained, so did the size of the population. The death rate did not drop appreciably until recent years, but the birth rate, in contrast with that in other leading nations, became higher, jumping from 17 per 1,000 of population in 1872 to 32.36 per 1,000 in 1930, with a peak of 36.2 in 1920.

But the records of recent years show an adverse tendency in the population of Japan proper, the birth rate falling from 32.36 in 1930 to 30.18 in 1935 according to the census figures. With a total area of 382,560.83 square kilometers, Japan proper has a population density of 199 persons to the square kilometer in 1940.

In 1935 the average number of the members of a household in Japan proper was 5.1. It differs according to districts. In the eastern districts, from Toyama, Nagano to Hokkaido, it was from 5 to 6, the north-eastern prefectures heading the list with their average of 6. In the western districts, that is to say, Ishikawa, Aichi, Kyoto, Osaka, Chugoku (western prefectures of the Main Island), and Shikoku, it was below 5, the lowest being Yamaguchi and Kochi prefectures with 4.6. Classified in accordance with prefectures, those prefectures which have big cities show a much smaller average, Tokyo being 4.8, Osaka 4.6, Kyoto and Hyogo (Kobé) 4.7. This phenomenon is evidently occasioned by the social and economic conditions in city life which necessitate a small-family system.

POPULATION OF THE EMPIRE

According to the Census of October 1, 1930

	Total Population	Male	Female	Popula- tion per sq. km.	Men to 100 Women
Empire	90,396,043	45,675,654	44,720,389	134	102.1
Japan proper	64,450,005	32,390,155	32,059,850	169	101.0
Chosen	21,058,305	10,763,679	10,294,626	95	104.6
Taiwan	4,592,537	2,353,288	2,239,249	128	105.1

POPULATION

	Total Population	Male	Female	Population per sq. km.	Men to 100 Women
Karafuto	295,195	168,532	126,664	8	133.1
Kwantung Leased Territory and South Manchuria Railway Zone	1,328,011	809,944	518,967	355	155.9
South Sea Mandated Islands	69,626	37,929	31,697	32	119.7

According to the Census of October 1, 1935

	Total Population	Male	Female	Population per sq. km.	Men to 100 Women
Empire	97,697,555	49,242,822	48,454,733	145	101.6
Japan proper	69,254,148	34,734,123	34,520,015	181	100.6
Chosen	22,899,038	11,662,645	11,236,393	104	103.8
Taiwan	5,212,426	2,659,819	2,552,607	145	104.2
Karafuto	331,943	186,225	145,718	9	127.8
Kwantung Leased Territory and South Manchuria Railway Zone	1,656,726	995,447	661,279	441	150.5
South Sea Mandated Islands	102,537	57,333	45,204	48	126.8

ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS OF OCTOBER 1, 1940

	Total Population	Male	Female	Population per Sq. Km.	Men to 100 Women
Empire	105,226,101	52,896,862	52,329,239	154	101.0
Japan Proper	73,114,308	36,566,010	36,548,297	199	100.0
Chosen	24,326,327	12,266,230	12,060,097	110	101.7
Taiwan	5,872,084	2,970,655	2,901,429	103	102.4
Karafuto	414,891	239,835	175,056	11	137.0
Kwantung Leased Territory	1,367,334	781,592	585,742	400	133.4
South Sea Mandated Islands	131,157	72,540	58,617	61	123.7

Note: Those persons who were in defense services in regions outside the Empire on October 1 are also included in the above figures.

Population in Occupied Territories As the result of the Greater East Asia War beginning 1941 Japan now occupies Hong Kong, the Philippines, Malaya, Burma, Borneo and other East Indies, Guam and other islands in the Pacific east of the Philippines. Their estimated population of the newly occupied territories is as follows:

	Estim. Population
Hong Kong	1,050,000
The Philippines	16,000,000
Malaya	5,500,000
Burma	15,000,000
Java and Madura	41,710,000
Sumatra	7,980,000
Borneo & other islands	6,440,000
Total	93,680,000

(In regard to detailed informations

the readers are referred to the new chapter on the Greater East Asia War and "The South Seas Handbook" published with this volume.)

Quinquennial Increase The number and rate of increase since the first national census of 1920 are as follows:

Quinquennial Increase of Population

	Empire	Japan Proper
Oct. 1, 1920	77,728,731	55,963,053
1925	84,278,999	59,736,822
Number increased	6,550,268	3,773,769
Rate of increase	8.4%	6.7%
1930	91,421,410	64,450,005
Number increased	7,142,411	4,713,183
Rate of increase	8.5%	7.9%

	Empire	Japan Proper
Oct. 1, 1935	98,934,173	69,254,148
Number increased	7,512,763	4,804,143
Rate of increase	8.2%	7.5%
1940	105,226,101	73,114,308
Number increased	6,291,928	3,860,160
Rate of increase	6.4%	5.6%

(Note: For purposes of comparison, the figures are exclusive of the population in the South Manchuria Railway Zone, extinct since 1937.)

Both in the actual number and the rate of increase, the last quinquennial census recorded a decrease as compared with former quinquennial figures.

The population of Japan proper in 1940 increased by 3,860,000 as compared with 1935, an increase similar to that of the 5 years between 1920 and 1925 so far as the number is concerned. But it is about one million less than other quinquennial increases, the inevitable effect of the China Affair on the rate of increase and the greater movement of people to the continental countries in recent years.

According to different prefectures, those prefectures which witnessed an increase of population since 1935 are Tokyo, Kyoto, Osaka, Kanagawa, Hyogo, Nagasaki, Niigata, Saitama, Gumma, Chiba, Ibaraki, Tochigi, Nara, Mie, Aichi, Shizuoka, Yamanashi, Gifu, Miyagi, Fukushima, Iwate, Aomori, Yamagata, Akita, Toyama, Hiroshima, Yamaguchi,

Wakayama, Ehime, Fukuoka, Saga, Miyazaki and Hokkaido. Of these 33 districts, those which increased more than 10 per cent are Tokyo (number of increase 985,000), Osaka (495,000), Kanagawa (348,000), Hyogo (297,000), Aichi (303,000) and Fukuoka (338,000); they are prefectures where the largest economic and industrial centers in Japan are situated.

Those prefectures whose population decreased since 1935 are the 14 prefectures of Shiga, Nagano, Fukui, Ishikawa, Tottori, Shimané, Okayama, Tokushima, Kagawa, Kochi, Oita, Kumamoto, Kagoshima and Okinawa, the greatest decrease being witnessed in Ishikawa, Tokushima, Kagawa, Kumamoto and Okinawa. The fact that all of these prefectures which showed a decrease in population are those which lie to the west of Tokyo district is worthy of note. Another noteworthy fact is that the number of prefectures which decreased in population rose from 3 in 1935 to 14 in 1940, perhaps as a result of the greater movement of people within Japan proper and to the continental countries on account of the improvement of transportation facilities and industrial development in such districts as Tokyo, Osaka, Aichi and Fukuoka.

In regard to the six biggest cities in Japan, Tokyo gained the largest number and Yokohama the largest rate of increase during the last 5 years as indicated below:

INCREASE IN THE SIX BIGGEST CITIES

1935—1940

	1935	1940	Number of Increase	Rate of Increase (%)
1. Tokyo	5,875,667	6,778,804	903,137	15.4
2. Osaka	2,989,874	3,252,340	262,466	8.8
3. Nagoya	1,082,816	1,328,084	243,268	22.7
4. Kyoto	1,080,593	1,089,726	9,133	0.8
5. Yokohama	704,290	968,091	263,801	37.5
6. Kobe	912,179	967,234	55,055	6.0

Divided according to rural and urban areas, the aggregate population in the urban area was 27,577,000 and that in the rural area 45,536,000, showing an increase in the population percentage of urban area, from 31.2 per cent in 1935

to 37.7 per cent in 1940, while that of the countryside decreased from 68.8 per cent in 1935 to 62.3 per cent in 1940, the percentages being in reference to the total population of Japan proper.

INCREASE OF POPULATION OF JAPAN SINCE THE FIRST
NATIONAL CENSUS OF OCTOBER 1, 1920

Year	Population of Empire		Births	Japan Proper		Natural Increase
	Japan Proper	Others		Deaths		
1920	55,963,053	21,025,326	2,025,564	1,422,096	603,468	
1925	59,736,822	23,720,107	2,086,091	1,210,706	875,385	
1930	64,450,005	28,946,038	2,085,101	1,170,867	914,234	
1931	65,366,500	25,354,311	2,102,784	1,240,891	861,893	
1932	66,296,000	27,230,234	2,182,742	1,175,344	1,007,398	
1933	67,238,600	27,641,765	2,121,253	1,193,987	927,266	
1934	68,194,900	28,281,415	2,043,783	1,234,684	809,099	
1935	69,254,148	28,443,407	2,190,704	1,161,936	1,028,768	
1936	70,258,200	27,821,464	2,101,969	1,230,378	871,591	
1937	71,252,800	29,602,604	2,180,734	1,207,899	972,835	
1938	72,222,700	30,066,765	1,928,321	1,259,805	668,516	
1939	72,875,800	—	—	—	—	
1940	73,114,308	32,111,793	—	—	—	

Note:—The National Census has been taken five times, quinquennially, since 1920. For intercensal years figures on population are estimates.

JAPAN'S POPULATION IN 1941

The population in Japan proper as on October 1, 1941 is estimated to have stood at 73,939,600, showing increase of 825,300 over the figures for October 1, 1940.

Thus, it is noted that a population as large as that in Toyama prefecture rose during the one year since 1940. The concentration of population to city zones from agricultural communities is noted in the movement of population in the one year under review, as shown by the following table.

INDEX NUMBER OF POPULATION
IN DIFFERENT DISTRICTS

(October 1, 1940 as 100)

Districts	October 1, 1941
Hokkaido District	104.2
Kwanton District	107.2
Tozan District	101.9
Kinki District	103.6
Shikoku District	99.9
Okinawa District	97.1
Tohoku District	101.3
Hokuriku District	101.8
Tokai District	104.7
Chugoku District	102.2
Kyushu District	103.5

It is noted that the population in the Kwanton district comprising the Tokyo-Yokohama area and the Tokai district including the City of Nagoya made a sharp increase while the Okinawa district and Shikoku district marked a recession. Specially noteworthy is the advance of population of Kanagawa Prefecture which includes the city of Yokohama, fifth largest town in Japan, and Kawasaki, leading industrial center in the Kwanton district, as shown in the following table:

POPULATION INCREASE IN
LEADING PREFECTURES

(October 1, 1940 as 100)

Prefectures	October 1, 1941
Tokyo	109.9
Osaka	105.1
Hyogo	107.2
Aichi	107.3
Kanagawa	114.6
Kyoto	99.1
Fukuoka	109.8

The decline of population in Kyoto prefecture reflects the character of the old city of Kyoto.

The increase of population in Japan during the past twenty odd years is classified by sex as follows:

PREFECTURAL POPULATIONS

Prefecture	Area (sq. km.)	Census Population on October 1, 1940		Population estimated on October 1, 1941 (Unit: 1,000)		
		Population	Per sq. km.	Male	Female	Total
Hokkaido	88,775,036	3,272,718	36	1,714.7	1,558.0	3,272.7
Aomori	9,630,924	1,000,509	103	502.2	500.8	1,003.0
Iwate	15,235,306	1,095,793	71	550.4	545.3	1,095.7

Prefecture	Area (sq. km.)	Census Population on October 1, 1940		Population estimated on October 1, 1941 (Unit: 1,000)		
		Population	per sq. km.	Male	Female	Total
Miyagi	7,273,754	1,271,288	174	645.1	640.5	1,285.6
Akita	11,663,861	1,052,275	92	529.9	534.2	1,064.1
Yamagata	9,325,757	1,119,338	120	554.6	577.4	1,132.0
Fukushima	13,761,613	1,626,521	117	808.8	835.1	1,643.9
Ibaraki	6,090,990	1,620,000	265	811.0	827.3	1,638.3
Tochigi	6,436,585	1,206,000	187	598.3	622.0	1,220.3
Gumma	6,335,823	1,299,027	204	644.9	668.8	1,313.7
Saitama	3,602,700	1,608,039	422	807.3	818.9	1,626.2
Chiba	5,078,810	1,588,425	312	785.3	821.1	1,606.4
Tokyo	2,144,787	1,354,971	631	3,838.7	3,599.3	7,438.0
Kanagawa	2,353,484	2,188,974	930	1,150.8	1,062.9	2,213.7
Niigata	12,578,050	2,064,402	164	1,028.6	1,059.1	2,087.7
Toyama	4,257,419	822,569	193	405.8	426.1	831.9
Ishikawa	4,197,513	757,676	180	368.0	398.2	766.2
Fukui	4,017,969	643,904	160	315.6	335.6	651.2
Yamanashi	4,465,866	663,026	148	331.8	338.7	670.5
Nagano	13,626,130	1,710,729	132	843.4	886.6	1,730.0
Gifu	10,494,701	1,265,024	101	640.0	639.3	1,279.3
Shizuoka	7,769,912	2,017,860	259	1,008.1	1,032.5	2,040.6
Aichi	5,081,142	3,166,592	623	1,600.4	1,601.9	3,202.3
Mie	5,765,280	1,198,783	207	592.0	620.3	1,212.3
Shiga	4,050,929	703,679	173	345.5	366.1	711.6
Kyoto	462,196	1,729,993	3,742	873.2	876.3	1,749.5
Osaka	1,813,631	4,792,966	2,642	2,488.4	2,358.7	4,847.1
Hyogo	8,322,875	3,221,232	387	1,641.1	1,616.5	3,257.6
Nara	3,688,600	620,509	168	309.1	318.4	627.6
Wakayama	4,723,423	865,074	180	432.0	442.8	874.8
Tottori	3,480,481	484,390	138	236.6	253.3	489.9
Shimane	6,618,042	740,940	111	327.0	377.3	704.3
Okayama	7,046,475	1,329,358	174	658.6	685.8	1,344.4
Hiroshima	8,436,517	1,869,504	221	947.5	943.1	1,890.6
Yamaguchi	6,082,108	1,204,242	212	665.7	643.1	1,308.8
Tokushima	4,143,221	718,717	173	358.4	368.4	726.8
Kagawa	1,858,730	730,394	392	363.2	375.4	738.6
Ehime	5,667,108	1,178,705	207	587.4	604.6	1,192.0
Kochi	7,103,620	709,286	99	352.0	364.4	716.4
Fukuoka	4,939,646	3,094,132	626	1,594.9	1,534.2	3,129.1
Saga	2,443,897	701,517	286	346.0	362.5	708.5
Nagasaki	4,075,777	1,370,063	458	706.5	679.0	1,385.5
Kumamoto	7,437,723	1,368,179	183	674.4	709.2	1,383.6
Oita	6,333,880	972,975	154	478.9	505.1	984.0
Miyazaki	7,738,846	840,357	108	421.9	427.9	849.8
Kagoshima	9,103,810	1,589,467	174	774.3	833.1	1,607.4
Okinawa	2,386,288	574,579	240	273.7	307.4	581.1
Total	382,314,390	73,114,308	191	39,978.8	36,960.8	73,939.6

Note:—Figures for the areas of prefectures slightly differ from those given in the Chapter on Geography which were revised after the Census of 1935.

Races of the Japanese Empire

The Japanese What constitutes the main part of the population of the Empire is the Japanese. Their number, according to the latest national census of 1930, reaches to about 64,400,000 (32,350,000 males and 32,050,000 females), most of whom occupy the main group of the Japanese archipelago, although they are also found scattered

in almost every part of the Empire.

Of late, constant emigration and immigration are taking place between Chosen and Japan, but the main population of Chosen is Korean and numbers about 22,000,000 in 1938.

The Ainu inhabit Hokkaido, Chishima (the Kuriles) and the Japanese part of Karafuto (Saghalien).

Most of them are found in Hokkaido,

especially in the province of Hitaka, their number being 15,867 in 1938. In Karafuto there were 1,274 in 1938; formerly they lived scattered along the sea coasts of Karafuto, but the government policy made a point of collecting them in a few prescribed Ainu villages for the purpose of better protection. Those in Chishima are very few in number. In Hokkaido, as a result of daily contact with the Japanese, they are greatly mixed and are fast changing their customs and manners to accord with the fashion of their Japanese neighbors.

The Gilyaks, whose home is in the Amur region of Siberia, are also found along the Poronai River in the southern part of the Japanese possession in Saghalien. They call themselves "Nickban" and were reported in 1938 to be 84 in all. Their affinity with other races is not clear, and they are simply classed as one of the palae-Asiatics.

The Orokes, who inhabit the same region in Saghalien as the Gilyaks, are also immigrants from the mainland of Asia. They are a branch of the Tungusic group, but are said to show a considerable influence of the Ainu, Gilyaks and also of the Russians. The number of the Orokes was 251 in 1938.

The inhabitants of Taiwan may be roughly divided into two groups, one is chiefly made up of the Chinese immigrants from Kwangtung and Fukien provinces and occupies the lowland districts and the western half of the island their number being estimated at 5,392,806 in 1938; and the other is made up of the wild hill-tribes inhabiting the mountainous eastern half, and is the more aboriginal of the two. These, on the basis of physical anthropology, ethnology and linguistics, are usually subdivided into eight tribes, namely: Taiyal, Seddaka, Salsat, Tsou, Bunun, Paiwan, Ami and Yami. They were estimated to be 152,350 and belong either to the Malay or to the Indonesian family.

The Natives of Micronesia which is under our mandatory administration, consists of innumerable small islands, some of which are uninhabited; hence, the native population is only about 50,000. The natives of Salpan, Palau, Yap, Truk, Ponape, Kusale, Jaluit, etc., constitute the main part of the population. They are usually divided into two ethnic groups. One is known as the Chamorros and is chiefly found in Sal-

pan, although some have emigrated to the islands of Palau and Yap, and comprised 4,036 in all in 1939. The other, commonly known as the Kanakas, and found scattered in almost every island, numbered 47,687 in 1939.

In addition, it may be said that in the Ogasawara group of islands known as the "Bonin" (corruption of "Mujin" or "Bunin"—uninhabited) there are the naturalized descendants of European and American fishermen, Italian, English, Portuguese, etc., numbering about 120 and these form a sort of foreign settlement of their own.

POPULATION OF JAPAN PROPER BY DIFFERENT NATIONALITIES (1930 Census)

	In 1930	In 1920
Japanese subjects	64,395,685	55,927,484
Japanese	63,972,025	55,884,992
Koreans	419,009	40,755
Formosans	4,611	1,703
Gilyaks and Orokes	22	31
Westerners in the Bonin	18	3
Foreigners	54,320	35,569
Chinese	38,440	22,427
Russians	3,587	1,714
Americans	3,640	3,969
British	3,144	4,188
Germans	1,228	630
French	694	874
Others	2,587	1,970
Total	64,450,005	55,963,053

Age Distribution

Figures for 69,254,148 persons residing in Japan proper on October 1, 1935, show that those less than 14 years of age, termed juveniles, constitute 36.8 per cent of the population; those from 15 to 59 inclusive, termed productives, 55.8 per cent and those of 60 or more, termed the aged, 7.4 per cent. (For details see the Japan Year Book, 1940-41, pp. 39, 40.)

1935 Age Distribution. According to the Census statistics taken on October 1, 1935, the distribution by age in the Empire including territories and Japan proper were as follows:

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE

The Empire on October 1, 1935

	Total	Male	Female
Total	99,456,818	50,295,614	49,161,204
Age			
Under 1	3,211,161	1,628,399	1,582,762
1	2,856,450	1,444,608	1,411,842
2	2,816,200	1,422,278	1,393,922
3	2,758,311	1,397,321	1,360,990
4	2,619,370	1,324,760	1,294,610
5	2,597,688	1,314,431	1,283,257

Age	Total	Male	Female				
6	2,499,601	1,264,055	1,235,546	42	946,350	494,315	452,035
7	2,471,279	1,252,585	1,218,694	43	987,938	514,815	473,123
8	2,482,404	1,256,274	1,226,130	44	899,644	467,251	432,413
9	2,366,509	1,202,558	1,163,951	45	933,691	483,961	449,730
10	2,329,728	1,179,561	1,150,167	46	931,697	481,827	449,870
11	2,218,043	1,124,312	1,093,731	47	925,902	479,897	446,005
12	2,184,707	1,106,309	1,078,398	48	872,366	448,068	424,298
13	2,193,334	1,111,348	1,081,986	49	769,356	393,353	376,003
14	2,113,944	1,078,075	1,035,869	50	774,375	394,838	379,537
15	2,131,382	1,086,861	1,044,621	51	795,168	402,170	392,998
16	1,807,626	921,726	885,900	52	779,243	389,933	389,310
17	1,824,730	929,882	894,848	53	771,376	385,134	386,242
18	1,881,584	957,467	924,117	54	793,737	396,102	397,635
19	1,862,266	948,427	913,839	55	716,069	355,493	360,576
20	1,788,083	908,558	879,525	56	756,936	375,427	381,509
21	1,808,942	912,324	896,618	57	677,047	334,325	342,722
22	1,750,307	885,020	865,377	58	637,977	311,356	326,621
23	1,729,025	879,859	849,136	59	659,753	320,633	339,120
24	1,715,726	877,500	838,226	60-64	2,580,507	1,235,165	1,345,342
25	1,594,827	814,093	780,734	65-69	1,858,568	849,109	1,009,459
26	1,620,854	826,755	794,099	70-74	1,210,924	527,445	683,479
27	1,528,215	785,866	742,349	75-79	736,087	297,382	438,705
28	1,455,338	749,951	705,387	80-84	324,516	118,198	206,318
29	1,368,541	713,101	655,440	85-89	98,240	31,519	66,721
30	1,853,223	895,318	857,905	90-94	17,213	4,671	12,542
31	1,247,508	648,368	599,140	95-99	2,177	558	1,619
32	1,310,019	677,737	632,282	100 and over	387	89	298
33	1,305,222	675,763	629,459				
34	1,291,569	673,108	618,461				
35	1,246,298	647,734	598,564				
36	1,144,670	597,046	547,624				
37	1,211,411	630,717	580,694				
38	1,133,901	593,180	540,721				
39	1,103,276	574,257	529,019				
40	1,063,195	557,854	505,341				
41	1,002,987	527,204	475,793				

Vocational Distribution

According to the census of 1930, the percentage of the unoccupied was 54 per cent, that of persons actually engaged in agriculture was 22 per cent, in industry 9 per cent, and in commerce 7 per cent of the total population in Japan proper. Details follow:

VOCATIONAL DISTRIBUTION

Japan Proper
(October 1, 1930)

	Total	%	Male	Female	Number of Households investigated	People who belong to the Households	%
Total Population	64,450,005	100	32,390,155	32,059,850	11,655,206	60,365,705	100.0
Occupied	29,619,640	46	19,030,237	10,589,403	11,036,968	57,838,718	95.8
Agriculture	14,140,107	22	7,743,065	6,397,042	4,743,519	27,159,448	44.9
Fisheries	546,624	0.9	501,078	45,546	257,082	1,394,623	2.3
Mining	251,220	0.4	210,174	41,046	168,582	797,848	1.3
Industries	5,699,581	8.9	4,269,151	1,430,430	2,297,639	11,226,984	18.6
Commerce	4,478,098	7.0	3,013,903	1,464,195	2,096,452	10,443,214	17.3
Transportation & Communications	1,107,574	1.7	1,028,595	78,979	507,530	2,325,230	3.8
Officials, Educators, Writers, etc.	2,044,151	3.1	1,691,803	352,348	885,458	4,160,377	6.9
Domestic	781,319	1.2	84,203	697,116	45,996	183,024	0.3
Miscellaneous	570,966	0.8	488,265	82,701	34,710	147,970	0.2
Unoccupied	34,830,365	54	13,359,918	21,470,447	618,238	2,526,987	4.2

POPULATION

	Total	Male		Total	Male
Total Population	64,450,005	32,390,155	Educational	327,192	225,305
Occupied	29,619,640	19,030,237	Religious	151,248	126,776
Agriculture	14,140,107	7,743,065	Medical	266,637	126,569
On the farm	13,549,491	7,453,883	Secretarial and		
Stock-raising	60,630	44,637	Scrivener	439,418	399,405
Sericulture	354,644	99,404	Writers, Artists,		
Forestry	175,342	145,141	Actors, etc.	114,773	89,841
Fisheries	546,624	501,078	Others	58,302	53,614
Mining	251,220	210,174	Domestic	781,319	84,203
Coal mines	182,558	147,134	Miscellaneous	570,966	488,265
Mineral mines	31,873	28,424	Unoccupied	34,830,365	13,359,918
Oil-fields	2,845	2,769	Those who have		
Stone-pits	33,944	31,848	income	190,836	120,194
Industries	5,699,581	4,269,151	Children, the		
Ceramics and			aged, etc.	34,639,529	13,239,724
stone cutting	169,414	141,205			
Metal, Machinery,					
Shipbuilding, etc.	705,395	685,555			
Precision machinery	57,921	55,345			
Chemical	127,537	102,279			
Spinning	1,361,153	434,705			
Clothes	497,695	317,392			
Paper & Printing	265,263	227,623			
Leather, Brush	33,119	28,602			
Bamboo, Mat, etc.	703,325	635,981			
Salt	21,848	18,222			
Foolstuffs	446,803	342,333			
Building, etc.	1,000,078	996,567			
Gas, Electric, etc.	128,624	128,480			
Other industries	181,406	154,856			
Commerce	4,478,098	3,013,903			
Wholesale and					
retail	3,255,215	2,511,073			
Banking and in-					
surance	61,843	56,756			
Entertainments	1,161,040	446,074			
Transportation and					
Communications	1,107,574	1,028,595			
Transportation	935,922	904,732			
Communications	171,652	123,863			
Officials and Free					
Occupation	2,044,151	1,691,803			
Officials, civil	436,293	420,005			
Navy & Army offic-					
ers on service	242,796	242,796			
Judicial	7,492	7,492			

MARRIAGES BY AGE GROUPS

Year	Husbands									
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Under 19	10,617	9,896	8,467	7,734	6,635	6,186	5,775	5,022	5,004	4,514
20-24	142,225	145,421	144,234	145,917	130,569	131,592	136,871	127,360	148,047	109,855
25-29	204,513	209,552	205,747	214,886	205,402	223,695	250,418	255,849	313,497	245,409
30-34	69,012	70,638	70,903	77,421	73,934	78,274	85,506	83,382	111,989	89,788
35-39	28,299	28,718	27,893	29,299	29,129	30,075	32,547	32,438	45,427	37,278
40-49	27,664	27,565	24,948	25,303	25,454	26,967	28,635	28,430	31,653	32,153
50-59	10,942	10,755	10,397	10,720	10,740	11,441	12,111	11,666	13,029	14,059
Over 60	4,138	4,129	3,985	3,990	4,195	4,424	4,867	4,969	5,854	6,275
Total	497,410	506,674	496,574	515,270	486,058	512,654	566,730	549,116	674,500	538,831

Marriages and Divorces

In 1938 the number of marriages in Japan proper was 538,831, a decrease of 135,669 as compared with the previous year. The number of marriages per 1,000 population was 7.46 or 2.01 lower than the previous year. The number of divorces in the same year was 44,656 or 1,844 less than in 1937. The number of divorces per 1,000 population was 0.62 or 0.03 lower than the previous year. Before 1920 the number of divorces surpassed the 100,000 mark in a year and the proportion per 1,000 population was from 2.0 at the lowest to 3.0 at the highest, but it has kept a rate lower than 1.0 since 1929.

The years of age both of husbands and wives who marry for the first time are steadily rising.

Year	Marriages	Divorces	Proportion per 1,000 population	
			Marriages	Divorces
1933	486,058	49,282	7.23	0.73
1934	512,654	48,610	7.52	0.71
1935	556,730	48,528	8.04	0.70
1936	549,116	46,167	7.82	0.66
1937	674,500	46,500	9.47	0.65
1938	538,831	44,656	7.46	0.62

MARRIAGES AND BIRTHS

Year	Wives									
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Under 15	27	34	26	37	19	38	28	15	30	29
15-19	109,115	105,467	96,039	92,064	80,592	78,091	79,058	72,492	83,702	65,011
20-24	250,233	263,962	267,714	279,728	263,644	280,497	305,857	301,948	357,288	277,016
25-29	77,795	77,755	76,526	83,836	83,152	92,582	105,956	109,613	146,325	117,645
30-34	27,656	27,432	26,155	28,567	27,181	27,975	30,272	29,660	41,929	35,573
35-39	12,963	12,797	12,395	13,044	13,320	13,867	14,068	14,767	19,734	17,711
40-49	13,557	13,049	11,759	12,017	11,987	12,966	13,487	13,596	16,894	16,941
50-59	4,926	5,087	4,868	4,886	4,999	5,373	5,710	5,524	6,687	6,836
Over 60	1,136	1,091	1,090	1,091	1,161	1,265	1,394	1,501	1,911	2,069
Total	497,410	506,674	496,574	515,270	486,058	512,654	556,730	549,116	674,500	538,831

FIRST MARRIAGES AND AVERAGE YEARS OF AGE

Year	Number		Average Years of Age	
	Husbands	Wives	Husbands	Wives
1929	428,528	456,401	27.36	23.22
1930	437,094	465,128	27.33	23.21
1931	429,714	457,271	27.29	23.25
1932	447,287	475,273	27.40	23.39
1933	420,363	447,906	27.57	23.58
1934	445,059	473,044	27.69	23.71
1935	485,452	515,706	27.76	23.81
1936	480,720	509,342	27.86	23.92
1937	595,576	626,498	28.09	24.16
1938	468,647	497,082	28.59	24.41

Births and Deaths

The natural increase of population or the excess of births over deaths has become greater with the advance of years. For several years since 1910

the natural increase kept to the 700,000 mark. In 1910 and 1917 it decreased a little, and in 1918 it reached the lowest figure of 300,000, largely due to the prevalence of a severe influenza epidemic. In 1919, however, the increase regained, reaching the 500,000 mark, and it continued to increase till the 940,000 mark was attained in 1926. There have been ups and downs since, but 1932 was a record year, registering an increase of 1,007,000, the million mark being attained for the first time. In 1935 a new record was established with 1,028,768. But 1936 recorded 871,691 and it fell to 668,516 in 1938, smallest in the last decade. It may be premature, however to come to any decisive conclusion on the general tendency until 1940 when accurate results may be obtained from the fifth census.

BIRTHS AND DEATHS

Japan Proper

Year	Births	Deaths	Excess of Births over Deaths	Rate per 1,000 of Population		
				Births	Deaths	Excess of Births over Deaths
1927	2,060,737	1,214,323	846,414	33.61	19.81	13.81
1928	2,135,852	1,236,711	899,141	34.38	19.91	14.47
1929	2,077,026	1,261,228	815,798	33.00	20.04	12.96
1930	2,085,101	1,170,867	914,234	32.36	18.17	14.19
1931	2,102,784	1,240,891	861,893	32.17	18.98	13.19
1932	2,182,742	1,175,344	1,007,398	32.92	17.73	15.19
1933	2,111,253	1,193,987	927,266	31.55	17.76	13.79
1934	2,043,783	1,234,684	809,099	29.97	18.11	11.86
1935	2,190,704	1,161,930	1,028,768	31.63	16.78	14.85
1936	2,101,969	1,230,278	871,691	29.92	17.51	12.41
1937	2,180,734	1,207,899	972,835	30.61	16.95	13.65
1938	1,928,321	1,259,805	668,516	26.70	17.44	9.26

Urbanization

As in other countries where industry is of importance, Japan has experienced a shift of population from the countryside to the towns and cities. Concurrently, municipalities have amalgamated to form larger units. The following tables show the trend toward larger urban centers; the first, the increase in

the number of municipalities of large population, and the second, the increase in the proportion of the population residing in these larger municipalities. For 1920, 1925, 1930 and 1935, the figures are based on the national censuses of these years, but the earlier figures depend on less comprehensive statistics compiled by local authorities.

CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES CLASSIFIED

According to Population

	1898	1903	1908	1913	1920	1925	1930	1935
Total Number	14,027	13,323	12,457	12,356	12,244	12,019	11,865	11,546
Population up to 499	646	461	228	163	126	82	70	64
500—999	738	512	360	306	304	265	258	250
1,000—1,999	3,311	2,667	2,190	1,982	2,354	2,277	2,092	2,015
2,000—4,999	8,018	8,065	7,652	7,584	7,264	7,052	6,886	6,664
5,000—9,999	1,081	1,343	1,654	1,852	1,639	1,734	1,878	1,953
10,000—19,999	152	185	268	335	374	392	426	466
20,000—29,999	33	25	35	55	76	78	93	86
30,000—39,999	25	33	26	25	40	36	38	44
40,000—49,999	3	7	15	17	20	31	27	16
50,000—99,999	12	16	19	26	31	51	65	54
Above 100,000	8	9	10	11	16	21	32	34

DISTRIBUTION PER 1,000 OF POPULATION IN CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES¹

Size of Communities up to 499	End of 1898	End of 1903	End of 1908	End of 1913	End of 1920	End of 1925	End of 1930	End of 1935
up to 499	3.5	2.3	1.1	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.3
500—999	12.4	8.1	5.3	4.3	3.6	3.6	3.2	2.9
1,000—1,999	115.2	87.3	67.6	67.2	60.9	60.9	51.8	46.3
2,000—4,999	540.5	518.1	469.2	412.2	377.2	377.2	343.2	305.2
5,000—9,999	151.3	177.2	207.5	193.4	192.1	192.1	193.5	186.8
10,000—19,999	44.1	50.7	69.3	90.7	87.5	87.5	88.7	90.3
20,000—29,999	17.5	12.4	16.3	32.3	30.3	30.3	34.2	29.8
30,000—39,999	18.7	23.3	17.8	25.1	20.9	20.9	20.1	21.5
40,000—49,999	2.8	6.3	12.8	15.9	23.1	23.7	18.5	10.7
50,000—99,999	17.0	22.2	26.1	37.6	57.7	57.7	68.8	53.2
Above 100,000	77.0	92.1	107.0	120.7	146.3	146.3	178.2	253.2

1. For administrative purposes, all of Japan proper is divided into cities, towns and villages, persons residing in what would be known as rural districts in other countries belonging, as the case may be, to the nearest cities, towns and villages.

In October 1940, there were 167 cities in Japan proper, which meant an increase of 8 every year since the 1935 census. According to the census on October 1, 1940, the number of major cities which have more than 100,000 population was 45, including 4 cities which have more than 1,000,000, Tokyo lead-

ing others with 6,778,804. The total urban population comprises, 27,577,000 or 37.7 per cent of the population of Japan proper. The rapid growth of cities may be proved from the fact that the rate of increase of population in cities is much higher than that of Japan proper, as is shown below:

	Population		Quinquennial Increase		Rate of Increase	
	Japan Proper	Cities	Japan Proper	Cities	Japan Proper	Cities
1925	59,739,822	16,606,809				
1930	64,405,005	19,439,405	3,773,789	2,697,504	6.7	19.39
1935	69,254,148	22,655,920	4,713,183	2,832,596	7.9	17.06
1940	73,114,308	27,577,730	3,860,160	4,921,810	5.6	21.7

NUMBER OF CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES IN JAPAN PROPER (On April 1, each year)

	Cities	Towns	Villages
1889	39	715	12,632
1898	52	1,169	13,557
1908	66	1,164	11,233
1913	69	1,246	11,033
1920	83	1,366	10,782
1925	100	1,510	10,451

	Cities	Towns	Villages
1930	109	1,702	9,980
1934	124	1,683	9,788
1935	127	1,702	9,721
1936	129	1,720	9,682
1937	141	1,707	9,568
1938	146	1,711	9,524
1940	167	1,757	9,253

A village is an administrative unit consisting of several villages.

CITIES IN JAPAN PROPER
Census of October 1, 1935 and 1940

	Population in 1935	Population in 1940	Population in 1935	Population in 1940
1. Tokyo	5,875,667	6,778,804	55. Kiryu	76,145
2. Osaka	2,989,874	3,252,340	56. Tobata	67,800
3. Nagoya	1,082,816	1,328,084	57. Okazaki	77,195
4. Kyoto	1,080,593	1,089,726	58. Hldachi	34,536
5. Yokohama	704,290	968,091	59. Morioka	69,130
6. Kobe	912,179	967,234	60. Nobéoka	56,421
7. Hiroshima	310,118	343,968	61. Oita	61,732
8. Fukuoka	291,158	306,763	62. Nagano	77,325
9. Kawasaki	154,748	300,777	63. Hachinohe	62,210
10. Yawata	208,629	261,309	64. Matsumoto	73,353
11. Nagasaki	211,702	252,630	65. Takasaki	64,283
12. Kuré	231,333	238,195	66. Ichinomiya	53,376
13. Sendai (Miyagi Prefecture)	219,547	223,630	67. Yamagata	69,931
14. Shizuoka	200,737	212,198	68. Tsu	65,971
15. Sapporo	196,541	206,103	69. Shimizu	61,123
16. Sasébo	173,283	205,989	70. Otsu	71,063
17. Hakodate	207,480	203,862	71. Nagaoka	62,152
18. Kanazawa	163,733	196,297	72. Miyazaki	64,726
19. Shimonoseki	132,737	196,022	73. Mito	63,816
20. Wakayama	179,732	195,203	74. Suita	33,237
21. Kumamoto	187,382	194,139	75. Naha	65,208
22. Yokosuka	182,871	193,358	76. Beppu	62,345
23. Kagoshima	181,736	190,257	77. Yokkaichi	58,471
24. Sakai	141,286	182,147	78. Kushiro	56,170
25. Amagasaki	71,072	181,011	79. Hachioji	59,494
26. Kokura	110,372	173,639	80. Akita	60,646
27. Gifu	128,721	172,340	81. Choshi	48,352
28. Hamamatsu	133,338	166,346	82. Urawa	44,328
29. Otaru	153,587	164,282	83. Takaoka	57,249
30. Okayama	160,144	163,552	84. Bôfu	30,606
31. Niigata	134,992	150,903	85. Miyakonojo	36,575
32. Toyohashi	140,735	142,716	86. Ichikawa	46,711
33. Moji	121,611	138,997	87. Koriyama	54,709
34. Fusé	48,696	134,724	88. Nara	55,968
35. Toyama	83,324	127,859	89. Fukuyama	58,186
36. Omuta	104,992	124,266	90. Ogaki	49,273
37. Tokushima	97,021	119,581	91. Imabari	51,602
38. Matsuyama	81,940	117,534	92. Matsué	52,033
39. Takamatsu	86,840	111,207	93. Numazu	49,824
40. Muroran	65,095	107,628	94. Ujlyamada	52,494
41. Kochi	103,405	106,644	95. Uwajima	51,280
42. Hlméji	91,375	104,259	96. Hiroaki	46,014
43. Nishinomiya	89,909	103,774	97. Iwakuni	—
44. Kôfu	82,064	102,419	98. Funabashi	26,449
45. Ubé	76,642	100,680	99. Saga	50,154
46. Aomori	93,414	99,065	100. Higashimaizuru	—
47. Kawaguchi	53,716	97,115	101. Tottori	45,335
48. Fukui	75,273	94,595	102. Handa	18,217
49. Chiba	57,446	92,061	103. Yonezawa	50,448
50. Kurumé	91,920	89,490	104. Onomichi	30,777
51. Wakamatsu (Fukuoka Pref.)	73,345	88,901	105. Ashikaga	48,875
52. Utsunomiya	87,129	87,868	106. Fukushima	48,484
53. Asahigawa	91,021	87,514	107. Wakamatsu (Fukushima Prefecture)	46,190
54. Maébashí	87,181	86,997	108. Akashi	42,644
			109. Yonago	36,635
			110. Nogata	43,943
				48,091
				47,751
				47,051
				47,026

	Population in 1935	Population in 1940
111. Izuka	39,629	46,685
112. Kishiwada	39,097	46,486
113. Seto	57,553	45,775
114. Toyonaka	24,126	45,013
115. Isahaya	—	44,418
116. Hiratsuka	38,348	43,148
117. Niihama	—	42,392
118. Kamaishi	36,230	42,167
119. Kamakura	29,412	40,151
120. Okaya	—	40,033
121. Isezaki	23,588	40,004
122. Kumagaya	37,649	39,412
123. Mihara	21,130	39,072
124. Tokuyama	32,062	38,419
125. Kawagoe	35,192	38,407
126. Noshiro	25,756	37,054
127. Fujisawa	30,184	36,769
128. Obihiro	35,695	36,555
129. Sanjo	34,649	36,541
130. Ishinomaki	33,530	36,442
131. Hikone	23,386	36,142
132. Tsuruoka	37,224	35,986
133. Ikeda	31,457	35,494
134. Tamano	—	35,467
135. Matsuzaka	35,661	35,391
136. Tsuyama	36,092	35,111
137. Ueda	35,380	35,069
138. Shikama	—	35,061
139. Yamaguchi	34,803	34,579
140. Sendai (Kago- shima Pref.)	33,354	34,289
141. Yatsushiro	—	33,586
142. Kudamatsu	—	33,212
143. Shingu	32,055	32,403
144. Hagi	32,587	32,270
145. Kurashiki	34,716	32,228
146. Sakata	31,866	31,958
147. Fukuchiyama	22,895	31,848
148. Yawatahama	30,500	31,728
149. Tsuruga	26,828	31,346
150. Karatsu	31,058	31,342
151. Takayama	20,145	31,296
152. Tochigi	31,335	31,195
153. Shimabara	21,892	30,411
154. Takada	31,284	30,152
155. Taira	25,741	30,126
156. Nanao	—	29,986
157. Kashiwazaki	25,521	29,567
158. Sumoto	31,565	29,461
159. Nakatsu	30,328	29,414
160. Kalnan	29,917	29,091
161. Kuwana	28,866	28,944
162. Tatayama	20,547	28,591
163. Iida	17,991	28,494
164. Marugame	29,615	26,928
165. Tajimi	24,695	26,820
166. Atami	17,768	24,477
167. Shuri	19,305	17,537

CITIES IN TERRITORIES

CHOSEN (Korea)

	1935 (Census)	1937 (Estimate)
Keljo (Seoul)	404,206	706,396
Fusan	180,271	213,142
Heijo	172,746	185,419
Taikyu	105,716	110,866
Jinsen (Chemulpo)	80,420	102,473
Kaijo	53,457	56,595
Shingishu	54,317	51,347
Kankyo	52,634	61,430
Gensan	58,409	63,996
Chinnampo	48,314	48,838
Seishin	50,085	66,958
Moppo	59,046	62,457
Masan	29,858	32,411
Kunsan	41,077	42,851
Taiden	36,379	40,001
Zenshu	40,593	42,520
Koshu	52,674	57,461
Salshu	36,188	36,260
Konan	39,092	58,077

TAIWAN

	1935 (Census)	1939 (Estimate)
Taihoku	283,085	340,114
Tainan	107,887	131,079
Kilrun	84,650	100,182
Takao	81,582	118,435
Kagi	70,083	90,235
Talchu	63,414	81,614
Shinchiku	54,100	59,983
Shoka	51,152	58,491
Heito	41,715	53,999

KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY

	1930 (Census)	1936 (Estimate)
Dairen (Dalny)	292,552	377,000
Ryojun (Port Arthur)	33,933	35,000

KARAFUTO

Odomari	33,312	46,200
Toyohara	31,648	47,800

Foreign Residents

The number of foreign residents in Japan proper, for the past 5 years has been as follows:

At the end of	Diplomatic and Consu- lar Corps	Total	Male	Female
1934	400	32,641	21,895	10,746
1935	423	38,475	25,766	12,709
1936	422	40,865	27,502	13,363
1937	419	30,838	19,847	10,991
1938	355	28,857	18,364	10,493

Information given with the 1938 figures shows 6,825 foreigners engaged in commerce; 4,011 in professional work; 2,834 studying; 1,190 in mining and manufacturing; 52 in transportation; 15 in agriculture and forestry; 312 in various other occupations, and 13,618 without occupations.

Emigration

Emigration of the Japanese people to foreign countries other than Manchoukuo and China is decreasing in recent years. In 1937 the total number was 10,744, a decrease of 375 or 3.3 per cent from the previous year. Brazil received the largest number as in preceding years with 4,675 or 43 per cent of the total, a decrease of 682 in actual number and 5 per cent in the similar percentage, while Philippines, the second country of destination for Japanese emigrants in the same year, received 3,876 or 36 per cent, gaining 985 and 10 per cent over the previous year.

In 1937 the total number of the Japan-

ese residing in foreign countries, including Manchoukuo and China, was 1,042,972, an increase of 45,859 or 4.6 per cent over the previous year, and in 1938 it increased to 1,059,913, a gain of 16,939 or 1.6 per cent as compared with 1937.

According to the figures for 1937 merchants comprise the largest number among Japanese foreign residents with 110,291 or 10 per cent of the total, farmers come next with 56,755 or 5 per cent, to be followed by those who are at work in public and private offices, industrialists and those who are engaged in transportation business in the order named.

The figures for 1938 show the fact that larger numbers of the Japanese emigrants are destined toward Manchoukuo and China in recent years, with 513,823 or more than 50 per cent residing in these two countries, an increase of 42,483 or 9 per cent over the previous year. It is said that in 1938-1939 this increasing tendency was further accelerated with an increase of 200,000 for China alone.

EMIGRANTS TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES

(Manchoukuo and China excluded)

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Brazil	5,565	15,092	23,299	22,960	5,745	5,357	4,675
Philippines	1,109	747	941	1,544	1,502	2,891	3,876
Peru	299	369	481	473	814	593	166
Canada	106	98	1	105	57	82	109
U.S.S.R.	1,238	1,096	1,095	1,320	322	297	259
Straits Settlements	549	356	322	598	583	534	414
Mexico	283	149	85	80	53	62	65
Argentina	362	239	135	112	201	349	307
Dutch E. Indies	447	533	468	356	389	145	131
Australia	34	92	59	105	92	223	222
Others	392	262	341	434	755	586	520
Total	10,384	19,033	27,317	28,087	10,813	11,119	10,744

JAPANESE RESIDING IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

	Total	Male	Female
1935	689,818	398,060	291,758
1936	997,115	561,590	435,525
1937	1,042,974	592,216	450,758
1938	1,059,913	598,490	461,423
1939	1,321,395	—	—

JAPANESE RESIDING IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES BY OCCUPATION

	Male	Female
October 1, 1937		
Agriculture	83,862	2,893
Fisheries	8,177	129
Mining	5,756	198

	Male	Female
Man. Industry	39,582	2,937
Commerce	86,179	24,112
Transportation	35,158	1,410
Public and private professions	43,273	5,775
Domestic works	6,876	7,732
Other occupations	15,172	3,655
Without occupation	268,181	401,917
Total	592,216	450,758

JAPANESE RESIDENTS IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES (1939)

Asia	
Manchoukuo	491,947
China & Hongkong	105,902
South Sea Islands	41,950

Other countries	1,524
Total	641,323
North & South America	
North America	264,771
Hawaii	151,199
Canada	23,045
Brazil	199,880
Other countries	36,512
Total	675,407
European countries	2,577
Australia & the others	1,869
Africa	219
Grand total	1,321,395

Population Plan

In order to realize a greater increase of population in Japan proper, competent authorities of the Planning Board, the Welfare Ministry and the Population Commission drafted a population plan and presented it to the Cabinet Meeting on January 22, 1941, and the plan was approved by the Government.

The birth rate of Japan proper was highest in 1920, being 36 births per 1,000 of population, but since then it began to decline to be 27 per 1,000 in 1938. The death rate has decreased from 27 per 1,000 in 1918 to 17 in 1937, but this is not satisfactory as compared with other advanced countries. The population problem, therefore, began to draw a keen attention from the Government and thoughtful individuals. Along with the expansion of Japanese activities in East Asia, Japan has to secure sufficient man power in the years to come by increasing her population, carrying out proper measures for the maintenance and increase of birth rate, and protecting the health of mothers and infants.

The gist of the adopted Population Plan is as follows:

1. **The Goal.** The goal of the population increase plan is to have 100 million people in Japan proper by the end of 1960, aiming at securing the steady increase of population in future, at maintaining the highest birth rate and the best quality in the world, at securing sufficient man power for defense and industrial services, and at a proper distribution of people in East Asia where the Japanese are to lead other races in the area.

2. **Means for Increase.** Within the coming 10 years, the average year of age for marriage should be lowered by 3, aiming at an average number of 5 children for each family. In order to en-

courage the birth rate and achieve an average of 5 children for each family, theories discouraging child bearing shall be stamped out and the love for the old family system shall be fostered; public and private matrimonial agencies shall be strengthened; when necessary wedding expenses shall be advanced; and education in girls' schools shall put more emphasis on matrimonial and maternal subjects. Labor conditions for female laborers shall be so improved that labor will not hinder early marriage or injure the health of young mothers-to-be. Families which have many children shall be commended and given protection and assistance in various ways.

In regard to the decrease of infant mortality, the plan shall aim at prevention of diseases attacking infants, thereby to lower the present death rate in general by 35 per cent within the coming 20 years. The activities of health consultation rooms, nurses, settlements in farming villages shall be enlarged and strengthened; material and food-stuffs necessary for bringing up strong children shall be secured; and a movement for lowering the death rate of infants shall be carried out. All medical facilities connected with the health of infants and mothers shall be improved.

3. **Proper Distribution.** Along with the progress of the Land Planning, a proper distribution of population according to different districts and abilities of individuals shall be made so as to prevent a greater concentration of population in cities, by dispersing factories and schools in country districts. A proper percentage of population in Japan proper shall devote themselves to farming industry so that at least 40 per cent of the population shall remain farmers throughout Japan, Manchoukuo and China.

The measures included in the scheme have already been put into operation since 1940; for instance, the number of borrowers of wedding expenses during 1940 was 1,272 with the aggregate amount of ¥358,981 or on an average ¥280 per couple. The Peoples' Chest is ready to advance up to ¥2,000 per couple. The propaganda for early marriage called forth prompt response from the people and the columns of daily papers are full of articles witnessing the happy results of early marriage blessed with many strong children.

CHAPTER III

OUTLINE OF THE CULTURAL HISTORY OF JAPAN

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Prehistoric Culture

(2,000 B.C.—200 B.C.)

Land and Inhabitants Regarding the origin of this country the mythological legends tell us that ages ago, the first ancestral deity of the Imperial Family gave birth to the Japanese islands. With firm faith in this legend of the origin of this land which has furnished a source of inspiration for their national life, the Japanese people, since the foundation of this Empire, have unswervingly pursued the course of creative development centering around the Imperial Family, with which they have maintained a happy and indivisible relationship.

According to geological, palaeontological and other scientific researches, the islands of Japan once formed a part of the Asiatic continent, but were detached from it some 450,000 years ago.

Since their formation the Japanese islands had been left in an uninhabited condition until about 2,000 B.C. when for the first time some Neolithic tribes (or people in the New Stone Age) using the pottery of the Jomon type, a clay pottery with corded pattern, migrated from the continent into some parts of the islands, gradually extending their influence all over the islands. As to the racial origin of these first inhabitants, it was believed that they belonged to the Palaeo-Ainu stock, but a new theory has been advanced recently according to which the primitive inhabitants were the common ancestors of the Japanese and the Ainu now living in Hokkaido, Saghalien, and the Kurile Islands. In the light of this new theory, it may be concluded that developing from this ethnological prototype this original stock gradually established themselves as a unique mixed race known as Yamato race, by gradually absorbing various ethnological elements immigrating from the Asiatic continent and the South Sea Islands, such as the Ainu, the Mongols, the Hans, the Koreans, the Indonesians, the Negritos, etc.

Relics of the Early Neolithic Culture

The Neolithic tribes coming to these islands in great succession in small groups were a roving people, who moved from one place to another along the coast of the islands in pursuit of fishes and shells. Having no fixed abode, they usually took shelter in mountain grottoes to protect themselves against inclement weather or attack by the enemy. Many relics of these cave dwellings still remain to be seen in various parts of this country, especially in the eastern part of Japan.

In course of time, however, they began to settle down, though temporarily, in such places where fishes and shells were obtained in abundance. They constructed their dwelling places by hollowing out a shallow pit either square or rectangular in shape, on the alluvium of the seashore or coastal isles, planting one pole in the center with four main poles at the corners and several other poles around it, and covered with a roof. The dwelling pits were spacious enough to hold several persons, with a fireplace in the center, and with a ditch dug around it to keep the floor from moisture. The deepest of these dwelling pits reaches one meter, the older ones being deeper and more angular in shape than later ones. The fact that many remains of these dwelling pits crowd together at certain places, suggests that Neolithic people lived a community life on these sites.

Relics of the Later Neolithic Culture

But with the approach of the beginning of the Christian era, these Neolithic people penetrated far into the hinterland of the alluvial region, where they took to hunting side by side with fishing. Their dwellings were also removed to plateaux, or the banks of rivers or lakes.

The construction of their dwelling pits also underwent a change. They became shallow, increased in area, and changed from square to round or oval shape. Finally they began to be con-

structed partly or entirely above the ground, with an earthen floor or floor paved with flat stones. The extension of the scope of habitation signifies, on the one hand, an increase in the population of those primitive inhabitants, and on the other, the remarkable progress made in the manner of fishing and hunting which began to be conducted as a joint undertaking by the entire community.

Skeletons, Stone Implements, and Earthenware Pottery, stone implements and skeletons, usually with the bones of animals, birds and fish and shells, occur in abundance on many sites of those primitive habitations or in the shell mounds in their neighborhood.

More than 1,000 human bones excavated in those Neolithic sites represent the Neolithic people who first migrated into Japan and who constituted the ethnological prototype of the later Japanese and the present Ainu. It is also known from those human remains that the original inhabitants in these islands had some Tungusic strain.

Among the various Neolithic implements, stone arrow heads, stone spears, stone axes, etc. were used in hunting, while stone sinkers, antler harpoons, bone hooks, etc. constituted the fishing tools. Besides these, there were some kitchen utensils such as stone knives, stone clubs, stone plates, stone spoons, etc. as well as some earthenware of various shapes such as bowls, vases, bottles, etc. which were used as containers of food. Most of these stone implements, which belong to the earlier Neolithic phase, were manufactured by chipping, but began to be finely polished in the later Neolithic period. The pottery obtained from Neolithic sites are known as the Jomon type, because of the rope or mat impressions upon the surface or the designs composed of curved lines arranged artistically. These Neolithic pottery vessels were all made by hand, without being turned on the wheel, modelled after bamboo baskets. They were made by shaping clay into the desired form of vessels by hand, or by coiling up a long string of clay into that form, or by piling up many rings of clay into that shape. In other cases, they were made up of many strips of clay. They were dried in the shade and then baked in uncovered furnaces at the maximum temperature of 650 degrees.

Primitive Costumes and Animism If considered on the basis of clay idols unearthed from Neolithic remains, it seems that the Japanese proper were clad in a two-piece fur dress composed of the upper and lower garments. The upper garment for women opened in front, while the male attire was a shirt-like garment to slip on over the head. However, from the fact that basket-making was already known to the people in those primitive stages, it may be imagined with good reason that they wore clothes made of vegetable fibers woven by themselves.

On the other hand, human remains and clay idols obtained from shell mounds and other Neolithic sites go to show that the primitive people made various personal adornments of shells, horns, teeth, bones, etc. to be worn at the ears, in the hair, around the neck and the arms, or at the waist. In the later periods, however, more advanced adornments such as ear-rings, comma-shaped beads, etc. came to be added to those already existing.

What demands attention in this connection is that just like clay idols, clay tablets, stone idols, stone tablets, stone clubs, etc. those personal adornments possessed a great deal of magical significance peculiar to animism.

There are many evidences to show that the Japanese proper were generally under the influence of animism, but the most remarkable of them all is the fact that without abandoning dead bodies they had the custom of burying them together in one place 2 to 3 feet underneath the ground. Especially noteworthy is the manner of burying them. They are often buried with their knees bent, with a stone held at the breast or abdomen, or with an earthen vessel placed upon the head, which had the animistic significance of preventing the souls from going out from the dead body. Red colored skeletons and relics of fires built by the side of the corpses often occurring in Neolithic remains also suggest some animistic magic.

Maternal Clan Community It is a noteworthy phenomenon that relics found at Neolithic sites such as dwelling pits, shell mounds and burial mounds, are confined to articles of daily use that are simple and similar in shape and design, and do not include any particular article of luxurious quality or of elaborate design. From this fact it might

be inferred that there prevailed no class distinction among the earliest inhabitants in Japan and that they represented a primitive type of society.

In those primitive times people formed communities called "Uji" (or clan), who under the leadership of the clan elders shared the common economic activities either in production or consumption, while enjoying together the cultural benefits available. They were, however, still in the stage of self-sustaining economy, and barter economy was still unknown among clan groups. Clans were the units of social formation, and were not still divided into families. Marriages were generally consanguineous among the same clan members, and the clansmen's lineages were counted by their maternal line. Thus it may be said that the primitive inhabitants formed many maternal clan communities, which were scattered all over the Japanese islands.

Culture of Ancient Japan (200 B.C.—531 A.D.)

Age of Traditions According to the "Nihonshoki" (Japanese Annals), the first book of history compiled by Imperial order in 720 A.D. in the reign of the Empress Gensho, the Japanese islands were unified as far back as 660 B.C. by the first Emperor Jimmu under his rule. But being the record of the remote ages it would be most reasonable to call the period of 1,000 years from the Emperor Jimmu to the Emperor Keitai, who reigned from 507 to 531 A.D., the Age of Traditions.

Ancient Japan during that period still belonged to the Neolithic phase and had hardly entered into the Bronze Age. In the early years of that period the Jomon Neolithic pottery was being used in eastern Japan, while in the western district polished stone implements and the Yayoi Neolithic pottery were prevailing. It was only in the latter half of the period that Japan stepped into the historical period, together with the practice of building sepulchral mounds and the use of iron implements.

Relics of the Early Yayoi-type Culture About the 3rd century B.C. the Jomon culture was still flourishing on plateaux in eastern Japan, while in western Japan a culture represented by the Yayoi pottery accompanied by bronze utensils made its way from the Asiatic contin-

ent to gradually extend its influence. This Yayoi-type culture may be classified into the two categories: the one accompanied by bronze swords and bronze halberds which flourished in the extensive region covering northern Kyushu, Shikoku and Chugoku with the first named district as its center, and the other characterized by the Dotaku or bronze bells which extended its influence to the Yamato region via the San-in (the part facing the Japan Sea west of Kyoto) and Kinki (Kyoto-Osaka) districts.

The bearers of these two types of culture built their villages in the alluvial lowlands on the seashore or by the rivers, living in pit dwellings or habitations built above the ground. Various remains of this phase of the so-called Yayoi culture are obtained chiefly from large jar coffins, which contain skeletons and some stone implements. The Yayoi pottery, the first product to be manufactured by means of the wheel, is graceful in shape, with a design more elegant than that found on the Jomon pottery. Crude vessels of the Yayoi type were used as pans and kettles for cooking food, while the jars and pots served as food containers.

By this time, a primitive form of agriculture had begun to be conducted, along with hunting and fishing. No wonder that bronze implements newly imported from the continent were utilized for farming, with a greater degree of convenience than the existing stone implements.

Relics of the Later Yayoi-type Culture With the approach of the Christian era, the villages removed gradually into the hinterland, the bordering regions between the alluvial plains and the diluvial plateaux. In addition to the imported bronze implements, the people in this period had learnt to cast excellent arms as well as some agricultural implements. With these new farming conveniences they had taken to rice cultivation in the terraced paddy-fields on the fan-shaped hillside. Thus the growth of agriculture increased the value of land, converting it into property; while at the same time a strong demand for slaves as suppliers of necessary labor began to be acutely felt by various clan communities so that there was a keen struggle among them in securing laborers.

By and by the Yayoi culture extended

its influence to the sphere of the Jomon culture in eastern Japan, through the intermediate three districts in the western half of the Main Island and Kwanto, remaining for about one century in each of the districts. Under such circumstances, it was only about the 5th century that the extreme north-eastern district came under the influence of the Yayoi culture and a new culture characterized by the use of iron implements and the construction of sepulchral mounds reached its zenith.

Ancient Culture Characterized by Sepulchral Mounds and Iron Implements It was about the 2nd century that iron implements made their appearance for the first time in northern Kyushu. At the beginning, iron works owed their development to Korea both in the technique of tempering and the supply of ores. But with the discovery of excellent sand iron in the San-in and Chugoku districts, the natives began to make themselves various implements with the domestic material.

The appearance of iron spades and ploughs and other farming tools contributed a great deal towards the development of agriculture. Paddy-field cultivation came to be conducted on a large scale with the employment of cattle; farm products such as beans, barley, millet, barn-yard millet, etc. were raised largely; ponds and canals were dug out to bring the farming area under irrigation; river banks were constructed to avoid the floods; and swamps were dried for arable land.

Against such growing agricultural background powerful clans were brought into existence in the country. Influential clansmen lived in stately houses built on raised floor and grand burial mounds were constructed in honor of the leaders of the clans, and hence this period came to be known as the age of ancient sepulchral mounds, which lasted from the 2nd to the 5th centuries chiefly in western Japan with its centers in the provinces of Chikushi in northern Kyushu, Hyuga in southern Kyushu, Izumo in the San-in district, Kibi in the Chugoku district, Yamato in the Kinki district, etc. Especially in the Yamato region this type of culture attained the height of its development during the 5th century.

The influence of this type of culture made itself felt in eastern Japan much later than in western Japan. The prac-

tice of building burial mounds began to be evident both in the central provinces and the Kwanto district only in the latter part of the 4th century and continued until the 8th century. This custom was very late in reaching the extreme north-eastern districts of Japan, where burial mounds began to be constructed in the 8th century, by which time the practice began to disappear in the Kwanto district.

Food, Clothing, and Habitation of the Ancient Japanese In ancient Japan agriculture formed the Islanders' principal industry chiefly devoted to the raising of rice, barley, millet, barn-yard millet and beans, which formed their main foodstuffs. They also grew peaches, nuts, chestnuts, etc. and brewed sake which was their favorite beverage. Although animal meat and fish also supplied them with subsidiary foodstuffs, owing to the geographical conditions of the islands unsuited to cattle raising, the ancient Japanese passed from the age of fishing and hunting directly into the agricultural age, without experiencing a pastoral life.

Bronze and iron tools and articles replaced polished stone implements, while the Haji and the Sué potteries took the place of the Yayoi earthenware as containers of food. The Haji pottery, brown in color, was baked in oxidizing flame in an open kiln, and the Sué pottery, harder and gray in color, was fired in a white heat. Both vessels were made in mass production by means of the wheel, in various shapes and forms according to the purposes which they were intended to serve.

From Haniwa or clay figures excavated from burial mounds, one can know the kind of clothes the ancient Japanese wore. With a striking resemblance to the present Korean costume, the male attire consisted of the upper garment called "so" and the trousers called "hakama"; while the female attire had the skirt called "mo" instead of "hakama." They were generally made of vegetable fiber, though silk fabrics were newly introduced to be worn by the nobles. Personal adornments consisted of jewelled necklaces and brooches as well as gold or copper crowns, belts, bracelets, earrings, etc. In fighting or hunting the warriors went out on horseback, clad in iron armor and wearing an iron helmet, with a straight sword at the waist and bow and arrow in hand.

The dwelling places of the plebeians were usually crude thatched huts; but it is suggested from some ancient clay figures that noblemen's habitations were wooden buildings with raised floor, thatched either with weeds or shingles. In some cases they were imposing two-storied buildings.

Beginning of the Primitive Shintōism In those remote days animism still prevailed as the popular belief side by side with the custom of worshipping powerful natural phenomena. A kind of Shamanism was born out of this belief and a female Shaman prayed to the deities for the welfare of the clan-head and conveyed the divine will to him, thereby adding weight to the authority of the clan-head over his community. Thus was developed the primitive Shintōism partaking many of the Shamanistic characteristics and was followed principally by the aristocratic classes in ancient Japan.

In its most primitive form, Shintōism appeared as the worship of "Uji-gami" or clan deities, which was connected with reverence for the ancestors of the clan-heads. The members of each clan were united in the worship of their own particular god, but as the faith came to be finally embraced by all the inhabitants of the village belonging to the clan, the clan deity became the tutelary deity of the place as well as the guardian god of agriculture, in addition to being regarded as the object of ancestor worship. At this stage of religious development, all affairs of the clan began to be conducted through services to the clan deity, which marked the birth of the unity of religion and politics. Under this system, the political control of a clan-head over the people and land belonging to the clan was considerably strengthened, because it was sanctified by the religious services to the clan god.

There were in those days repeated struggles among different clans, resulting in the conquest or subjection of many weak clans by a few powerful ones. As a result of such clan and tribal fightings, the deities of the vanquished clans were subordinated to the gods of the conquering clans. The repetition of such a process gave rise to the establishment of genealogical relations among the different clan deities, reflecting the status of each clan in relation to another. Thus, the eight million

deities of Japan were gradually systematized into definite genealogical relations centering around the Amaterasu-O-Mikami.

Primitive Art and Literature Being under the strong influence of animism and Shamanistic belief, the ancient Japanese believed in the presence of souls or spirits within the human body. Acting according to their religious belief that as Heaven was the abode of the deities, Hades was the land of the spirits of the dead, they buried human remains in sepulchral mounds with due ceremony and worshipped them with reverence. Stone chambers, stone coffins and sarcophagi, and such objects as swords, mirrors, jewels, etc., as well as stone figures, stone horses, clay figures, etc. which were buried within the sepulchral mounds, were, therefore, regarded as absolutely pure and extremely sacred, while extraordinary magical significance was attached to the shapes of these articles and the decorations such as the symbols and pictures contained by them. Arms such as swords, armor, bow and arrow, etc. were also revered as the source of magic power, and so was the Dotaku, a kind of musical instrument.

All products of industrial art were therefore valued solely for their magical power, but later they came to be valued for their aesthetic qualities. Among the other phases of the cultural life in ancient Japan, literature, music, and dancing also possessed religious significance. Literature had its genesis in the oracles pronounced by clan priestesses or words sung by the clansmen in praise of gods, which were handed down from generation to generation in the form of ballads. In course of time these ballads were enriched with clan histories, and developed into lyrics and later into epics. Although these lyrics and epics were in the earlier times sung by clansmen themselves, there appeared later a professional singer called "Kataribé" in each clan, who sang at clan gatherings the annals of the clan, the achievements of gods, the brave deeds of the heroes of victorious battles, etc.

Music and dancing first found their significance as a means of honoring their gods, but later they were performed in celebration of such great occasions of the clan as the harvest or a victory in war. After still further de-

velopment, both these arts finally attained an independent status and began to be practised for pleasure.

Age of the Patriarchal Clan System Clans had by now become divided into classes—the leading classes centering round the clan-heads and the other constituent members of the clans being under their rule. There were also slaves who were either the common possessions of the clan or the private property of the clan-head.

With the ascendancy of agriculture as the principal industry of the people, drastic changes occurred in the social life. The communal society was now transformed into territorial groups, and the maternal system was replaced by powerful patriarchy, in keeping with the development of private property. Clan fights and struggles continued, however, for some time for the acquisition of land, which opened up a gulf of difference between the rich and the poor among the clans. This finally led to the creation of a new social system called "Kabané," which established the differences of social position for all clans in the country, putting an end to the equality of social status. In the political phase, this took the form of "Uji-Kabané" or a system by which people were divided into distinct classes.

Foundation of the Empire This process of transition is described, though not very clearly, both in the "Nihon-shoki" already referred to and the "Kojiki" (Antiquities) which was completed eight years prior to the Nihon-shoki in 712 A.D. in the reign of the Empress Gemmyo. In the light of historical researches, it is reasonable to conclude from Emperor Jimmu's Eastern Expedition and the founding of the Japanese Empire in 660 B.C. that the culture represented by the Yayoi pottery reached the northern districts by about the 1st century, when the inhabitants of northern Kyushu were actively engaged in the importation of the culture of the Han dynasty of China by way of Korea.

The advance of the ancient culture characterized by the use of iron implements and the construction of burial mounds during the period between the 3rd and the 4th century, corresponds to the active process of national unification represented by the dispatch of the four generals by the Emperor Sujin

(88 A.D.) to repress the incursions of the barbarous tribes, the expeditions conducted by the Emperor Keiko (71-131 A.D.) etc. From the 4th to the 5th century, Japan dispatched large forces to subjugate the Korean kingdoms, while it was busily occupied in absorbing the continental architecture, sculpture, painting, textile and dyeing industries, and other phases of cultural life, by maintaining close relations with the Wei and Chin dynasties in North China and the Sung, the Chi, the Liang, and the Chen dynasties in South China. This fact is not only referred to in the Kojiki and the Nihon-shoki, but also definitely mentioned in the ancient Chinese historical records. Moreover, the fact is eloquently endorsed by the various articles such as mirrors, swords, etc. found in the ancient burial mounds.

The period from the 5th to the 6th century witnessed the construction of magnificent sepulchral mounds in the Nara region, the practice gradually extending to northern provinces. This represents the completion of the national unification by the Imperial Family as well as the extension of the Imperial rule to northern districts.

Asuka Period (532-710 A.D.)

By the 6th century A.D. Japanese social and economic conditions were well suited for the introduction and appreciation of the Chinese civilization of the brilliant ages of the Sui and Tang dynasties.

Political Events With religion, other things such as painting, sculpture and architecture were gradually introduced and in the sixth century Prince Shotoku-Taishi, striving for the promotion of learning, religion and art, tried his best to make a radical improvement in the state administration and in the social life of the people. His work was a forerunner of the Taika Reformation.

In the meantime, there arose troubles among the clans which had power in the Government, their conflict becoming greater with the advancement of civilization. Two of the most important of these clans, Soga and Mononobé, came into violent collision over the question of adopting Buddhism as the national religion. The former finally got the upper hand, but so abused its power that

it stirred up the opposition of Kamatari Fujiwara, a loyal subject, and Prince Naka-no-Ohyé, who later became the Emperor Tenji. The Soga power was suppressed in the year 645; this was the first step toward the Taika Reformation.

As a natural development land became divided among the Imperial house, the clans and the temples. The Imperial estates were obtained in various ways, and consisted of, first, land owned ever since the time of the Emperor Jimmu; secondly, land newly cultivated by the farmers who served the august family; thirdly, estates presented by local nobles; and fourthly, memorial lands for the dead members of the Imperial family.

Clans owned their estates, either by natural right, conquest or as prizes for merit. Shinto shrines and Buddhist temples also possessed their own glebes, given them by nobles as offerings. The patriarchs or clan heads in the country districts began to possess a great number of people and large estates and enrich themselves by the labor of their serfs. Their wealth gave them influence and power and they became local lords. The clan system allowed high officials of the Court and the powerful families in the provinces to exercise almost absolute power over their own territories. The emperors ruled the people indirectly, all the official positions being hereditary. This system gave birth to several political vices or abuses, and the Imperial authority became much reduced. The excesses of the Soga clan showed clearly the injurious effect of this system, and the necessity of ending it quickly.

Social classes The aristocrats of this period were the clan heads, an idea of whose life may be formed from the luxurious relics found in their large tombs or mounds in the district around Nara and Kyoto. Next came the direct subjects of the Imperial House whose occupation was mainly agriculture. The third class, which was the largest and constituted the main productive element of the nation, consisted of the subjects of the local clan heads. They worked for their respective clans at making clothes, ceramics, brewing, the manufacture of lacquer goods, furniture making, etc., besides being farmers, fishermen and hunters. The lowest class of people

was that of the "yakko" or serfs who served in the lowest kind of occupation for the aristocrats. They were often presented to shrines and temples as slaves. The slaves in Japan originated in captives taken from Ezo and Korea, and to them were later added those who had sold themselves for monetary reasons. Once enslaved, their social status remained unchanged unless emancipation came through the benevolence of their lords or paid for by themselves or some other people. The number of slaves, however, was rather insignificant.

The Taika (Taikwa) Reformation When the Soga family were destroyed, the Emperor Kotoku started a plan for a reformation, appointing the Crown Prince Naka-no-Ohyé to the head of the council which was composed of Kamatari Fujiwara, Kurahashimaro Abé and other great scholars of the time. The Crown Prince, with Kamatari as his right hand man, studied the Chinese system of government and made plans for a revolutionary change of politics for the welfare of the people. In the summer of 1305 from Jimmu (645 A.D.), he introduced from China the system of "nengo" or year-names, and called the period Taika or "Great Reformation." This was indeed only seven days after the death of Soga. The Taika Reformation was the first of the three great changes that Japan has experienced in politics since the founding of the nation. The second was the establishment of the Shogunate at Kamakura, 1192, and the third was the Meiji Restoration, 1868. In the second year of Taika the Imperial Edict of the Reformation was proclaimed. Some of its provisions were as follows:

(1) To bring all the private lands into public possession; (2) to divide the confiscated lands among the people, taking a census and fixing reasonable taxes; (3) to fix divisions of Kuni, Gun and Ri for the convenience of administration, putting officials in each division.

These changes were practically carried out, and the clan system was entirely broken, thus bringing about a centralization of political power according to the Chinese pattern.

A Premature Trial The Taika Reformation, however, could hardly be considered as reformation of a government which had already been well organized, but rather as an attempt at the

formation of a real central government. Corruption within the old clan system had made a purging of the social and political system of the country urgent. Chinese cultural and political influence which stimulated the longing in the hearts of the authorities for the construction of a shapely government was a second cause of the reform. Unity and centralization of administration was completely exemplified by their big neighbor, and the young minds of the Japanese officials and nobles, entirely caught by its brilliancy, were rather too impatient to make fuller investigations on the adaptability of Chinese institutions to Japan and the Japanese of the day. The Taika Reformation, therefore, was hardly a success so far as its economic system was concerned.

Its Lasting Merit But the fundamental and imperishable meaning of the Taika Reformation is that it was the first systematic organization of the Central Government and the establishment of the spirit of national unity.

It was in this age that the whole of Japan was united into one. The Ezo tribes in Hokkaido Island and the inhabitants of the southern islands came to pay homage to the Central Government, and Buddhism was propagated among the northern islanders and the Kyushu tribes in the south as a cultural enterprise of the Government.

Taiho Law (Taiho-ritsu-ryo) After half a century, or in 701, the Taiho Law, which completed the work of the Taika Reformation, especially in the organization of the Government, was promulgated. The construction of the Daijokan (the Great Government), which was regulated in the Taiho Law, and revised once in 718, was the form of central government which continued till the Meiji Restoration, when it was revived in power and called the Dajokan. The Government consisted of the Daijo Daijin, the Sa (left) Daijin, the U (right) Daijin, four Dai Nagon, three Sho Nagon, four secretaries, ten scribes, three Sa-benkan, and three U-benkan.

The Daijo Daijin was the tutor and personal counsellor to the Emperor, and had no fixed office. In view of the importance of the position it was not filled when no suitable man was to be found. The Sa Daijin was the prime minister and controlled all the adminis-

trative offices and might over-rule the decisions of the Danjodai (a kind of court of administrative litigation).

The U Daijin took the work of the Sa Daijin in his absence and his responsibility was the same as that of the Sa Daijin. The Dai Nagon acted as counsellors in national affairs with the three Daijin just mentioned and assisted them, directly reported all political affairs of importance to the Emperor, handed Imperial orders to the departments, and performed the offices of Imperial attendants. The Sho Nagon administered affairs of minor importance, the secretaries and scribes administered the business concerning public documents and Imperial edicts, etc. The Sa (left) Benkan administered the following four departments: the central, the ritual, the administrative, and the civil. The U (right) Benkan administered the other four departments: the military, the judicial, the treasury, and the Imperial House. That is to say, the practical administration of the eight departments was executed by the Left and Right Benkan in accordance with the decisions and directions of the three Daijin and four Dai Nagon.

Learning and Religion A century around the Taika Reformation was the period when the Government was busy also in the study of Chinese literature, importation of continental culture, and compilation and promulgation of new laws. It was an age of laying foundations for the future progress of Japanese civilization. This study of continental cultures did not stop with that of China, but ancient nations west of China became tutors of the Japanese. Among the treasures which were accumulated by the Emperor Shomu (724-749 A.D.) and kept in the Sho-so-in Museum at Nara, there are many art products of Rome and Persia. The area represented by the treasures practically covers all the civilized countries of the Orient and a large portion of the Western world.

Systematic education of the young began with the building of Horyuji temple (see Chapter XXVIII). With the compilation of the Nihonshoki and Kojiki, Shintolism was formulated as the national religion. On the other hand Buddhism was eagerly taken into the lives of the upper class people who had power to assimilate it.

Nara Period (710-793 A.D.)

Golden Age of Buddhism After the Taika Reformation in 646, the Government rather avoided the trouble of intercourse with the Korean Peninsula and concentrated their power on the better administration of home affairs, encouraging intercourse with China in order to bring Chinese civilization more into Japanese life, and 60 years later founded the city of Nara as the capital, in Chinese style. For 70 years following its founding, it was an age of imitating Chinese things. Buddhism won the faith of all classes of the people and developed and expanded among them with great rapidity. This was the golden age for Buddhist fine arts, existing specimens of which make today the international treasures of old Buddhism. The nation was prosperous and the people enjoyed a happy life such as they had never known before.

Throughout most of the 8th century Nara was the Imperial capital and towards the end of it Japanese civilization, favored by peaceful social conditions, began to assume its own form and characteristics. The Japanese poetry, waka, took a definite style and the range of subjects handled in the poems came to include all phases of life and nature as seen in the Manyoshu collection of waka of this period (See Chapter XXXIV).

The use of abbreviated forms of Chinese characters began in this period for the convenience of copying books, in an age without much printing, although block-printing was introduced from China by 770 A.D., and prepared a way to the invention of Kana characters in the following Heian period.

Division of the Rich and the Poor As mentioned above, the economic plan of the Taika Reformation soon began to collapse. It was not, however, a return to the old patriarchal system but an advance to feudalism.

The even distribution of land under the Taika Reformation proved in practice insufficient and many farmers were compelled to obtain more land by cultivation of waste areas or to fall heavily into debt. On the other hand, the nobles or former patriarchs of larger clans, the Court officials and priests began to accumulate special prize lands, gift lands and subject tenants, and people of the

upper class became landed proprietors with wide estates which were called "Shoen."

For the cultivation of new arable land, labor and the digging of water courses were required, and such land naturally came into the hands of the wealthy people. Besides the addition of newly cultivated land they enlarged their estates by purchasing the land of the poorer people, confiscating mortgaged land and conquering weaker landowners by force. This tendency in the rural districts went its course unchecked, while the Central Government was occupied with political and diplomatic affairs mostly concerning matters in the capital cities of Nara and Heian (Kyoto), and Court nobles gave themselves up to luxurious living.

Korea, China and Japan (600 B.C.-1019 A.D.) From the time when these islands were first populated the inhabitants of the Korean Peninsula had intimate relations with the islanders. Especially, according to traditions, was this the case with the south-eastern part and the Isumo district. At the time of the Emperor Sujin the southern part of Korea became a Japanese protectorate, but its eastern neighbor, Silla, scorned Japan until it was subdued by the Empress Jingo in 200 A.D. The western half and lands in the north also came under the influence of Japan until finally the whole peninsula became tributary to her. These small kingdoms mostly acknowledged the Japanese authority, but sometimes they rose in rebellion and Japan frequently had to send armies to the peninsula, till finally the Governor's office was destroyed by Silla in 562. Silla soon became the master of the whole peninsula, conquered the other small states, and entered into good terms with the Chinese Government. The ruling power of Silla was usurped by another dynasty in the 9th century. Japan interfered in these affairs when suitable chances offered, but all her attempts were in vain and she lost her last trace of influence by the year 936.

The northern part of Korea had once been a territory of China in the second century B.C. Intercourse between the Japanese and Chinese people had already started in those days, and during the years in which the Korean peninsula was tributary to Japan the trade and travel between the two nations became greater and more frequent; many Chi-

nese scholars and artists became naturalized in Japan and worked for the Government in the fields of literature, art and general technique. Some Emperors sent delegates to south-eastern China to get teachers of weaving and sewing.

In 607, when Shotoku Taishi was regent, an ambassador was sent to the Sui Dynasty and friendly official intercourse was opened. Later, when the Tang Dynasty replaced that Sui, diplomatic relations were still unbroken between the two nations and many a young man and monk went to China for study. The culture and civilization of the continent flowed into Japan and greatly influenced her politics and social life. In the Era of the Emperor Tenji, this intercourse was once checked by difficulties with Korea, but the Tang Emperor sent his delegates again to Japan to re-establish friendly relations, and they were accordingly restored. During the Nara Period, especially, travel was most frequent between the two countries, and science, religion, the fine arts, architecture and forms of living were all taken from China, such imitation continuing till the beginning of the Heian Period. Chinese civil wars proved a hindrance to these friendly relations and the Emperor Uda stopped the sending of delegates in 894.

In Manchuria a strong nation appeared in 713 and invaded northern Korea, and started some trade with Japan. Another arose later and came down even to the central part of the peninsula. Still another dynasty then gained control over much of eastern Asia and tried to invade these islands, but was defeated by the Japanese army in 1019.

Heian Period

(794-1192 A.D.)

Fujiwara Despotism The Emperor Kammu changed the capital from Nara to the new city of Heian, the present Kyoto, in 794, and instituted a new era. For several decades after that the Imperial scepter retained its power. But from the middle of the 9th century, the house of Fujiwara became closely related to the Imperial House, and began to assume regentship of the country. Taking all political power from the Imperial House, the Fujiwaras gradually concentrated it in their own hands and planned only for the benefit of their

family and relatives. Their despotism reached its climax with Michinaga Fujiwara in the 10th century.

In those days the Fujiwara family gave themselves over to luxury, and greatly influenced the city life of Kyoto, making it indolent and vicious. But on the other hand literature and the fine arts made special progress. As the result of the cessation of sending delegates to China Japanese habits and inherited ideas regained favor and developed a style which was most graceful. Buddhism now assumed a strong and influential position not only among the people at large but also in the Court. The Enryakuji Temple of Kyoto and the Kofukuji Temple of Nara especially played a great part in this new tendency. It was noticeable that by this time the imported religion was largely transformed and Japanized in character.

Rise of Samurai Class Another remarkable phenomenon of this period was the rise of the samurai, the warrior class. The direct rule of the Emperor, in consequence of the weakening centralization of administrative power, was declining. In the local districts, the private lands owned by the aristocratic families were increasing year by year, and the orders issued by the Central Government were disregarded in those private territories. Local affairs fell into confusion, and robbers stalked abroad in the towns and villages. Wealthy landowners in the villages hired and fed soldiers for self-defense, and these farmer-soldiers finally became samurai, men whose profession was fighting. Sons of aristocratic families who could not get official positions also became soldiers, striving after power. Soon they became really powerful, being specially rampant in the farther districts, where they rebelled against local orders. The bodyguard of the Court, hopelessly impotent, was useless for real battle, and the samurai rebellions were suppressed only by other samurai bodies. The princes and nobles also hired samurai to guard them and to further their political feuds. Warriors were encouraged to become ever more skilful in the practice of arms, and it was quite natural that in such a course of affairs important positions in governmental offices should go to members of the samurai class. Among them the most famous ones to receive such posi-

tions were members of the Minamoto (Genji) and Taira (Heishi or Heike) families.

In the middle of the 11th century, the Emperors gathered patriots to restore the Imperial power to the old status and suppress the Fujiwara despotism. Finally in 1156 the Fujiwara power was completely broken and overthrown by the Genji and Heishi warriors, who were much honored in consequence by the Imperial House. Before long, however, these two samurai houses became rivals and in 1159 Kiyomori Taira (Heishi) won the day against Yoshitomo Minamoto (Genji). Kiyomori had rare ability and great ambition, and forgetting that he was but a samurai followed the examples of Fujiwara and became himself another despot. For his wilful behavior he was hated by all classes of the people, and Yoritomo Minamoto, son of the defeated Yoshitomo, rose on the tide of general bad feeling against the Tairas, and the whole Taira family was defeated and drowned at the battle of Dan-no-ura in the Inland Sea in 1185. It was Yoritomo Minamoto who first established government by the samurai class.

Literature At the end of the Nara period an abbreviated form of Chinese characters began to be used among scribes. In this Heian Period the Katakana, a Japanese syllabary of simple square characters was derived from the Chinese ideograms, and lastly Hiragana, a smoother and more fanciful style of Kana was invented and came to be used first among educated ladies and then by gentlemen also. Chinese sentences had monopolized the literature of former ages, but from the first quarter of this period pure Japanese sentences in the new Japanese alphabet appeared and gave an impetus to the rapid spread of waka composition and beautiful Japanese stories like the *Taketori-monogatari* and *Isé-monogatari*.

The culture of this period had not yet reached the rural districts and common people, but existed only in the larger cities and a number of towns and among the aristocratic class. The kulturträger, the bearers of civilization and culture of the age, were court nobles, government officials, priests and monks, and their families. It may be going too far to say that Heian was the only city of the Empire in those days, for there are evidences of the existence

of some local market towns and trade ports. It is nevertheless true that there was a great difference in grade of civilization between the capital and the rural districts. The intelligentsia in the capital kept political power and literary heritage to themselves and their successors, their living being supported by the contributions and tenant fees from their country estates. They lived a luxurious and easy monotonous life as is shown in the *Genji-monogatari* by Murasaki-shikibu, a woman novelist (See Chapter XXXIV). But at the same time Japanese literature made wonderful progress in this age.

Education School education was undertaken by the Government along definite lines in the city and local districts. In the city of Heian there was a *Dai-gaku*, (school of higher learning), which took in 400 boys of higher officials. There were 143 higher officials and 850 lower officials in the city. In the districts there were established *Kokugaku*, provincial schools, open mainly for the boys of local officials. At Dazaifu in Kyushu the *Gakugyo-in*, or institute of learning, was established for the provinces of the northern half of the island. The main course of study in these schools was related to national politics based on the teachings of Confucius. But literature, music, physical science, pharmacology, astronomy, mathematics and penmanship were not neglected. Some of the local schools were of a high educational standing and sent out able scholars. Children of the princes and court nobles were taught by private tutors. School education especially flourished in the Enryaku, Konin and Showa eras, under the Emperors Kammu, Saga and Nimmyo respectively. The building of the new capital of Heian gave rise to a new spirit of enterprise among the people and broader humanistic ideals began to show themselves, with sincere aspirations for the advancement of civilization and many a young student going abroad. The needs of the times gave rise to many private schools. Some representative ones were the *Bunsho-in* of Seiho Sugawara, the *Kangaku-in* of Fuyutsugu Fujiwara, the *Gakkan-in* of Tachibana, the *Shogaku-in* of Yukihiro Arihara, and the *Kobun-in* of Kiyomaro Waké. The Sugawara family especially produced a succession of first class scholars, and many able young men came

into the Bunsho-in. This study of foreign learning continued from the previous periods to the middle of the era when the Emperor Uda stopped the sending of delegates to China.

With the slackening interest in Chinese cultural studies early in the 10th century the Government schools were gradually reduced in numbers and influence, especially, also, as the power of the Imperial Government was dwindling and the Fujiwara connections were beginning to monopolize all official positions, leaving outsiders without hope of preferment. The Daigaku-in in Heian was closed after the buildings (five blocks of classrooms and one storehouse) were burnt down in the fire of 1177. Learning became a hereditary privilege with the growth of reactionary reverence for established lineage. Buddhism also became much Japanized by the appearance of such monks as Saicho of the Tendai and Kobo Daishi of the Shingon Sect.

Economic Condition The cleavage between the common people and ruling classes became more marked and the clan or family ties weakened as the connection between demand and supply became more complicated. From this arose the necessity for exchanges and markets. Waka of the Manyoshu suggest the existence of markets in Japan at such an early date. As a matter of fact there had been several markets opened in bygone times such as those of Tsubaki, Atokuwa and Eka. On the beach of Takahama in Hitachi (present Ibaraki) and by the straits of Asakumi in Izumo province (present Shimane) there were primitive markets opened for the people. These markets were first started in connection with Shinto festivals. In the Nara Period, there were the East and West Markets in the city of Nara, where trees were planted for giving shade, and from there peddlars travelled around as far as Echizen province (present Fukui).

In the 7th century silver and copper money was already in considerable circulation. In the 8th century copper money was cast by the Imperial Government, although it is not clear whether all the money in circulation before that was of Chinese origin or not. In the first year of the Wado Era, 708 A.D., silver and copper coins named Wado-kaiho were cast at the Imperial mint, and this coining of metals continued, ushering in the period of money instead

of barter.

In the Heian Period public markets were opened in the east and the west of Heian city. The East Market consisted of 51 shops and the West Market of 33, and they continued till the time of the Gen-pei (Genji and Heishi) wars in the 12th century. The largest among the local markets were at Tsubaki, Tatsu, Asuka and Ausa in Yamato province (present Nara) Shikama in Harima (near Himéji), Naniwa (Osaka) in Settsu and Kowaki in Shiga. There were many trading ports, and of these Hakata, Muro and Naniwa were the most thriving in foreign trade, Hakata coming first, located as it was at the northern end of Kyushu, nearest to Korea and China. Foreign commerce at this time was mostly governmental, private trading not being allowed.

Social Classes (the 7th-12th centuries) The highest class of this age consisted of the descendants of the nobles of the preceding age, new dignitaries promoted for meritorious services, descendants of the Imperial House and high priests of Buddhist temples. These people monopolized the highest positions in the government and administration. Wealth was naturally accumulated by them and civilized life attained by the assimilation of continental culture was theirs. The high official positions and ranks were accompanied with material estates and income, and nobility and wealth were synonymous. Living in the capital or vicinity and holding a close connection with the Imperial House this class enjoyed its aristocratic life until power was taken from it by the Fujiwaras in the 11th century.

Next came the class of provincial lords, or officials, scholars, warriors and certain naturalized Koreans or Chinese who were well educated. This class can be compared with the middle class of to-day. The power of the members of this class in politics was secondary, but the standard of their culture was as high as the first, if not higher, especially in the case of scholars such as doctors, astronomers, and mathematicians. They were the military and civil administrators in the local districts and the carriers of a higher civilization.

The third class of this age consisted of the descendants of the second and third classes of the preceding age, they were mostly engaged in agricultural work, although there were among them

some artisans and merchants but the number was comparatively small. In fact handicraft and merchandizing was, in later days, mostly carried out by farmers as a kind of side line. They were compelled to work so hard in order to support the upper classes that some scholars of the economic history of Japan have called this "an age of slave economy." The people of this class were rarely given positions in the government, although they had access to the priestly positions in temples. Able youths emancipated themselves from serfdom by becoming outlaws and, as mentioned above, finally gave origin to the rise of the samurai class in the latter half of the Heian Period. In the 8th century this class constituted over 70 per cent of the entire population of Japan.

The lowest class of people, practically a slave class, consisted of two kinds of people. The first were the workers for the Court, the clothes, paper and furniture makers, musicians, stable-men, etc. They were mostly naturalized Koreans, and because of their tribal origin were despised by the other classes. Part of them seem to have been the forefathers of the "Eta" class of the Yedo Period. But they must have already belonged to the lower class in their native land, Korea, or may have been captives there, because there were many naturalized Koreans who occupied honorable positions in the Imperial Court and in the second class mentioned above. According to a record of this period there were but 4,216 households almost all of which were in the Kyoto, Nara and Osaka districts. So far as the national law is concerned these slaves were freed several times, in 722, 744, and 759 A.D., but as a social class they remained the same.

The descendants of the "Yakko" of the preceding periods formed the second division of this slave class. Their social standard as such was legalized by the laws issued at the time of the Taika Reformation. The Taiho laws prohibited intermarriage between members of this "disgraceful" class and members of the "good" classes. Slaves who belonged to offices mainly worked as tomb keepers, farm workers and miscellaneous jobbers, while those owned by private houses did the dirtiest work. The number of these slaves comprised 10 per cent of the entire population.

The average value of a slave in the Nara Period was 1,000 bundles of rice for a man and 800 bundles for a woman which meant the amount of rice which would feed a person for 2,500 days. This was rather a prohibitive price for the purchase of slaves, probably due to the small supply of slaves against the demand, the treatment of them by their masters was, therefore, very humane. In the Heian Period, the slave system underwent a gradual change, there was laxity in the imposition of the old laws pertaining to the system, and intermarriage with the "good" people often occurred. On the other hand, many of the third class people or oppressed farmers had become reduced to serfdom, and their intermingling with this class made the two classes indistinguishable at the latter half of the Heian Period.

Kamakura Period (1192-1337 A.D.)

Samurai Government Samurai government continued for 685 years, from the time of Yoritomo Minamoto to the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate. During the feudal age the Minamoto, Ashikaga and Tokugawa families appeared successively as the heads of this samurai government, holding all power, both political and military, in their hands. At the Imperial Court were the august officials, but its rulership was only nominal, and the real sovereign power was kept by the Shogunate.

In the middle of the Heian Period, the Fujiwaras grasped despotic authority in politics, and the rule of the Imperial Court sank into formalism. Imperial officials and nobles indulged in an effeminate life discarding militarism. Vicious customs prevailed, misunderstandings arose between the Central Government and district offices and the gap between the rich and the poor became greater, gangs of robbers terrorized the people, civil wars great and small constantly occurred, and the people could not live in peace. This state of things gave opportunity for the rise of the warrior class, and the military government under the leadership of Yoritomo Minamoto was welcomed by the people as suitable for the troublous times, and the Shogunate came into being on its own merits.

The Kamakura Shogunate Yoritomo

adopted Oyé's counsel, and asking the permission of Goshirakawa, the ex-Emperor who had the real power at the Court, stationed his warriors in different parts of the country as governors and deputies. He gave these governors military and police authority and to the deputies he assigned the administration of land and tax affairs, in 1185. All the political power fell into Yoritomo's hands as a natural consequence, and the military and political offices which were established at Kamakura became Shogunate head offices; in 1192, he was asked by the Kyoto Government to become *Séi-Tai-Shogun* or *Generallissimo*, and this meant the public recognition of the Shogunate authority.

After becoming Shogun by Imperial Order, Yoritomo Minamoto took great care to control the warrior-lords. He himself lived a very simple life and issued orders to the lords and warriors to do the same, thereby setting good examples to the people. His teachings did not primarily stress skill in fighting or the use of weapons but rather the moral precepts which must underlie the true warrior's way. The hitherto neglected and disorderly rural districts were taken care of and became closely united with the Kamakura Government, their agricultural and commercial life was improved, and the heavy taxation formerly levied by extravagant nobles was reduced to make the peasants' lives easier.

Foundation of Bushido Yoritomo was a pious man, revered both Shintoism and Buddhism, and was loyal to the Emperor. Bushido was indeed established by his teachings and practical examples. He encouraged the propagation of the Zen teachings which emphasized an ascetic life, and those of the Jodo Sect which taught man to realize his sinfulness. The principles of Bushido, however, had mainly to do with the lord-and-subject relation among the samurai, and had defects as a common morality for the masses. But it is noticeable here that polygamy among the nobles of former days was gradually discarded and monogamy begun to gain ground in this age, probably in consequence of the recognition of personality and the unusual emphasis on the fidelity of a lady to her lord in the Bushido code. Ideas of honor became strong; loyalty to the Emperor, patriotism, and belief in Japan as being the

country specially favored of the gods became established national ideals; Buddhism was completely Japanized; and the general moral standard was considerably raised.

Yoritomo's lineal descendants did not continue to hold power beyond the third generation, but the nearly related Hojo family took their place and ruled the people with ability till Takatoki Hojo was overthrown by the faithful adherents of the Emperor Godaigo in 1333. The Kamakura Shogunate was the real Central Government of Japan for over 140 years.

Education Education progressed also in the sense that it spread to local districts and especially among the samurai class. The *Térakoya* (see Chapter XXVIII) schools were started in the Buddhist temples of this period. Text books suitable for the education of samurai boys were compiled. At the time of the Ashikaga famous centers of learning were established at Ashikaga and Kanazawa (see Chapter XXVIII) near the present Tokyo. The Ashikaga Gakko (Ashikaga School) was first established by Yoshikane Ashikaga, a cousin of Yoritomo Minamoto, and has been continued for seven hundred years up to the present day. The Kanazawa Bunko (Kanazawa Library) was first established in 1275 by Sanetoki Hojo, great-grandson of Tokimasa Hojo the Shogun. Women's education was not neglected and sewing, housekeeping, penmanship and reading and composition of prose and poetry were taught to the daughters of well-to-do people.

Art and Literature The rise of individualism gave a new turn to the cultural life of the people. The break of tradition was discernible in fine art and literature. This was the age of Sung and Yuan in China and their literature and arts, flooding Japan, laid the foundations of modern literature and fine arts which developed after the Muromachi Period. Picture rolls of famous battles and illustrated histories of shrines and temples were produced, reflecting the taste of the day. That portrait-painting first began during this period may be taken as a recognition of the individual value of men. (See Chapter XXXIV.)

Commerce and Industry Before the Kamakura Period, agriculture was almost the sole industry of the people, although

pottery, clothing, etc. were produced in government factories on a limited scale. The spread of culture among the local population in this period, however, quickened the progress of commerce and industry in country places and local centers. Hand-work and carpentry were emancipated from the protection of the nobles and temples, primitive guilds were created and classes of artisans of armaments, porcelain, lacquer-work, etc. came into existence. Seven guilds were established, of silk workers, charcoal burners, rice merchants, furniture makers, miscellaneous industrials, paper manufacturers and makers of ornamental things and cattle dealers.

Joéi Judicial Code In the first year of Joéi, 1232, a judicial code was issued. It was called *Joéi Shikimoku* (*Joéi Judicial Code*) compiled by Yasutoki Hojo and his colleagues. This was a compilation founded on the judicial customs of older days and had no incongruities with the Japanese common life as was often the case with the laws issued by the Central Government at Heian, largely imitations as they were of Chinese laws. It proved, as a matter of fact, to be more practical and effective, and survived many other laws, as an authoritative code for the samurai class, to the time of the Meiji Restoration.

Muromachi Period

(1338-1602 A.D.)

The Muromachi Shogunate Shortly after the downfall of the Kamakura Government, Takauji Ashikaga established a Shogunate in Kyoto, wholly on his own accord, in 1338, and in the time of his grandson Yoshimitsu his work was completed. It was called the Muromachi Shogunate, after the name of the street in Kyoto in which the government had its headquarters. Its system and institutions were almost the same as those of the former Kamakura Government. A relative of Ashikaga governed eastern Japan, staying at Kamakura. This Kamakura governor was first a simple representative of the Muromachi Shogunate, but by and by he began to stand in rivalry against it. Governors were sent to other places and generals were placed at the head of different military bodies. The governors in local districts were real lords, and acted freely on their own caprices.

Korea, China and Japan The official exchange of delegates with foreign countries was, as already mentioned, abolished, but nevertheless private trade continued. The Sung Dynasty united China in 979, and called forth a thriving international commerce. Merchants and Buddhist monks made visits to China much oftener than before. Kiyomori Taira opened a port at Hyogo (Kobé) and interviewed Chinese merchants at his palace. In the Kamakura Period, the Buddhist Zen Sect was introduced from China, and the Hojo built huge temples for its monks.

The Yuan Invasion. In 1206 the Yuan Dynasty gained sovereignty over the greater part of China and extended its territory even to a part of Europe. The great Emperor Kublai Khan took Korea, and destroyed the Sung Dynasty, winning possession of all China in 1279. He sent a messenger with advice to Japan to become his tributary, under threat of war. But Tokimune Hojo, then in power at the Kamakura Shogunate, uniting forces with the Kyoto Court, firmly rejected the proposal. The result was a crisis for Japan in 1274 and again in 1281. The Yuan ruler in alliance with the government of Korea sent a great army to invade Japan. The Japanese were hard pressed, but they fought bravely with their small forces, and by the help of a typhoon which destroyed the enemy fleet they won the day in the summer of the year 1281.

The trade between the two nations, however, did not cease with the war. Takauji Ashikaga wished to build the Tenryuji temple and to get funds for the purpose he constructed trade boats which were called Tenryuji boats.

Trade with the Mings. From the beginning of the Kamakura Period, Japanese pirates had plundered the coasts of China and Korea. In the Muromachi Period, the Shogun Yoshimitsu Ashikaga concluded a friendly treaty with the Emperor of Ming in 1401. At the time of Yoshinori delegates of the Shogunate went to Ningpo with passports given by Ming authorities and traded there with the Chinese merchants. Not only Government delegates, but also the governors of local districts, monks and priests of temples or shrines, and some merchants of Hyogo and other ports sailed in and out with a similar purpose. The trade with Ming brought a great profit to

Japan, and the Shogunate was relieved of its economic hardships, the western ports thrived and the people became wealthy. The Shogunate did its best to prohibit the ravages of pirates, to prove its friendliness to the Ming Dynasty, but at the end of the Muromachi Period when the Shogunate lost its power and the local lords did as they liked, Japanese pirates again pillaged Chinese coasts, which were for a long time troubled with them.

Relations with Korea. At the time of the rise of the Mongolian nation, Korea turned against Japan under pressure of the Mongols. But the Japanese pirates ravaged her coasts, and she asked the help of China to send a strong protest to the Japanese Government. A general of Korea, Li-Sekel, was successful in protecting the nation from the attacks of the Japanese pirates, and he finally established a new dynasty of his own and called the new country Chosen in 1392.

Among the provincial lords there were many who had intercourse with Korea. Tsushima Island, especially, had close relations with her because of the nearness of its location. Its lord, So, opened trade with Korea in 1368. When Korea became known as Chosen these relations became even more intimate. There were many Tsushima Islanders who became residents of Korea. (As to Japan's relations with the Western nations since 1543 when the Portuguese first came to Japan, see pp. 77-87 of the Japan Year Book, 1933, and Chapter VI of this volume.)

Feudalism. It was during this period that feudalism was established as a definite system, and many of the provinces were ruled over by war-lords. Warriors fought each other, farmers were awakened to the need of uniting to protect their interests, and temples quarrelled with one another over the delimitation of their spheres of influence. It was a "dark age" in one sense, but important as an age of social change and progress. The advance of foreign trade was remarkable, and Japanese emigrants settled down in the South Sea Islands.

The war-lords began to disregard the orders of the Shogunate, becoming selfish and money-loving. Yoshimitsu Ashikaga, the third of the line, reorganized the Shogunate and restored its power for a while, but after his death it began to decay and the local lords usurp-

ed its authority. Both in the capital of Héian and in the districts civil wars raged year after year. The luxurious living initiated by Yoshimitsu and Yoshimasa, the 8th Shogun, spread like an epidemic among the local lords and warriors, and the ones who suffered most were the common people, the farmers and merchants, because the expenses of the luxury of the upper classes came always from their pockets.

The latter half of the Muromachi Shogunate was an age of civil strife among the feudal lords. All tradition and authority disappeared, and any talented man, favored by fate, had the chance to make himself a lord.

Military and General Education. Progress in military arts and the use of weapons was a feature of the period. Various styles of Kendo (fencing) were founded and schools to teach the art flourished in the four corners of the islands. Nor was general education neglected. Both the Ashikaga Gakko and Kanazawa Bunko fulfilled their functions as educational centers. Têrakoya were established in more districts and education began to reach the farmers and merchants. In 1561 St. Francis Xavier landed at Kagoshima, at the southern end of Kyushu, and the Catholic faith was first preached among the Japanese. Otomo and other lords in Kyushu were baptized and within less than 30 years there were 200 churches built and over 1,500,000 people converted. Nobunaga Oda was in favor of Christianity from his policy of suppressing the unruly power of the Buddhist monks. Catholics were also eager to establish schools. Within the feud of Otomo there was established a seminary (Casa Professa) for training preachers. Colleges for young laymen were established at Arima in Higo province (present Kumamoto), Funai in Bungo province (present Oita), and Azuchi in Omi province near Kyoto. The last one was opened in 1581, and 25 boys from good families were instructed in the catechism, Latin, Portuguese, Japanese reading and composition.

Woman's Position. Here it must be mentioned that the status of women was greatly lowered in this age of war-lords and samurai. Men vaunted their physical prowess in battle, while women were compelled to live secluded lives, sheltering at home from the dan-

gers of the times. Chinese dicta concerning the "three obediences and seven reasons for divorce" making of woman little better than a slave or chattel, sulked the selfish convenience of man, and the Buddhist idea of woman, as an impure being detrimental to man's ascent to Buddhahood, all worked together to pull woman's social position down to a ridiculously low level, contrasting with the high status she had enjoyed in more ancient days.

Commerce. Ravaged by frequent warfare, the city of Héian had become deserted, the population thronging to the villages which nestled around the castles of the feudal lords. These in time became thriving cities or towns. Among sea ports Hakata, Hyogo, Muro, and Sakai were representative ones. To Sakai, for instance, came foreign ships direct, and there arose many wealthy merchants who had financial power over the Muromachi Shogunate. It was a free city, governed by its own city assembly and protected by its own city guard. Yukinaga Konishi who was first a pharmacist and became a lord on his own account, Sen-no-Rikyû, the famous specialist in the tea ceremony, and Suké-émon Noya, a millionaire merchant in foreign trade with the South Sea Islands, were representative men of Sakai.

Industry. The taste of the age was rather simple and purely Japanese. The war-lords found recreation in the tea ceremony or garden-making. The preservation of natural simplicity was the dominant note in these gardens, rocks and pebbles being used in their construction. The national leader in this direction was Yoshimasa Ashikaga, the Shogun, famous exponent of the tea ceremony. This ceremony was never a mere drinking of tea but a formalized social meeting, at which guests were invited by the host to a simple and tasteful dinner which was called Kaiséki. Choice porcelain wares and other utensils were used in it and the guests were entertained not only by the repast but also by the exhibition of rare articles and scroll pictures. It became a fashion of the time and greatly stimulated and improved the art of making porcelain, lacquer and cast-iron wares and Kaké-mono paintings. These were exported to the continent for the first time in the history of Japan.

The last quarter of this period, called

the Momoyama Period in art history, was represented by the gorgeous taste of Hidéyoshi Toyotomi who built the Momoyama Palace of silver and gold. The influence of the Western world definitely reached Japan with the coming of Catholic priests in this period. It affected not only the spiritual and mental life of the Japanese but also the field of architecture. When Nobunaga Oda built the Azuchi Castle, the first of its kind, in 1576, Catholic priests gave advice or directed the construction. The central building of the Japanese castle is called Tenshu-kaku. The word Tenshu means the Heavenly Lord or God of the Catholic Church, and the Tenshu-kaku signifies the Tower of the Heavenly Lord. It is said that in the Tower of the Heavenly Lord Catholic images were enshrined when it was first built. According to an art investigation, there are in Italy remnants of old buildings which resemble the Japanese castles and the influence of Roman architecture through the Portuguese and Spaniards must have been felt in Japanese castle building.

Economic Conditions. There were economic reasons underlying the civil wars among the feudal lords in the latter half of the Muromachi Period. Enlarged volume of production, progress of communications and transportation, advancement of commerce and industry and changes in military strategy following the introduction of guns led to the wars of territorial invasion and expansion among the lords who had to provide for an increasing number of soldiers and officials. Both commerce and industry had from the time of Yoritomo Minamoto, progressed slowly but steadily with the spread of civilization to local centers, and merchants and artisans were gaining standing as a class. Up to the middle of the Muromachi Period the guilds called "Za" monopolized the supply of goods to the lords; this system, however, came to an end with the progress of free trading, and public markets were permanently established. The appearance of large towns and cities necessitated the accumulation of commodities and provisions from adjacent country places and other parts of the land and hastened the growth of wholesale dealers. The wholesale dealers of this period were called "Mommaru" and combined the businesses of innkeeping, wholesale trading, transportation and

money exchanging. Banking business also made considerable progress. There were no banks in the modern sense, but the pawnshops were the banks of the day when as yet there was no regular credit system. Buddhist temples and the brewers of saké acted also as money lenders and they together with the pawnshops were usurers and capitalists. *Tanomoshi-ko* (small associations for mutual financial aid) were already in vogue. Accumulation of wealth became a dire necessity for the lords, but they had to rely wholly upon the farmers and merchants for financial support while the Central Government was too weak to aid them or protect their interests in accordance with the change of social and economic conditions. Some fell so heavily into debt that finally they had to surrender their territory to their creditors. The Shogunate prohibited the purchase or mortgage of land owned by the samurai to merchants and landed proprietors, but this regulation was not observed. By the end of the Kamakura Shogunate it had become too late to attempt the financial rescue of the samurai. The lords levied heavy taxes on their people and farmed out their collection to appointed merchants. The final outcome of this system, however, was to let the land fall into the hands of those agents, so that the lords were driven in desperation to get new land by force. At times the farmers and smaller merchants resorted to violence to protect their rights and demand more merciful governance from their respective lords or the Shogunate. They often attacked the wealthy merchants, temples and pawnshops to get back goods they had pawned.

The latter half of the Muromachi Period witnessed Buddhist mob rioting and fighting. The Shin Sect (or Ikko Shu) founded by Shinran gained great numbers of followers from among the common people, and some uprisings of these religionists were in reality directed against the ruling class. For instance, the Ikko mob which started rioting in the districts of Kaga, Noto and Echigo provinces, fought against Masachika Togashi the lord of Kaga and killed him, while another in the district near the present-day Kobé and Osaka defeated the armies of Hosokawa their lord, the fight extending over several provinces from Sakai to Ishiyama in Omi province (present Shiga). Iyéyasu To-

kugawa, then lord of Mikawa (present Shizuoka), fought with them in 1563, and to Nobunaga Oda also they were a constant source of trouble.

The social changes caused by the progress of trade and commerce during the Kamakura and Muromachi Periods and the consequent disorder among the ruling classes were not allowed to take their own course very long, for foreign relations, especially with Western countries, presented many international problems and the necessity of national unity became keenly felt. The introduction of fire-arms brought about a fundamental change in methods of fighting. Arrows were no match for bullets. Preparations for war had to be made on a much larger scale and the warriors or soldiers reorganized in a more systematic way, and consequently the smaller lords were forced to unite under the leadership of greater ones who possessed real power and means to organize new armies. In this manner the unity of all Japan was realized in three stages through three great war-lords, Nobunaga Oda, Hidéyoshi Toyotomi and Iyéyasu Tokugawa.

Nobunaga Oda The first, Nobunaga Oda, was an official under the lord Shiba, but soon becoming independent he subdued one after another many lesser lords with his soldiers armed with guns, and, in July 1573, dethroned Yoshiaki Ashikaga the Shogun and demanded direct access to the Emperor Ogimachi. Nobunaga who had had long and bitter experience of the Buddhist mobs waged war against them and set fire to the Enryakuji temple on Mount Hiei, one of the most powerful temples of the time, thus putting an end to Buddhist meddling in political affairs. He found another means of lessening the power of Buddhist temples by favoring the spread of the Christian faith. He gave all encouragement to its propagation and welcomed the inflow of Western learning and civilization. Nobunaga destroyed the barrier gates in districts which hindered free commercial intercourse and transportation and put an end to the monopolizing guilds and gave merchants opportunity for unrestricted trading. But in 1582 he was assassinated with his work yet incomplete, and it was left to Hidéyoshi to continue the task of uniting the nation.

Hidéyoshi Toyotomi Hidéyoshi Toyo-

tomí, a farmer's son, and one of the trusted generals of Oda, succeeded in subduing even such great lords as Mori and Shimazu in the west and Daté and Hojo in the north and practically united the whole nation by force. In 1583 the whole land of Japan was surveyed to divide it into new rural districts. In 1586 Hidéyoshi fixed the costumes of the samurai according to their rank. In 1598 the common people were ordered to surrender their swords for casting a *Daibutsu* (great image of Buddha), the purpose of this order being to prevent the wearing of swords by any except the samurai. The law of 1591 strictly prohibited the shifting of hereditary business, and the four classes of samurai, farmers, artisans and merchants were firmly fixed.

To force abedience to the law *Gonin-gumi* (Five Men's Bands) were compulsorily organized. All the people (samurai inclusive) were grouped by 5 or 10 families and each group not only took joint responsibility for the doings of all of its members but helped its members in civil life. This originated before Toyotomi's time, but the law issued in 1600 made it an established institution and played an important part in the following Tokugawa Period both politically and socially. Hidéyoshi planned an invasion of the Continent, Formosa, and the Philippines, but died in 1598 before realizing his dreams.

Before the absolute unity of Japan could be accomplished another great statesman was to take the work in hand.

Social Classes (12th-16th centuries) The Onin war (1467-1475) which was fought between the Muromachi (the Fujiwaras) Shogunate families in the city of Kyoto not only destroyed the Shogunate itself but also reduced the Capital to ashes. The Court and the Shogunate lost power at once and the whole country was thrown into commotion for a century by the wars of the military lords.

The wars entirely did away with old social customs and laws and gave opportunity for the rise of petty warriors and landed-farmers who, to this time, had been subjected to the aristocrats and war-lords. This was a time of great changes in the social order of Japan. After the Onin war members of the laboring classes were able to become lords through their own ability; farmers organized to oppose their lords;

commercial cities like Sakai, Yamaguchi, and Osaka, appeared and became rich with the development of foreign trade; and villages, in many districts, began to govern themselves.

In consequence of the rise of new war-lords the aristocratic class of this age was of two kinds, the old nobles in the Court and the new war-lords. The Court nobles had become poor through the confiscation of parts of their estates in country districts by the Kamakura Shogunate. They were, nevertheless, still highly honored because of their culture and attainments, all lines of study being handed down by them in hereditary succession, and high positions in the Court were held by them though they had no practical power in the administration of national affairs. The only sphere of influence left to the Court nobles was in religious circles, except in the Zen Sect which had most of its adherents among the samurai class. The Fujiwaras, who succeeded the Minamotos in the Shogunate government, again confiscated more than one-half of the lands of Court nobles and finally stretched their wanton hands over the estates of the Imperial House and temples and shrines in the name of military taxes. In the Onin war, fought in the city of Kyoto, the mansions of the Court nobles were all destroyed or set on fire and the nobles themselves were compelled to desert the capital and seek protection among the wealthy families in the country districts or temples and shrines.

The war-lords in this period were sons of local governors in older ages, new governors placed in districts by the Kamakura and Fujiwara Shogunates, and big land-lords who ascended to war-lordship by hiring warriors for the protection of their estates in the political confusion of the time. The name "*Daimyo*" which represented the war-lord in later ages, especially in the Yédo Period, originated in the landlords, and meant one who owned a large estate or villages. The war-lords, new and old, took advantage of the downfall of the Shogunate after the Onin war to consolidate their field of activity all over Japan. They fought each other to obtain supremacy.

The second class of people consisted of farmers, artisans and merchants. The war-lords and *daimyo* in the provinces built castles around which arti-

sans and merchants settled, the artisans and merchants increased in number and the castles gradually grew into towns and cities, while progress in foreign trade during the latter half of this period gave rise to port cities. Artisans and merchants formed guilds as mentioned elsewhere and protected their rights and profits. Farmers who had been trodden under the foot of the ruling classes began to make demands upon their lords who could no longer control them by threats but had to handle them in a more honorable manner. The first record of a farmers' mob movement against their lords was that of the farmers in Kinki (Kyoto and Nara) districts which started in September 1428. The mob demanded the so-called "Tokū Sō," cancellation of debt or a permanent moratorium. Mobs which were united in the faith of Buddhism such as the Jōdo or Hokkō sects were well organized and had some permanency so that at one time they formed their own government. In the province of Yamashiro the farmers succeeded in organizing their own government and elected members by vote at the Eyodoin temple at Uji, now a part of Kyoto, in February 1456. This and other examples of a similar nature were not allowed to continue because of later changes in political affairs, but they laid foundations for the future development of towns and villages and the "Gonin-gumi" as mentioned above.

The lowest class in this period consisted of sons of the same class in the preceding age. The difference was that the slaves of Court nobles or government offices became more despised than the slaves at private houses. The latter were handled by their lords in a much more humane way than in the preceding period. The former, on the contrary, became more disliked by the other people because of their Korean origin and their special work of butchers and skinner, for such work was extremely despised by Buddhism, which taught people not to kill any living thing, even lice, and taboo all flesh. They were called the "Eta," the meaning of which changed from the "butcher" to the "polluted," and lived in groups secluded from others.

Yēdo Period

(1602-1867 A.D.)

In 1600 Iyēyasu Tokugawa became the practical ruler of Japan. Except

for a small portion allotted to the Imperial House and various religious bodies, over 90 per cent of the entire land was divided among the Tokugawas, their relatives, and favorite generals and lords. Thus the complete unity of the nation was realized by the dual master-and-subject relation between the lords and their people and the Shogun and his lords. This feudal system lasted over 260 years, unparalleled in the history of the world. This was a success primarily for the Tokugawa Shogunate rather than the nation. It was due for one thing to the financial and military strength of the Tokugawa family, secondly to the clever method of administration, best suited to keep wayward war-lords in order, and thirdly to the halting of alien influences from overseas.

Iyēyasu located the seat of the Central Government at Yēdo (Tokyo) and governed from there his 200 lords and generals. The financial basis of the Shogunate was superior to that of its predecessors. About 7,000,000 koku ("koku" in this case means the area of land which can produce one koku of rice) or nearly one-fourth of the national area of 30,560,000 koku, was owned by the Shogunate directly or indirectly. Besides, all the ports and places important for political and military purposes, the largest cities and the centers of industrial and commercial activities, and all the mines of any value were under the Shogunate's direct control. It also controlled the national mints.

Buké Hatto (Samurai Law) After giving the final blow to the Toyotomīs in May 1615, Iyēyasu Tokugawa ordered the drafting of the law concerning the daimyo (feudal lords) and samurai. In July of the same year the Samurai Law was pronounced before the gathering of the daimyo called for the purpose by the second Tokugawa Shogun, Hidētada. It consisted of 13 articles the gist of them being as follows: (1) Samurai must be well educated in general learning and versed in the arts of war; (2) Unbridled drinking and luxuriousness are strictly prohibited; (3) Criminals must not be aided or concealed; (4) All treasonous bodies and murderers should be banished; (5) No person other than the subjects of the daimyo should be allowed to live in his territory; (6) All repairs to castles need permission of the Shogunate and the

building of a new castle is strictly prohibited; (7) If anyone detects a new castle building or a secret political organization in a neighboring province he must report it to the Shogunate; (8) Marriages must not be celebrated privately; (9) All the lords are required to observe "sankin-kotai" (According to this article the lords were divided into two groups, and each group was to come up to Yēdo, the seat of the Shogunate, in April every other year, to stay there for one year and the Shogunate prepared their Yēdo residences where their families were kept as hostages. These rules were somewhat loosened in later years); (10) Styles of costume should be regulated according to rank and social position; (11) Servants ought not freely to use the palanquin (the only vehicle in those days) in travel; (12) Samurai should be instructed to live frugally; and (13) the lords should use discretion in appointment of officials.

The purpose of this law was to restrict the armament of the lords, to suppress political organization and treason, to effectively inspect the local government of the lords, and to force them to keep order by strict rules on their behavior. The number of daimyo was 137 according to the Shogunate statistics of 1614.

Kugé Hatto (Court Nobles Law) This law for the court nobles was promulgated in July 1615, at the assembly of 150 court nobles at the Niijo Castle, Kyoto. It consisted of 17 articles, and defined the status of the Emperor, Imperial Princes and Princesses, and regulated the appointment of a Regency and chief councillor, adoption, court ranks, institution of the year name, costumes, the order of promotion, orders to be issued by magistrates, sentences of the court, and the position, ranks, costumes and honorary titles of the head priests of Buddhist temples. (See p. 100, the Japan Year Book, 1936, for the main points of the law.)

System of Control Iyēyasu took scrupulous care not to give any chance to the Imperial House and the greater lords to gather forces against the Shogunate. His first policy was to restrict their powers by the promulgation of the Kugé Hatto and Buké Hatto above mentioned. His second was to allot their districts to the respective lords by an administrative plan deliberately

schemed out. The Kanto district in which the seat of the Shogunate was located was put under the direct rule of the Shogun and ruled by his personal generals to protect the Central Government from attack. In the districts around Kyoto, the city of the Imperial House, none of the Tozama Daimyo, the conquered lords, were placed, but only the relatives of the Tokugawas and the Fudai Daimyo, lords who had been on the Tokugawa's side from of old; and in Kyoto itself a representative office of the Shogunate had the responsibility of watching any political move in that city.

Along the two main roads, the Tokaido and Nakasendo (or Koshukaido) which connected Kyoto and Yēdo, the Fudai Daimyo only were appointed to rule. The Tozama Daimyo were all given lands in the remoter parts and between each two of them a Fudai Daimyo was placed to play the part of a barrier. Such important places as Osaka, Sakai, Fushimi, Nagasaki and Ujiyama were administered by governors directly sent from Yēdo. The children of Iyēyasu were given large feuds and established the Houses of Mito, Owari, Echizen and Kishu, forming a defensive semicircular line.

As a whole, Iyēyasu cleverly divided the land among the lords so as to keep the balance between the east and the west, a policy which proved successful till the balance was broken in the first half of the 19th century when the western lords rose in rebellion. The Shogunate paid scrupulous attention to all travelers along the Tokaido. It put a barrier at Hakoné, and nobody was allowed to pass through the gate without a passport issued from the lords or the Shogunate. After the enforcement of the articles of the Buké Hatto requiring the family of a lord to stay at Yēdo, women were almost entirely prohibited from leaving the city for they must get Hakoné passports directly from the Shogunate.

The purpose of the seclusion policy adopted by the Tokugawa Shogunate was to shut out any possible outside political influence and to prevent the local lords from getting large profits out of foreign trade, and rising thereby to financial and political power. The Shogunate did everything to safeguard its supremacy and make the lords obedient, no matter how national progress

was hindered or into what miserable condition the people might be thrown.

Organization of the Tokugawa Shogunate The Shogunate was a government of one despotic ruler, the Shogun. No one man, however, can perform all the duties of a government unassisted. Although there were many changes in the organization and the names of offices in the 268 years of its rule the Yédo Government, in the main, had a Cabinet which consisted of one Tairō (the great elder), five Roju (the middle elders), and five Wakadoshiyori (the younger elders). The Tairō was the premier but, though the Shogun at times placed his most reliable and able statesman in the position, the years in which a Tairō held office were but few, the Shogun himself generally undertaking the office. The Roju were the ministers of the administration. They signed the public ordinances and documents of the highest import. Their administration was based on former customs and newly issued laws, while their secretaries had the responsibility of examining old customs and precedents to help their decisions. These five saw to matters concerning the Imperial House, the court nobles and prince monks, and controlled all the lords and high officials, local governors and inspectors, and in wartime commanded the armies of the lords.

The Wakadoshiyori consisted of four or five members who were at once councillors and vice-ministers and controlled the Hatamoto (the generals who directly belonged to the Shogunate), and the lower officials, and in any emergency commanded the armies of the Hatamoto.

Both the Roju and the Wakadoshiyori were appointed from among the Fudai-Daimyo only.

Under the cabinet there were three Bugyo, the Jisha Bugyo (Temple and Shrine Department), the Machi Bugyo (City Department), and the Kanjo Bugyo (Counting Department). The Jisha Bugyo controlled all the temples and shrines in the country and administered justice in the remoter districts. The Machi Bugyo administered the city (Yédo) affairs from administrative business to justice, police and prisons. The Kanjo Bugyo took charge of the treasury of the Shogunate, gathering taxes from the estates directly belonging to the Shogun.

The Roju, the Wakadoshiyori and the three Bugyo formed the Central Shogunate Government, all other officials belonging to or coming under the control of one or other of these. Among the local officials the most important were the Shosht-dai who represented the Shogunate at Kyoto, the Osaka-jodai who represented the Shogunate at Osaka, the Fushimi Bugyo, overseers of the barriers at Kyoto, the Kobusho Bugyo or military department, and the Nagasaki Bugyo who controlled the lords in Kyushu.

Cultural Life Culture and civilization made greatest progress in the western part of Japan and it was in Osaka and Kyoto that literature and a more refined life developed in the earlier years of the Yédo Period. Iyéyasu was anxious to spread knowledge and encouraged the study of the Japanese and Chinese literatures of former days; scholars of great learning appeared who opened schools and published commentaries or interpretations either of their own accord or by the backing or order of the lords. The progress of the art of printing greatly helped the spread of education by books. But in the early days of the age most of the energy of the ruling class and the common people was spent in readjusting their political and social life to the new state of affairs created by the united and centralized government of the Tokugawa Shogunate, and time was needed for the psychological atmosphere of the people to settle down toward a peaceful enjoyment of life in this better organized society.

It was not until after half a century that a characteristic taste and way of life began to show themselves, discarding the old garbs of tradition. Here it must be noted that the fundamental feature of the literature of the age was that it was the creation of the common people, people who were denied all opportunity of rising to higher social positions or assuming official posts in the government. The so-called Genroku period commenced with the luxurious life of the fifth Shogun, Tsunayoshi, who was a man of enthusiasm, fond of learning, and encouraged lectures and schools. Even before his time the general trend of the period had been toward extravagance and amusement following a century of peace. The Shogun's example, however, quickened and

intensified this tendency, and such amusements as "nô" drama, Joruri (or gidayu), and kabuki (see Chapter XXXVI) were enjoyed by the general masses, while pure literature such as haiku, waka, novels, and stories began also to be written and read among the lower classes. Skill in the fine arts, characteristic Japanese handiwork and special weaving arts reached the highest pitch.

In the Genroku period literary men were able to publish their writings freely and the Joruri of Chikamatsu, the novels of Salkaku, and the short poems of Bashō had a great circulation, most of their works becoming literary treasures of Japan for ages to come.

The leadership in civilization was still with Osaka and Kyoto up to the end of this period. But the Sankin-kotai and the power of Yédo, the seat of the Shogunate, did not long allow the center of culture and fashion to remain in these old western cities, and Yédo had finally assumed the first position in all matters of political and social life by the last quarter of the 18th century. The following 80 years, especially the first 50 years of it, was the golden age of the cultural life before the Meiji Restoration.

Severity marked the Shogunate policy in dealing with the people from the highest to the lowest, the masses suffering the worst oppression. Social tragedies amply reflect themselves in the literature of Joruri writers, Chikamatsu and his contemporaries, and even allowing the apparently good intentions of the Shogunate rulers and advisers to improve the political, economic and social conditions, the people in general were either trodden down by lawless samurai or entangled and rendered helpless in the network of prohibitive laws.

But the characteristic optimism of the Japanese enabled them to survive the stifling, tortuous life, seeking consolation in cultural or popular pursuits. This repressed energy found its outlet in creative industry and literature, or their enjoyment. Besides the standard works of literature there are preserved smaller illustrated pamphlets, short novels and poems which reflect the life of the common people in those days. They expose the looseness of the social life in many respects, but it is wonderful how they show the innate heart of the Japanese people, optimistic, real-

istic and humane. If it were not for its partial suppression by the Government this common literature might have attained remarkable progress. All Japanese amusements either originated or took definite form in this age. In the upper classes of society a similar course of development ran through all phases of life.

Gradual Economic Decline At the beginning of the Tokugawa Shogunate foreign trade was carried on to a considerable extent but afterwards it was almost entirely prohibited except to a small extent through one trade port, and all hope of increasing the national wealth and economic progress of Japan through overseas intercourse was lost. Even with its income from the large territory above mentioned the Shogunate could hardly manage to keep pace with the ever increasing expenditure. Financial unsoundness appeared at the time of the fourth Shogun, and from the fifth Shogun on they were forced to make both ends meet in national finance by re-casting coins. Various improvements and revisions of economic policy wrought no material change of situation for the better. In the Tempo Era (1830-1844), the Government stood on the brink of bankruptcy and during the last years of the Shogunate the financial situation went from bad to worse.

The local lords had territories of 10,000 koku to 1,020,000 koku each, but their income from these was too small to feed all their dependent samurai and soldiers, and to finance the Sankin-kotai traveling expenses. They fell into heavy debt, their creditors being the wealthy merchants and money lenders at Yédo and Osaka, the two business centers of the time. From the middle of the Yédo Period few of the lords could manage without the help of the rich merchants. Seventy per cent of the national wealth was said to have got into the hands of wealthy business men by the end of the age. In 1843 the lords sent about 4,000,000 koku of rice to Osaka, 3,000,000 koku of which went to Osaka merchants as interest on their debt of 60,000,000 ryo (gold coin). All means to which they resorted to increase their incomes proved in vain.

The samurai were also compelled by the Sankin-kotai system to have two houses, one at their rural town and the other in Yédo. They were not allow-

ed to do any productive work but received a kind of salary from their own lords, and mostly lived a leisurely life, although some were given offices in the local governments. The long peace did not necessarily bring happiness to the samurai, but rather drew them into different means of pastime and their fighting spirit was dulled with the increasing tendency to luxury. Their incomes were limited from the beginning and were still more shortened by compulsory loans to their feudal lord out of their "fuchi" or salaries, or even complete suspension of payment. They had no way of extorting from the farmers, as the lords had, and after losing all their means they could not help but break the law and work secretly for their living as artisans or small merchants. In the end the samurai began to sell their weapons and armor which had become useless in the long years of peace.

In the Yédo Period the rural folk still lived on the natural products of their farms, helped out by some small income from their handicraft, and each village constituted an economic unit, self-supplying and self-supporting. At first, the political peace benefited farmers especially and increase of production resulted from the improvement of farming instruments and institutions. The kinds of vegetables grown became more numerous, sericulture advanced remarkably, and new areas of arable land were brought under cultivation. At the time of Toyotomi's land survey (1573) the rice production of the whole country had been estimated at 18,000,000 koku. In the Genroku Era (1688-1704) it increased to 25,780,000 koku, and, in 1842, to 30,550,000 koku. But the farmers had to pay 50 per cent of their products as tax to their lords; they were denied the freedom of moving or changing their occupation, were subject to restrictive measures in purchasing land and withal were bound hand and foot by a network of the Gonin-gumi system and other restrictive regulations, and farmers resorted to such desperate measures as infanticide, fleeing to cities and mob riots to escape from their difficulties or fight for their living.

The number of recorded farmer-mob riots reached 568, including 68 in the early period of the age, 236 in the middle, and 264 in the last. The usual motive for rising in mobs was anger at the intolerable extortion by the lords,

tenant disputes being as yet rare.

It was estimated that the proportion of farmers to the whole population was 80%, and the total population in the Yédo Period showed a slow increase in the first half and a standstill in the latter. This was brought about by such natural causes as famines, prevalence of epidemics and insanitary dwellings; but the habit of infanticide which originated from the direst difficulty of living among the farming class, must have been the greatest factor in checking the increase of population, for it was usual among farmers to restrict the number of their children to less than three in a family. Another negative measure was to flee from the territory of the despotic lord to large cities. Cities had insufficient capacity to receive the inflow of these country people because as yet there were no industrial factories, but there were many openings for house-workers, day laborers and apprentices in the business houses or artisans' shops.

Commerce and Industry The advance of commerce was helped by the increase of population in the towns and cities where central and rural governmental seats were located and the regular journeys to and from Yédo of the lords and their soldiers in Sanbinkota. But as all foreign trade was banned, business could not take on any natural or international development. The main commodity of the day was rice, that was produced in the Kansai, Chugoku (the Main Island west of Kōbē), Shikoku, Kyushu and Hokuriku (districts facing the Japan Sea in the central part of the Main Island) being transported to Osaka rice-dealers, while that of Kanto and Ohu or the north-eastern provinces was sold in Yédo. Exchange business in rice had already commenced among Osaka merchants and speculations began to draw common interest. Coins of gold, silver, bronze or copper were in good circulation by this time, although these suffered changes of value at times, and the west of Osaka adopted the silver standard while the east took the gold standard. Paper money was issued by the rural governments so that money economy prevailed all over Japan. Bank business or Ryo-gaé and the credit system made considerable progress.

Yédo had over a million population and Osaka came next with several hun-

dred thousand. There were many other cities of over ten thousand. Seclusion had put a stop to sea transportation to foreign lands, but land transportation within the country made wonderful progress. The five highways, Tokai-do, Nakasen-do, Koshu-kaido, Nikko-kaido and Oshu-kaido (Dō or Kaido means road) converged at Yédo and men and goods came to the Shogunate capital along them and their byroads from the remotest corners of the land. Coasting sea transportation had the following four main lines: the South Sea line between Yédo and Osaka, the West Sea line between Osaka and Nagasaki, the North Sea line from Shimonoséki to Matsumae, and the East Sea line between Oshu and Yédo; the most important of these being the South Sea line which connected Yédo the greatest consuming city and Osaka the greatest commercial center.

A factory in its modern sense was still unknown; what industry there was, was the home industry on the scale of handiwork, except brewing at Nada, weaving at Ashikaga and Kiriu near Yédo and Hakata in Kyushu, metal foundries in Chugoku and shipbuilding, with large capital and a fairly elaborate system.

The seclusion policy quenched the enthusiasm of the Japanese for foreign trade which had been greatly stimulated at the time of Nobunaga Oda and at the beginning of the Yédo Period by the activities of the Goshuin-sen or registered vessels and small boats of the pirates. The Japanese were compelled to fall back on the old economic system of self-supply and self-sufficiency, and to relinquish unwillingly the international spirit that had aspired to things Western on a far larger scale than that of China centuries ago.

At the same time, however, it resulted in the creation of many industries and fine arts purely Japanese, and in the course of time, the work of the artisans became minutely specialized numbering over 150 kinds. The artisans were united in guilds according to their kinds, which protected their rights and profits, master, artisans and apprentices comprising each house. There were government purveyors who were protected by the Shogunate and accumulated wealth. The number of merchants greatly increased and the classes of the wholesale merchants, middle men and retailers were definitely established.

The wholesale dealers organized associations and gradually, in their financial ascendancy, acquired real power over the samurai and lords.

Social Classes (16th-18th centuries) The policy of the Tokugawa Shogunate, which followed the national unity of Hidéyoshi Toyotomi, clearly marked the class divisions into five, the samurai, farmers, businessmen, educators and outcasts.

First, taking the place of the former Court nobles came the samurai class. This consisted of the war-lords or daimyo and their warriors and occupied governmental positions and was responsible for all the national political and military affairs, both central and provincial. The samurai lived on the revenue from taxes levied on the farmers and businessmen. In times of emergency unreasonable levies were imposed upon these working classes, and extremely despotic lords often robbed them of their wealth in the name of loans never repaid. This latter injustice was specially repeated by the lords at the end of the Yédo Period when the samurai class was thrown into an economic depression by reasons mentioned elsewhere. According to statistics taken by the Meiji Government in 1872 the number of samurai households was 395,825, with an aggregate membership of 1,911,239, or 7 per cent of the total population at the end of the Yédo Period. There were in 1752, the Shogunate house, its three relative lords and 258 daimyo. Among the 258 daimyo those who owned an estate above 500,000 koku numbered 3, above 200,000 koku 15, above 100,000 koku 27, above 60,000 koku 20, above 30,000 koku 62, and above 10,000 koku 23. All of these lords were made peers after 1854 when the old daimyo system was done away with by the Meiji Government.

Farmers were divided into three classes, village officials, landowners and tenants. The first of these were the largest landowners in villages who were asked by the daimyo or samurai dignitaries to levy taxes on the villagers. They represented their village and had power over the villagers in both public and private matters as tax-gatherers, police and leaders of the community. Other landed farmers who had no official responsibility owned their own land and farm and were the tax-bearers of the community. The tenants were sub-

jects of the other landed farmers and were the most pitiable of the working classes of the time. Of their production 50 per cent went to the samurai as public taxes and 30 per cent to their master or landed farmers as rent, and they themselves were compelled to live on but 20 per cent of what they had produced. The percentage of these classes of farmers seems to have been 2.5 per cent, 37.5 per cent, and 60 per cent, respectively. Farmers were often stricken by natural calamities in addition to this squeeze by the ruling classes.

The class of businessmen was also divided into two, wealthier merchants or artisans who owned houses and lots, and tenants. In social standing businessmen were regarded lower than farmers, but as a matter of fact their economic condition was much better. Their prosperity depended on the luxury and consequent demands of the samurai class, so the samurai and businessmen were economically interdependent, but the businessmen gradually obtained the more powerful position and wealthier "chonin" or merchants became to be much honored because of their economic power. Towards the latter half of the Yédo Period they actually became freer than the samurai. At times their wealth and lives were forfeit to the Shogunate or local war-lords, yet they laid an unshakable foundation for the business classes in new Japan after the Meiji Restoration of 1868.

The cultural class consisted of the Court nobles, monks, priests and physicians. The social standing of the Court nobles was still high. The Emperor was duly respected by the Shogunate and daimyo, but he had no political power. The Court nobles who lived in Kyoto with the Imperial House had but a meager means of living. They were satisfied to be tutors in one art or another, such as waka, Japanese football, penmanship, astrology, medical science, etc. Yet their hereditary position as the nobility was well established and they formed so strong a class of their own that the Shogunate or the war-lords could hardly disregard their existence, in fact it was by the combined power of the Court nobles and the "ronin" or masterless samurai that the Shogunate was finally overthrown in the middle of the 19th century.

The lowest class in the Yédo Period, as in the preceding period, were the

"Eta" and "hinin." The number of "Eta" (polluted) remarkably increased in this age because war-lords in the previous war age called the butchers and skinners to their castle-towns to manufacture articles for war, and the birth-rate of these "Eta" was great. They lived all over the country instead of only in the Kyoto and Nara districts as in the previous age, forming their own communities. This "Eta" class has been most unreasonably treated until 1871 when the Meiji Government declared that no legal distinction should exist between the "Eta" and others. The "hinin," outcasts, beggars, and the like were put in the same class with the "Eta." According to statistics taken by the Meiji Government in 1871 the number of the "Eta" was 280,311, beggars 23,480 and others 79,097.

Ronin A characteristic phenomenon of the Yédo Period was the appearance of the Ronin or masterless samurai. They had existed in previous years, but at the time of Toyotomi their number was insignificant. The samurai who had followed lords defeated and ruined in battles became ronin, and their number was added to by the extinction of noble houses in punishment for rebellion and the unemployment of the sons of samurai, other than the first born, who had no share in the inheritance of their father's property or position. Some samurai voluntarily chose the life of a ronin. All these ronin lived from hand to mouth and were either at odds with the ruling class or gave constant trouble to the common people. The event mainly responsible for the creation of this class of people was the battle at Sekigahara (1600 A.D.) which decided the supremacy of the Tokugawas over the Toyotomis. In the 13 years between that battle and the Osaka battle which ended in the final destruction of the Toyotomi family, the number of the lords entirely ruined or partly deprived of territory reached over 100 and the confiscated area to approximately 9,000,000 koku. Some found second masters but the larger number of the samurai were thrown out of work. The Osaka battle was caused by these samurai in a last attempt to preserve the power of the Toyotomis, although it ended in their complete failure. Again, in the 23 years between the Osaka battle and the Shimabara Rebellion of 1637 another 70 lords lost the whole or a part of their

territory by the relentless application of the Buké Hatto, and indeed the Shimabara Rebellion was nothing but an outburst of complaints by the Catholics and the ronin against the oppression of the Shogunate. But the power of the Shogunate was unshakable.

The number of the ronin, however, was still more increased, and in the 4th year of the Kélan Era, 1651, Yui-no-Shosétsu and his colleagues attempted a change of the Shogunate government for the benefit of the ronin, although it was suppressed by the wholesale arrest of the ambitious leaders and the harakiri of Yui-no-Shosétsu himself on July 25 of that year. There were minor events caused by outbreaks of the ronin here and there and at last the Shogunate was awakened by these uprisings to the groviness of the situation and after the Kélan Era measures were taken to prevent further increase in the number of these masterless samurai. As a rule, in obedience to Bushido ethics, the samurai did not like to take a second master, and only a small portion found positions, while the rest either remained unemployed or chose some other occupation. Some became merchants or farmers. Others became scholars and opened Terakoya and educated the young in Confucianism and Japanese literature and morals. Still others became specialists in military arts and gave lectures to the samurai and the lords, while there were quite a number of experts in fencing and archery who opened drill-halls or schools in the larger cities. The better element of the ronin played an important part in the social development of the country standing in a freer position than the regular samurai. And the last and most praise-worthy task they accomplished was to take a prominent part in the movement for aiding the Imperial House which finally led to the Meiji Restoration.

Exclusion Policy

Policy of Toyotomi The Catholic faith spread over Japan very quickly and many churches were built in various places. But the dogmas and institutions of the Church were in many ways unfitting to Japanese ideals and customs. Besides, the friars or missionaries were charged to have behaved without discretion, disregarding the laws of the nation. Hidéyoshi Toyotomi therefore destroyed the Catholic Church

in Kyoto in 1585, and issued a Prohibition Law in 1587, forbidding the residence of missionaries at Nagasaki and other places. But he still allowed foreigners who did not mean to spread the religion to come.

A little later, when trade with Luzon was opened, Spanish missionaries came to Japan. These missionaries were antagonistic to the Jesuits and tried to preach another form of doctrine among the Japanese people in the face of the Prohibition Law, and quarrelled with the Portuguese missionaries. Hidéyoshi issued a more drastic prohibition law and severely punished the breakers; but he died without accomplishing his aim, and both Portuguese and Spanish missionaries came in greater numbers and preached the Gospel more earnestly so that the believers in it increased with remarkable rapidity.

Policy of Iyéyasu Iyéyasu followed in Hidéyoshi's steps and encouraged foreign trade. But being anxious lest the people should be misled by the Catholic priests he prohibited their preaching in 1612, expelled them from the country, and strictly ordered the Japanese believers to turn from their faith, and those who did not obey his order were condemned to death. They called this turning from or casting away the Christian faith "Korobi" or rolling over.

Going Abroad Prohibited. But missionaries came in considerable numbers, and secretly continued to spread Christianity. The Shogunate saw the difficulty of complete prohibition, and began to take stricter steps. Iyémitsu, the third Shogun, prohibited the importation of foreign books in 1630, forbade any one to go out of the country without permission of the Government in 1633, and prohibited the going abroad of any Japanese in 1636. Finally, no Japanese was allowed to return from abroad.

Seclusion of the Nation The Shogunate kept a strict watch against the coming in of the Catholic faith and tried to exterminate the believers in the country. Its measures were so severe that the Christian believers rose in rebellion at Shimabara in 1637. The uprising was subdued in a short time, but because of it the Shogunate determined to go a step farther in carrying out the law, and prohibited the coming of for-

align people entirely in 1639, with the only exception of the Hollanders who cherished no idea of spreading the Catholic faith among the Japanese. Hollanders were allowed to trade at Nagasaki, but only under supervision of the officials.

With this strict seclusion policy the Shogunate was able to root out Catholicism and remove from the minds of the people the influence of foreign thought and belief, and so gain peace in home affairs. But during those years, foreign affairs became known to only a few of the Shogunate upper officials, and this merely through meager reports presented by the Dutch Consul. The people were kept in entire ignorance.

In the 18th century, foreign ships began to visit Japan, and the Japanese could no longer leave these intruders at their shores unheeded.

Foreign Studies Renewed Seventy years after the enforcement of seclusion, books on foreign trade and the state of affairs in the western world were published and the people were much instructed by such literature. The Shogun Yoshimune took an interest in western studies and followed a liberal policy for importing western books in 1720; this brought about a Renaissance which awakened the Japanese from their long sleep.

Seclusion Law Reinforced The Seclusion Law required the provincial lords to drive foreigners away from the shores of the Empire, but its observance grew lax with the lapse of time. At the end of the 18th century the Shogunate made it milder and allowed foreign ships to come, on condition that they had no enmity to the nation. Unfortunately, however, the repeated rough conduct of foreign sailors irritated the official mind and caused the reinforcement of the old law, the coastguards being given orders to bombard any foreign boat which came near the shore, to arrest any of the crew who landed, and kill them if necessary. In 1825, strict orders were given to Japanese boats not to have any intercourse with foreign vessels.

National Doors Opened

An American ship, the "Morrison," coming to bring members of a Japanese shipwrecked crew back to their country,

met with the bombardment, and went back to China in 1837.

In 1844, William II, King of Holland, sent a confidential letter with a special delegate to Japan, to warn that country to be careful not to follow the miserable example of China. Merchant vessels and warships of England and France many times came to the Loochoo Islands and the French made a forcible landing at Naha, the best port of the Loochoos, put missionaries ashore there and asked for the opening of friendly intercourse in 1844. The Shogunate complied with their request for trade, but drove the missionaries away in 1848.

Treaty of Amity with America In the sixth year of Kaei, 1853, Commodore Perry came to Uraga with a fleet of four warships. A friendly treaty was finally concluded between Japan and America in 1855.

Treaty with Russia Russia also sent Vice-Admiral Poutiatine to Nagasaki in 1853, and a treaty of commerce with Russia was concluded, by which Shimoda, Hakodate and Nagasaki were opened to her vessels, and agreements were made respecting the boundaries of Russia and Japan in the north.

At that time England and Russia were at war, and in 1854 an English warship came to Nagasaki for a supply of provisions. The Shogunate consented to open Nagasaki and Hakodate for English vessels, and an agreement was reached between the two nations. Hakodate and Shimoda were opened to Holland also and a treaty was concluded in 1855.

Conclusion of Commercial Treaties In 1856 the United States sent to Shimoda her Consul-General, Townsend Harris. He finally succeeded to come up to Yedo and present credentials in person to the Shogun Iyasada in 1857. He requested the Government's consent to open trade relations, and asked that an American minister might be stationed in Yedo, assuring of American sincerity. The foreign trade allowed hitherto by the Shogunate was only through the mediation of the officials, and Harris insisted upon free and direct commerce between the merchants of the nations.

The Shogunate officials themselves, already aware of the inconveniences of the old system, complied with his requests, regularly concluded a friendly

commercial treaty with the United States, and agreed to open new Kanagawa (the present Yokohama), Nagasaki, Niigata, and Hyogo (Kobe) in addition to Shimoda and Hakodate. They allowed Americans to settle in those ports for trade, gave them freedom to come in to Yedo and Osaka, recognized their freedom of religious belief and extraterritorial jurisdiction, and regulated the rate of tariff in 1858. This was the so-called *Ansai modus vivendi*.

In the same year the treaty was ratified by the Shogunate, without the Imperial sanction. The Shogunate concluded similar treaties with Holland, Russia, England, and France in the same year, and with Prussia, Switzerland and Belgium a little later.

Opening of the Country The Government appointed a commissioner to administer foreign affairs in 1858, and the Shogun sought the Imperial sanction for the provisional treaties, and finally got it in 1865. The carrying into practice of all these treaties was realized with the opening of Hyogo (Kobe) port in 1867, the year of the accession of the Emperor Meiji. In the meantime, several international troubles occurred. Russia tried to invade Tsushima in 1861, Satsuma warriors fought against an English fleet off Kagoshima in 1863, and the Nagato clan had an engagement with the combined fleets of France, England, Holland, and America at Shimonoseki in 1864.

Downfall of the Shogunate

Court and Shogunate The Yedo Government adopted the policy of keeping the Imperial Court at a respectful distance, paying apparent homage to it, but actually presenting it only with 120,000 koku of rice, the pension of a middle-class lord.

Uprising of the Loyalists On the other hand, the smouldering fire of loyalty to the Imperial House was gradually fanned into a blaze by the increasing attention paid to the study of Confucianism and old Japanese literature. Confucian scholars taught that the first duty of the people was to be loyal to the King (Emperor) and not to the Conqueror (Shogun), while the students of old Japanese literature clearly set forth the illegality of the Shogunate in the country of which the sovereignty belonged solely to the

Imperial House. Down to the middle of the Yedo Period, however, these teachings were taken as mere matters of academic interest without practical application. Mitsukuni Tokugawa, the lord of Mito, was among the foremost in advocating the virtue of loyalty to the Imperial House, himself beginning the work of compiling a Japanese history to make this characteristic Japanese virtue clearly understood, and erecting a monument to the loyalist Masashige Kusunoki at Minatogawa, Kobe. Such other scholars as Ansei Yamazaki, Keisai Asami, and Soko Yamaka, emphasized the virtue of loyalty, though not necessarily to incite any anti-Shogunate sentiment. Their teachings, nevertheless, acted to stimulate Imperial loyalty in the hearts of the samurai and the people till the time came when it should burst into flame.

The first instance of these sentiments being transformed into practical action was the movement of Takénouchi Shikibu who came from Niigata to Kyoto and went about among the Court nobles insisting upon the need of a loyalists' uprising. He was banished by the Shogunate in 1759. Daini Yamagata and Umon Fujii followed him, but both were soon put to death. However, the corruption and weakening of the Shogunate régime quickened the anti-Shogunate feeling in general towards the end of the 18th century. Especially the renaissance of Japanese literature and national character brought about by the teachings of the Japanese scholars, Norinaga Motoori and Atsutane Hirata, greatly helped the loyalist cause. Hiko-kuro Takayama went around the provinces propagating the principle; Kumpéi Gamo visited the tombs of the Emperors and publicly bewailed their neglected state. Sanyo Rai wrote a Japanese history in which he upheld dignity and prestige of the Imperial House and scathingly criticized the Shogunate régime.

The knocking at Japan's doors by foreign countries presented ample chances for the loyalists to take advantage of the confusion and misdoings of the Shogunate Government, and public opinion finally endorsed their movement at the beginning of the 19th century.

The Ansei Coup d'Etat When the Emperor Komei, father of the Emperor Meiji, came to the Throne, he did not

hesitate to give Imperial suggestions and command to the Shogunate, and the Imperial power was greatly strengthened. The party which was defeated in its hopes for choosing another man for the 14th Shogun schemed a reformation of the Shogunate from within. They united with other forces and asked for an Imperial edict to accomplish their plans. The Emperor issued an edict and reprimanded the Shogunate for concluding treaties without the Imperial sanction. Whereupon the Shogunate sent a delegate to apologize for the steps they had taken, but at the same time the Taio (premier) Naosuké II declared the Coup d'Etat of Ansei, 1858, and put into prison all who worked for the issuance of the Imperial edict. His purpose was to re-establish the governmental authority of the Shogunate. But he was assassinated at the Sakurada gate of the Shogun's palace in March 1860.

The assassination of the Taio gave what was to prove a final blow to the Shogunate though the Roju, Nobumasa Ando, schemed a combination or amalgamation of the Imperial Court and the Shogunate to save the latter from ruin. Some of the powerful lords in the west responded to the idea for a time, but public opinion was overwhelmingly against this amalgamation movement on the part of the pro-Shogun party, and the anti-Yédo movement increased still more in power. Most of the loyalists gathered in Kyoto in open defiance of Yédo. The ronin or unemployed samurai flocked to the cause in such great numbers that it was necessary for the armies of the lords of Satsuma, Tosa and Choshu to keep them in bounds in order to preserve the peace of the city.

On the other hand, the Emperor Koméi sent a messenger to Yédo to urge the reformation of the Shogunate Government. The Shogun Iyeshigé tried to make improvement in the system of Sankin-kotai, etc., but it was too late to regain the support of the people. The Namamugi incident, in which three Englishmen were killed or injured by the lord of Shimazu's samurai and England demanding compensation, stirred the extreme anti-foreign party to fury and the Kyoto Court sent this time Sanetomi Sanjo to Yédo and ordered the Shogunate to wage war against all foreigners. In 1863 an Anti-Foreign Edict was issued by the Shogunate, and the armies of the Choshu and Satsuma

lords attacked foreign merchant ships and warships. The hot-headed loyalists in Kyoto demanded that a nationwide anti-foreign movement should be launched, and the Emperor was inclined to take command of the movement himself. But the other group of princes and lords prevailed upon the Emperor to adopt a more tactful measure, and the leaders of the radical element lost influence and fled to the west. For a while the schism among the loyalists persisted, but the object lesson of the bombardment of Shimonséki by a combined foreign fleet weakened the anti-foreign movement to a great extent. By 1867, when the Emperor Meiji ascended the Throne, the anti-foreign movement had died away and the loyalists were solely concerned with the destruction of the Shogunate régime, recognizing the inability of the Shogunate to sustain the national honor in the crisis.

Prince Sanetomi Sanjo, one of the seven Court nobles who had fled to the west, joined Prince Tomomi Iwakura in leading the anti-Shogunate movement. The hostility between the two greatest of the western lords, Shimazu, lord of Satsuma province and Mori of Choshu or Nagato, was pacified by the arbitration of Prince Sanjo and they became strongly united in the common cause. Prince Iwakura, succeeding in making a definite plan for the destruction of the Shogunate, gathered many young and gifted samurai under these two lords, such as Takamori Saigo, Toshimichi Okubo of Satsuma and Takayoshi Kido of Nagato, and asked the Imperial sanction for the movement.

On October 14, 1867, the Emperor Meiji gave orders to the Satsuma and Choshu lords to open hostilities against the Yédo Government. On the side of the Shogunate, Toyonobu Yamanouchi, former lord of Tosa in Shikoku, was informed of this secret plan of the Imperial army, and being anxious to avert the impending civil war sent Shojiro Goto to present a memorial to the Shogun Yoshinobu (Kéiki) Tokugawa, advising his surrender of the sovereign authority. Whereupon Yoshinobu, who was staying at Kyoto, immediately called an assembly of the representative samurai of the lords then staying in the city to the Niijo Castle on October 13, 1867, and asked their opinion on his determination to surrender. The assembly gladly agreed to his decision

on the advice of Shojiro Goto and Tatéaki Komatsu, a subject of the Satsuma lord. On October 14, Yoshinobu presented a written request for the Imperial permission, and on October 24 the resignation of the Shogun was formally

tendered to the Throne. Thus the Yédo Shogunate ended with the 15th Shogun, after having continued for 265 years, and after a total period of 675 years the sovereign authority was restored to the Throne.

THE NEW JAPAN

Meiji Era
(1868-1912 A.D.)

The Meiji Restoration

In December of 1867, the Emperor Meiji issued an important order abolishing the old officialdom and forming a new Dajokan which should consist of the president, councillors and vice-councillors, and proclaiming the direct rule of the Throne in every line of national government. The Imperial Prince Arisugawa was appointed President of the Dajokan, and those court nobles and feudal lords who had faithfully worked for the Restoration were given the position of councillors, while some other men of ability from among the nobles and common samurai were made vice-councillors. The people were allowed to live in complete equality, discarding the old castes of nobles and common people. This change was called "Ishin" or the renovation of all things. On March 14, 1868, or the first year of Meiji, the Emperor called together the princes and high officials to the Shishinden and took the famous oath of five articles before the ancestral gods. These five articles of the Imperial oath provided the foundation to the new régime. They were as follows: "(1) We will call councils and rule the nation according to public opinion; (2) Men of upper and lower classes without distinction shall be united in all enterprises; (3) Civil officials and military officers shall be in one accord and all the common people shall be so treated that they can attain their aims and feel no discontent; (4) Old unworthy ways and customs shall be destroyed and the people shall walk along the highway of heaven and earth; and (5) Knowledge shall be sought among the nations of the world and the Empire shall be led up to the zenith of prosperity.

"To accomplish this unprecedented reformation, We go before the people, and proclaim the fundamental national

principles, even in the presence of the gods of heaven and earth, to establish the way for the public welfare. Ye, Our subjects, shall be united all together, according to these principles."

In August of the same year, the formal celebration of the Emperor's accession to the Throne was held at the central palace, and in September the year-name of Kéio was changed to Meiji.

Removal of the Capital The Emperor Meiji paid his first visit to Tokyo in the first year and made the castle of Yédo his permanent palace in the second year of the new era, or 1869. The Government was subsequently removed to Tokyo.

The Organization In the first year of Meiji, 1868, a new Central Government was established in accordance with the five principles above mentioned. It was called Dajokan, or Great Government, with seven departments. The council played the part of the future parliament; the five departments of general political, religious, financial, military and foreign affairs were administrative; and the last, the penal department took charge of justice, and independence of the legislature, the executive and the judiciary was for the first time established. In a few years several adjustments were made, but by the fourth year all the official machinery of the central government was systematically arranged.

Surrender of Fiefs The Imperial Court had confiscated all the territory belonging to the old Shogunate, and set up prefectural offices and appointed governors, but the feudal lords still owned their lands and their feudal subjects. In the first year of Meiji, Takayoshi (Koin) Kido advised Lord Mōri, Daimyo of Nagano, to return his territory to the Court, Lord Mōri, Lord Shimazu of Satsuma, Lord Nabeshima of Hizen and Lord Yamanouchi of Tosa jointly tendered their petition for the territorial surrender. Other lords fol-

lowed them, and their petition was accepted in the second year. The lords gave up all their land and people, asking for nothing in return. For the time being they were requested to continue as governors of their districts, and the feudal system was completely destroyed.

The country was divided into 8 urban prefectures, 26 prefectures and 262 clan districts. But the governors of clan districts, the former feudal lords, governed their people mostly in the old style, preserving the "chief-and-subject" relationship. The orders and ways of administration were greatly distorted and the authority of the Central Government was ineffective. Plans were made to do away with the clan governors and unify the whole nation under the same form of prefectural government. The Emperor called all the clan district governors to Tokyo in 1871, and told them about the abolition of their office. They were given privilege to live in Tokyo, and were replaced by the civil prefectural governors. Through many changes, the country was finally divided as at present into one "Do" or district, 3 urban prefectures and 43 prefectures in 1889. (Foreign relations are dealt with in Chapter VI.)

Social Reforms

In 1869, when the resignation of the lords was accepted, the names "Kuge" (court noble) and "Daimyo" (feudal lord) were abolished and the nobles and lords were all made "Kazoku" (peers). Clan samurai were given the class-name of Shizoku, and in the following year the common people were allowed to take their own family names, which they had not previously borne. In 1871, intermarriage was permitted between the peers and Haimin or common people, while the peers and Shizoku were allowed to engage in the ordinary business of agriculture, industry and commerce.

Thus the social castes of the feudal age were entirely broken to pieces. Social institutions and customs changed also. With the official recognition of friendly intercourse with foreign people, international traffic and relations became busier and more intimate. Many a Japanese who went abroad brought back Western customs and introduced new institutions, and the peo-

ple were quick to adopt them in their daily social life.

Telegraph system was installed between Tokyo and Yokohama on Dec. 25, 1869 (2nd year of Meiji); Regular inter-city mail service started between Tokyo, Kyoto and Osaka in 1871 (4th year); First train ran between Tokyo and Yokohama, on Sept. 12, 1872 (5th year); Men were ordered to cut off their topknots and prohibited to carry swords in 1871 (4th year); Laws regarding European costumes and uniforms of officials were issued, 1871;

The solar calendar officially replaced the lunar calendar, 1872 and December 3 of the lunar year was declared January 1 of the 6th year of Meiji or 1873. National holidays were announced in 1871.

In 1871, the Department of Education was added to the Government and, in 1872, the national educational system was established and it became compulsory for all children to be sent to public elementary schools. Buildings in European styles began to appear in the cities and people gradually acquired a taste for foreign food.

New Military System

Prior to the Restoration the people at large had nothing to do with military affairs. But with the reforms following the Restoration, the military system was revised and in 1872 the provisional Department of Military Affairs was changed into the two departments of Army and Navy, and in the following year the law of conscription was issued and, in accordance with the old-time ideas of the Japanese and on the pattern of most of the European powers the people were all ordered to share in universal military service for the defense of the country. The military system made singular progress through the many national crises of the Meiji Era.

Cultivation of Hokkaido

At the beginning of the Meiji Era the cultivation of the waste land of the north was proposed, and in 1869 the Colonization Bureau was opened. The name Hokkaido, or north-sea-district, was given to the land, formerly known as Ezo. In 1870 Kiyotaka Kuroda was appointed vice-president of the Bureau and he made untiring efforts to civilize the natives, to construct roads to pro-

vide industry and to encourage immigrants from the other islands. In 1875, he invited the samurai class of the three northeastern prefectures of the Main Island to form a colonial militia to defend and cultivate the land at the same time. The farming and other population of Hokkaido has rapidly increased since. A knotty question in the north was the boundary between Japan and Russia. The Shogunate had several diplomatic negotiations with the Russian admirals, and question again arose with the opening of the Colonization Bureau. Japan sought to divide the island of Saghalien into two with the border line at 50° north latitude. Kuroda wished to abandon Saghalien and concentrate all efforts on the colonization of Hokkaido, and the Government sent Vice-Admiral Takéaki (Buyo) Enomoto to Russia and tried to settle the question. In 1875 a compromise was reached and the whole of Saghalien was adjudged to belong to Russia and all the Kurile Islands were given to Japan. This so-called exchange of Saghalien and the Kuriles finally settled the long dispute over Japan's northern boundaries.

Civil Wars

The Cause The political and social reforms of the Meiji Restoration were so vast in scale and so rapid in progress that the masses of the people could hardly appreciate their significance, intrinsic or apparent, that they were even offended by some of new government policies that radically went counter to their accustomed old customs or habits. Some of political leaders who had dissatisfaction with those in power often assumed leadership in local disturbances. There were constant hitches among officials and people in the country, frequently marked with the assassinations of ranking officials.

Shimpéi Eto caused some trouble in Saga prefecture; but he was soon subdued by the Imperial army. In Kumamoto, an adjacent prefecture to Saga, Otaguro and others formed a party called the Jimpuren or Divine-wind-party, and made an attack on the Kumamoto garrison in 1876, only to be defeated by the soldiers of the garrison. At Hagl, the north-western end of the Main Island, Maehara rose in accord with the Jimpuren party, but he was killed and his men dispersed.

The Saigo Rebellion General Taka-

mori Saigo, a member of the Council and the head of the military department, could not realize his ideas about the Korean problem, and was deeply grieved at the failure. After his resignation he went back to his native place, Kagoshima, at the southern end of Kyushu Island. Over a hundred officers and soldiers who had been under him in the Tokyo Imperial Guard followed him to the south, causing a great commotion in the country. His followers, such as ex-major-generals Kirino and Shinowara, elected Saigo to the leadership of their party and the head of their private school. In 1877 Saigo, Kirino and Shinowara gathered an army of over 15,000 soldiers, proclaiming their intention of impeaching the Government for its social and political failures, and came up to Kumamoto and besieged the Kumamoto castle of the Imperial garrison. But the commander of the garrison, Major-General Tatéki Tani bravely fought against Saigo's army. The Emperor Meiji appointed the Imperial Prince Arisugawa to be Commander-in-Chief, and Lieutenant-General Arimoto Yamagata and Vice-Admiral Sumiyoshi Kawamura to be the heads of the army and navy respectively. Saigo's troops were compelled to raise the siege under the pressure of the Imperial armies, and they retreated in disorder back to Kagoshima, and made Shiroyama their final stronghold. Shiroyama is a promontory on the outskirts of the town and there the great Saigo killed himself. This rebellion was really the last of the civil wars accompanying the Restoration. After this Southwestern Civil War, the wounded soldiers, loyalist and rebel alike, were cared for at the Imperial army hospitals.

The Japan Red Cross Society was founded on this occasion.

Dawn of Constitutional Government

The Genro-in In the first year of Meiji, government institutions were reformed in many ways, and representatives of prefectures were made members of the lower council. In the following year the public assembly was opened, and the prefectural representatives became its members. But this assembly consisted of members who were all chosen by the Government, and it gave rise to a demand for the

establishment of an assembly of representatives elected by the people. In 1873 Kido, who had come back from his European tour of investigation, proposed the establishment of the national constitution; while in 1874, Soejima, Goto, Itagaki and Eto presented a petition for establishment of parliament by popular election. The Government did not adopt either proposal as the time was not yet ripe, but in 1875 they established the Genro-in, a kind of Senate, as the chief seat of legislation, and the Supreme Court of Judicature for the administration of justice, and summoned district governors to Tokyo to learn of the requirements of the people. In 1876, the Emperor ordered the Genro-in to make plans for the formation of the Imperial Constitution and in 1870 prefectural assemblies were opened for deciding on district finances and representative government was first tried in the local districts.

Prefectural Elections With the end of the Southwestern Civil War the foundation of the Central Government became unshakable. But in a few years Japan lost most of her able statesmen one after another. Saigō died in the battle just mentioned, Kido passed away from illness, and Okubo was assassinated in 1878. These were the three pillars of the Reformation, and Shigēnōbu Okuma, Hirobumi Ito and the like had to carry on their strenuous task. In April 1878, the second local governors' conference was held. The items for discussion were rules concerning prefectural assemblies, local taxes, and the organization of towns and villages. In July of the same year the rules concerning prefectural assemblies were issued, and according to the articles public election of representatives and local self-government was for the first time to be put into practice in the following year.

The election was void of shady events, because the people honored the candidates as those who must in truth represent them not only in wisdom and political ideas but also in personality and social standing. The result was that the prefectural assemblies were composed of the best class of men in the districts. The famous members of the Imperial Diet and great statesmen of later days mostly came out of these early local assemblies.

Political Dissensions Political dissensions, which had appeared even under the turmoil of military struggles, came to the fore, and heated discussions were carried on both in debates and through pamphlets. The one who attracted most public attention with his progressive opinions was Taisuké Itagaki of Toza. In September 1878, a meeting was held at Osaka under the leadership of Itagaki's society to pass a resolution calling for the realization of the national assembly. It was a meeting of samurai-class people as yet. But their second meeting, in March 1879, gathered together 80 members who represented 21 societies in 10 prefectures, and the third meeting in November passed a resolution to petition the Emperor, and drafted a letter with a long heading, "Letter of Appeal to the Public for Demanding the Establishment of the National Assembly." The letter was printed and given a wide circulation.

Petition for Opening Diet It is said that over 50 such petitions were presented to the Government during the one year of 1880. In the midst of these political agitations, a young scholar of French politics, Kimmochi Sāonji came back from Paris and published the "Toyo Jiyu Shimbun" (Eastern Liberal News), and to much annoyance of the authorities, instructed the people in the principles of liberal politics. The acute state of affairs seemed to presage the early appearance of an Imperial Diet when the political events of 1881 occurred.

Imperial Edict Issued In that year the Government proposed to sell to the Kansai Trade Society the land, buildings, ships, dock and hunting fields which belonged to the Colonization Bureau. The actual price was estimated at a little over ¥300,000, while the Government had invested and spent as much as ¥14,096,800 on them. There was a strong suspicion of favoritism for the Kago-shima merchants of the said society, for many of the high officials came from that district, and criticisms arose against the abuse. This public criticism was caught up by those who demanded social justice and bitterly censured the official autocracy. On the very evening of his return from a tour of the north-eastern districts on October 11, the Emperor Meiji called the members of the Cabinet and the councillors to a meeting in his

presence at which it was resolved that the government sale should be stopped at once and that the Imperial Diet should be summoned in the twenty-third year of Meiji (1890). These resolutions were published in the Imperial edict issued on the following day, October 12, 1881. With the issuing of this edict the boisterous discussion and debate among the people gradually died down and political parties began to be organized for carrying out their political principles in readiness for the opening of parliament 10 years later. The major parties were the Jiyu-to (Liberal) of Taisuké Itagaki and the Kaishin-to (Progressive) of Shigēnōbu Okuma.

Preparation of Constitution In 1882 the Government sent Hirobumi Ito to investigate political institutions abroad, and to obtain models or suggestions best suited to Japan. Ito and his assistants mostly stayed in Germany and there studied Western politics and constitutions, and came back in the following year. In 1884 the Government established an Investigation Bureau and, appointing Ito the president of the Bureau, ordered him to draft the Constitution and plans for the new institutions.

It was in this year that a law for the peers was enacted and the five ranks of nobility—prince, marquis, count, viscount and baron—were first defined. In 1885, at the instance of Prince Sanjo and to lay the foundation for true constitutional government, the structure of the Central Government was reorganized and a cabinet of a modern nature was formed for the first time, the old positions of councillor and minister being abolished. It consisted of the Premier and Ministers for Home Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Finance, Army, Navy, Justice, Education, Agriculture and Commerce, and Communications. In the Court there were the Naidaijin or Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals and the Minister of the Imperial Household. The first Premier was Ito himself, who held the additional post of the Ministership of the Imperial Household. In 1888 the Privy Council was established, with statesmen of tried caliber named as its members and it was made the highest body for Imperial consultation on important political affairs. It also was the first President of the Privy Council. The draft of the Constitution was completed by this year and the

Emperor put it before the Privy Council as the first subject of discussion. The Emperor Meiji was present at all sessions on the Constitution, lent attentive ear to the opinions of the different members, showing great personal interest in framing and discussing the resolutions.

Promulgation of the Constitution On the 11th of February, the 2,549th anniversary of the accession of Jimmu Tennō, 1889 in Western reckoning, the Emperor Meiji reverently reported the promulgation of the Constitution to the ancestral gods. Then appearing in person with the Empress before the Imperial Princes, Cabinet ministers, high officials, representative people, and foreign ministers, solemnly issued the Imperial Constitution. He issued an accompanying law relating to the Imperial family which regulated future accessions, and relative positions of the Imperial Princes, setting forth the guiding principle on the question of the successor to the Throne. Other laws that accompanied the Constitution were on the election of the members of the lower house of parliament and its institution. They were issued in the same year, and in November 1890, the first Imperial Diet was convened in Tokyo and the opening ceremony was held in the presence of the Emperor. Local self-government had been established and improvements made in the institutions of cities and towns for the past two years, and in this year another improvement in the prefectural and county institutions was made, confirming their self-government, although county government was abolished later.

Law Since the downfall of feudalism and return of fealty to the Emperor, uniform laws for the control of the people became an acute necessity and the Government first revised the criminal law in 1883 (6th year of Meiji). Other laws were revised or newly compiled according to the need of changing society and with due regard to foreign relations. The code of civil procedure, the commercial law and the civil law were enforced by 1899. The criminal law was revised in 1908 and the code of civil procedure in 1924 according to the advanced ideals and needs of the times.

Revision of Treaties (See Chapter VI)

Sino-Japanese War

On August 1, 1894, Japan declared war against China, the Emperor setting up his headquarters at Hiroshima. Lieutenant-General Nozu routed the Chinese soldiers and drove them back from the boundaries of Chosen in that month, and Vice-Admiral Yukyo Ito, Commander-in-Chief of the combined fleet, defeated the Chinese North-Sea fleet on the Yellow Sea. In October, Commander Arimoto Yamagata led his First Army through Chosen to Southern Manchuria and advanced to the west, while Commander Iwao Oyama, head of the Second Army, crossed the Yellow Sea and entered China direct, to act in conjunction with the Imperial fleet on the sea. Port Arthur was captured in November and Weihaiwei in February 1895, and the Chinese naval power was annihilated. In March, the peninsula of Liaotung was seized by the Japanese armies and Peking was threatened by attack, while Southern China lay at the mercy of the Japanese fleet. The Emperor Meiji appointed Imperial Prince Akihito Arisugawa generalissimo over the whole army and navy to reduce China to submission. China asked for peace, appointing Li Hung-chang her delegate. Japanese delegates Premier Ito and Foreign Minister Mutsu met him at a peace conference at Shimonoseki. According to the peace treaty concluded in April 1895, China recognized Chosen independence, gave Japan the Liaotung Peninsula, Taiwan and Boko Islands, paid her ¥300,000,000 as indemnity, and opened four new ports for trade.

Return of Liaotung In alliance with Germany and France, Russia intervened and advised Japan to give back the territory to China, and the Peninsula was returned to China at the end of 1895 for an indemnity of about ¥45,000,000.

The newly acquired territory of Taiwan was first governed by Governor-General Kabayama. In 1896, the whole island of Taiwan was pacified and the new people began to understand the Japanese rule. In 1898 Gentaro Kodama became the Governor-General and encouraged industry and improved traffic so much that the island was really transformed into a valuable part of the Empire.

The Boxer Uprising In April 1900 the anti-foreign movement Boxer Uprising broke out in Shantung.

With the help of Japanese troops, the allied army dispersed the Boxers from Peking where Japanese and German officials had been killed and the Legations were relieved from further attack. The Peking protocol, signed on September 7, 1901, settled the affair with China paying a total indemnity of 450,000,000 Hk. taels to the Powers (Japan's share ¥44,000,000) and dispatching special envoys to Japan and Germany to apologize.

Anglo-Japanese Alliance After the experience of the Boxer Uprising, England abandoned her historical policy of "splendid isolation" and allied with Japan in 1902 for mutual help in Far Eastern problems. According to the terms of alliance, Japan and England were to be united in maintaining Chinese and Chosen territorial integrity and to help each other if any two other nations united to attack either one of the allies in the Far East.

Russo-Japanese War

Russian advance into Manchuria menaced the territorial integrity of Chosen, the existence of Japan, and the peace of the Far East. Japan, compelled to take a firm stand against these designs, proposed a mutual understanding about the limitation of rights of both nations to avoid the impending danger of collision. But Russia continued to menace Japan, maintaining a most aggressive attitude. The Japanese final proposal on the problems in Manchuria, of January 12, 1904, was left unanswered by Russia for two weeks, and the Imperial declaration of war against Russia was issued on February 10, 1904.

War on Sea The combined fleet of Admiral Togo immediately attacked the Russian warships off Port Arthur and Chinnampo and constantly pressed the Russian navy in Port Arthur. The warships in Vladivostok often came out into Japanese waters, harassed the communications of the Japanese army on the continent and hindered the transport of troops, but they were also destroyed in August by the second squadron under Rear-Admiral Kamimura.

War on Land On land, General Kuroki headed the First Army and marched

into Manchuria through Chosen in May; the Second Army, with General Oku in command, landed on the Liaotung peninsula and devising a united stratagem with the Fourth Army under General Nozu, defeated the enemy in every place, and the three armies simultaneously advanced to Liaotung. In June the Emperor ordered Generalissimo Oyama, Commander-in-Chief of all the armies, and General Kodama, Chief of the General Staff, to go to the front, and they spurred the whole army to victory over the Russian soldiers in the town. In October the Russian reinforcements came down to retake the town, but the Japanese armies encountered them at Sha-ho and defeated them.

In the meantime the Third Army under General Nogai turned from Liaotung to the attack of Port Arthur. Nogai began the famous but awful siege warfare, and captured the so-called "203-meter hill" in December. In January 1905, General Stoessel, head of the Russian garrison, surrendered to General Nogai and sued for peace.

After the unsuccessful Battle of Sha-ho the Commander-in-Chief of the Russian army, General Kuropatkin, gathered over 600,000 soldiers at Mukden and awaited his chance. In February 1905, the Japanese Manchurian armies were reinforced by the Third Army from Port Arthur and General Kawamura's Yalu River army, and rallying 400,000 soldiers advanced towards Mukden from three directions. After a fierce battle of 14 days the Japanese armies routed the immense armies of the enemy, who rushed to the north, completely crushed on March 10, 1905.

The Battle of the Japan Sea Before the downfall of Port Arthur and the defeat at Mukden, Russia had seen that the weakness of her naval power in Japanese waters delayed any possible victory over Japan. She therefore formed the Second and Third Pacific Squadrons out of her Baltic fleet and sent them to the Pacific under the command of Vice-Admiral Rozdhestvensky. The Russian fleet made a long voyage to the Far East and Togo was able to make full plans to meet them under circumstances most advantageous to the Japanese fleet. The Baltic fleet, consisting of 33 warships, sailed straight to their destination across the East China Sea. Togo chose the narrow Tsushima Straits to encounter the Rus-

sian fleet. It took only a few hours from the evening of May 27 to the following morning to sink most of the Russian warships or blow them to pieces. Rozdhestvensky and his staff were taken captive. In July of the same year a part of the Japanese army was landed in Saghalien and subduing the Russian resistance quickly captured the whole island.

The Peace President Roosevelt of the United States then initiated peace-proposals between Japan and Russia, and succeeded in persuading them to open a peace conference in America. Japan sent Jutaro Komura and Kogoro Takahira as her ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiary to Portsmouth to meet with the Russian ambassadors Witte and Rosen. The peace treaty was concluded on September 5, 1905. Russia recognized the supreme rights of Japan over Chosen, surrendered the southern half of Saghalien (since then officially known as Karafuto) to Japan and handed over the special rights of lease in Kwantung (since then officially known as the Leased Territory of Kwantung), the railway south of Changchung (present Hsinking, capital of Manchoukuo) to Dairen, the territory known as the railway zone and the mining along it.

After the Russo-Japanese War

Post-war Readjustment The Russo-Japanese war raised Japan's position in world politics, especially in regard to Oriental affairs. The international relations of Japan with the Western Powers became so intimate and important that all of them replaced their ministers with ambassadors in Japan. In home affairs Japan made special efforts in the education of the people to keep abreast with the times. Industry in all lines leaped forward under the leadership of able business men. In 1906 Port Arthur was made a naval station for the defense of the Kwantung littoral, and the South Manchuria Railway Company was established to manage the railway and mining business which had been handed over by Russia. Dairen and a part of Port Arthur were opened for international trade. In 1907 the Saghalien national boundary was fixed at 50° north latitude, and the Government opened an office there and encouraged the emigration of Japanese to the island.

Relations with Chosen

(See Chapter VI.)

Treaties with Powers

(See Chapter VI.)

Demise of the Emperor Meiji On July 30, 1912, the Emperor Meiji passed away after only a few weeks of illness in his Tokyo Palace. He died beloved of all, a love which was attested by the splendid Meiji Shrine which was built in his honor, and which draws more worshippers than any other shrine. The Emperor Yoshihito (the late Emperor Taisho) came to the Throne immediately after his father's death, according to the provisions in the Imperial code on the succession.

Taisho Era
(1912-1926)

The World War

Japan's Contribution When the World War broke out in August 1914, Japan, in the spirit of noblesse oblige, by virtue of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, sided with the Allies. On August 23, 1914, Japan declared war against Germany.

Tsingtao Falls Japan lost no time in dispatching her army and navy to Tsingtao. The Second Squadron commanded by Vice-Admiral Sadakichi Kato blockaded the gulf while the First Squadron of Vice-Admiral Tomosaburo Kato kept watch over the Yellow Sea and other China north-eastern seas. The 18th Divisional Commander Kanwo attacked the fortress from behind, in conjunction with the navy. Some British troops also took part and they all besieged the fortress in October 1914. The attack was so aggressive that in but ten days all the batteries were captured and in November the German Governor Waldeck and his staff surrendered the port and fortress. A detachment of the First Squadron was sent to the South Seas and acting in concert with the British Navy tried to destroy the German Asiatic fleet. The Marshall Islands were occupied in September, and the Mariana and Caroline Islands in October.

A SURVEY OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT**After the Meiji Restoration**

The growth of capitalism in Japan took place much later than in European countries, and the course of development differed accordingly. The

and possession was taken of all German naval stations in the South Seas. British vessels met the German fleet in the Indian Ocean, and off the coast of South Africa, and destroyed it in December 1914.

With the progress of the World War, Japan dispatched a special-service fleet as far as the Mediterranean. The special-service fleet tried its best to protect trade and communications in that part by effectively attacking German submarines in cooperation with the Allied fleets. (See Chapter VI on Foreign Relations.)

The Kanto Earthquake On September 1, 1923, Japan underwent the sad experience of the Kanto earthquake, in which tens of thousands of houses were destroyed or damaged in Tokyo, Kanagawa, Shizuoka, Saltama and Chiba prefectures, and a hundred thousand people were killed or injured, with an estimated loss of several thousand million yen. (See Chapter I.) The great fires started by the earthquake in Tokyo and Yokohama caused far more deaths than those which were directly attributable to the shocks. But, undaunted by the terrible disaster, the people not only of the metropolis but of all Japan stood up in a splendid spirit of determination to reconstruct all her damaged cities and towns by the help of the sympathetic nations of America and Europe. The wonderful improvement in the streets and buildings of the new cities materially exhibited the strength of Japan's national power, so that the great earthquake rather quickened than retarded the advance of Japan as a whole.

Demise of the Emperor Taisho In December 1926, the Emperor Taisho passed away at the Hayama Winter Palace and the Regent, Crown Prince Hirohito, succeeded him as Ruler, the year-name of Showa, or Enlightened Peace, being given to his era. Under his rule Japan is continuing her painstaking efforts to keep pace with world progress and cope with complicated international relations.

main cause of delay was the closed-door policy of the Tokugawa Shogunate during the 220 years of its régime beginning 1639 and ending 1859, when

some ports were opened for foreign trade.

During the latter half of the period of seclusion the first beginnings of capitalism were becoming evident in the country. But no mercantilism had made its appearance as its predecessor as it had done before the advent of capitalism in Europe, nor did the commercial and industrial conditions of the country make such progress as those of Europe.

The feudalistic order which had lasted for over three hundred years was rapidly heading to a collapse. As the country had little influence from outside on account of its seclusion policy the course of dissolution which the prevailing order of life was facing was simple and natural. In this respect the European history has no parallel.

Toward the latter part of the Tokugawa Period the self-supply and self-sufficiency principle followed in rural districts hitherto began to be threatened by the gradual development of capitalism, although in its infancy, owing to the production of industrial goods, exchange of commodities and the general circulation of money. Serfdom of a type peculiar to Japan began to take on a more or less modern aspect by the appearance of rich landowners in the latter half of the Yedo Period, suggesting the inevitable birth of capitalism.

In the manufacturing industry handicraft production in rural homes and craft guilds in cities began to come under the control of wholesalers and workshops in which craftsmen were gathered together under capitalistic management. At the end of the Yedo Period or in the middle of the nineteenth century the Tokugawa Shogunate and the powerful feudal lords imported factory system from the west under the pressure of Western powers whose remarkable advancement in industrial and military fields awakened the nation from its long sleep of seclusion.

In the field of commerce progress was quicker than in other fields of national economy. During the period of war-lords prior to the Yedo Period manufacturers formed craft guilds which continued to exist up to the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate. Together with them merchant guilds made a headway, largely owing to the expansion of cities. (See "Yedo Period" in this Chapter.)

Currency system was developed by the Tokugawa Shogunate, and coins of gold, silver, copper, iron and brass were in general circulation in the Yedo Period. Besides, local lords issued their own paper notes of all denominations for circulation within their fiefs. National unification of currency was not yet realized, but the use of money made a considerable progress in the Yedo Period.

The rise of the merchant class and change in warriors' status transformed the old feudal system in its fundamentals and it stood on the brink of complete dissolution when Western countries came knocking at the doors of Japan in the middle of the 19th century.

There was no period of mercantilism in Japan since foreign trade was almost nil and consequently the nation did not enjoy the benefits of a favorable balance of trade. On the other hand, England and other Western countries had entered into a full capitalistic age through the industrial revolution in the last quarter of the 18th century. The territorial and economic expansion of British imperialism eastward reached Japan right after the Nanking Treaty of 1842. Japan, however, was fortunate enough to protect her territorial integrity and independence at this critical moment, but she was compelled to conclude, in 1858, unfair commercial treaties with Western countries in which tariff autonomy was relinquished and extraterritoriality rights were granted to Western Powers at trade ports. Japan was able to abolish the latter only after 42 years, while for the recovery of tariff autonomy 12 years or more were required.

In the Beginning of the Meiji Era Capitalism in Japan, therefore, developed not through industrial and commercial development of the nation but rather under the leadership of the Government and some wealthy merchants enjoying official patronage, and under the pressure of unequal treaties which robbed Japan of free protective trade policy for over half a century. The difficulties met by Japanese leaders, public and private, were incomparably great in as much as they endeavored to bring the nation up to the political and economic standards of advanced countries in defiance of numerous handicaps. What Japanese leaders of the time had in mind was the immediate

necessity of enriching the nation and reinforcing national defense in order to raise Japan's position to become a member of the family of nations and to ensure national solidarity against possible invasion of foreign Powers as exemplified by their dealings with China. What the leaders of Japan first accomplished was the overthrow of feudalism which had been the greatest obstacle against a rapid advancement of the country to the status of a modern nation, then the introduction and adoption of Western ways, modern administrative and military systems and commercial and industrial enterprises. The anti-foreign agitation in the years prior to the Meiji Restoration was not so much a manifestation of stubborn conservatism as an expression of the people's dissatisfaction with the old feudal régime and the re-affirmation of their loyalty to the Mikado. The patriotic fervor awakened and strengthened during the anti-foreign and anti-Shogunate movement among the people persisted in the mind of the Meiji leaders in their planning and execution of national policies and measures even in matters of economic development. The country was opened for trade, and the former restrictions on trade and industry according to classes were removed so that any individual might enter into any business in accordance with his inclination and free choice. Customs barriers set up at various points all over the country were abolished to facilitate free exchange of commodities and permit freedom of people's movements from one section of the land to another.

One of the major problems in the reformation at the beginning of the Meiji Era, during the years 1868-1876, was the deprivation of privileges enjoyed by the samurai class which comprised about 6.6 per cent of the population which was estimated at 30,000,000. It became clear very early that the privileged class could not be allowed to exist in old status any more, for the entire social structure was to be reorganized and the national conscription system was to be adopted in 1872. The Government, therefore, deprived them of their fiefs or allowances and gave public bonds instead specially issued for the purpose. The average value of public bonds for each samurai household was only ¥550. The samurai families, excepting the feudal lords, were, therefore, soon thrown into

penury, and the Government advised them to enter farm and industrial businesses, gave them positions in governmental factories, railways, and used them as teachers in schools or as police men. The majority of the police men in the beginning of the Meiji Era were the samurai of former days, mostly retainers of the lord of Kagoshima so that Kagoshima dialect prevailed for many years among the policemen in Japan.

But the good services of former samurai rendered for the country in the Meiji Era cannot be overlooked. The gigantic transformation, both political and economic, was initiated and led by the able retainers of the old feudal lords. With the exception of such persons as Katsu-Kaishu and Okubo-ichizo who had been direct subjects of the Tokugawa Shogunate and yet played an important rôle in the Restoration, most of the leaders came from among the lower class samurai serving under provincial lords. They cooperated with the nobles in Kyoto for the renovation of the country. Foremost among the personages who made invaluable contributions toward the economic development of Japan in the early years of Meiji were Toshimichi Okubo, Masayoshi Matsukata, Shigenobu Okuma, Hirobumi Ito and Kaoru Inoué, all of whom came from samurai class. The most outstanding figures among the private business leaders were also from the samurai class, as, for instance, Eiichi Shibusawa, Tomoatsu Godai, Yataro Iwasaki, founder of the Mitsubishi interests, Heigoro Soda and Ryohei Toyokawa of the same firm, Hikojiro Nakamigawa and Takuma Dan of the Mitsui interests, Toyoji Wada, Buel Nakano, Kokichi Sonoda, Jofu Yamabé, and Kengo Hayami. Japanese capitalism, therefore, was nurtured and developed by the spirit of samurai, which gave to all business enterprise a nationalistic motive, and developed the spirit of co-operation between business men and governmental officials, so characteristic of the economic development of Japan in the early years of Meiji.

In order to reorganize the nation, politically, economically and socially, the strengthening of national finance was the first requisite. The establishment of a strong military system and promotion of industries put heavy burden on national treasury, Business

organization among the people or capitalistic power of private firms was still very weak, while there was almost no factory equipped with modern machines or furnaces. Importation of machines, improvement of communication facilities and organization of banking institutions, all had to be initiated by the Government.

The ordinary revenue of the Central Government had to come entirely from taxes and flotation of public bonds. In the years when private corporations and manufacturing industries were still undeveloped, the principal item of taxation was land tax. The Government, therefore, endeavored first to adjust disorderly land taxes of former days and instituted an investigation of actual conditions in Japan as well as a study of different taxation systems of Western countries with a view to modernizing the taxation systems. Preparations for a thorough revision of land tax were commenced in 1870, with the purpose of unifying the taxation system throughout the country, by imposing a uniform rate, changing the old system of paying tax in kind to paying in money and lowering the rate from that of feudal days.

National unification of taxes was comparatively easy because the country was completely unified by the return of feuds by local lords to the Throne and the institution of prefectural system in 1871. As to the method of payment of taxes, in some districts under the Shogunate taxes on up-land products were being levied in money and now this system was gradually extended to paddy fields as well. The last aim which was to lower the tax from the average rate of feudal days was the hardest to accomplish, because the new government had to rely largely upon revenue from land tax for its finances. First of all, tax was imposed on the basis of land value instead of the amount of production, then the payment was changed from kind to money, and the rate of tax was fixed at 3 per cent of land value by the provisions of the new land tax law promulgated in 1873. With an additional sur-tax, the actual valuation of new tax rate was estimated at 34 per cent of the amount of rice produced. It was only one per cent lower than the rate imposed by the Tokugawa Shogunate on products in the districts under its direct rule, although it must be re-

membered, as mentioned elsewhere, that the rate was much higher in the districts under local lords, who were able to collect, at will, taxes for coming years in advance or command extraordinary contributions at any time.

Land tax in the years around 1873 occupied the first place among the comparatively few items of taxation, the proceeds of which accounted for over 80 per cent of State ordinary revenue (an insignificant 0.12 per cent in 1940-1941), the burden heavily resting upon the shoulders of farmers for the support of industries other than their own.

New Economic Systems Introduced
Currency system after Western model was adopted and the coins of varied and complicated denominations of the Tokugawa Shogunate were replaced by new coins cast at the national mint in November 1868. The shape of coins was regulated to be round instead of square or round as the old coins, while the former complicated counting was changed to decimal system. At first silver standard was adopted, but it was replaced by gold standard in May 1871. At the same time, however, silver coins were used for purposes of foreign trade for many years after. It was in 1897 that the currency system based on gold standard was completed in Japan. The basis for the development of modern industries was thus established in Japan in the years immediately following the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-1895. On the other hand the sudden transformation of the country from a medieval to a modern state resulted in a huge demand for funds in every field, and consequently unconvertible paper notes were issued by different departments of the Government in the early years of Meiji, while national banks, organized in accordance with the National Bank Law promulgated in November 1872, which numbered 153 in 1879, also issued bank notes, causing serious inflation of currency in the years 1879-1881. But through the good offices of the Finance Minister Masayoshi Matsukata all Governmental and bank notes were adjusted and consolidated so that the financial and economic conditions of the country became normal between 1881 and 1886. In 1877 the National Bank Law was revised, and, through the operation of the new bank law, the establishment of national banks began to decrease after 1881 while private banks began to in-

crease in number to meet the needs of the times.

During a business boom in 1886-1889 local banks and railway companies were established in considerable numbers. Spinning and silk industries also made progress in these years, but the expansion of banking and communication facilities went ahead of manufacturing industries in Japan indicating an abnormal development of capitalistic enterprises at their start. Banks and railways drew a large amount of investment during these years and established the basis for future development. The power of banks over industries was further augmented by the establishment of special banks (see Chapter on Banking) with the Nippon Ginko as the central bank solely empowered to issue bank-notes. In spite of the ups and downs of the economic world through the years of international wars in Meiji and Taisho eras banking organs continued to make sound progress so that they maintain a firm grip on industrial and commercial enterprises up to the present.

Railways A model steam engine and train were presented to the Shogunate as early as 1853 by Commodore Perry which gave a rudimentary idea of modern transportation facilities to competent authorities of the time, and later the Shogunate envoys to Europe came back with fresh knowledge of railways and with books on the conditions in European countries, and stimulated earnest concern in the Government for laying railways in the islands. It was in the fifth year of Meiji (1872) that the first railway was laid between Tokyo and Yokohama. During the following decade the construction of railways was carried on briskly under governmental management, until, by 1881, the Kyoto-Osaka, Osaka-Kobe, and Kyoto-Otsu lines were completed. The railway enterprise which was till now exclusively under governmental management was taken up by private interests, and in 1881 the Nippon Railway Company, a private concern was established with the purpose of laying railway lines between Tokyo and Aomori. With the extension of every mileage of this railway to the north, the enterprise gained increasing success so that, during the years (1886-1889) of business boom, investments were largely drawn to railways. The total mileage of governmental and private railways in

Japan amounted to 1,500 miles by 1890. The next period of railway expansion was the 3 years of 1895-1897 when about 58 per cent of ¥1,460,000,000, the total amount of investment for new enterprises in Japan during those 3 years, went to railway companies. This trend of investment changed in the years following the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905 and it began to go to manufacturing industries in a greater degree. But in general railway business continued to make surprising progress and in 1907 all important lines in the islands were placed under State ownership, mainly for the purpose of strengthening national defense. Since then the Government has been making every effort for covering all parts of the country with a complete network of railways in order to facilitate communications, business expansion, political unity and national defense for the economic development of the nation. (See Chapter on Land Transportation.)

Shipping Companies The sea transportation business in Japan owed its progress, even more than the railways, to the Governmental measures of support from the beginning of Meiji. The successive calls of the European and American mercantile and war ships at the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate strongly impressed the rulers and leaders of the time with the acute need for large-size ships for Japan's own defense and commercial development. Accordingly, many steam ships were either purchased or built by the Shogunate and local lords. The Meiji Government was determined to build a fleet of merchant vessels so as to compete with the Pacific Steamship Company of America and the P.O.S.S. Company of England which were dominating the sea transportation business in Oriental waters. They saw the need of promoting sea transportation by Japanese themselves for recovering into the hand of the Japanese the foreign trade of Japan, 97 per cent of which was in the hand of foreign firms. As soon as the Meiji Government was established it adopted a policy of protecting foreign trade and gave all possible aid to sea transportation enterprises carried by the Shipping Company, the Postal Steamship Company, the Mitsubishi Company, the Union Transportation Company and the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. The first named two companies were capitalized by the Mitsui interests and

supported by Kaoru Inoue of the Government, while the Mitsubishi Company was backed by Toshimichi Okubo and Shigenobu Okuma. The latter which was led by Yataro Iwasaki got special Government protection and rendered valuable services by conveying soldiers at the time of the Formosan Expedition, the Saga Incident and the Southwestern Civil War of 1887, monopolizing important sea transportation business in those years. But in 1882 a new company came into being under the auspices of Yajiro Shinagawa, Eiichi Shibusawa and Takashi Masuda, powerful economic leaders in that period. The new company, known as the Union Transportation Company, capitalized at ¥3,000,000, entered into close competition with the old Mitsubishi Company. In the end their competition became so destructive that the Government had to interfere and brought about an amalgamation of the two companies, which resulted in the birth of the N.Y.K. in 1885. The Toyo Kisen, the Nisshin Kisen and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha were subsequently established and added a large number of excellent ships for the development of the Japanese sea transportation and trade expansion, also under the special protection of the Government. During the years of the World War and the post-war period, many new shipping companies appeared and disappeared in Japan causing considerable disturbance in the shipping world. But the old N.Y.K., O.S.K. and other surviving shipping companies have continued to expand, more or less supported by the Government, through the years of Showa to play the most important rôle for the execution of the China Affair and the construction of the new order in East Asia in recent years.

Foreign Trade Among other fields of national economy which the Meiji Government endeavored to emphasize and promote was the foreign trade. In accordance with the provisions of the treaties with the five Western Powers concluded in 1858 Japan was forced to recognize extraterritoriality for the convenience of the treaty Powers at different ports and the assessment of import tariff was restricted so as not to enable Japan to take any protective policy at her own will. Yet the Powers agreed to the import tariff of 35 per cent ad valorem, largely through the good offices of the American envoy,

Townsend Harris. But the Powers took advantage of the anti-foreign movement among the people and certain untoward incidents involving their subjects in the following years to lower the rate to 5 per cent in 1866. In the beginning of the Meiji Era this revised import tariff was in force to the great disadvantage of Japanese traders. According to Governmental investigation in 1877, Japan's foreign trade was almost entirely in the hands of foreigners, 94 per cent of exports and 95 per cent of imports being handled by foreign firms. Another investigation revealed that as much as 97 per cent of Japan's trade was controlled by foreign traders. Such conditions were incompatible with the economic development of the country, and the leaders of the nation did everything to recover and assure autonomous tariff system and enrich the nation through foreign trade by the Japanese. The first requisite for the achievement of this goal were the revision of treaties on an equal footing and the abrogation of extraterritoriality. Special missions were sent to Western countries with the purpose of investigating western institutions and coming into direct contact with their governments and leaders, and on the return of those missions things European were indiscriminately introduced into the country, bringing about a period of European worship. On the other hand, advertisements and propaganda were eagerly made for the debut of Japanese goods in foreign markets. Special products of Japan were sent to and exhibited at international exhibitions in Vienna, Philadelphia, Melbourne and Paris. The Government took 20 such chances up to 1887 without regard to the large expenditure and trouble involved. In the endeavor to introduce Japan and to cultivate markets for Japanese goods in foreign lands. It took, however, not less than 40 years to bring about a revision of the treaties and to recover autonomy in import tariff. It was a hard task for Japan to promote modern industries in the country without the freedom of taking protective measures through the control of customs duties. Japan, however, was able to break away from the economic control of Western Powers, almost similar to that exercised in China, by the earnest and patriotic efforts of its wise and able leaders, both in the Government and among the people, by the end of the

Meiji Era. Since then Japan has become the greatest commercial and industrial nation in the Orient, keeping pace with the leading western countries.

Manufacturing Industries The first effort of the Meiji Government for the establishment of manufacturing industries in Japan was centered on the promotion of the munitions industry with the purpose of strengthening national defense which had been almost nothing as compared with European Powers. Here also Japan followed a reverse order beginning her industrial development with manufacturing guns and munition instead of peace-time goods as had been the case with European countries. Prior to the Meiji Restoration, the Mito clan began the manufacture of guns in 1836 and had a furnace built in 1855; the Saga clan erected a factory for the manufacture of Dutch-style fire-arms in 1842 and installed a reverberatory furnace in 1850; and the Satsuma clan began the manufacture of guns, large and small, and gunpowder at the Shusei Kan factory in 1851. There were established a sugar factory and a spinning factory in Kagoshima, but the main efforts were concentrated in the munitions industry. The Shogunate Government at Yedo established the Nagasaki Iron Foundry in 1861, Yokosuka and Yokohama Iron foundries in 1864, while a Shogunate Agent Tarozsemon Egawa at Nirayama installed a reverberatory furnace in his factory in 1853. Munition factories were also established at Takinogawa and Koshikawa on the outskirts of Yedo.

Those old factories were taken over by the new Meiji Government and were improved and enlarged, while some new ones were added to the list. The principal munition and shipbuilding factories which appeared in the early years of Meiji were army arsenals in Tokyo and Osaka, the Yokosuka Dock and shipyards at Nagasaki, Hyogo (Kobe), Ishikawajima (Tokyo) and Kagoshima.

In order to promote other lines of the manufacturing industry the Government Industrial Bureau established the Akahané Factory in 1871 for the manufacture of iron tools and bricks, and the Shinagawa Glass Factory in 1878. The mines exploited by the Government in those years were the Ikuno Gold Mine, Sado Gold Mine, Inna Gold

Mine, Kosaka Copper Mine, Miké Coal Mine and Kamaishi Iron Mine. A large number of foreign experts were employed for the technical guidance of these factories and mines. Among them was Gottfried Wagner, a German engineer, who came to Japan in 1808 and died here in 1892, devoting the best part of his life for the progress of manufacturing industries in Japan, including the modernization of the old ceramic industry of the country.

In 1872, the Tomioka Silk Factory was established by the Government the first factory of the kind in Japan. They had hard time to gather girls to work in the factory, since parents were reluctant to send their daughters on account of a superstitious fear attached to European method of filature. Here girls of the old samurai class set good example by volunteering service in the factory and later becoming tutors of girls in other filatures established one after another. In 1878 a governmental cotton spinning factory was established at Hiroshima; in the following year a spinning and weaving factory was opened at Senju, Tokyo, now known as the Senju Woolen Factory conducted by the Army Ministry. In 1872 and the years following the Hokkaido Colonization Office established, at Sapporo and Muroran, breweries, saw mills and factories for the manufacture of cloth or fishing nets.

The spinning factories established by the Government before 1878 were sold to private enterprisers at the time of the financial readjustment conducted by the Finance Minister Masayoshi Matsu-kata in 1881 and in the succeeding years. In 1883, a big cotton spinning factory in Osaka began its work with 10,500 spindles, a great advancement as compared with 2,000 spindles used in similar factories in 1878. Since then the cotton spinning industry in Japan made a speedy progress and in 1897 Japan exported 4,290 piculs of cotton yarns against 161 piculs of imported ones. The abolition of customs duties on exported cotton yarns in 1891 and import tariff on cotton in 1896 must have contributed largely for the increase in exports. The cotton spinning and silk reeling industries in general entered into a period of modern mechanical production around the years of the Sino-Japanese War, 1894-95, marking an epochal change in the industrial development of Japan.

War and Industrial Progress Industrial and economic progress in Japan seems to receive fresh stimulus with every international disturbance or war. The first entrance into Japan of modern industry was the result of troubles with Western countries; the second economic expansion was connected with the Sino-Japanese War; the third with the Russo-Japanese War; and the fourth with the World War I.

The Sino-Japanese War of 1894-1895 cost the lives of thousands of young men of Japan and a large sum of money, but no damage on industrial facilities in the land was incurred. Instead, it brought in 365 million yen of indemnity from China, much in excess of actual war expenditure. The international relations of Japan immediately after the Sino-Japanese War suggested the possibility of another war and the Government took control of all enterprises for strengthening national defense. The establishment of the Yawata Iron Foundry, the extension of State railways, improvement of water courses, communication facilities and educational systems, the execution of colonization policy and the adoption of gold standard were among the important achievements of the Government in those years. The State finance swelled greatly, and stimulated the speedy development of national economy.

The productive power of the nation made remarkable expansion by the utilization of factories which had been erected for munitions manufacture during the war. The amount of money invested in industries was augmented, and the national credit increased so that foreign investment in Japan became obtainable much more easily. The victory opened new markets for Japanese goods in Western countries, and the enterprising spirit of the nation was fired to an unprecedented degree, as it is well revealed in the comparison of figures for new companies and factories established during the years ending the 35th year of Meiji or 1902. There were 64 companies and 872 factories established in Japan in 1877, 392 companies and 694 factories were added during the 8 years from 1878 to 1885, 925 companies and 1,798 factories were established during the following 8 years from 1886 to 1893, and 7,217 companies and 4,328 factories came into being during the 9 years from 1894 or the

year of the beginning of the Sino-Japanese War to 1902, i.e. as many as 84 per cent of the companies and 50 per cent of factories established between 1877 and 1902 were those established during the Sino-Japanese War and the years immediately following that event.

After the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905, the number of army divisions was increased from 13 to 19, the peace strength from 150,000 to 250,000, while the total tonnage of warships was raised from 260,000 tons to 500,000 tons. The law for the State ownership of railways was promulgated in 1906, and all the main lines in the islands were purchased by the Government by the end of the following year. The increase of State expenditure stimulated the national economic progress to a still greater degree than in the years following the Sino-Japanese War. Foreign capital flew in in much greater amount and its total amount which had been only 200 million yen at the end of 1903 or the year before the Russo-Japanese War increased to 1,000 million yen at the end of 1907 and 2,000 million yen at the end of 1913. The amount of paid-up capital of banks in Japan went up from 373 million yen to 651 million yen, deposits from 700 million to 2,540 million during 1902-1915. New investments amounted to 3,841 million yen during 1905-1913 and 50 per cent of it was raised in the period from September 1905 to December 1907 or within 28 months after the conclusion of the Russo-Japanese War.

Divided according to kinds of business, 29.4 per cent of the above total went to manufacturing industries, 12.3 per cent to electric enterprises, 18.3 per cent to railways, 14.9 per cent to banks, the remaining 16 per cent to commerce, etc. As compared with the three years after the Sino-Japanese War or 1895-1897 in which 58 per cent of the total investment (1,460 million yen) went to railways, 15 per cent to banks and the remaining 26.8 per cent to industries, the direction of investment during 1905-1907 underwent a considerable change, for 48.4 per cent of its total amount was represented by the money spent on productive industries. Foreign trade made great strides in those years, the amount of exports increasing every year, with 289 million yen for 1903, 423 million yen for 1906, 526 million yen for 1912 and over 600 million yen for the following

year. The only industry left undeveloped was agriculture as in the years following the Sino-Japanese War.

The World War of 1914-1918 brought an unexpected business boom to Japan. The State expenditure, which was 668 million yen in the first year of the war, increased to 823 million yen in 1918; it crossed over the 1,000 million mark and amounted to 1,024 million yen in 1919, 1,396 million yen in 1920 and 1,591 million yen in 1921, reflecting the remarkable growth of national economy. The belligerent countries stopped exports and sought supplies of goods and munitions from Japan since production in Japan was not affected by the war on account of its geographical situation. Complete stoppage of, or enormous decrease in exports of European and American goods, the corresponding increase in Japanese exports to markets hitherto supplied by Western countries, export of munitions from Japan to the belligerent countries in Europe, and the world demand for bottoms made tremendous contributions toward the economic expansion of Japan.

Mineral ores, machines, tools and chemicals which had been imported in pre-war days stopped to come, and Japan had to supply herself with home products in these lines. Mining, the machine and tool manufacturing industry, metal works and the chemical industry, therefore, made an epoch-making progress under the protection and direction of the Government. Japanese cotton goods and miscellaneous merchandise gained new markets specially in the Far East and the South Seas. Machines and tools made in Japan were also exported, though not in large quantities. Knitted goods, shoes, ornamental articles, copper, iron and beans were exported in considerable quantities.

The demand for bottoms increased with the advance of the World War and the freightage which had been 15s. 6d., Bombay-London, in July 1914, went up to 62s. 6d. in June 1915, 133s. in March 1916, and 225s. in October of the same year. Large and small shipowners in Japan were all blessed with the boom in shipping business and there appeared many "Nari-kin" or upstart millionaires in Japan. The accompanying ship-building business naturally made an enormous headway. The boom caused by the war continued for about 6 years during and after it. Viewed from the

movement of capital, the amount of investments of new and enlarged companies totalled 292 million yen in 1915, 657 million yen in 1916, 1,562 million yen in 1917, 2,676 million yen in 1918, 4,068 million yen in 1919, and 5,113 million yen in 1920, but a reaction set in in the following year with 2,236 million yen. The sum total of investment during the 6 years, 1915-1920, reached the huge amount of 14,371 million yen against 1,983 million yen which had been the aggregate amount of capital raised during the preceding 46 years, 1868-1913.

During those years the balances of foreign trade and the so-called invisible trade turned to Japan's advantage and this country's specie abroad showed an unprecedented increase. The progressive increase of Japan's export trade during the war years are indicated by the following figures:—613 million yen in 1914, 730 million yen in 1915, 1,153 million yen in 1916, 1,010 million yen in 1917, 2,022 million yen in 1918, and 2,150 million yen in 1919. But the figures began to fall from the following year, the amount being 2,040 million yen in 1920; and 1,308 million yen in 1921. The invisible trade maintained a favorable balance during 1914-1921; for instance, the excess of receipts in 1918 reached 575 million yen, in the following year 504 million yen. Japan's specie held abroad which had amounted to 341 million yen in 1914 increased to 2,178 million yen in 1920. Thus, Japan which was a debtor in 1914 became creditor by the end of the war, her international debt of 1,090 million yen at the end of 1914 having been paid back during the war years and the net amount of claim at the end of 1920 stood at 2,770 million yen.

The World War years saw the scope and level of mining and industrial facilities for national production reach the highest standard till then achieved. Specially remarkable was the progress in the key industries, the chemical industry and the cotton spinning and weaving industry. All branches of transportation business and banking also made a great advance. Unions of companies began in those years for the consolidation of national economy which had reached a high capitalistic stage. However, in the production of machines and tools, some articles of the chemical industry and precision machines, Japan had not yet reached satisfactory stage, and important arti-

cles had still to be imported in considerable quantities. The problem of self-supply in those articles was left for future solution. It may be said in this connection that the increased need of the years after the Manchurian Incident of 1931 and the scientific progress in the country are working toward a complete solution of the problem.

Rural districts were benefited by the boom of the World War years to a certain extent, but the fundamental improvement of agriculture in connection with the ownership of farm lands or the adoption of large farming machines was left untouched.

Marching Forward Japan was hard hit by the reaction of domestic and international economic conditions in the years following the World War. A period of economic readjustment set in the world over; the belligerent Powers reassumed economic activities and regained their former markets which had passed into Japanese hands temporarily. Cartels and trusts began to control prices. Russia separated herself from capitalistic nations, manufacturing industries began to develop in colonies and dominions of Powers; currency inflation in Germany, France and Russia worked hard upon world economy, so that each country began to protect its domestic market and to seek as many foreign markets as possible; the American panic of September 1929 spread to other parts of the world and the economic policy of the Powers came in for a radical change, causing the principle of free trade to be replaced by the national protective economy and the economic bloc system; all efforts for disarmament failed and preparedness for another world war became the guiding policy of Powers finally culminating in the present World War II.

In the midst of such economic confusion the world over, Japan experienced stock-market panic in 1920, banking panic in 1922, the great earthquake and fire in 1923, a general economic panic in 1927, and the severe effects of world depression in 1929. In 1930 the gold embargo was removed, but the deflation policy of the Government further intensified the current economic unrest, and finally in September 1931 the Manchurian Incident occurred and in December of the same year gold was once more embargoed. A lower ex-

change rate of the yen worked favorably for Japan's trade for the time being. In 1932 the Shanghai Affair took place, and the movement for national reorganization and the strengthening of national defense persisted in 1932-37, accompanying the assassinations of several dignitaries. At last the present China Affair broke out to initiate the construction of a new order in East Asia.

Throughout these trying times Japan has continued her struggle for advancement in all economic spheres especially for the expansion and progress of munitions industries and key industries connected with national defense.

The course of Japan's economic expansion and progress during the past 70 years reveals the old samurai spirit of the people which has enabled them to face all crises with a smile and break through all hardships to greater achievements.

The Greater East Asia War Under the inevitable circumstances mentioned in the Chapters on Foreign Affairs and National Defense, Japan declared war against the United States and the British Empire on December 8, 1941, and the great war is carried on in the entire Pacific regions with all victory of Japan. As the consequence of the victory up to May 31, 1942, she has occupied a large area of about 2,521,510 square kilometers or more than 3.7 times as large as Japan proper, with an aggregate population of about 95,680,000 and an unestimable deposits of natural resources in the exploited and unexploited areas in those regions. The Tokyo Government and Imperial Military Governments in Malay, the East Indies, Burma and the Philippines are doing their best for the economic rehabilitation and development of those countries for the progress of the general welfare of the inhabitants and for a proper utilization in Japan of material obtained there, giving promise for a great future for the economic expansion of Japan to an unprecedented degree for which her men of business are fully prepared to make in cooperation with the Governments the greatest possible contribution with patriotic spirit similar to that of the brave soldiers and sailors who sacrificed their life for the sake of H.I.M. the Emperor and their beloved country.

CHRONICLE OF IMPORTANT HISTORICAL EVENTS IN JAPAN
AND THE WORLD

JAPAN

Beginning of the Empire

(2,000 B.C.—709 A.D.)

(2,000 B.C.-600 B.C. Age of ancestral tribes and Imperial Fathers.)

- B.C.
- 660 The Emperor Jimmu ascends the Throne at Kashiwara, in the present Nara prefecture.
- 564 The 18th year of the second Emperor Suizei.
- 561 The 31st year of the same Emperor.
- 509 The 2nd year of the fourth Emperor Itoku.
- 470 The 6th year of the fifth Emperor Kosho.
- 451 The 25th year of the same Emperor.
- 356 The 37th year of the sixth Emperor Koan.
- 330 The 63rd year of the same Emperor.
- 220 The 71st year of the seventh Emperor Korei.
- 146 The 12th year of the ninth Emperor Kaika.
- 58 The 40th year of the tenth Emperor Sujin.
- 5 The Great Shrine of Isé built by the eleventh Emperor Sulin.
- 4 The 26th year of the Emperor Sulin.
- A.D.
- 65 The 94th year of the Emperor Sulin.
- 97-110 Kyushu and the eastern half of the Main Island subdued by the twelfth Emperor Keiko and Prince Yamatotakeru.
- 135 The Japanese Empire divided for the first time, into administrative districts by the thirteenth Emperor Seimu.
- 200 Silla conquered by the Empress Jingo.
- 285 Confucianism introduced.

THE WORLD

B.C.

- 776 Greek chronology begins to be precise from this date.
- 753 Rome founded. (Traditional date)
- 606 Destruction of Nineveh. End of the Assyrian Empire.
- 564 Birth of Gautama Buddha.
- 561 Birth of Confucius.
- 509 Roman Republic established. (Traditional date).
- 470 Birth of Socrates.
- 451-450 Laws of the Twelve Tables published. The basis of all later Roman law.
- 356 Birth of Alexander the Great.
- 330 The Persian Empire overthrown.
- 327 Conquest of India by Alexander the Great.
- 220 The Tsin Dynasty unifies China.
- 214 Great Wall of China begun.
- 146 Carthage and Corinth destroyed by the Romans.
- 58-50 Conquest of Gaul by Julius Cæsar.
- 4 Birth of Jesus Christ.

A.D.

- 65 Buddhism introduced into China.
- 70 Jerusalem captured by the Romans.
- 135 Dispersion of the Jews.
- 212 Edict of Caracalla. Extended Roman citizenship to all free-born men in the Roman Empire.
- 284 Reorganization of the Roman Empire by Diocletian.

JAPAN

- 313 The sixteenth Emperor Nintoku establishes the capital at Naniwa (Osaka) for the convenience of intercourse with Korea.
- 316 The Emperor Nintoku relieves the people by a three year remission of taxes.
- 476 The 20th year of the twenty-first Emperor Yuryaku.
- 529 The 23rd year of the twenty-sixth Emperor Keitai.
- 552 Buddhism introduced.
- 562 Japanese Office in Mimana destroyed by Silla.
- 593 Imperial Prince Shotoku, Regent, builds Horyuji and Shitennoji temples.
- 604 The Constitution of Seventeen Tables published by the Regent Shotoku.
- 607 An envoy sent to the Sul Court of China.
- 630 An envoy sent to the Tang Court of China.
- 645 The custom of "year names" introduced.
- 646 The Talka Reformation.
- 660 Ezo (Hokkaido) subjugated by Hirafu Abe.
- 663 Control over Korean peninsula abandoned.
- 701 The Taiho Law promulgated and the organization of the Imperial Government fixed.

Nara Period

(710-793 A.D.)

- 710 Nara founded as the capital by the Empress Gemmyo (the forty-third ruler).
- 620-720 The first books of Japanese history, Nihon Shoki (Japanese Annals) and Kojiki (Antiquities) compiled.
- 756 The treasures of the Emperor Shomu donated to Todaiji temple by the Empress Komyo, and later building of the Shoso-in Museum for their preservation.
- 769 Dictatorship of Dokyo. Buddhist "pope," opposed by the loyalist Kiyomaro Waké.

THE WORLD

- 313 Edict of Milan. Granted general religious toleration and placed Christianity on a legal equality with the other religions of the Roman world.
- 330 Constantinople (New Rome) made the capital of the Roman Empire.
- 395 Separation of the Roman Empire.
- 476 Deposition of Romulus Augustulus. Extinction of the line of Roman emperors in the West.
- 529-534 Codification of Roman law. One of the most important contributions of Rome to civilization.
- 570 Birth of Mohammed.
- 618 The Sui Dynasty destroyed by the Tang Dynasty.
- 622 The flight of Mohammed from Mecca to Medina. Beginning of the Mohammedan era.
- 641 Defeat of Persia by the Saracens.
- 661-668 Supremacy of Silla among Korean kingdoms.
- 732 Battle of Tours. Stemmed the farther advance of the Moslems into western Europe.
- 713 Conquest of Spain by the Saracens.
- 727 Leo III, Emperor of the East Roman Empire, publishes an edict for the prohibition of idolatry.
- 756 Separation of the Saracen Empire.

JAPAN

Heian Period
(794-1191 A.D.)

- 794 Heian (Kyoto) founded as the new capital by the fiftieth Emperor Kammu.
- 794-800 Establishment of governmental and private schools.
- 848 Casting of Taiho copper coins.
- 858 Yoshifusa Fujiwara assumes the Regency. Rise of the Fujiwaras.
- 887 Mototsune Fujiwara the Daijo Daijin and Regent appointed Kampaku (Chief Councillor to the Throne).
- 894 Official intercourse with the Tang Dynasty broken off.
- 729-900 Bokkai, a maritime monarchy in Manchuria trades with Japan.
- 901 Michizane Sugawara, candidate for Kampaku, reduced to the governor of Kyushu by the Fujiwara scandal.
- 950 Samurai families of Minamoto (Genji) and Taira (Heishi or Heike) gradually rise to power.
- 1016 Climax of the Fujiwara despotism and prosperity.
- 1039 Armies of Buddhist monks disturb the capital.
- 1167 Kiyomori Taira promoted to Daijo Daijin.
- 1167-1180 Autocracy of Kiyomori and family.
- 1180 Rise of the Minamotos in rivalry to the Tairas. Yoritomo Minamoto establishes headquarters at Kamakura.
- 1185 The Tairas destroyed by the Minamotos. Yoritomo Minamoto appoints local military police and tax-gatherers.

THE WORLD

- 800 Charlemagne crowned Emperor of the Romans. Formation of the so-called Holy Roman Empire.
- 843 Treaty of Verdun and 870 Treaty of Mersen. Marked important stages in the dissolution of Charlemagne's dominions.
- 888 The Count of Paris installed by the French.
- 890 Alfred the Great divides England into three.
- 904 Attack of Constantinople by the Russians.
- 962 Otto I, the Great, crowned Roman Emperor. Revival of the Holy Roman Empire.
- 982 Greenland discovered by the Northmen.
- 988 Christianity introduced into Russia. The Russian Slavs henceforth came under the influence of the Greek Church and Byzantine civilization.
- 1054 Rupture of the Greek and Roman Churches. Destroyed the religious unity of European Christendom.
- 1066 Battle of Hastings. Resulted in the Norman Conquest of England.
- 1095 Council of Clermont. Beginning of the crusades.
- 1122 Concordat of Worms. A compromise arrangement between the Papacy and the Holy Roman Empire.
- 1169 Beginning of the Conquest of Ireland by the English.

JAPAN

Kamakura Period
(1192-1337 A.D.)

- 1192 Yoritomo Minamoto appointed Sei-Tai-Shogun (Generalissimo) and the Shogun Government formally sanctioned. For the following 675 years Japan ruled by the samurai statesmen.
- 1219 The Kamakura Shogunate ended with the third Shogun, Sanetomo Minamoto. But Masako, widow of Yoritomo officiates as a nun Shogun for several years.
- 1224 Yasutoki Hojo becomes chief executive of the Kamakura Shogunate. The Hojos exercise the Shogun's duties for over a century.
- 1252 The Joeli Code promulgated for the discipline of the samurai.
- 1274 Yuan (Mongol) invasion.
- 1281 Second Yuan invasion and defeat by the armies of Tokimune Hojo, the chief-executive.
- 1324 An attempt for the restoration of the Imperial rule.
- 1351 Battles between the Imperial and the Hojo armies.
- 1333 The Hojos destroyed. Temporary restoration of the Imperial direct rule by the Emperor Godaigo.
- 1335 Rebellion of Takauji Ashikaga.
- 1336 Death of Masashige Kusunoki, famous loyalist, in the battle of the Minatogawa (Kobe). The Imperial House divided into two, the South and the North (Yoshino and Kyoto) for 57 years.

Muromachi Period
(1338-1602 A.D.)

- 1338 Takauji Ashikaga proclaims himself Shogun and establishes the Muromachi Shogunate in Kyoto.
- 1342 Tenryuji-bune (trade boats) sent to China.

THE WORLD

- 1206-1227 Conquests of Jenghis Khan. Brought a large part of western Asia and eastern Europe under Mongol sway.
- 1215 Magna Carta. Defined the rights of Englishmen and inspired their later struggles for political liberty.
- 1271-1295 Travels of Marco Polo. His narratives greatly increased the interest of Europeans in the Far East.
- 1275 Model Parliament of Edward I. A regularly elected Parliament which for the first time included representatives of all classes of the English people.
- 1289 Osman I becomes ruler of the Ottoman Empire.
- 1336 Spread of Renaissance movements.
- 1348-1349 Black Death in Europe. Hastened the decline of serfdom and the emancipation of the peasantry.
- 1378-1417 The Great Schism. Weakened the spiritual supremacy of the popes over western Christendom.
- 1396 Greek first taught at Florence, Italy. The revival of Greek studies in western Europe formed an important aspect of the Renaissance movement.

JAPAN

- 1467-1475 The Onin war. Kyoto reduced to ashes. The Court and the Shogunate both lost power before rising feudal lords.
- 1476-1573 Feudal lords struggle for supremacy.
- 1483 Importation of copper money from the Ming Dynasty.
- 1514 Duel between individuals prohibited by the Muromachi Shogunate.
- 1530 First visit of the Portuguese.
- 1543 Introduction of fire-arms.
- 1546 Chinese trade boats come to Bungo in Kyushu.
- 1548 Dutch trade boats come to Buzen in Kyushu.
- 1549 Christianity introduced by Francis Xavier.
- 1568 Nobunaga Oda comes up to Kyoto by Imperial order.
- 1571 Nobunaga destroys Enryakuji temple to suppress the power of Buddhist monks.
- 1573 Downfall of the Muromachi Shogunate.
- 1576 Building of the Azuchi castle by Nobunaga.
- 1582 Nobunaga assassinated.
- 1582 Hideyoshi Toyotomi's supremacy.
- 1585 Prohibition of Christianity by Hideyoshi.
- 1588 Hideyoshi promoted to Kampaku.
- 1588 Casting of Koban, gold coin.
- 1590 Unification of the Empire by Hideyoshi.
- 1592 and 1598 Japanese invasion into Korea.

THE WORLD

- 1453 Constantinople captured by the Ottoman Turks. End of the Byzantine Empire.
- 1456 First book printed at Gutenberg's press in Mainz, Germany.
- 1487 Cape of Good Hope rounded by Diaz.
- 1492 Discovery of America by Columbus.
- 1498 India reached by Vasco da Gama. The Portuguese thus opened up an ocean passage from Europe round Africa to the Far East.
- 1517 Luther's Ninety-five Theses posted. Beginning of the Protestant Reformation in Germany.
- 1519-1522 Magellan's circumnavigation of the globe.
- 1543 Publication of Copernicus' treatise "On the Revolutions of Celestial Orbits."
- 1545 Silver Mines of Potosi in Bolivia discovered. The enormous output of silver enlarged the supply of money in western Europe, thus stimulating industrial and commercial enterprises.
- 1565 The Philippines taken by the Spanish.
- 1579 The Union of Utrecht. Two years later the republic of the United Netherlands, or Holland took its place among European nations.
- 1588 Defeat of the Spanish Armada. Gave to England control of the sea and made possible English colonization of North America.

JAPAN

- 1598 Death of Hideyoshi.

Yedo Period
(1602-1867 A.D.)

- 1600 Battle of Sekigahara assures the supremacy of Iyeyasu Tokugawa (1542-1616).
- 1603 Iyeyasu appointed Shogun. Founding of the Tokugawa Shogunate in Yedo (Tokyo).
- 1609 Beginning of the trade with Hollanders. The Loochoo Islands subjugated by Lord Shimazu.
- 1610 Official letter to Nova-Hispania and Spain.
- 1612 Absolute prohibition of Christianity.
- 1613 Hasekura sent to Rome by Lord Masamune Date.
- 1615 The Toyotomis destroyed by the Tokugawas at the Battle of Osaka. Promulgation of the Kuge Hatto (Court Nobles Law) and the Buke Hatto (Samurai Law).
- 1616 Death of Iyeyasu.
- 1619 Nagamasa Yamada enters Slam.
- 1630 Introduction of Western literature prohibited.
- 1636 Japanese forbidden to go abroad.
- 1637-1638 The Shimabara Rebellion.
- 1639 Japan closed. Foreign nationals prohibited to enter Japan, except the Hollanders and the Chinese.
- 1657 The compilation of the Dai Nippon Shi (Great Nippon History) begun by Lord Mitsukuni Tokugawa.
- 1688-1708 The Genroku Era of ornate living.
- 1702 Revenge of the "47 Akao Ronin."
- 1720 The Prohibition Law against Western books amended.

THE WORLD

- 1598 Edict of Nantes issued by Henry IV of France. A noteworthy step in the direction of religious toleration.
- 1607 Settlement of Jamestown. The first permanent English colony in America.
- 1611 Authorized English Version of the Bible published.
- 1616 The name "Manchuria" originated by a kingdom in that area.
- 1617 Peace Treaty between Russia and Sweden.
- 1618 Beginning of the Thirty Years' War.
- 1648 Peace of Westphalia. Ended the religious wars.
- 1687 Newton's "Principia" published. One of the most important contributions ever made to physical science.
- 1688-1689 The "Glorious Revolution." Completed the work of the Puritan Revolution by overthrowing absolutism and divine right in England.
- 1704 Battle of Blenheim. Defeated the attempt of Louis XIV to make France supreme in western Europe.

JAPAN

- 1764 Norinaga Motoori commences his commentary on the Kojiki (Antiquities).
- 1765 Establishment of a Governmental medical school.
- 1769 Private societies or mobs among the peasants forbidden.
- 1772-1784 Misrule of the Roju, Okitsugu Tanuma. Succession of natural calamities.
- 1787 Administrative reform by the Roju, Sadanobu Matsudaira (Rakuō).
- 1793 Visit of Laxsman to Hokkaido.
- 1804 Coming of Lesanov to Nagasaki.
- 1808 Coming of an English boat to Nagasaki.
- 1815 A map of the coast lines of Japan completed.
- 1825 Shogunate Order to shut out all foreign ships by force.
- 1830 Great famine of the Tempo era.

THE WORLD

- 1762 Rousseau's "Social Contract" published. Its democratic teachings were put into effect by the French revolutionists.
- 1763 Peace of Paris. Ended the Seven Years' War and gave to England a colonial empire in India and North America at the expense of France.
- 1768-1779 Voyages of Captain James Cook. Greatly increased geographical knowledge of the Pacific Ocean and its archipelagoes.
- 1769-1785 Arkwright's "water frame," 1770 Hargreaves' "spinning jenny," 1770 Crompton's "mule," and 1785 Cartwright's power loom.
- 1776 Declaration of Independence of the Americans.
- 1781-1782 Watt's steam engine patented. The steam engine invented in 1769 had served only for pumping; henceforth applied to manufacturing and transportation.
- 1787 Constitution of the United States of America framed.
- 1789 Meeting of the Estates-General in France. The first step toward the French Revolution.
- 1796 Napoleon's advance into Italy.
- 1798 Conquest of Egypt by Napoleon Bonaparte.
- 1804 Napoleon crowned Emperor of the French. The Code Napoleon promulgated. The most lasting memorial of the Napoleonic era.
- 1805 Battle of Trafalgar.
- 1806 Downfall of the Holy Roman Empire.
- 1807 Fulton's steamboat, the "Clermont," in successful operation.
- 1814-1815 Congress of Vienna. Remade the map of Europe after the revolutionary and Napoleonic era.
- 1815 Battle of Waterloo. Brought about the final overthrow of Napoleon Bonaparte.
- 1823 Monroe Doctrine enunciated.
- 1825 Stockton and Darlington Railway opened. The first line run by steam power.
- 1830-1831 The "July Revolution" in Europe. Overthrew absolutism and divine right in France and created modern Belgium.
- 1832 Reform Act in Great Britain. The first step in democratizing the British government.

JAPAN

- 1837 Rebellion of Heihachiro Oshio to relieve the starving masses. Coming of the American ship "Morrison."
- 1841 Roju Tadakuni Mizuno's attempt at reformation.
- 1842 The 1825 Order removed. A step toward opening the country. Controversies between the anti-foreign party and the liberalists.
- 1845 Visit of American ships to Uraga.
- 1846 First request of America for the "open door."
- 1848 Casting of a European gun by Shozan Sakuma.
- 1849 Knocking at Japan's doors of British and American ships.
- 1853 Arrival of the American fleet under Commodore Perry. Visit of the Russian delegate Poutlatine to Nagasaki.
- 1854 Conclusion of Amity Treaties with the United States, Great Britain and Russia. Institution of the Sun Flag to symbolize Japan. (Sanctioned by the Government in 1870.)
- 1855 Conclusion of Amity Treaty with Holland.
- 1856 Arrival of the American envoy Townsend Harris.
- 1858 Conclusion of Commercial Treaties with the United States, Great Britain, France, Russia and Holland.
- 1859 The Ansei Coup d'Etat by the Tairo, II Kamonnokami (Nao-suké). Ports of Yokohama, Hakodate and Nagasaki opened.
- 1860 Japanese envoy Masaoki Niimi sent to the United States. Tairo II assassinated.
- 1861 The British Legation at Yedo attacked by the ronin.

THE WORLD

- 1837 Morse's first telegraph instrument exhibited.
- 1838 The Atlantic Ocean crossed by the "Great Western." The first steamship to make the trip without using sails.
- 1837-1901 Reign of Queen Victoria.
- 1838 Photography invented.
- 1845 Texas annexed by the United States.
- 1846 A new planet Neptune discovered.
- 1848-1849 The "February Revolution" in Europe. Made France again a republic and led to revolutionary upheavals in Italy, Germany and the Austrian Empire.
- 1851 Crystal Palace Exhibition at London. The first of the great international expositions. The first submarine cable laid from Dover to Calais.
- 1854 Crimean War.
- 1855 Occupation of Caucasia by the Russians.
- 1856 Congress of Paris. Ended the Crimean War.
- 1857 Canton occupied by the English and French forces.
- 1858 The Tientsin Treaty.
- 1859 Darwin's "Origin of Species" published. Presentation of the evolutionary theory.
- 1860 The Peking Treaty. The English and French troops entered Peking. Beginning of the Civil War in America.

JAPAN

- 1862 Rise of the Anti-Shogunate movement.
The Namamugi Incident.
- 1863 The Anti-Foreign Law. Attack on foreign ships at Shimonoseki and Kagoshima.
- 1864 Battle at the Hamaguri gate of the Kyoto Imperial Palace. Shimonoseki bombarded by a combined fleet of the United States, Great Britain, France and the Netherlands.
- 1865 Imperial Sanction given to the treaties of 1858.
- 1865-1867 Hostilities between the Shogunate and Anti-Shogunate forces.
- 1866 Demise of the Emperor Komei.
- 1867 Accession of the Meiji Tenno (1862-1912), the 122nd Emperor. Imperial armies moved against the Yedo Shogunate. Proclamation of the Restoration of Imperial direct rule. On October 14, the Shogun Yoshinobu Tokugawa petitioned for the return of all authority of the Government to the Throne, and, on the 24th, the petition was accepted.

Meiji Era

(1868-1912 A.D.)

- 1868 Formal enthronement of the Emperor Meiji. The first year of Meiji, beginning with September. The Five Articles of Imperial Oath declared. Establishment of the Dajokan (Imperial Government).
- 1869 Removal of the Capital to Tokyo. Surrender of fiefs by feudal lords. Telegraphic communications opened.
- 1870 Envoys sent to foreign countries. Social castes abolished.
- 1871 The country divided into 81 gubernatorial districts. The people allowed to cut off their cues and the samurai forbidden to wear swords.
- 1872 Institution of the national school system. Opening of the first railway line between Tokyo and Yokohama.

THE WORLD

- 1862 Battle of Belgrade. Bismarck became Chancellor.
- 1863 Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation.
- 1864 International Red Cross Society founded. End of the Taiping Rebellion. The Danish War.
- 1865 End of the American Civil War.
- 1866 Atlantic Cable laid. War between Prussia and Austria.
- 1867 North German Confederation. Franchise reform in Great Britain. In 1866 Gladstone, leader of the House of Commons, introduced a measure for franchise reform, and the bill passed Parliament by the cooperation of Disraeli.
- 1867-1918 The Ausgleich. The constitution splitted the dominion of the Hapsburgs into two states, the Austrian Empire and the kingdom of Hungary.
- 1867 Karl Marx's "Das Kapital" published. The first volume appeared in this year, but the second and third volumes were not published until after Marx's death.
- 1869 Suez Canal opened.
- 1870 Rome occupied by Italian troops. Unification of Italy completed.
- 1871 German Empire proclaimed at Versailles.

JAPAN

- 1873 Adoption of the solar calendar. Institution of the conscription system for national defense. Controversy over Korean affairs.
- 1874 Expedition to Formosa. Request for opening the national assembly.
- 1875 Karafuto exchanged for the Kuriles. The first gubernatorial conference convened.
- 1877 The South-Western Civil War, or rebellion of Takamori Saigo.
- 1879-1890 Rapid influx of things and ideas from Europe; Rokumei-kan period.
- 1879 First opening of local assemblies.
- 1880 Promulgation of a new Penal Code.
- 1881 Imperial Edict for the opening of the national assembly.
- 1882 Hirobumi Ito sent to Europe for the study of Western constitutional governments.
- 1883 Establishment of the Bank of Japan.
- 1885 Institution of the Cabinet.
- 1886 Japan becomes a member of the International Red Cross Society.
- 1889 Proclamation of the Constitution of the Great Empire of Japan, Feb. 11.
- 1890 The First Session of the Imperial Diet convened in November. The Imperial Rescript on Education issued. Institution of the system of law courts.
- 1891 Russian Crown Prince injured at Otsu.
- 1892 First general election.
- 1894 New Anglo-Japanese Treaty.
- 1894-1895 Sino-Japanese War.
- 1895 Shimonoseki Peace Treaty, April. Three Powers' Intervention and return of the Liaotung Peninsula to China. Taiwan ceded to Japan.
- 1898 Promulgation of the Civil Law.
- 1899 Promulgation of the Commercial Law.

THE WORLD

- 1874 The International Postal Union.
- 1875 Telephone invented by Alexander Graham Bell. The Trade Union Act issued. Gave the British working classes the full right of combination. Formation of the third Republic of France.
- 1876 Conclusion of Anglo-Chinese Treaty. Revolution of Mexico.
- 1877 Queen Victoria assumes the title, Empress of India.
- 1882 Tripartite Alliance among Germany, Austria and Italy.
- 1883 Indo-China made a protectorate of France.
- 1886 Burma appropriated by Great Britain.
- 1891 Alliance between France and Russia.
- 1894 Rebellion of the Philippines against the Spanish government.
- 1897 Invention of wireless telegraphy by Guglielmo Marconi.
- 1898 Spanish-American war. The Philippines made a territory of the United States.
- 1900 Boxer Uprising in China.

JAPAN

- 1902 Anglo-Japanese Alliance.
- 1904-1905 Russo-Japanese War.
1905 Portsmouth Peace Treaty, September.
Chosen becomes Japan's protectorate, November.
- 1908 "Gentlemen's" Agreement between the United States and Japan.
- 1910 Annexation of Chosen.
- 1911 Revision of Treaties with the United States, Great Britain and other Western countries on equal footing.
- 1912 Demise of the Emperor Meiji, July 30.

Taisho Era

(1912-1926 A.D.)

- 1912 Accession of the Emperor Taisho, July 30.
- 1914-1918 The World War.
1914 Capture of Tsingtao, November.
1915 New Treaty with China.
- 1918 Rice Riots.
- 1919 The South Sea Islands mandated to Japan.
Japan joins the League of Nations.
- 1921 The Crown Prince becomes Regent.
- 1921-1922 The Washington Conferences. Ended the Anglo-Japanese Alliance.
- 1923 Great Earthquake of Kanto district, September 1.
- 1924 Fishery Treaty with the U.S.S.R.
- 1925 Promulgation of the new Election Law (Universal Suffrage).
- 1926 Demise of the Emperor Taisho, December 25.

Showa Era

(1926—A.D.)

- 1926 Accession of the present Emperor, December 25.

THE WORLD

- 1903 Mukden in Manchuria occupied by the Russians.
Airplane invented by S. P. Langley.
- 1905 Boycott of American goods by the Chinese.
- 1906 Prohibition of opium in China.
- 1910 Organization of the Union of South Africa.
- 1912 Downfall of the Manchu Dynasty and birth of the Republic of China.
- 1914-1918 The World War.
1914 Panama Canal completed.
1917 The Russian Revolution and establishment of Bolshevism in Russia.
- 1919 Peace Conference at Versailles.
- 1920 First meeting of the League of Nations.
- 1922 Italian Cabinet formed by Benito Mussolini.
- 1923 Appearance of Adolf Hitler.
- 1924 Enforcement of the Federal Immigration Law. Practically prohibited the immigration of the Japanese into the United States.
- 1925 The Nine-Power Treaty.
The Locarno Treaty.

JAPAN

- 1927 A panic. Several banks closed.
- 1928 First general election under the Universal Suffrage Law.
- 1930 The London Naval Disarmament Conference.
- 1931 The Manchurian Incident, September 18.
- 1932 The Shanghai Affair. Independence of Manchoukuo, March 1. The "May 15 Affair." Prime Minister Tsuyoshi Inukai assassinated.
- 1933 Japan quits the League of Nations, March.
The World Economic Conference at London.
- 1934 Manchoukuo becomes an Empire with Kangte (Pu yi) as first Emperor, March 1.
Japanese Government notifies the U.S. Government its intention to terminate the Washington Naval Treaty, December 29.
- 1936 Japan quits the London Naval Understanding of 1930.
The "February 26 Affair." Three political dignitaries assassinated.
- 1937 The China Affair, July 7. Occupation of Shanghai by the Japanese forces, November 10.
Fall of Nanking, December 13.
The Kuomintang Government removed to Hankow.
- 1938 Conclusion of the new Japanese-Dutch commercial agreement, Feb. 2.
- Changkufeng Affair, July 12. Beginning of fierce border disputes between Russia and Manchoukuo.
Truce at Changkufeng, Aug. 11.

THE WORLD

- 1928 Rise of anti-Japanese movement in China.
- 1929 Kellogg Anti-war Pact.
Around the world flight of the German airship "Zeppelin."
- 1930 Anti-British movement. Gandhi made prisoner.
- 1932 The Litton Report published.
- 1933 Withdrawal of Germany from the League of Nations.
- 1934 North Manchuria Railway transferred to Manchoukuo by the U.S.S.R.
Adolf Hitler made Führer and Chancellor of Germany.
Italo-Abyssinian hostilities.
- 1935 London naval conference of five Powers.
- 1936 Anti-Comintern Agreement concluded between Germany and Japan.
Spanish Civil War spreads over the entire country.
- 1937 The Nine-Power Conference at Brussels.
Italy joins the Anti-Comintern Agreement, Nov. 6.
The Kuomintang Government removed to Chungking, Nov. 16.
Withdrawal of Italy from the League of Nations, Dec. 11.
The Provisional Government of the Republic of China established in Peking, Dec. 14.
- 1938 The National Government of Spain founded by General Franco, Jan. 31.
The Anschluss of Austria proclaimed by Reichsführer Hitler, March 13.
The Renovation Government of the Republic of China founded at Nanking, March 28.
- Visit of the British Prime Minister Chamberlain to Germany to meet Reichsführer Hitler on the Czech situation, Sept. 15.

JAPAN

Japan announces the withdrawal of its cooperation with all committees of the League of Nations, Oct. 3.

Fall of Canton, Oct. 21.

Hankow, Wuchang and Hanyang completely reduced by Japanese forces, Oct. 27.

Japanese Government issues a statement on Japan's future policy for the settlement of the China Affair, Nov. 3.

Cultural agreement between Japan and Germany, Nov. 25.

The China Affairs Board created for realizing a new order in East Asia, Dec. 16.

Konoe Statement, Dec. 22. Prime Minister Konoe publishes a statement on the fundamental Japanese policies to readjust relations between China and Japan.

1939 Change of the Japanese Cabinet from Konoe to Hiranuma, Jan. 5.

Hainan Island surprised by the forcible landing of Japanese forces, Feb. 10.

Cultural Agreement between Italy and Japan, March 23.
Spratley Islands put under jurisdiction of Taiwan Government-General, March 30.

Revised Young Men's School Ordinance enforced, April 19.

Blockade of the Foreign Concessions in Tientsin by the Japanese Army, June 14.

Swatow occupied by Japanese forces, June 21.

THE WORLD

Four-Power Conference at Munich, Sept. 30. Settled the Czech problem.

Anglo-Italian protocol becomes effective. Great Britain formally recognizes the Italian annexation of Abyssinia, Nov. 16.

Cultural agreement between Germany and Italy, Nov. 23.
Anglo-French conversation in Paris, Nov. 24.

Italy enters the London Treaty, Dec. 2.

Franco-German non-aggression pact, Dec. 6.

Wang Ching-wei, Vice-President of the Kuomintang and Chairman of the National Administrative Advisory Council leaves Chungking, Dec. 18.

Wang Ching-wei issues a peace statement at Hanoi, Dec. 30.

1939 Barcelona falls into the hands of the Franco forces, Jan. 26.

Franco Government of Spain recognized by Great Britain and France, Feb. 27.

Czech made a protectorate of Germany, March 15.

Slovakia made a protectorate of Germany, March 16.

Treaty of mutual assistance between Great Britain and Poland, April 5.

Albania annexed by Italy, April 13.

Alliance of Germany and Italy, May 22.

Collision between German and Polish frontier guards reported, June 15.

JAPAN

1939 Air Battle between Japanese and Soviet war-planes above Lake Bulgnor, June 27.
Anglo-Japanese Parley in Tokyo, July 15.

Abrogation of the Japanese-American Commercial Treaty notified by the United States, July 26.

Trade agreement between Japan and Germany, July 29.

Anglo-Japanese Parley in Tokyo adjourned sine die, Aug. 14.

Blockade of the French Concession at Hankow lifted, Aug. 25.

Abe Cabinet organized, Aug. 30.

Japan's policy of non-involvement in European hostilities proclaimed, Sept. 4.

Truce between the Japanese and Russian forces, Sept. 15. Settled fierce battles at Nomonhan in Outer Mongolia.

Settlement of the Kulangsu (Amoy) issue, Oct. 17.

Treaty of Amity between Japan and Iran, Oct. 18.

Completion of the around the world flight of the airplane "Nippon", Oct. 20.

The yen linked to American dollar instead of Sterling, Oct. 25.

THE WORLD

1939

Siam assumes a new national name "Thailand," July 5.

Reversion of Danzig to Germany declared, July 21.

Polish-German frontier closed, Aug. 16.

Non-aggression Pact between Germany and the U.S.S.R., Aug. 23.

Treaty of mutual assistance between Great Britain and Poland, Aug. 25.

German demands on Poland, Aug. 28.

Break of the Anglo-German negotiations on Polish issue, Aug. 31.
Beginning of Polish-German war, Sept. 1.

The Second European War, Great Britain and France declare war against Germany, Sept. 3.

Partition of Poland between Germany and the U.S.S.R., Sept. 18.

Fall of Warsaw, Sept. 27.

Reichsführer Hitler proposes convocation of peace conference for Europe, Oct. 6.

The Congress Party of India adopts resolution demanding Indian Independence, Oct. 8.

British Prime Minister Chamberlain rejects Hitler's proposal for peace, Oct. 12.

Annexation of Polish Corridor and Upper Silesia by Germany declared, Oct. 19.

Aggravation of diplomatic relations between the Soviet Russia and Finland, Nov. 7-12.

British and French Governments reject the peace proposal of the Belgian King and the Queen of the Netherlands of November 7, Nov. 12.

JAPAN

Nanning in Kwangsi Province occupied by the Japanese forces, No. 24.

Provisional Fisheries Agreement between Japan and the U.S.S.R., Dec. 31.

1940 The Abé Cabinet resigns, Jan. 14.

The new cabinet under Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai installed, Jan. 16.
The M.S. Asama Maru case, Jan. 21.

The expiration of the Japanese-American Treaty of Commerce and Navigation of 1911, Jan. 26.
The 75th Session of the Imperial Diet reopened, to hear the addresses of the new Cabinet members, Feb. 1.

H.I.M. the Emperor grants a special rescript on the 2600th Empire Anniversary Day, Feb. 11.

Foreign Minister Arita notifies the diplomatic representatives of Germany, the Netherlands, Great Britain and France, of Japan's policy of non-involvement in the war and to resist any kind of change in the status of the Dutch East Indies, May 11.

THE WORLD

Collision of Soviet and Finnish troops, Nov. 26.

The Soviet Russia declares war against Finland, Nov. 29. War begun on the following day.
The League of Nations expels the U.S.S.R., Dec. 14.

1940 President Roosevelt enunciates the non-involvement policy in his message to Congress, Jan. 3.

Conclusion of the new commercial treaty between Germany and Russia made public, Feb. 12.

The three North European States announce neutrality, Feb. 25.

The Soviet Government announces the conclusion of the Peace Treaty with Finland, March 13.

Chancellor Hitler and Premier Mussolini meet at the Brenner Pass, March 18.

The Central Government of the Republic of China re-established at Nanking under the leadership of Wang Ching-wel, March 30.

German forces make sudden landing at five ports in Norway and occupy Oslo, and, advancing into Denmark, occupy Copenhagen, April 9.

Conclusion of the Commercial Treaty between Rumania and Germany, April 20.

German forces defeat British forces in the battles in central Norway, April 25.

German forces on land, sea and in the air, effect blitzkrieg simultaneously on Luxembourg, Belgium and the Netherlands, crossing over the frontiers early in the morning of May 10.

JAPAN

1940 On the eve of the 35th anniversary of Navy Day (the day of the Battle of the Japan Sea), Navy Minister Yoshida declares that the era of supremacy on the Pacific is being unfolded, May 26.

Prince Konoé, President of the Privy Council, reveals his positive wishes for the formation of a new political structure, June 4.

The Treaty of Amity and Mutual Respect of Territories between Japan and Thailand signed at Tokyo, June 12.

The barricades around the foreign concession at Tientsin removed after a period of 372 days, June 20.

Emperor Kangte of Manchoukuo arrives in Tokyo to congratulate the Japanese Imperial Family on the 2600th anniversary of the founding of the Empire, June 26.

Manufacture and sale of luxury articles prohibited with a period of grace, July 7.

The Yonai Cabinet resigns, July 16.

The Anglo-Japanese understanding, halting British supplies to the Chiang regime over the Burma road, for a period of 3 months beginning July 18, reached, July 17.

Prince Konoé again installed as Premier, July 22.

THE WORLD

1940 British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain resigns on May 10, and Winston Churchill completes the formation of the new War Cabinet on May 12.

German forces enter The Hague, and the Dutch armies surrender, May 15.

German forces enter Brussels, while other German armies enter France, breaking through the Maginot Line at Sedan, May 17.
German vanguards reach the French coast of Dover, and cut the Allied forces into two, May 21.
The Belgian King Leopold III orders his armies to suspend hostilities against the Germans, May 28.

Italy's entry into the European War, June 10.

Norwegian King orders his troops to suspend hostilities against the German forces, June 10.

German forces enter Paris, and French armies begin to withdraw from the whole length of the Maginot Line, June 14.

French army's surrender to Germany, June 17.

Truce Agreement between Germany and France at Compiègne, June 22.

Truce Agreement between Italy and France, ending German and Italian military operations against France, June 24.

Marshal Pétain assumes the position of the Head of France in accordance with the new constitution adopted after the peace between Germany and France, July 12.

Chancellor Hitler suggests peace between Great Britain and Germany and Italy as his final proposal, in his speech at the Reichstag, July 19.

British Foreign Secretary Halifax rejects Hitler's proposal for peace, in his radio speech, July 22.

JAPAN

1940

The Seiyukai Party dissolved after 40 years of its history, before the national movement for the formation of a new political structure, July 30.

The Minseitō Party dissolved, marking an end to the party system in Japan, Aug. 15.

Ichizō Kobayashi, Commerce and Industry Minister, special envoy to the Dutch East Indies, leaves Tokyo for the D.E.I., Aug. 30.

Christian churches in Japan agree to fuse together, ending the 70-year history of dependency on foreign missions and denominationalism, Sept. 2.

H.I.H. Prince Nagahisa Kitashirakawa, staff officer stationed at a point in Mongolia fatally injured in a warplane accident, Sept. 4.

The new national structure preparatory committee ends deliberations with basic outlines completed and deciding upon the name of the central association of the movement as "Taisei Yokusan Kai" (Imperial Rule Assistance Association), Sept. 17.

Japanese troops enter North French Indo-China in peace in accordance with the Japanese-French understanding, Sept. 23.

The Triple Alliance among Japan, German and Italy signed at the Führer's official residence in Berlin at 1:15 p.m. (8:15, Japan time); H.M. the Emperor grants a special edict to his subjects on the occasion, Sept. 27.

The inaugural meeting of Taisei Yokusan Kai held at the Premier's official residence, Oct. 12.

THE WORLD

1940

The Second Pan-American Council ends with satisfactory results, culminating in the "Havana Declaration" on the joint defense of American countries, July 30.

German air forces successively bomb important places in England, including London, Aug. 10-27.

Beginning of indiscriminate bombing of London by German air forces, Sept. 7.

The Japan-Brazil cultural pact signed at Rio de Janeiro, Sept. 23.

President Roosevelt signs a proclamation prohibiting the export of scrap iron, steel and other iron materials to other than the western hemisphere and England, after Oct. 16, Sept. 26.

Chancellor Hitler and Premier Mussolini meet for the second time at the Brenner Pass, Oct. 4.

The U.S. State Department orders all Americans not engaged in pressing business in Japan, China, Manchoukuo, French Indo-China and Hongkong to evacuate for home, Oct. 8.

President Roosevelt announces the American determination to fight the triple alliance, Oct. 12.

Gandhi comes again to the forefront of the Indian independence movement, Oct. 15.

Britain re-opens the Burma route, Oct. 18.

JAPAN

The formal celebration and banquet in commemoration of the 2600th anniversary of the founding of the Empire held in the pavilion specially built for the purpose on the Imperial Palace grounds, Tokyo, in the presence of Their Majesties the Emperor and the Empress, Nov. 10, 11.

Prince Kimmochi Salonji passes away at Okitsu, Shizuoka prefecture, ending a long life of 92 years and marking the end of the consuetudinary system of Genro, Nov. 24.

Conclusion of the Treaty concerning the Basic Relations between Japan and China, Nov. 30.

Kenkichi Yoshizawa, special envoy to the Dutch East Indies leaves Tokyo for Batavia, to resume the economic negotiations begun by Ichizō Kobayashi, Dec. 11.

The curtain on the 3-day preliminary session of the Central Co-operative Council of the Taisei Yokusan Kai rises, Nobumasa Suetsugu taking the chair, Dec. 16.

The 76th Session of the Imperial Diet convened, Dec. 24.

1941

Vichy and Bangkok formally accept Japan's offer of mediation in the border dispute between French Indo-China and Thailand, Jan. 23.

Dr. Chu Min-yi, first Ambassador of the new National Government of Nanking to Japan, arrives in Tokyo, Feb. 5.

The Thailand-French Indo-China peace conference opens at the Premier's official residence, Feb. 7.

The 76th Session of the Imperial Diet adjourns, completing all business four weeks earlier than usual, March 1.

Foreign Minister Yosuke Matsuoka leaves Tokyo on his trip to Germany and Italy, March 12.

THE WORLD

Beginning of the Greco-Italian war, Oct. 28.

President Roosevelt wins the presidential campaign over Wendell Willkie, to continuously assume the position for a third term, which is unprecedented in the history of the United States, Nov. 6.

Australia sends her first Minister, Sir John Greig Latham, to Tokyo, Dec. 20.

President Roosevelt addresses American citizens and the world on the necessity of the greatest and speediest completion of national defense and of aiding Great Britain by all means, short of war, taking the Triple Alliance into consideration, Dec. 29.

Henry Bergson, French philosopher, dies in Paris.

1941 President Roosevelt, at the opening of the 77th session of Congress, re-underlines the peril of a totalitarian victory and the need of making America an arsenal for the so-called Democracies, Jan. 6.

The lower house of Congress passes the Lend-Lease Bill for aiding Britain, Feb. 8.

Germany reported to have handed an ultimatum to Greece, March 2.

Conclusion of the protocol between Thailand and French Indo-China concerning the settlement of the border dispute, by the mediation of Japan, March 11.

JAPAN

1941

Matsuoka meets Hitler in Berlin, March 27.

The primary educational system reformed, the old name for the primary school "Sho Gakko" being changed to "Kokumin Gakko" (National School), April 1.

Foreign Minister Matsuoka and Premier Mussolini confer in Rome, April 1.

The Japanese office at Geneva formally closed, April 2.

Signing of the Neutrality Pact between Japan and the U.S.S.R. in Moscow, April 13.

Foreign Minister Matsuoka returns to Tokyo, April 22.

Conclusion of the two pacts between Japan and France, i.e. the Convention of Establishment and Navigation and the Agreement concerning Customs Tariff, Trade and Method of Payment, both relating to economic relations between Japan and French Indo-China, May 6.

The National Defense Security Law enforced, May 10.

Japanese forces defeat three Chinese divisions, the 7th, 12th and 34th, commanded by General Tang Hual-yuan, in the area east of Sia-hsien, Shansi province, killing the General, May 12.

Captain H. Hirade, of the Naval Information Bureau, declares that the Japanese Navy has completed defense measures in Western Pacific areas to safeguard Japan from any attack from the sea, in the evening of the Navy Day, May 27.

Japan formally recognizes Croatia which declared independence on April 10, June 7.

Conclusion of the Commercial pact and the Agreement concerning Trade and Method of Payment, between Japan and the U.S.S.R., June 11.

THE WORLD

1941

Chancellor Hitler issues orders to German forces to open a simultaneous attack on Yugoslavia and Greece, April 6.

German forces enter Belgrade, April 13.

German and Italian forces press British forces back to the frontier of Egypt at the Libyan front, April 13.

Yugoslavia subjugated by Germany, April 18.

Greek forces surrender to German and Italian forces, April 23.

Conclusion of the Commercial Treaty between Germany and Turkey, April 26.

German forces occupy Athens, April 27.

Iraq declares war against Britain, May 1.

Josef Stalin, Secretary General of the Central Committee of the Communist Party, concurrently appointed President of Council of People's Commissars, May 6.

The Hood (42,000 tons) of the British Navy sunk by the Bismark (35,000 tons) of the German Navy, off the coast of Greenland, May 24.

The Bismark pursued for 4 days by British battleships, sunk off Brest, France, May 27.

Armistice between Great Britain and Iraq, May 31.

Complete occupation of Crete Island by German forces, June 1.

Chancellor Hitler and Premier Mussolini meet at the Brenner Pass, June 2.

JAPAN

1941

The first Central Cooperative Council of the Taisei Yokusan Kai held for 5 days, participated in by 106 representatives of local councils and 106 representatives of various circles, June 16-20.

President Wang Ching-wel, head of the Nanking Government, arrives in Tokyo to express thanks to the Japanese nation, June 17.

The economic parley between Japan and the Dutch East Indies breaks up without achieving the desired results, and Yoshizawa, the Japanese envoy, is called back, June 17.

The Government comes to a definite decision on the Japanese policy concerning the new development of war between Germany and Russia, at the special meeting in the presence of H.M. the Emperor in the morning of July 2.

The Kan-mon Tunnel which connects the Main Island and Kyushu with rail under the sea bottom, cut through on July 10.

The second Konoe Cabinet tenders resignation to the Throne, July 16.

Prince Konoe organizes his third cabinet by the Imperial Order, July 18.

In answer to the freezing of Japanese capital and properties by American and other countries, the Japanese Government publishes counter measures to be enforced from July 28, July 26.

The Joint Defense Protocol between Japan and France concerning the protection of French Indo-China concluded, and Japanese forces landed on Saigon, July 29.

THE WORLD

1941

British forces advance into Syria, June 8.

President Roosevelt issues order to freeze the assets of European countries held in the U.S., June 14.

Conclusion of the Amity Treaty between Germany and Turkey, June 18.

Collision of German and Russian troops at 3 a.m. June 22.

Germany and Italy declare war against the U.S.S.R. June 22.

The Central Government of the Chinese Republic at Nanking formally recognized by Germany, Italy, Rumania, Slovakia and Croatia, July 1.

Stalin makes announcement on Russian determination to effectively resist German forces, requiring the people to rally to the cause of saving the country from the imminent danger, July 3.

Great Britain and the U.S.S.R. come to an understanding concerning their mutual aid in their war against Germany, July 12.

German forces occupy Smolensk July 16.

The U.S.A. Government issues orders to "freeze" the Japanese assets held in that country, together with such Chinese assets, and British and Canadian governments take similar steps, to become effective from July 26, July 25.

The British Government notifies Japan of their intention to abrogate the Commerce and Navigation Treaty between Great Britain and Japan of 1911 and the Commercial treaties between Japan and India and Burma of 1934 and 1937, July 26.

Dutch East Indies adopt similar economic measures with America concerning the transactions with Japan, July 28.

JAPAN

1941

Japan raises her legation at Bangkok to an embassy, appointing Teiji Tsubokami first Ambassador to Thailand, August 16.

The third Konoe Cabinet resigns en bloc, October 16.

The new Cabinet with General Hideki Tojo as Prime Minister is installed, October 18.

Announcement is made concerning the despatch of Ambassador Saburo Kurusu to the United States for the purpose of assisting Ambassador Admiral Kichisaburo Nomura, November 5.

The 77th session of the Imperial Diet is convened in Tokyo on November 15 and closed on the 21st.

United States Secretary of State Cordell Hull hands a document concerning the adjustment of the Japanese-American relations to Ambassadors Nomura and Kurusu, which eventually brought the long conversations between them to a sad ending, November 26.

Japan declares war against the United States and the British Empire on December 8, and Imperial forces attack Hawaii, Singapore, Hong Kong, the Philippines and other places.

The British warships Prince of Wales and Repulse are sunk by the Imperial Naval Air Forces off the eastern coasts of the Malay Peninsula, December 10.

THE WORLD

1941

President Roosevelt and Premier Churchill meet on board the British War-ship Prince of Wales off the Canadian coast on August 10-12 or thereabout, and as the result, a joint announcement consisting of 8 articles on August 14.

The Government-General of Malaya recalls all men in the armed services to their posts, December 6.

The Hong Kong Government issues mobilization orders, while General Douglas MacArthur, Commander of the American and Filipino forces in Manila is reported to make an important announcement, December 7.

The United States, Britain, Australia, Canada, the Netherlands East Indies, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Chungking and Cuba declare war on Japan, December 8.

S. A. Lozovsky, Vice-Foreign Commissar of the U.S.S.R. reaffirms Soviet neutrality in relation to the Greater East Asia War, December 9.

JAPAN

Commencement of air raids on North Australia, December 11.

The 78th Session of the Imperial Diet is convoked with the object of preparing the country for the successful execution of the war, December 15.

The Alliance Pact between Japan and Thailand is signed at Bangkok, December 21.

The 79th Session of the Imperial Diet is convened in Tokyo, December 24.

Hong Kong, British Crown Colony, is occupied by the Imperial forces, December 25.

1942

Manila is brought under the Imperial Military Administration by the agreement reached between the Imperial Army Headquarters in the Philippines and J. B. Vargas, new Mayor of Manila, January 7.

The Government-General of the Hong Kong Occupied Area is established, Lieutenant-General Rensuke Isogai being appointed its first Governor-General, January 19.

Singapore falls into the hands of the Imperial Army under the command of Lieutenant-General Tomoyuki Yamashita, on February 15 when British Commander Robert Percival surrenders unconditionally.

Malaya is brought under the Imperial Military Administration and Singapore is renamed as "Shonan" (literally meaning "Bright South"), February 17.

THE WORLD

Germany and Italy decide to wage war in concert with Japan against the United States and the British Empire and an agreement to this effect is signed in Berlin by representatives of the three Powers, December 11.

British Prime Minister Winston Churchill arrives in Washington by plane and enters into a conference with President Roosevelt, December 22.

1942

The United States, Britain, the Soviet Union, Chungking, Canada and other anti-Axis countries sign an agreement for no separate peace with the Axis Powers without mutual consultation, January 2.

All the anti-Axis countries mentioned above are reported to have agreed to establish a supreme unified command in the southwestern Pacific under General Archibald Wavell, Commander of the British Forces in India, January 3.

The Pan-American Foreign Ministers' Conference at Rio de Janeiro approves a recommendation to sever diplomatic relations with the Axis Powers, January 23. Thailand declares war against the United States and the British Empire, January 25.

German and Italian forces begin offensive actions in the Libya field, January 25.

Benghazi, Libya, falls into the hands of German and Italian forces, January 29.

An anti-Axis Pacific Military Conference is held in London, in which Britain, Netherlands, Australia and New Zealand have been represented, February 10.

JAPAN

1942

Sea battles off Batavia and Sumatra engaged between the Imperial Naval forces and the combined fleets of American, British and Australian navies on February 27 and 28 end with a complete victory of the Imperial Navy, which practically annihilated the enemy naval forces in the East Indian seas.

Batavia is occupied by the Imperial Army under the command of Lieutenant-General Shojiro Iida, March 8.

Enemy troops in Java surrender unconditionally, March 9.

The 79th Session of the Imperial Diet is closed marking an epochal period in the annals of Japan and East Asia as the first regular session held in the midst of the Greater East Asia War, March 26. Sumatra is completely subjugated, March 27.

Colombo, Ceylon, is attacked by the Imperial Naval Air Forces, April 5.

THE WORLD

1942

The British Government declares that it will probe closely into the question of granting a new constitution to India based on the reports to be made by Stafford Cripps, Lord Privy Seal, who will shortly be despatched to India, March 11.

German forces commence active movements again in Russia, bombarding Leningrad, March 15.

Cripps arrives at New Delhi, capital of British India, March 22.

Mahatma Gandhi voices bitter opposition to Britain's plan to carry out a "scorched earth" policy in defense of India, declaring that any British plot or intrigue will be met by death-defying resistance, March 23.

The British Government proposes to give a full dominion status to India soon after the conclusion of the war, March 24.

Mahatma Gandhi and Stafford Cripps, British special envoy to India, meets at New Delhi, March 27.

The National Government of China promulgates the revised Temporary Currency Adjustment Law which provides for the suspension of the linking system at par between the Central Reserve Bank of China notes and the Chungking currency on and after April 1, 1942, March 30.

The working committee of the Congress Party of India decides to reject flatly Cripps's offer, on the ground that the British proposal does not grant India full authority to wage war on its own interest, March 31.

The Congress Party and all India Muslim League refuse the new British proposal made through Cripps, April 10.

JAPAN

1942

Premier Tojo states that the best opportunity for the establishment of an Independent India has at last arrived, April 6.

The Imperial Navy storms Trincomalee in Ceylon, sinking the British aircraft-carrier *Hermes* and other war vessels, April 9.

The Bataan Peninsula is completely cleared of enemy forces by the Imperial Army, April 13.

Tokyo and other cities are attacked for the first time by a small number of American warplanes, whose blind bombing, on a windless, clear day, causing but a slight damage on private houses and factories, April 18.

The Imperial Naval Air Forces shoot down 86 enemy planes and destroy 2 more planes in their attacks on Port Moresby and Port Darwin, April 1-20. Air attacks on these ports have been repeated since December.

The 21st general election of the members of the House of Representatives is held throughout the country and results in the victory of those candidates who were recommended by the National Service Political Council, winning 381 seats out of the total 466 seats, April 30.

The Imperial Army reduces Bhamo, North Burma, May 3.

Corregidor, the fortress island in Manila Bay, is completely reduced by the Imperial Forces, May 7, practically ending the battle between the Imperial Forces and American troops in the Philippines.

The Coral Sea Battle, May 7. The Imperial Navy defeats a powerful American-British Combined Fleets. On the following day two U.S. aircraft-carriers were sent to the bottom.

The 80th Session of the Imperial Diet is convoked in Tokyo on May 25 and closes on May 29.

H.I.H. Prince Takamatsu leaves Tokyo for Hsinking to tender the nation's felicitations to H.M. the Emperor of Manchoukuo on the 10th anniversary of its founding, May 26.

THE WORLD

1942

Pierre Laval is installed the Premier of the French Government at Vichy April 14.

The Reichstag approves the proposal to give absolute power concerning administration, justice, legislation and others to Chancellor Adolf Hitler, April 26.

Chancellor Adolf Hitler and Premier Benito Mussolini hold conference, April 29.

Madagascar is attacked by British forces and about 20,000 British soldiers are reported to have landed on the Island at Diego, May 5.

President Wang Ching-wei of China arrives at Hsinking to further consolidate the amicable bond binding China and Manchoukuo, May 7.

Powerful German forces commence fierce attacks on South Russia, the first scene of battle being the Kerch peninsula, May 8. The Alliance Treaty between Britain and Soviet Russia is signed at London, May 26.

The National Government of China decides to eliminate the Chungking currency from Central China, May 27.

1942

General Kuniaki Koiso is appointed Governor-General of Chosen in succession to General Jiro Minami, May 29.

Burma is placed under the Imperial Military Administration, June 4.

Aleutian Islands, including Dutch Harbor are attacked by the Imperial Navy, and a number of the islands are occupied, June 4-7.

Battle off Midway Island, in which the Imperial Navy frustrated the attempt of the American Navy to launch an air attack on Japanese Islands, sending two American carriers to the bottom, June 5.

1942

M. K. Gandhi, P. J. Nehru and M. A. K. Azad, the three leaders of the Congress Party meet at Warda and their opinions completely agree on the program of expelling British political power from India, June 16.

Tobruk, Libya, is occupied by German and Italian forces, June 21.

Matruh, Egypt, is reduced by German and Italian forces, June 29.

CHAPTER IV GOVERNMENT

CHAPTER IV

GOVERNMENT

The Constitution

The fundamental source of all laws and ordinances, and of the administrative system is the Constitution of the Japanese Empire. This document, however, contains simply an outline of the principles involved, and there are many constitutional laws, written and unwritten, which condition the functioning of State organs.

The Constitution of the Japanese Empire was promulgated on February 11, 1889, and is composed of 7 chapters and 76 articles (given in full in Appendix). It was accompanied by an Imperial Declaration, the essence of which has the same legal force as the articles of the Constitution. In the declaration, the Emperor Meiji made four points clear: first, that the purpose of the establishment of the Constitution is to promote the welfare of his subjects and sustain the progress of the nation; secondly, that the monarchy of Japan is unchanged in form and identical with what it has always been, in the principles of the harmonious rule of sovereign and subjects and of constitutional and responsible government; thirdly, the proper means for revision of the Constitution, and that it limits not only the lawful actions of the subjects, but also the powers of the sovereign; and fourthly, the date of its coming into effect, that of the opening of the first session of the Imperial Diet on November 25, 1890.

The Form of Government

The form of the Japanese Government is that of a constitutional monarchy. The Empire is ruled by the Tenno (Emperor) according to the first article of the Constitution, "the Empire of Japan shall be reigned over and governed by a line of Emperors unbroken for ages eternal." The representatives of the people in the Imperial Diet participate in the rule of the State, but have no sovereign power. Sovereignty belongs entirely to the Emperor and all power is exercised in his name only.

The actions of all governmental organs are regulated by the Constitution and

the collateral laws and usages above mentioned, and all the organs are coordinated by the central government.

The People

All Japanese subjects are registered with the census authorities according to the Law of Nationality, and are recognized as the constituency of the State and protected by the State laws. They are required to submit completely to the control and orders of the State. By the terms of the Constitution they may, subject to qualifications determined by law or ordinance, be appointed to civil or military offices equally and may fill any other public positions. They are liable to service in the army and navy and to the duty of paying taxes according to the provisions of law.

Japanese subjects are guaranteed liberty of abode and of changing the same. Within the limits of law, they shall not be arrested, detained, tried or punished unless according to law, shall not be deprived of their right of being tried by the judges determined by law, except in cases provided for by law, their houses shall not be entered or searched without their consent, the secrecy of their letters shall remain inviolate, and their right of property shall remain inviolate. They enjoy freedom of religious belief, speech, writing, publication, public meeting and association; and they may present petitions to the authorities in the forms provided by law.

The feudal social castes were abolished at the Meiji Restoration, and the class names of Kazoku (Peers), Shizoku (Samurai class), and Hēimin (Common people) were given according to family standing and lineage. The two last are purely social and represent no political distinction. Peerage carries with it the privilege of membership of the Upper House of the Legislature (Kizokuin, House of Peers), subject to certain conditions. In 1884 the peerage was divided into the following five ranks: Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount, and Baron. The class name of "Hēimin" has fallen into complete disuse, while that of "Shizoku" is being rapidly forgotten.

Tenno, The Emperor

The Japanese Throne is hereditary. The custom was established with the foundation of the State 2,000 years ago, and had been a constitutional unwritten law till it was clearly stated in the Imperial House Law by order of the Emperor Meiji. According to this law the Japanese Throne "shall be succeeded to by male descendants in the male line of Imperial Ancestors" (Art. 1).

The Three Sacred Treasures. The Imperial heir ascends the Throne and is invested with the three Sacred Treasures, the Mirror, the Jewel, and the Sword, of the Imperial Ancestors, as the symbol of sovereignty or Imperial Regalia, upon the demise of the Emperor and in no other circumstances. Upon the accession, a new era is inaugurated and the name of the era remains unchanged during the whole reign of the Emperor.

The Regency. As abdication of the Throne is impossible, Art. 19 of the Law provides for a regency to be instituted when the Emperor is a minor (the Tenno, Kōtōshō and Kōtōshō attain majority at 18 years of age), or when he is prevented by some permanent cause from personally governing. In the second case the advice of the Imperial Family Council and of the Privy Council is required. (See Appendix, The Imperial House Law, Chapter V.)

Imperial Prerogative. According to the Constitution, the Japanese Emperor is the head of the Empire, combining in himself all the rights of sovereignty. According to the provisions of the Imperial House Law, he is the head of the Imperial Family, and he carries out his function as such by the advice of the Minister of the Imperial Household without reference to the Diet. By hereditary custom he assumes the position of the Highest Priest of the national cult of Shinto and conducts august ceremonies in honor of the gods of heaven and earth and of the ancestral gods directly and in person. He is in supreme command of the Imperial Army and Navy and exercises this power with the help of special organs established to that end and independently of the advice of State ministers. Lastly, he has power to confer all titles of nobility, rank, orders and other marks of honor.

The Emperor uses these sovereign powers with the assistance of various

organs. In exercising legislative power he gets the consent of the Imperial Diet as a rule, although Imperial ordinances are often issued independent of the Diet, (under Article 9 of the Constitution), and for the overseas territories the exercise of ordinance power is unlimited by the Constitution. In the administration of State affairs he is advised by the Ministers of State, and in certain special cases by the Genro (Elder Statesmen), the Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, and the Privy Council. In Military administration he is advised by the chiefs of the Naval and Military General Staffs, while in the exercise of judicial power, he is represented by the Courts of Law.

"The Emperor is sacred and inviolable" (Constitution, Art. 3). He cannot be removed from the Throne for any reason, and he is not to be held responsible for over-stepping the limitations of law in the exercise of his sovereignty. All responsibility for the exercise of his sovereignty must be assumed by the Ministers of State and other organs. Thus, no criticism can be directed against the Emperor, but only against the instruments of his sovereignty. Laws are not to be applied to the Emperor as a principle, especially criminal laws, for no court of law can try the Emperor himself and he is not subject to any law.

The Cabinet

The Cabinet is composed of 14 State ministers headed by the Prime Minister. The 13 ministers are (1) the Minister for Foreign Affairs, (2) the Minister for Home Affairs, (3) the Minister of Finance, (4) the Minister of the Army, (5) the Minister of the Navy, (6) the Minister of Justice, (7) the Minister of Education, (8) the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, (9) the Minister of Commerce and Industry, (10) the Minister of Communications, (11) the Minister of Railways, (12) the Minister for Overseas Affairs and (13) the Minister of Welfare.

Though all the ministers are separately responsible to the Emperor for all the administrative work under their respective jurisdiction, they are united by the Prime Minister (Naikaku Sorī Daijin), one of whose functions is to preserve unity among the State ministers.

Thus, each minister has a twofold function, first as a State minister and secondly as a ministerial executive head.

As a State minister he is an adviser to the Emperor in the exercise of his sovereign power over national administration, and for the advice given assumes a joint responsibility with his colleagues. As the head of a ministry his function is to direct, control and supervise all the administrative affairs within his ministerial jurisdiction, for which the responsibility is his own. He is assisted by a vice-minister, a parliamentary vice-minister and a counsellor.

The Prime Minister

The Prime Minister presents reports on administrative matters of importance to the Emperor as the head of the Cabinet. When necessary he can order the suspension of an administrative operation or of the application of an administrative order by any executive organ, pending the final decision of the

Emperor. The Premier issues Cabinet Orders in virtue of this official function or by special commission. He is empowered within his functional jurisdiction to direct the Metropolitan Chief of Police and the Prefectural Governors. Matters that should be presented to the Cabinet Council are prescribed as follows:

- (1) All legislative and budget bills.
- (2) Treaties and other international matters of importance.
- (3) Ordinances to be issued.
- (4) Disputes among the various Ministries regarding jurisdiction.
- (5) Petitions from the people received from the Emperor or from the Diet.
- (6) Outlays not prescribed in the budget.
- (7) Appointment and removal of officials of "chokunin" rank and also of prefectural governors.

CHANGE OF CABINETS

(1885—1941)

I. ITO CABINET (First)	
(Dec. 22, 1885—April 29, 1888)	
Portfolio	Name
Premier	Hirobumi Ito
Foreign	Kaoru Inoue
	Hirobumi Ito (Concurrent) (Sept. 1887)
	Shigenobu Ōkuma (Feb. 1888)
Home	Aritomo Yamagata
Finance	Masayoshi Matsukata
Army	Iwao Ōyama
Navy	Tsukumichi Saigo
	Iwao Ōyama (Concurrent) (July 1886)
	Tsukumichi Saigo (July 1887)
Justice	Akiyoshi Yamada
Education	Yurei Mori
Agriculture & Commerce	Tateki Tani
	Tsukumichi Saigo (Concurrent) (Mar. 1886)
	Aritomo Yamagata (Concurrent) (July 1886)
	Tateki Tani (June 1887)
	Hisamoto Hijikata (July 1887)
	Kiyotaka Kuroda (Sept. 1887)
Communications	Takeaki Enomoto

II. KURODA CABINET	
(April 30, 1888—Dec. 23, 1889)	
Portfolio	Name
Premier	Kiyotaka Kuroda
	Sanetomi Sanjo — Oct. 1889
Foreign	Shigenobu Ōkuma (Continued)
Home	Aritomo Yamagata (Continued)
	Masayoshi Matsukata (Concurrent) (Dec. 1888)
	Aritomo Yamagata (Oct. 1889)
Finance	Masayoshi Matsukata (Continued)
Army	Iwao Ōyama (Continued)
Navy	Tsukumichi Saigo (Continued)
Justice	Akiyoshi Yamada (Continued)
Education	Yurei Mori (Continued)
	Iwao Ōyama (Concurrent) (Feb. 1889)
	Takeaki Enomoto (Mar. 1889)
Agriculture & Commerce	Takeaki Enomoto (Concurrent)
	Shōjirō Goto (March 1889)

Note: Pronounce "e" in Japanese names always é as in English "pet," whether in the beginning, in between or at the end of a name.

III. YAMAGATA CABINET (First) (Dec. 24, 1889—May 5, 1891)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Aritomo Yamagata
Foreign	Shuzo Aoki
Home	Aritomo Yamagata (Concurrent)
	Tsukumichi Saigo (May 1890)
Finance	Masayoshi Matsukata
Army	Iwao Oyama (Continued)
Navy	Tsukumichi Saigo (Continued)
	Sukenori Kabayama (May 1890)
Justice	Akiyoshi Yamada (Continued)
	Takato Ōki (Dec. 1890)
Education	Takeaki Enomoto (Continued)
	Akimasa Yoshikawa (May 1890)
Agriculture & Commerce	Michtoshi Iwamura
	Munemitsu Mutsu (May 1890)
	Yajiro Shinagawa (June 1890)
Communications	Shojiro Goto

IV. MATSUKATA CABINET (First) (May 6, 1891—Aug. 7, 1892)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Masayoshi Matsukata (Continued)
Foreign	Takeaki Enomoto
Home	Tsukumichi Saigo (Continued)
	Taneomi Fukushima (Mar. 1892)
	Masayoshi Matsukata (Concurrent) (June 1892)
	Toshikama Kono (July 1892)
Finance	Masayoshi Matsukata (Concurrent)
Army	Iwao Oyama (Continued)
	Tomonosuke Takashima (June 1891)
Navy	Sukenori Kabayama (Continued)
Justice	Akiyoshi Yamada
	Fujimaro Tanaka (June 1891)
	Toshikama Kono (Concurrent, June 1892)

Portfolio	Name
Education	Akimasa Yoshikawa (Continued)
	Takato Ōki (June 1891)
Agriculture & Commerce	Munemitsu Mutsu (Continued)
	Toshikama Kono (Mar. 1892)
	Tsunetami Sano (July 1892)
Communications	Shojiro Goto (Continued)

V. ITO CABINET (Second) (Aug. 8, 1892—Sept. 17, 1896)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Hirobumi Ito
	Kiyotaka Kuroda (Charge d'affaires ad interim, June 1896)
Foreign	Munemitsu Mutsu
	Kinmochi Saionji (June 1895)
	Munemitsu Mutsu (Apr. 1896)
	Kinmochi Saionji (Concurrent, May 1896)
Home	Kaoru Inoue
	Yasushi Nomura (Oct. 1894)
	Akimasa Yoshikawa (Concurrent, Feb. 1896)
	Taisuke Itagaki (April 1896)
Finance	Kunitake Watanabe
	Masayoshi Matsukata (March 1895)
	Kunitake Watanabe (Concurrent, Aug. 1895)
	Kunitake Watanabe (Oct. 1895)
Army	Iwao Oyama
	Tsukumichi Saigo (Concurrent, Oct. 1894)
	Aritomo Yamagata (ad interim, March 1895)
	Iwao Oyama (May 1895)
Navy	Kagenori Nire
	Tsukumichi Saigo (Mar. 1893)
Justice	Aritomo Yamagata
	Hirobumi Ito (Concurrent, ad interim, Mar. 1893)
	Akimasa Yoshikawa (March 1893)

Education	Toshikama Kono
	Tsuyoshi Inoue (March 1893)
	Akimasa Yoshikawa (Concurrent, Aug. 1894)
	Kinmochi Saionji (Oct. 1894)
Agriculture & Commerce	Shojiro Goto
	Takeaki Enomoto (Jan. 1894)
Communications	Kiyotaka Kuroda
	Kunitake Watanabe (March 1895)
	Senichi Shirane (Oct. 1895)
Overseas Affairs	Tomonosuke Takashima (April 1896)

VI. MATSUKATA CABINET (Second) (Sept. 18, 1896—Jan. 11, 1898)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Masayoshi Matsukata
	Kiyotaka Kuroda (Charge d'affaires ad interim, April 1897)
	Masayoshi Matsukata (June 1897)
Foreign	Shigenobu Ōkuma
	Tokujiro Nishi (Nov. 1897)
Home	Sukenori Kabayama
Finance	Masayoshi Matsukata (Concurrent)
Army	Tomonosuke Takashima (Concurrent)
	Tomonosuke Takashima (Sept. 1897)
Navy	Tsukumichi Saigo (Continued)
Justice	Keigo Kiyoura
Education	Shigeaki Hachisuka
	Arata Hamao (Nov. 1897)
Agriculture & Commerce	Takeaki Enomoto (Continued)
	Shigenobu Ōkuma (Concurrent, March 1897)
	Nobumichi Yamada (Nov. 1897)
Communications	Yasushi Nomura
Overseas Affairs	Tomonosuke Takashima (until Aug. 31, 1897 when the ministry was abolished)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Hirobumi Ito
Foreign	Tokujiro Nishi (Continued)
Home	Akimasa Yoshikawa
Finance	Kaoru Inoue
Army	Taro Katsura
Navy	Tsukumichi Saigo (Continued)
Justice	Arasuke Sone
Education	Kinmochi Saionji
	Shoichi Toyama (April 1898)
Agriculture & Commerce	Miyoji Ito
	Kentaro Kaneko (April 1898)
Communications	Kencho Suematsu

VIII. ŌKUMA CABINET (First) (June 30—Nov. 7, 1898)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Shigenobu Ōkuma
Foreign	Shigenobu Ōkuma (Concurrent)
Home	Taisuke Itagaki
Finance	Masahisa Matsuda
Army	Taro Katsura (Continued)
Navy	Tsukumichi Saigo (Continued)
Justice	Gitetsu Daito
Education	Yukio Ozaki
	Tsuyoshi Inukai (Oct. 1898)
Agriculture & Commerce	Masami Ōishi
Communications	Yuzo Hayashi

IX. YAMAGATA CABINET (Second) (Nov. 8, 1898—Oct. 18, 1899)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Aritomo Yamagata
Foreign	Shuzo Aoki
Home	Tsukumichi Saigo
Finance	Masayoshi Matsukata
Army	Taro Katsura (Continued)
Navy	Gonbei Yamamoto
Justice	Keigo Kiyoura
Education	Sukenori Kabayama
Agriculture & Commerce	Arasuke Sone
Communications	Akimasa Yoshikawa

X. ITO CABINET (Fourth) (Oct. 19, 1890—June 1, 1901)	
Portfolio	Name
Premier	Hirobumi Ito Kinmochi Salonji (Charge d'affaires ad interim, Oct. 1900) Kinmochi Salonji (Concurrent, May 1901)
Foreign Home Finance	Takaakira Kato Kencho Suematsu Kunitake Watanabe Kinmochi Salonji (Concurrent, May 1901)
Army	Taro Katsura (Continued) Gentaro Kodama (Dec. 1900)
Navy	Gonbei Yamamoto (Continued)
Justice Education Agriculture & Commerce	Kentaro Kaneko Masahisa Matsuda Yuzo Mori
Communications	Toru Hoshi Takashi Hara (Dec. 1900)
XI. KATSURA CABINET (First) (June 2, 1901—Jan. 6, 1906)	
Portfolio	Name
Premier	Taro Katsura
Foreign	Arasuke Sone (Concurrent) Jutaro Komura (Sept. 1901) Taro Katsura (Concurrent, July 1905) Jutaro Komura (Oct. 1905) Taro Katsura (Concurrent, Nov. 1905)
Home	Tadakatsu Utsumi Gentaro Kodama (Concurrent, July 1903) Taro Katsura (Concurrent, Oct. 1903) Akimasa Yoshikawa (Feb. 1904) Kelgo Kiyoura (Concurrent, Sept. 1905)
Finance	Arasuke Sone
Army	Gentaro Kodama (Continued) Masatake Terauchi (Mar. 1902)
Navy	Gonbei Yamamoto (Continued)
Justice	Kelgo Kiyoura

Portfolio	Name
Education	Takanao Hatano (July 1903) Dairoku Kikuchi Gentaro Kodama (Concurrent, July 1903) Yuzuru Kubota (Sept. 1903) Taro Katsura (Concurrent, Dec. 1905)
Agriculture & Commerce	Tosuke Hirata Kelgo Kiyoura (July 1903)
Communications	Akimasa Yoshikawa Arasuke Sone (Concurrent, July 1903) Kanetake Ōura (Sept. 1903)

XII. SAIONJI CABINET (First) (Jan. 7, 1906—July 13, 1908)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Kinmochi Salonji
Foreign	Takaakira Kato Kinmochi Salonji (Concurrent, March 1906) Tadasu Hayashi (May 1906) Takashi Hara Yoshiro Sakatani Masahisa Matsuda (Concurrent, Jan. 1908) Masahisa Matsuda (Mar. 1908)
Home Finance	Takashi Hara Yoshiro Sakatani Masahisa Matsuda (Concurrent, Jan. 1908) Masahisa Matsuda (Mar. 1908)
Army	Masatake Terauchi (Continued)
Navy	Makoto Saito
Justice	Masahisa Matsuda Sonpuku Senke (March 1908)
Education	Kinmochi Saionji (Concurrent ad interim) Nobuaki Makino (Mar. 1906)
Agriculture & Commerce	Koki Matsuoka
Communications	Isaburo Yamagata Takashi Hara (Concurrent, Jan. 1908) Masayasu Hotta (Mar. 1908)

XIII. KATSURA CABINET (Second) (July 14, 1908—Aug. 29, 1911)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Taro Katsura
Foreign	Masatake Terauchi (Concurrent)

Portfolio	Name
Home Finance	Jutaro Komura (Aug. 1908) Tosuke Hirata Taro Katsura (Concurrent)
Army	Masatake Terauchi (Continued)
Navy	Makoto Saito (Continued)
Justice Education Agriculture & Commerce	Nagamoto Okabe Eitaro Komatsubara Kanetake Ōura Eitaro Komatsubara (Concurrent ad interim, March 1910) Kanetake Ōura (Sept. 1910)
Communications	Shimpel Goto

XIV. SAIONJI CABINET (Second) (Aug. 30, 1911—Dec. 20, 1912)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Kinmochi Salonji
Foreign	Tadasu Hayashi Yasuya Uchida (Oct. 1911) Takashi Hara Tatsuo Yamamoto Shinroku Ishimoto Yusaku Uehara (April 1912)
Home Finance	Makoto Saito (Continued)
Army	Masahisa Matsuda Sumitaka Haseba Nobuaki Makino (Concurrent, Nov. 1912)
Navy	Makoto Saito (Continued)
Justice Education	Masahisa Matsuda Sumitaka Haseba Nobuaki Makino (Concurrent, Nov. 1912)
Agriculture & Commerce	Nobuaki Makino
Communications	Tadasu Hayashi

XV. KATSURA CABINET (Third) (Dec. 21, 1912—Feb. 19, 1913)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Taro Katsura
Foreign	Taro Katsura (Concurrent) Takaakira Kato (Jan. 1913) Kanetake Ōura Reijiro Wakatsuki Yasutsuna Kigoshi Makoto Saito (Continued)
Home Finance	Itasu Matsumuro
Army	Ramon Shibata
Navy	Itasu Matsumuro
Justice Education	Ramon Shibata

Portfolio	Name
Agriculture & Commerce	Ren Nakakoji
Communications	Shimpel Goto

XVI. YAMAMOTO CABINET (First) (Feb. 20, 1913—April 15, 1914)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Gonbei Yamamoto
Foreign	Nobuaki Makino
Home	Takashi Hara
Finance	Korekiyo Takahashi
Army	Yasutsuna Kigoshi (Continued) Sachihiko Kususe (June 1913)
Navy	Makoto Saito (Continued)
Justice	Masahisa Matsuda Yoshito Okuda (Nov. 1913)
Education	Yoshito Okuda Ikuzo Ooka (Mar. 1914)
Agriculture & Commerce	Tatsuo Yamamoto
Communications	Hajime Motoda

XVII. OKUMA CABINET (Second) (April 16, 1914—Oct. 8, 1916)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Shigenobu Ōkuma
Foreign	Takaakira Kato Shigenobu Ōkuma (Concurrent, Aug. 1915) Kikujiro Ishii (Oct. 1915)
Home	Shigenobu Ōkuma (Concurrent) Kanetake Ōura (Jan. 1915) Shigenobu Ōkuma (Concurrent, July 1915) Kitokuro Ikki (August 1915)
Finance	Reijiro Wakatsuki Tokitoshi Taketomi (Aug. 1915)
Army	Ichinosuke Ōka Kenichi Ōshima (Mar. 1916)
Navy	Rokuro Yashiro Tomosaburo Kato (Aug. 1915)
Justice Education	Yukio Ozaki Kitokuro Ikki Sanae Takata (Aug. 1915)

Portfolio	Name
Agriculture & Commerce	Kanetake Ōura Hironaka Kono (Jan. 1915)
Communications	Tokitoshi Taketomi Katsundo Minoura (Aug. 1915)

XVIII. TERAUCHI CABINET (Oct. 9, 1918—Sept. 28, 1918)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Masatake Terauchi
Foreign	Masatake Terauchi (Concurrent)
	Ichiro Motono (Nov. 1916)
	Shimpei Goto (April 1918)
Home	Shimpei Goto Rentaro Mizuno (April 1918)
Finance	Masatake Terauchi (Concurrent)
	Kazue Shoda (Dec. 1916)
Army	Kenichi Ōshima
Navy	Tomosaburo Kato (Continued)
Justice	Itasu Matsumuro
Education	Ryohel Okada
Agriculture & Commerce	Ren Nakakoji
Communications	Kenjiro Den

XIX. HARA CABINET (Sept. 29, 1918—Nov. 12, 1921)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Takashi Hara Yasuya Uchida (Concurrent, Nov. 1921)
Foreign	Yasuya Uchida
Home	Takejiro Tokonami
Finance	Korekiyo Takahashi
Army	Gleichi Tanaka Hanzo Yamanashi (June 1921)
Navy	Tomosaburo Kato (Continued)
Justice	Takashi Hara (Concurrent)
	Enkichi Ōki (May 1920)
Education	Tokugoro Nakabashi
Agriculture & Commerce	Tatsuo Yamamoto
Communications	Utarō Noda
Railways	Hajime Motoda (May 1920)

XX. TAKAHASHI CABINET (Nov. 13, 1921—June 11, 1922)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Korekiyo Takahashi
Foreign	Yasuya Uchida (Continued)
Home	Takejiro Tokonami (Continued)
Finance	Korekiyo Takahashi (Concurrent)
Army	Hanzo Yamanashi (Continued)
Navy	Tomosaburo Kato (Continued)
Justice	Enkichi Ōki (Continued)
Education	Tokugoro Nakabashi (Continued)
Agriculture & Commerce	Tatsuo Yamamoto (Continued)
Communications	Utarō Noda (Continued)
Railways	Hajime Motoda (Continued)

XXI. KATO (Tomosaburo) CABINET (June 12, 1922—Sept. 1, 1923)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Tomosaburo Kato Yasuya Uchida (Concurrent ad interim, Aug. 1923)
Foreign	Yasuya Uchida (Continued)
Home	Rentaro Mizuno
Finance	Otohiko Ichiki
Army	Hanzo Yamanashi (Continued)
Navy	Tomosaburo Kato (Concurrent)
	Takeishi Takarabe (May 1923)
Justice	Keijiro Okano
Education	Enkichi Kamata
Agriculture & Commerce	Kentaro Arai
Communications	Toshisada Maeda
Railways	Enkichi Ōki

XXII. YAMAMOTO CABINET (Second) (Sept. 2, 1923—Jan. 6, 1924)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Gonbei Yamamoto
Foreign	Gonbei Yamamoto (Concurrent)
	Hikokichi Ijuin (Sept. 1923)
Home	Shimpei Goto

Portfolio	Name
Finance	Junnosuke Inoue
Army	Gleichi Tanaka
Navy	Takeishi Takarabe (Continued)
Justice	Kenjiro Den (Concurrent)
	Kilchiro Hiranuma (Sept. 1923)
Education	Tsuyoshi Inukai (Concurrent)
	Keijiro Okano (Sept. 1923)
Agriculture & Commerce	Kenjiro Den Keijiro Okano (Concurrent, Dec. 1923)
Communications	Tsuyoshi Inukai
Railways	Kazutsugu Yamanouchi

XXIII. KIYOURA CABINET (Jan. 7—June 10, 1924)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Keigo Kiyoura
Foreign	Keishiro Matsui
Home	Rentaro Mizuno
Finance	Kazue Shoda
Army	Kazushige Ugaki
Navy	Kakulchi Murakami
Justice	Kisaburo Suzuki
Education	Chiyuki Egi
Agriculture & Commerce	Toshisada Maeda
Communications	Yoshiro Fujimura
Railways	Kenjiro Komatsu

XXIV. KATO (Takaakira) CABINET (First) (June 11, 1924—Aug. 1, 1925)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Takaakira Kato
Foreign	Kijuro Shidehara
Home	Reijiro Wakatsuki
Finance	Osachi Hamaguchi
Army	Kazushige Ugaki (Continued)
	Takeishi Takarabe
Navy	Sennosuke Yokota
Justice	Korekiyo Takahashi (Concurrent, Feb. 1925)
	Heikichi Ogawa (April 1925)
	Ryohel Okada

Education	Ryohel Okada
Agriculture & Commerce	Korekiyo Takahashi (Concurrent)
Agriculture & Forestry	Kunisuke Okazaki (Apr. 1925)

Portfolio	Name
Commerce & Industry	Utarō Noda (Apr. 1925)
Communications	Tsuyoshi Inukai Kenzo Adachi (May 1925)
Railways	Mitsugu Sengoku
(Note:—In April 1925 the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce was divided into the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry and the Ministry of Commerce and Industry.)	

XXV. KATO (Takaakira) CABINET (Second) (Aug. 2, 1925—Jan. 29, 1926)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Takaakira Kato (Continued)
	Reijiro Wakatsuki (ad interim, Jan. 1926)
Foreign	Kijuro Shidehara (Continued)
Home	Reijiro Wakatsuki (Continued)
Finance	Osachi Hamaguchi (Continued)
Army	Kazushige Ugaki (Continued)
Navy	Takeishi Takarabe (Continued)
Justice	Tasuku Egi
Education	Ryohel Okada (Continued)
Agriculture & Forestry	Selji Hayami
Commerce & Industry	Naoatsu Kataoka
Communications	Kenzo Adachi (Continued)
Railways	Mitsugu Sengoku (Continued)

XXVI. WAKATSUKI CABINET (First) (Jan. 30, 1926—April 19, 1927)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Reijiro Wakatsuki
Foreign	Kijuro Shidehara (Continued)
Home	Reijiro Wakatsuki (Concurrent)
	Osachi Hamaguchi (June 1926)
	Kenzo Adachi (Concurrent ad interim, Dec. 1926)
	Osachi Hamaguchi (Mar. 1927)

Portfolio	Name
Finance	Osachi Hamaguchi Seiji Hayami (June 1926) Naotsu Kataoka (Sept. 1926)
Army	Kazushige Ugaki (Continued)
Navy	Takeshi Takarabe (Continued)
Justice	Tasuku Egi (Continued)
Education	Ryohel Okada (Continued)
Agriculture & Forestry	Seiji Hayami Chuji Machida (June 1926)
Commerce & Industry	Naotsu Kataoka Ikunosuke Fujisawa (Sept. 1926)
Communications	Kenzo Adachi (Continued)
Railways	Mitsugu Sengoku (Continued) Tadashi Inoue (June 1926)

XXVII. TANAKA CABINET (April 20, 1927—July 1, 1929)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Giichi Tanaka
Foreign	Giichi Tanaka (Concurrent)
Home	Kisaburo Suzuki Giichi Tanaka (Concurrent, May 1928) Keisuke Mochizuki (May 1928)
Finance	Korekiyo Takahashi Chuzo Mitsuchi (June 1927)
Army	Yoshinori Shirakawa
Navy	Keisuke Okada
Justice	Yoshimichi Hara
Education	Chuzo Mitsuchi Rentaro Mizuno (June 1927) Kazue Shoda (May 1928)
Agriculture & Forestry	Teijiro Yamamoto
Commerce & Industry	Tokugoro Nakabashi
Communications	Keisuke Mochizuki Fusanosuke Kuhara (May 1928)
Railways	Heikichi Ogawa
Overseas Affairs	Giichi Tanaka (Concurrent)

XXVIII. HAMAGUCHI CABINET (July 2, 1929—April 13, 1931)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Osachi Hamaguchi Kijuro Shidehara (Charge d'affaires ad interim, Nov. 1930) Osachi Hamaguchi (Mar. 1931)
Foreign	Kijuro Shidehara
Home	Kenzo Adachi
Finance	Junnosuke Inoue
Army	Kazushige Ugaki Nobuyuki Abe (Charge d'affaires ad interim, June 1930) Kazushige Ugaki (Dec. 1930)
Navy	Takeshi Takarabe Kiyokazu Abo (Oct. 1930)
Justice	Chifuyu Watanabe
Education	Itta Kobashi Ryuzo Tanaka (Nov. 1929)
Agriculture & Forestry	Chuji Machida
Commerce & Industry	Magoichi Tawara
Communications	Matajiro Koizumi
Railways	Tasuku Egi
Overseas Affairs	Genji Matsuda

XXIX. WAKATSUKI CABINET (Second) (April 14—Dec. 12, 1931)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Reijiro Wakatsuki
Foreign	Kijuro Shidehara (Continued)
Home	Kenzo Adachi (Continued)
Finance	Junnosuke Inoue (Continued)
Army	Jiro Minami
Navy	Kiyokazu Abo (Continued)
Justice	Chifuyu Watanabe (Continued)
Education	Ryuzo Tanaka (Continued)
Agriculture & Forestry	Chuji Machida (Continued)
Commerce & Industry	Yukio Sakurachi
Communications	Matajiro Koizumi (Continued)

Portfolio	Name
Railways	Tasuku Egi (Continued) Shujiro Hara (Sept. 1931)
Overseas Affairs	Shujiro Hara Reijiro Wakatsuki (Concurrent, Sept. 1931)

XXX. INUKAI CABINET (Dec. 13, 1931—May 25, 1932)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Tsuyoshi Inukai Korekiyo Takahashi (Concurrent, May 1932)
Foreign	Tsuyoshi Inukai (Concurrent) Kenkichi Yoshizawa (Jan. 1932)
Home	Tokugoro Nakabashi Tsuyoshi Inukai (Concurrent, March 1932) Kisaburo Suzuki (Mar. 1932)
Finance	Korekiyo Takahashi
Army	Sadao Araki
Navy	Mineo Osumi
Justice	Kisaburo Suzuki Takeji Kawamura (Mar. 1932)
Education	Ichiro Hatoyama
Agriculture & Forestry	Teijiro Yamamoto
Commerce & Industry	Yonezo Maeda
Communications	Chuzo Mitsuchi
Railways	Takejiro Tokonami
Overseas Affairs	Toyosuke Hata

XXXI. SAITO CABINET (May 26, 1932—July 7, 1934)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Makoto Saito
Foreign	Makoto Saito (Concurrent) Yasuya Uchida (July 1932) Koki Hirota (Sept. 1933)
Home	Tatsuo Yamamoto
Finance	Korekiyo Takahashi (Continued)
Army	Sadao Araki (Continued) Senjuro Hayashi (Jan. 1934)
Navy	Keisuke Okada
Justice	Mineo Osumi (Jan. 1933) Matsukichi Koyama

Portfolio	Name
Education	Ichiro Hatoyama (Continued) Makoto Saito (ad interim, March 1934)
Agriculture & Forestry	Fumio Goto
Commerce & Industry	Kumakichi Nakajima Joji Matsumoto (Feb. 1934)
Communications	Hiroshi Minami
Railways	Chuzo Mitsuchi
Overseas Affairs	Ryutaro Nagai

XXXII. OKADA CABINET (July 8, 1934—March 8, 1936)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Keisuke Okada Fumio Goto (Charge d'affaires ad interim, Feb. 1936) Keisuke Okada (Feb. 1936)
Foreign	Koki Hirota (Continued)
Home	Fumio Goto
Finance	Sadanobu Fujii Korekiyo Takahashi (Nov. 1934) Chuji Machida (Concurrent, Feb. 1936)
Army	Senjuro Hayashi (Continued) Yoshiyuki Kawashima (Sept. 1935)
Navy	Mineo Osumi (Continued)
Justice	Naoshi Ohara
Education	Genji Matsuda Takukichi Kawasaki (Feb. 1936)

Portfolio	Name
Agriculture & Forestry	Tatsunosuke Yamazaki
Commerce & Industry	Chuji Machida
Communications	Takejiro Tokonami
Railways	Shinya Uchida
Overseas Affairs	Keisuke Okada (Concurrent) Hideo Kodama (Oct. 1934)

XXXIII. HIROTA CABINET (March 9, 1936—Feb. 1, 1937)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Koki Hirota
Foreign	Koki Hirota (Concurrent) Hachiro Arita (April 1936)

Portfolio	Name
Home	Shigenosuke Ushio
Finance	Eiichi Baba
Army	Hisaiichi Terauchi
Navy	Osami Nagano
Justice	Raisaburo Hayashi
Education	Shigenosuke Ushio (Concurrent)
	Hachisaburo Hirao (Mar. 1936)
Agriculture & Forestry	Toshio Shimada
Commerce & Industry	Takukichi Kawasaki Gotaro Ogawa (March 1936)
Communications	Keikichi Tanomogi
Railways	Yonezo Maeda
Overseas Affairs	Hidejiro Nagata

XXXIV. HAYASHI CABINET
(Feb. 2—June 3, 1937)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Senjuro Hayashi
Foreign	Senjuro Hayashi (Concurrent)
Home	Naotake Sato (Feb. 1937)
Finance	Kakichi Kawarada
Army	Toyotaro Yuki
Navy	Kotaro Nakamura
Justice	Gen Sugiyama (Feb. 1937)
Education	Mitsumasa Yonai
	Suehiko Shiono
	Senjuro Hayashi (Concurrent)
Agriculture & Forestry	Tatsunosuke Yamazaki
Commerce & Industry	Takuo Godo
Communications	Tatsunosuke Yamazaki (Concurrent)
	Hideo Kodama (Feb. 1937)
Railways	Takuo Godo (Concurrent)
Overseas Affairs	Toyotaro Yuki (Concurrent)

XXXV. KONOE CABINET (First)
(June 4, 1937—Jan. 4, 1939)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Fumimaro Konoe
Foreign	Koki Hirota
	Kazushige Ugaki (May 1938)
	Fumimaro Konoe (Concurrent, Sept. 1938)
	Hachiro Arita (Oct. 1938)

Portfolio	Name
Home	Eiichi Baba
	Nobumasa Suetsugu (Dec. 1937)
Finance	Okinori Kaya
	Selhin Ikeda (May 1938)
Army	Gen Sugiyama
	Selshiro Itagaki (June 1938)
Navy	Mitsumasa Yonai (Continued)
Justice	Suehiko Shiono (Continued)
Education	Eiji Yasui
	Kolchi Kido (Oct. 1937)
	Sadao Araki (May 1938)
Agriculture & Forestry	Yoriyasu Arima
Commerce & Industry	Shinji Yoshino
	Selhin Ikeda (Concurrent, May 1938)
Communications	Ryutaro Nagai
Railways	Chikuhei Nakajima
Overseas Affairs	Sonyu Otani
	Kazushige Ugaki (Concurrent, June 1938)
	Fumimaro Konoe (Concurrent, Sept. 1938)
	Yoshiaki Hatta (Oct. 1938)
Welfare	Kolchi Kido (Concurrent, Jan. 1938)
	Kolchi Kido (May 1938)

XXXVI. HIRANUMA CABINET
(Jan. 5—Aug. 29, 1939)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Kiichiro Hiranuma
Minister without Portfolio	Fumimaro Konoe
Foreign	Hachiro Arita (Continued)
Home	Kolchi Kido
Finance	Sotaro Ishiwata
Army	Selshiro Itagaki (Continued)
Navy	Mitsumasa Yonai (Continued)
Justice	Suehiko Shiono (Continued)
Education	Sadao Araki (Continued)
Agriculture & Forestry	Yukio Sakurachi
Commerce & Industry	Yoshiaki Hatta
Communications	Suehiko Shiono (Concurrent)
	Harumichi Tanabe (Apr. 1939)

Portfolio	Name
Railways	Yonezo Maeda
Overseas Affairs	Yoshiaki Hatta (Concurrent)
	Kuniaki Koiso (April 1939)
Welfare	Hisatada Hirose

XXXVII. ABE CABINET
(Aug. 30, 1939—Jan. 15, 1940)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Nobuyuki Abe
Foreign	Nobuyuki Abe (Concurrent)
	Kichisaburo Nomura (Sept. 1939)
Home	Naoshi Ohara
Finance	Kazuo Aoki
Army	Shunroku Hata
Navy	Zengo Yoshida
Justice	Chogoro Miyagi
Education	Kakichi Kawarada
Agriculture & Forestry	Takuo Godo (Concurrent)
	Tadamasa Sakai (Oct. 1939)
Commerce & Industry	Takuo Godo
Communications	Ryutaro Nagai
Railways	Ryutaro Nagai (Concurrent)
	Hidejiro Nagata (Nov. 1939)
Overseas Affairs	Tsunéo Kanamitsu
Welfare	Naoshi Ohara (Concurrent)
	Kiyoshi Akita (Nov. 1939)

XXXVIII. YONAI CABINET
(Jan. 16—July 21, 1940)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Mitsumasa Yonai
Foreign	Hachiro Arita
Home	Hideo Kodama
Finance	Yukio Sakurachi
Army	Shunroku Hata (Continued)
Navy	Zengo Yoshida (Continued)
Justice	Shotatsu Kimura
Education	Chinjiro Matsuura
Agriculture & Forestry	Toshio Shimada
Commerce & Industry	Ginjiro Fujihara
Communications	Masanori Katsu
Railways	Tsuruhei Matsuno

Portfolio	Name
Overseas Affairs	Kuniaki Koiso
Welfare	Shigeru Yoshida

XXXIX. KONOE CABINET (Second)
(July 22, 1940—July 17, 1941)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Fumimaro Konoe
Foreign	Yosuke Matsuoka
Home	Eiji Yasui
	Kiichiro Hiranuma (Dec. 1940)
Finance	Isao Kawada
Army	Hideki Tojo
Navy	Zengo Yoshida (Continued)
	Koshiro Oikawa (Sept. 1940)
Justice	Akira Kazami
Education	Kunihiko Hashida
Agriculture & Forestry	Tadaatsu Ishiguro
	Hiroya Ino (June 1941)
Commerce & Industry	Ichizo Kobayashi
	Teijiro Toyoda (April 1941)
Communications	Shozo Murata
Railways	Shozo Murata (Concurrent)
	Gotaro Ogawa (Sept. 1940)
Overseas Affairs	Yosuke Matsuoka (Concurrent)
	Kiyoshi Akita (Sept. 1940)
Welfare	Eiji Yasui (Concurrent)
	Tsunéo Kanamitsu (Sept. 1940)

XL. KONOE CABINET (Third)
(July 18, 1941—October 17, 1941)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Fumimaro Konoe (Continued)
Foreign	Teijiro Toyoda
Home	Harumichi Tanabe
Finance	Masatsune Ogura
Army	Hideki Tojo (Continued)
Navy	Koshi Oikawa (Continued)
Justice	Fumimaro Konoe (Concurrent)
	Michiyo Iwamura (July 25, 1941)
Education	Kunihiko Hashida (Continued)
Agriculture & Forestry	Hiroya Ino (Continued)

Portfolio	Name
Commerce & Industry	Seizo Sakonji
Communications	Shozo Murata
Railways	Shozo Murata (Concurrent)
Overseas Affairs	Teljiro Toyoda (Concurrent)
Welfare	Chikahiko Koizumi

(Note:—Who's Who of the ministers since 1933 is given in Chapter IV, Government, the Japan Year Books, 1933-1941.)

PRESENT TOJO CABINET

(August 1942)

The third Kono Cabinet resigned on October 16, 1941, and General Hideki Tojo was appointed Premier who organized new Cabinet on the 18th of the same month. The members and their careers of the Tojo Cabinet are as follows:

Prime Minister and Minister of the Army: General Hideki Tojo, born 1884; finished the Military Academy, 1905; graduated from the Military Staff College, 1915; Commander of the First Infantry Regiment, 1929; Major-General, March 1933; Chief of the Military Industry Department, November 1933; Lieutenant-General, December 1936; Chief Staff-officer of the Kwantung Army, March 1937; Army Vice-Minister, May 1938; Superintendent-General of the Army Air Forces and Chief of the Army Aviation Headquarters, 1938-40; member of the High Military Council, February 1940; Minister of the Army, July 1940; again Minister of the Army, July 1941; General, October 1941.

Minister for Foreign Affairs and concurrently Minister for Overseas Affairs: Shigenori Togo, born in December 1852; graduated from the German Literature Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1905; passed the diplomatic service examination and the consul examination, 1912; *éleve-consul* at Mukden, 1912; the first secretary of the Embassy in America, 1925; councillor to the Ambassador to Germany, 1929; a plenipotentiary to the London Naval Disarmament Conference, 1931; Director of the Europe-America Bureau of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1933; Director of the Europe-Asia Bureau of the Foreign Ministry, 1934; Ambassador to Germany, November 1937; Ambassador to the Soviet-Union, 1939-40.

Minister for Home Affairs: Michio Yuzawa, born 1888; graduated from the Law Department of Tokyo Imperial University and passed the higher civil service examination, 1911; on graduation entered into service at the Fukushima Prefectural Office and afterwards secretary of the same office, 1911; secretary of the Home Ministry, 1917; made a tour of inspection to Europe and America, 1921; divisional head of the Welfare Bureau, 1926; head of the Labor Division, 1928; Governor of Miyagi Prefecture, 1929; chief of the Engineering Bureau of the Home Ministry, 1931; Governor of Hiroshima Prefecture, 1932; Vice-Minister for Home Affairs, 1936-1937; counsellor to the expeditionary forces in North China and concurrently the highest counsellor for the home administration of the Provisional Government of China at Peking, January 1938; chairman of the board of directors of the Japan Industrial Patriotic Association, November 1940; Vice-Minister for Home Affairs, October 1941.

Minister of Finance: Okinori Kaya, born January 1889; graduated from the Law Department of Tokyo Imperial University, and passed the higher civil service examination, 1917; on graduation entered into service at the Finance Ministry, 1917; once went to Europe and America, and later accountant and financial official of the Finance Ministry; secretary of the Finance Ministry, and director of the accountant's section of the Accounts Bureau of the Finance Ministry, March 1926; director of the Bureau of Fund Employment, March 1936; Vice-Minister of Finance, February 1937; Minister of Finance, June 1937; President of the North China Development Company, 1938.

Minister of the Navy: Admiral Shigetarō Shimada, born 1884; graduated from the Naval Academy, 1904; Rear-Admiral, 1929; chief of the staff of the Second Fleet, and later chief of the staff of the First Fleet and concurrently chief of the staff of the Combined Fleet; principal of the Submarine School; chief of the staff of the Third Fleet; vice-chief of the Naval General Staff, 1935; Commander-in-Chief of the Second Fleet; Commander-in-Chief of the Kure Naval Station; Commander-in-Chief of the Imperial Fleet in China, May 1940; Admiral, November 1940; Commander-in-Chief of the Yokosuka Naval Station, September 1941.

Minister of Justice: Michiyo Iwamura, born August 1883; graduated from the

Law Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1919; probationary judge, the same year; public procurator at the Tokyo Local Court and District Court; secretary and sectional director of the Justice Minister's secretariate, 1923-24; went to Europe and America as the secretary and later public procurator at the Tokyo District Court; sectional director, 1926; public procurator at the Tokyo Court of Appeal; chief public procurator at the Nagoya Court of Appeal, 1931; chief public procurator at the Tokyo Court of Appeal, 1934; director of the Criminal Affairs Bureau, 1935; public procurator at the Supreme Court, 1937; Vice-Minister of Justice, December 1937-January 1940; Procurator-General, January 1940.

Minister of Education: Kunihiko Hashida, born March 1882; graduated from the Medical Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1908; studied in Germany, Austria and France, 1914-18; upon returning home, assistant professor in the Medical Department of Tokyo Imperial University, November 1918; Doctor of Medicine, 1919; professor in the Medical Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1922; principal of the First Higher School and concurrently professor at Tokyo Imperial University 1937-40; Minister of Education, July 1940; again Minister of Education, July 1941.

Minister of Agriculture and Forestry and Minister for Overseas Affairs: Hiroya Ino, born December 1891; graduated from the Law Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1917; on graduation entered the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry and served in the section of fisheries and the secretariate, 1917-1924; Director of the Silk Bureau, 1933; Vice-Director of the Board of Planning, February 1937; Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, June 1937; Managing Director of the Nippon Suisan (Fishery) Company, 1938; again Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, July 1940; Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, June 1941; again Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, July 1941.

Minister of Commerce and Industry: Nobusuke Kishi, born November 1890; graduated from the German Law Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1920; entered into service at the Commercial Affairs Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, July 1920; official of the section of archives of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, and later

official of the Patent Bureau; went to Europe and America, 1926; again went to Europe, 1930; secretary of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry and concurrently official of the Temporary Industrial Rationalization Bureau, January 1932; sectional director for industrial administration in the Industrial Affairs Bureau; Vice-Minister of Commerce and Industry, October 1939; again Vice-Minister of Commerce and Industry, July 1940.

Minister of Communications and concurrently Minister of Railways: Vice-Admiral Ken Terajima, born 1882; graduated from the Naval Academy, 1908; Director of the Military Affairs Bureau, 1931; officer of the Naval General Staff, and later staff-officer of the Third Fleet; military attache to the Embassy in France; senior adjutant of the Ministry of the Navy; chief of the staff of the Second Fleet, the First Fleet and the Combined Fleet; again served at the Naval General Staff; Vice-Admiral, 1933; Commander-in-Chief of the training squadron, 1934; retired from the active service, 1934; President of the Uraga Dock Yards, 1934.

Minister of Welfare: Surgeon Lieutenant-General Dr. Chikahiko Koizumi, born in September 1884; graduated from the Medical Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1900; Surgeon-Lieutenant, 1918; Instructor at the Staff College, 1918; Doctor of Medicine, 1921; Deputy Surgeon-General, 1930; sent to Europe and America for study, 1931; Head of the Medical Department of the Guard Division, 1932; Principal of the Army Medical Bureau, Army Ministry, 1934; Surgeon Lieutenant-General and Surgeon-General, 1937-1938; Minister of Welfare, July 1941.

Minister without Portfolio and Director of the Cabinet Board of Planning: Lieutenant-General Teiichi Suzuki, born 1888; graduated from the Military College, 1910; from the Staff College, 1917; Major-General, 1938; Head of the Administrative Department of the China Affairs Board, 1938; Acting Director-General of the Board, December 1940; Minister without Portfolio and Director of the Cabinet Planning Board, July 1940; again Minister without Portfolio and Director of the Cabinet Board of Planning, July 1941.

Cabinet Advisory Council

The Imperial Ordinance No. 593, promulgated on October 14, 1937, established the Cabinet Advisory Council. The

Councillors are chosen from among experienced politicians, military officers and businessmen, and are to give advice to the Premier and the Cabinet on important national policies pertaining to the present national and international situations.

Cabinet Bureaux

Important offices of the Cabinet are the Secretariat, Pension Bureau, Statistics Bureau, Printing Bureau, Legislation Bureau, Merit Bureau, Board of Planning, Manchurian Bureau, North-Eastern District Bureau, Information Bureau, and China Affairs Board.

All bills to be submitted to the legislature by the Government and all ordinances to be promulgated are drafted at the Legislation Bureau in accordance with the order of the Premier. Proposals of amendment or repeal of laws or ordinances are also submitted to this bureau. In the discharge of his duties the Chief of the Legislation Bureau is at liberty to present his opinion to the Cabinet.

The Merit Bureau handles all business pertaining to the Orders of Merit, decorations and the pensions affiliated to them, national and international.

The Board of Planning is to make recommendations to the Prime Minister in regard to important national policies and to their co-ordination and adjustment, to investigate the important policies proposed by Ministers and make recommendations based on due observation of them, to make recommendations concerning control over budget estimates, and to make plans for the control and unification of Ministerial businesses for carrying out the national mobilization scheme.

The Manchurian Bureau is to supervise all matters concerning Kwantung Leased Territory through the Kwanto Bureau in the Japanese Embassy in Hsinking.

The China Affairs Board was created, in December 1935, as the central office for carrying on works pertaining to the rehabilitation and development of China.

The Information Bureau was strengthened, in 1940, by taking over the similar business of information in the Foreign, Army and Navy Ministries, with the purpose of giving unified informations on important State affairs. Information Sections in these three Ministries were abolished accordingly.

The Executive Ministries

Ministry of Foreign Affairs The Minister for Foreign Affairs administers all the diplomatic affairs of the Empire; organizes the protection of the Empire's commercial interests and Japanese subjects resident in foreign countries; and directs and supervises Japanese diplomats and consuls. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs is subdivided into six bureaux, namely, (1) East Asiatic, (2) European and Asiatic (3) American, (4) South Seas, (5) Commercial, and (6) Treaties.

There are two other offices of importance, namely the Investigation Bureau and Cultural Works Bureau (for China).

Ministry of Home Affairs The Minister for Home Affairs is in charge of national shrines, prefectural administration, national and local political elections, police, public undertakings, town planning, publication and copyrights, etc. It is also his function to supervise the Chief of the Metropolitan Police Board and the prefectural governors. The ministry has one board and four bureaux, respectively in charge of the following affairs:—(1) Shrines, (2) Local Affairs, (3) Public Order, (4) Public Works, and (5) Planning.

In 1940, the former Shrine Bureau was raised to the status of a Board and became empowered not only to administer matters pertaining to shrines but to educate the people in the spirit of worshipping.

Ministry of Finance The Minister of Finance is in charge of accounting, payments and receipts of public money, taxation, government bonds, coins, money in deposit and custody, negotiable instruments owned by or in custody of the Government and all matters concerning banking, trust business, "ko" (an oriental mutual loan association), and sale of negotiable instruments. He also supervises the finances of the prefectural governments and other local public bodies.

The Finance Ministry has the following 10 bureaux:—(1) The Accounts Bureau, (2) The Bureau of Taxation, (3) The Bureau of Fund Employment, (4) The Banking Bureau, (5) The Exchange Bureau, (6) The Deposit Funds Management Bureau, (7) The National Deposit Encouragement Bureau, (8) The

Building Bureau, (9) The Mint Bureau and (10) The Monopoly Bureau.

Ministry of the Army The function of the Minister of the Army, who is appointed from among Generals or Lieutenant-Generals in active service, is to direct the military administration. He controls all the men enlisted in the Army and supervises all branches of the Army. Though the Army Minister is assisted by a parliamentary vice-minister and a counsellor they have nothing to do officially with military secrets and military orders (for the organization of the Department and its detailed functions, see Chapter VII).

Ministry of the Navy The Minister of Navy is appointed from among Admirals or Vice-Admirals in active service and is responsible for all naval administration. He controls all the men enlisted in the Navy and supervises all branches of the Navy. The parliamentary vice-minister and counsellor have nothing to do with naval secrets and naval commands (for the organization of the Department and its detailed functions, see Chapter VII).

Ministry of Justice The Minister of Justice supervises courts and procurators' offices; and controls all judicial proceedings. The Ministry contains four bureaux, dealing respectively with Civil Affairs, Criminal Affairs, Prisons and Protection and a division for judicial investigation.

Judicial procedure is divided into three instances. The courts of first instance are the Local and District Courts. In the Local Court are tried civil and criminal cases of minor importance.

The District Court conducts trials of first instance of cases beyond the jurisdiction of the Local Court and preliminary examinations of criminal cases of a complicated character.

The District Courts and Courts of Appeal are courts of second instance. The former handles cases on appeal from the Local Courts, and the latter appeals against the first instance decisions of the District Courts.

The court of third instance is the Supreme Court, which tries all civil and criminal cases which are brought before it, and conducts preliminary trials for (1) serious offences against the Imperial House, (2) high treason, and (3) offences committed by members of the Imperial Family. (For further details, see Chapter XXVII.

Ministry of Education All matters relating to education, art, science, literature, and religion are under the direction and supervision of the Minister of Education. There are six bureaux and one division in the Ministry, i.e. (1) Bureau of College Education, (2) Bureau of Common Education, (3) Bureau of Technical Education, (4) Bureau of Social Education, (5) Bureau of Books, (6) Bureau of Religions, and the Division for Investigation. (See Chapter XXVIII).

Ministry of Commerce and Industry The Minister of Commerce and Industry administers all matters concerning commerce and industry.

There are 11 bureaux in this Ministry (1) The General Bureau, (2) The Mine Bureau, (3) The Iron and Steel Bureau, (4) The Chemical Bureau, (5) The Machine Bureau, (6) The Fiber Bureau, (7) The Control Bureau, (8) The Price Bureau, (9) The Foreign Trade Bureau, (10) The Patent Bureau and (11) The Fuel Bureau, and a Promotion Division. Bureau, and a Promotion Division.

Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry The Minister of Agriculture and Forestry controls all matters concerning agriculture, forestry, marine industry, stock-breeding and the enforcement of the Rice and Cereals Law. The Ministry is divided into the following 8 bureaux:—(1) The General Bureau, (2) The Agriculture Bureau, (3) The Forestry Bureau, (4) The Fisheries Bureau, (5) The Foodstuffs Bureau, (6) The Silk Bureau, (7) The Horse Bureau, and (8) The Rice Bureau.

Ministry of Communications The Minister of Communications administers the State post, telegraph, telephone, broadcasting and beacon services, and is in charge of all matters relating to electricity, aviation, shipbuilding, and water transportation.

There are 8 bureaux and one board in the Ministry:—(1) The Postal Service Bureau, (2) The Telegraph and Telephone Service Bureau, (3) The Bureau of Engineering (4) The Bureau of Mercantile Ships, (5) The Aviation Bureau, (6) The Bureau of Accounts and Supplies, (7) The Postal Savings Bureau and (8) The Control Bureau; and the Board of Electricity.

Ministry of Railways The Minister of Railways administers all the affairs relating to the railways operated by the Government and supervises the opera-

tions of all private railway companies. The Ministry is divided into 7 bureaux and one board, namely, (1) The Supervising Bureau, (2) The Traffic Bureau, (3) The Construction Bureau, (4) The Engineering Bureau, (5) The Manufacturing Bureau, (6) The Electric Bureau, and (7) The Bureau of Finance and Purchasing, and the Board of Tourist Industry. The administrative work of the state railways is apportioned to 8 local regions: Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, Hiroshima, Moji, Niigata, Sendai and Sapporo. Each region is in charge of a director who has full powers to conduct all but the most important affairs within his jurisdiction. (See Chapter XXIV.)

Ministry of Overseas Affairs The Minister for Overseas Affairs supervises the administrative work of the Chosen Government-General, the Taiwan Government-General, the Kwantung Government, the Karafuto Government, and the Government of the South Sea Islands. He also supervises the business operations of the South Manchuria Railway Company and the Oriental Development Company. He directs all matters concerning emigration excepting those of a diplomatic nature. For the performance of these duties, the Minister is empowered to direct and supervise consuls stationed in foreign countries in consultation with the Foreign Minister. There are the following 4 offices in the Ministry; the Chosen Office, (having a special status and being always under the direction of the vice-minister), Industry Development Bureau, the Supervision Bureau, and the Exploitation Bureau.

Ministry of Welfare The Minister of Welfare administers all matters relating to the health and well-being of the people. The Ministry is divided into 5 bureaux of Physical Strength, Public Hygiene, Disease Prevention, Social Affairs and Labor, which are responsible for matters relating to national health, social welfare and labor, and the Board of Insurance which is responsible for matters relating to health, insurance, accident, relief, liability and insurance for laborers, and other systems of social insurance as well as post office life insurance and post office life annuities.

The Privy Council

The Privy Council is a consultative body to advise the Emperor on questions of grave importance. The Council is

composed of one President, one Vice-President (non-voting) and 24 Councillors. All the Councillors are officials of shinnin (highest) rank. All these members are appointed by the Emperor on the advice of the Prime Minister. Cabinet Ministers are entitled by virtue of their office to sit in the Privy Council as councillors and have the right to vote. Princes of the Blood who have attained their majority and are resident in Tokyo can sit in the Council under the same conditions.

The questions that are to be submitted to the Privy Council for deliberation cover:

(1) All matters that fall within its jurisdiction according to the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

(2) All matters concerning interpretation of the provisions of the Constitution and laws and ordinances supplementary thereto.

(3) Proclamation of Martial Law under Article 14 of the Constitution, Imperial ordinances under Article 8 and Article 70, and any other Imperial ordinance which has a disciplinary clause.

(4) Treaties and all other international pledges.

(5) All matters involving an amendment in the regulations concerning the organization and procedure of the Privy Council.

(6) Other matters inquired of the Council by the Emperor.

Though the Privy Council is thus the highest consultative organ of the Emperor in important matters of State, it has nothing to do with the actual government administration.

Ministers Outside the Cabinet

There are two important offices of a quasi-administrative character of which the holders are styled "Daljin" (Minister). These "Ministers" are not members of the Cabinet and do not change with the Government.

The Office of the Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals is generally regarded as the senior of these offices. Its holder has the duty of keeping the Imperial Seal and the Seal of State, and of supervising secretarial work in connection with Imperial Edicts and Rescripts and other documents of the Imperial Court. The other office is that of Minister of the Imperial Household (Consult the chapter on Imperial Court for fuller information as to their duties.)

The Board of Audit

The Board of Audit is provided for by Article 72 of the Constitution and is on an equal footing with the Ministers of State. It is composed of a president, three divisional chiefs and 12 inspectors, who are appointed by the Emperor on the advice of the Prime Minister, but cannot be dismissed, transferred or placed on the retired list except by effect of either a criminal or a disciplinary trial.

The function of the Board is to audit accounts of the central government and other corporate bodies, public or private, receiving government subsidies or guarantees.

The Court of Administrative Litigation

The law of 1890 which established this Court is envisaged in Article 61 of the Constitution. The Court is entirely distinct from ordinary judicial courts and its function is to decide on the validity of administrative acts. The Court is not interfered with by the Government. According to the law the Court of Administrative Litigation is to be located in Tokyo and no local court established. It is composed of a President and 11 Councillors. Its members are appointed by the Emperor on the advice of the Prime Minister and are not to be removed, suspended from office or deprived of position, without their consent. This is exactly the same as with ordinary judges (see Chapter XXVII), but the differences are that the former's position is not for life, while the latter's is and that there is no institution of the retiring age for the former.

The Court passes on cases relating to (1) the levying of taxes and fees except the customs tariff; (2) dispositions for the recovery of taxes in arrears, (3) the prohibition or suspension of business, (4) water-ways and public works, and (5) fixing the boundary between the Government and private owned lands.

An appeal is immediately taken by the Court and the decision on it is given by a majority vote of the council of more than 5. The decision is the first, and at the same time, final.

Government Officials

Civil officials are divided into four ranks according to their grade of merits, education and ability, and their salaries differ accordingly. The four ranks are:

(1) Shinnin rank, appointed by His Majesty directly, (2) Chokunin rank, appointed by His Majesty's order indirectly, (3) Sontin rank, appointed by His Majesty's approval, and (4) Hannin rank of minor officials appointed by the heads of different offices.

Number and total amount of salaries paid to civil officials of the Government in the past 10 years follow:

Year	Number	Salary
1929	134,831	¥163,745,391
1930	126,995	160,265,485
1931	134,537	160,644,249
1932	130,988	157,688,618
1933	132,987	159,579,259
1934	135,692	163,333,026
1935	142,543	170,419,940
1936	146,934	176,848,499
1937	159,877	190,768,126
1938	167,343	197,194,535

Note:—The number of the other employees was 353,693, the wages paid to them amounting to ¥192,602,172, in 1938.

The Imperial Diet

The Parliamentary system could not develop in Japan before the Meiji Restoration because politics was controlled by the Samurai class for hundreds of years. Thus, the Imperial Diet was established solely according to the pattern of Western countries. In accordance with the promise contained in the Charter Oath of the Emperor Meiji, councils or assemblies of various kinds were established at the beginning of the Meiji Era, but their members were not elected by the people and consequently they were of a different nature from the parliaments of the West. In 1881 it was promised to convoke a National Assembly within 10 years, and the Imperial Diet on Western lines was first opened in 1890.

The Diet is much limited in its power and the duration of its sessions, but in its fundamental nature it has much in common with the national assemblies of Western countries. According to Article 5 of the Constitution, the legislative power belongs to the Emperor and the Diet's function is only to give (or presumably withhold) consent to legislation proposed by the Throne. But this is a formality, and the Diet has almost the same power of legislation, including that of initiative as the parliaments of other civilized nations. At the same time, the Diet, in virtue of its being an assembly

of representatives, has been invested with the power of supervising the administrative organs, as represented by the State ministers. It is a bicameral legislature, consisting of the House of Peers and the House of Representatives, and the decisions which are harmoniously made by both Houses are the decisions of the Imperial Diet.

The House of Peers The House of Peers is composed of the Imperial Princes, Peers, and the Imperial nominees, according to the provisions of the House of Peers Ordinance. This Ordinance was promulgated at the same time as the Constitution and has been revised several times since. In 1925, important revisions were made, the number of the peerage members being lessened while that of the representatives of the wealthy people was increased, also there was an addition of the Imperial Academy. Thus the former majority of peerage members was brought to an end and their number became equal to that of members chosen by Imperial order.

According to the present House of Peers Ordinance, the House is composed of the following members:

(a) all the Imperial Princes above 20 years of age, and the Kotoishi and Kotoison, if above 18.

(b) all Princes and Marquises above 30 years of age, with the term of office for life.

(c) 18 Counts, 66 Viscounts and 66 Barons elected by the Peers of their respective ranks. They must be above 30 years of age and their term of office is 7 years.

(d) Imperial nominees from among statesmen and scholars who have made valuable contributions to politics or science. They must be above 30 years of age; their term of office is for life. Their number must not exceed 125.

(e) 4 members of the Imperial Academy, elected by the members thereof and nominated by the Emperor. Their term of office is 7 years.

(f) Members elected by and from among the highest tax-payers, in any prefecture, in direct national taxation on land, income and business profits. Each member represents 100 such high tax-payers, his age must be above 30, and his term of service is 7 years. The number of this class of members must not exceed 64.

The House of Peers, therefore, consists of 150 Counts, Viscounts, and Barons, 195 representatives of statesmen, scho-

lars and wealthy businessmen, and a certain number of Imperial Princes, Princes and Marquises, the number of the last named not being fixed for obvious reasons. The present (June 1940) total of the members of the House of Peers was 410.

The House of Representatives The House of Representatives is composed of members elected by the people in accordance with the provisions of the Electoral Law. This Law was first promulgated simultaneously with the enactment of the Constitution in 1886, and has undergone many revisions since. Important revisions were made in 1900, 1919 and 1925. The Law of 1889 required yearly payment of direct national tax of ¥15 as a qualification for both candidates and voters, and prescribed the system of small constituencies and the open ballot. In 1900, the requirement of tax payment was removed in the case of candidates and lowered to 10 yen voters. Constituencies were divided into two classes, municipal and rural, making each city an independent district and each prefecture one district; and the secret ballot was adopted. In 1919, the tax requirement was again lowered to 3 yen and the old small constituency system revived. In 1925, the male universal suffrage system was finally adopted, the division of municipal and rural districts was abolished, and a system of constituencies electing from 3 to 5 representatives each was established.

The universal suffrage of Japan is restricted as yet in comparison with that of Western countries, as to sex, age, residence and the conditions of eligibility. Women are totally ineligible and the age qualification for male voters is 25. The Electoral Law itself says nothing of the restriction on residence, but the list of voters must be made by Sept. 15 of the year previous to that of the general election and only persons who have lived a minimum period of one year in the same city, town or commune are eligible for inclusion. The Law also contains provisions for withholding the right to vote from criminals, legally disabled persons, such as bankrupts, etc., actual holders of a peerage, persons engaged in the active combative services.

Candidates must be 30 years of age otherwise their qualifications are the same as those for voters, except that of residence. The number of the members of the House of Representatives was 444, vacancies 22 on September 1, 1940.

According to the relevant articles of the Constitution, the Diet has power over all affairs of State which belong to the responsibility of the State Ministers. There is, however, a working but not complete separation of the legislative and executive powers between the Diet and the Ministers. There are certain statutory limitations of the Diet's power to control the executive. The Imperial Diet must not interfere with matters pertaining to the Imperial House. Except in regard to matters within the Diet itself, it can neither use the power of administration directly upon the people nor represent the State vis-à-vis foreign nations.

Fixed Number of Lower House Representatives and Number of Votes at Recent General Elections

Date of Election	Representatives	Voters
Mar., 1909	379	757,788
May, 1908	379	1,582,676
May, 1912	381	1,503,050
Mar., 1915	381	1,546,341
Apr., 1917	381	1,422,118
May, 1920	404	3,069,787
May, 1924	464	3,288,368
Feb., 1928	466	12,409,078
Feb., 1930	466	12,813,192
Feb., 1932	466	13,095,621
Feb., 1936	466	14,479,553
Apr., 1937	466	13,938,456
Apr., 1942	466	14,951,753

Function of the Diet The Diet has five functions, namely, constituent, legislative, financial, general supervision of the administration, and executive on matters in the Diet itself.

(1) The constituent power of the Diet is confined to deliberation on constitutional amendment initiated by the Throne. Action can only be taken by a two-thirds majority of a quorum of two-thirds of the membership of both Houses, as provided for in Article 73 of the Constitution.

(2) The Emperor exercises the legislative power with the consent of the Imperial Diet, all laws and legislative ordinances must obtain that consent. Bills may be presented by the Diet itself as well as by the Government. The right of consent of course contains the rights of amendment and rejection. This right is subject only to the condition that the Diet's action does not contravene the Constitution, the Imperial House Law, and international law. Thus the power of legislative "consent" contains within it that of initiative. Legislative

ordinances promulgated by the Emperor must be submitted to the Diet at the next session for approval or rejection but not amendment.

The legislative authority of the two Houses is equal in theory, and projects of law may be initiated in either. Naturally, therefore, no legislative enactment is complete without the consent of both Houses to all its provisions.

(3) The national budget must get the consent of the Diet. The budget is presented by the Government first to the Houses of Representatives, but consent to it must be accorded by both Houses. Article 70 of the Constitution, however, empowers the Government to take all necessary financial measures by Imperial Ordinance, and Article 71 empowers it, if the Diet has not voted on the budget or if the budget "has not been brought into actual existence," to carry out the budget of the previous year. National loans must obtain the consent of the Diet. All contracts outside the budget which involve State financial liability, disbursement of public money by the Government made without the Diet's consent between sessions must be submitted for approval at the earliest opportunity. The restrictions of the Diet's financial power, other than those mentioned above, are clearly stipulated in Article 67 of the Constitution. It is to be noted that the Budget as a project of administrative action is confined to expenditure. Revenue is determined by law, so that the Diet's control thereof comes within its general legislative competence.

(4) The responsibility of Ministers, collective or individual, to the Diet is not clearly established either in law or custom, but so far as the responsibilities of Ministers are concerned, the Diet clearly has a certain supervisory power. The Government can do what it wishes without the consent of the Diet in its administrative function, but the Houses can express independently of each other their judgement on what the Government has done. They may present written appeals to the Emperor against the actions of State Ministers. They can make proposals by resolution to the Government concerning administration. They may receive petitions from the people (the only function of the Diet to keep a direct contact with the people), and if these concern administrative matters, they are handed to the Government with the opinion thereon of the

Houses to which they were addressed. The Houses may also pass resolutions on important State matters which are not addressed to the Government directly, but which, being made public as they are, naturally have an effect on the Government's popularity if they contain adverse criticisms. In these ways the Diet subjects the Government to a limited measure of control.

The Diet has the right of investigating the conduct of the administration, although this is very narrowly limited and rarely used. The Diet has the right of making inquiries on the responsibilities of the Ministers, the right of receiving reports from the Government on the income and disbursement of the National Treasury, on the handling of petitions sent in by the people through the Houses, and on serious diplomatic questions, unless they are such as require absolute secrecy.

(5) The Houses of the Diet have the right of self-government as to the regulations of their own Houses, on the procedures of session, on the police system in the Houses. The House of Peers has also the right to be consulted by the Emperor as to the privileges of peers.

The Diet is convoked annually by the Emperor (under Article 41 of the Constitution) for a period of ordinary session of 90 days. This period may be prolonged if necessary by Imperial Order. Extraordinary session can be convened in the same way. The annual session is usually called at the end of the year, although there is no regulation to this effect in the Constitution, and continued to the end of the following March, so that the budget can be voted before the new fiscal year begins. The Emperor may give orders to open or close the Diet; or suspend the session for a certain number of days for negotiations between the Diet and the Government or the two Houses; or dissolve the House of Representatives. All these actions are taken on the advice of the Prime Minister.

Officials of the Houses Each House has a President and Vice-President. The President not only presides and keeps order during the sessions but also directs the business of the House between sessions. The manner of appointment of the officers differs in the two Houses. In the House of Peers, they are appointed by the Emperor from among its members for a term of 7 years, the House itself having nothing

to do with the appointment. In the House of Representatives, the House chooses three candidates for each of these positions and the Emperor makes the appointment from among the candidates. Their term of office is that of the life of the House.

There is an Official Bureau attached to each of the Houses, and officials such as the Chief Secretary, secretaries, stenographers, and the chief sergeant are appointed by the Government, although they act under the orders of the respective House Presidents. Several things in the Japanese parliamentary system have been copied from the British and this official bureau is one of them.

The House of Peers has five and the House of Representatives four standing committees, and special committees are appointed when the need arises. Each House may sit as a committee of the whole for which chairmen are elected at the beginning of the session. The procedure of discussions and resolutions is similar to that customary in the English-speaking countries.

Local Government

The units of local government are four: the prefecture, the city, the town, and the village.

The Prefecture Japan proper, except Hokkaido, is administratively divided into 3 urban prefectures and 43 prefectures which are administered by governors. The function of the governor is to be the highest local administrative organ of State, and, at the same time, the head of the prefecture as a unit of local self-government. He is directly controlled by the Ministers of State and takes charge of the general national administration within his prefecture. The appointment and dismissal of governors is made by the Minister for Home Affairs.

The system of prefectural government has undergone several changes and the nature of the work done is not necessarily the same in all the prefectures, but it is common, at present, to divide the duties into 4 divisions, namely, the General Affairs Division, the Economical Division, the Educational Division and the Police Division.

As a unit of local self-government the prefecture stands between the State and the municipalities. It has a prefectural assembly and a prefectural council as organs for decision, but the right of

decision of these organs is much narrower than that of the city assembly and council, while the chief executive is the governor who is officially appointed by the Central Government.

The Prefectural Assembly is elected by universal suffrage, and the number of members is fixed by law. Membership of the assembly is honorary and the term of service is four years.

The Prefectural Council is composed of 10 members elected by and from among the assemblymen. The Governor is ex-officio chairman of the council, which is in fact a standing committee of the assembly, although entrusted with certain functions of arbitration which are not specifically devolved from the larger body.

Hokkaido is not divided into prefectural districts, but is itself an administrative unit as a whole, under a governor, although it covers an area of 88,775.04 square kilometers and is thus many times as large as most of the prefectures. The Governor is controlled by the Minister of Home Affairs directly and his function and duties are mostly the same as those of a prefectural governor. The special features of his function are that he undertakes colonization work, that as there is no national forestry law applied to the district the administration of forestry is left altogether in his power, and that he has to take care of the native Ainu according to the Protection Law for the Hokkaido Natives. The Hokkaido office is divided into 6 divisions, namely, General Affairs, Education, Civil Engineering, Colonization, Police and Economy. The organization and rights of the Hokkaido Assembly and Council are almost the same as those of similar bodies in the prefectures. (On the governmental system of the Overseas Territories see Chapters XI-XLIII.)

The Municipality (City, Town, Village) On April 1, 1938 there were 146 cities, 1,711 towns and 9,524 villages in Japan proper. (A village here means an administrative unit composed of a village or villages.)

There was some measure of local self-government in old Japan. The heads of villages were chosen from among the villagers and were asked to rule over them. For some time after the Meiji Restoration, these customs were continued, although the official names of the heads of villages were changed. Moreover, towns and villages were allowed

to exercise the right of managing public affairs with their own money as financial units. But it was with the formation of prefectural assemblies according to the new laws issued in July 1878, that the local self-government of Japan began to assume a modern form. The self-government system of cities, towns and villages has been several times revised, the last revision being that of 1929.

There were formerly several restrictions on citizenship of the local communities, but according to the laws now in force every man is entitled to it in virtue of the male universal suffrage principle. The requirements of citizenship are about the same as those for the right to vote in parliamentary elections. Every male inhabitant of and over 25 years of age who has resided for a minimum period of two years in the same municipality is a citizen of the same and has the right to vote or to be elected and, at the same time, has the duty of accepting any honorary post of service to which he may be elected.

The organs of local self-government are the assemblies of the representatives and the chiefs of the municipalities. The fixed minimum number of representatives in these assemblies is 30 in the cities and 12 in the towns and villages. The cities have also councils of ten members elected by and from among the assemblymen.

The Mayor of a city is a salaried official while the corresponding posts in a town or village are honorary in principle. Mayors are elected by their respective assemblies for a term of four years. Their function and responsibilities are diverse, for they not only administer the affairs of the municipalities but also handle matters delegated to them by the central and prefectural governments and are entrusted with the supervision of some public bodies. As servants of the central government they take charge of the census register and all the business related to it, the election of the members of the House of Representatives, several kinds of national investigation, public engineering, public hygiene, relief work, educational supervision and encouragement, and certain work under the Conscription Law.

Improvements in 1942

A reorganization of the central Government has long been required in con-

sonance with the improvements and reorganizations in the economic world and other lines of the national activity. The Tojo Cabinet decided on a thoroughgoing revision in the old organization of central and local governmental offices in July 1942, and the reduction of the

fixed number of civil officials effected by the simplification of office works in different ministries and local governments was announced by the President of the Information Board on July 28 and August 11 as follows:

REDUCTION OF CIVIL OFFICIALS

	Existing Legal Number	Reduction	New Legal Number
Central Government	35,563	10,577	24,986
Local Governments	69,165	12,005	57,160
Government Factories	1,037,164	102,773	934,391
Total	1,141,892	125,355	1,016,637

The reduction of the 125,355 officials is to be completed by the end of 1942. Most of able officials thus dismissed from the governmental offices of the country have been and are going to be appointed as civil officials in the South Sea regions occupied by the Imperial Forces and where the Imperial Military Administration is established, while the remaining ones are to work one more hour in offices, receiving better pay of salary in the form of a special allowance which corresponds to 10 per cent of the usual salary.

Establishment of the "Dai Toa Shyo"
The establishment of the "Dai Toa Shyo" or Ministry for Greater East Asia was decided by the Government on September 1. The new ministry is to have under its jurisdiction all the countries and regions in the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere under the influence of the Imperial Army and Navy, and to unify administration in the Co-prosperity Sphere of political, economic and cultural matters other than diplomatic affairs. The Manchurian Bureau and

the China Affairs Board of the Cabinet, the East Asiatic Bureau and the South Seas Bureau of the Foreign Ministry, and the Ministry of Overseas Affairs have been abolished with establishment of the new Ministry for Greater East Asia on November 1, 1942, their business being taken up by the new ministry, except those matters pertaining to Chosen, Taiwan and Karafuto which were formerly under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Overseas Affairs and have come under the direct supervision of the Home Ministry.

Change of Cabinet Ministers In connection with the setting up of the Ministry for Greater East Asia, there was a little reshuffle in the Cabinet personnel. Masayuki Tani, President of the Board of Information, in addition to the same post, was appointed Minister for Foreign Affairs to fill the vacancy created by the resignation of Shigenori Togo. At the same time Kazuo Aoki, highest economic adviser to the National Government of China at Nanking, was appointed Minister for Greater East Asia.

CHAPTER V

PARTIES AND POLITICS

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A Brief Survey of Politics During 1881-1935

Japan's modern political life fairly started with the promulgation of the Constitution on February 11, 1889, and the opening of the Diet on November 25, 1890, in accordance with the Imperial Edict for opening the national assembly within ten years which had been issued on October 12, 1881.

Party Formation Upon the issuance of the Imperial Edict parties began to be formed with a view to be prepared for the opening of the Diet. On October 18, 1881, the colleagues and comrades of Tatsuké Itagaki drafted the rules of the new Jiyu-to Party and elected Itagaki President and N. Nakajima Vice-President at a preparatory meeting which was held at Asakusa, Tokyo. The governing principle of this party was that of Rousseau's social contract.

The next great party to be organized was the Kaishin-to. It came into being in March 1882, with Shigenobu Okuma as President. The leading thought of this party was English liberalism, and it aimed at a healthy, mild policy with the educated class of people as its central constituency. It was, therefore, natural that the Kaishin-to won the sympathy of the intelligentsia of the cities, while the Jiyu-to got a hold on the people in the country districts, where the inhabitants were peasants who sympathized with more radical political thought because of their long sufferings under the feudal governments. Many parties were born contemporaneously. Besides the Kaishin-to and the Jiyu-to, 40 other parties, mostly local, were said to have been formed.

The first Ito Cabinet, which was organized in 1885 was not, of course, connected with any political party.¹

The First Election The Jiyu-to was once dissolved into smaller groups, and

¹ For the political movement before the issuance of the Imperial Edict see the Japan Year Book, 1933.

the first general election was carried out on July 1, 1890, amid a general confusion of political parties. Its result so far as the political parties were concerned was as follows:

Daigo Club 55, Kaishin-to 46, Patriotic Public Party 35, Conservative Party 22, Kyushu Association 21, Jiyu-to 17, Jichi-to 17, Officials 18, neutrals 69, independents 2.

The House of Peers consisted of 252 members, classification being as follows: 10 Imperial Princes, 10 Princes, 21 Marquises, 15 Counts, 70 Viscounts, 20 Barons, 45 High-Tax-Payers, and 61 "Chokusen," i. e. those nominated by Imperial order.

The number of voters was 450,365 in all Japan of which abstention was but 6.1 per cent. Franchise was given only to those who paid national tax of more than ¥15 a year. Of the 300 members elected, 109, or one-third, was of the samurai class. The number of anti-government members in the Lower House far exceeded that of the pro-government, and the bureaucratic Yamagata Cabinet feared for its very existence. Hostilities between the two started with the choice of the President of the House of Representatives and continued over the first budget subjected to the discussion of the House. The budget amounting to ¥83,075,000 was cut down to ¥75,194,300, or about 9% reduction. But the first session of the Imperial Diet was closed in March 1891, without dissolution.

The Matsukata Cabinet was formed in May of the same year; its head was as strong a foe to political parties as Yamagata, if not more so. Then there occurred, on May 11, 1891, the attack of a murderous fanatic on the Crown Prince of Russia at Otsu near Lake Biwa and a great earthquake wrought fearful destruction in Gifu and Aichi prefectures; the Government was unable to cope with these emergencies while it was discredited in its policy against the parties.

Matsukata Cabinet Falls The second session of the Imperial Diet was con-

voked on Nov. 21, 1891, in a menacing atmosphere from the outset, and was finally dissolved on Dec. 25. The general election of Feb. 15, 1892, was carried out under extreme interference of the Government. Shinagawa, Minister of Home Affairs, ruled the local governors with an iron hand and used every measure for obtaining as many pro-governmental members as possible, the freedom of the vote being completely trodden underfoot. It was reported that 25 persons were killed and 388 were injured in this savage struggle. The result was, however, the victory of the anti-governmental party men, who numbered 163 against 137 of the pro-governmental. The unconstitutional policy of the Home Minister provoked the indignation of the people and Ito, President of the Privy Council, and compelled the Cabinet to change the Home Minister, and caused a discord among Cabinet members. The House of Representatives passed a vote of non-confidence in the third session, although the stubborn Matsukata Cabinet clung to its position in defiance of it.

But the Cabinet fell to pieces from within, right after the third session of the Diet, and the second Ito Cabinet was formed in August 1892. It was Ito who drafted the Constitution and stood aloof from the political parties, although he later became the President of the Jiyu-to or the Liberal Party himself. And the Ito Cabinet cleverly managed the fourth session of the Diet which threatened a collision between the Cabinet and the Diet over the question of the Budget. But the Cabinet was taken to task by the Diet over the misbehavior of some Ministers and the fifth session was dissolved without any reason given on Jan. 30, 1894. At the third general election which occurred on March 1, 1894, the Ito Cabinet took a very fair attitude because Ito was always anxious to be or at least to seem constitutional. Its outcome was again disadvantageous to the Government, and the sixth session, which was convoked on May 12, 1894 was dissolved on June 2 because of the non-confidence resolution on the last dissolution and the diplomatic inability of the Government. It may be remarked here that Tsuyoshi Inukai, the late Premier, appeared on the surface of the political world for the first time at this session. He was a member of the Lower House from the beginning and had organized a

progressive party of his own a little before this, but his motion of wholesale non-confidence was the first occasion that his earnestness and sincerity for the maintenance of parliamentary authority began to show itself.

The Sino-Japanese War The interval between the sixth and seventh sessions was but half a year, yet it was marked by many important political and diplomatic affairs. The Sino-Japanese War, 1894-1895, broke out in July 1894. The general election was carried out on September 1 of the same year. The seventh session had been expected to witness a repeated collision of the Diet and the Government, but the first international war drew all the attention of the people and the session closed peacefully after lasting but four days instead of a week as fixed, on the 22nd of October 1894, at Hiroshima, where the Emperor was staying during the war to command the Imperial Army and Navy. All parties were united for the national cause and supported the Government with one accord, and the military emergency budget amounting to ¥150,000,000 was immediately passed without any reduction. All the political conflicts at home were stilled in the face of the international war and the eighth session convoked on Dec. 22, 1894, was quietly carried out. The peace treaty with China was sanctioned on March 20, 1895. But the interference of the Three Powers on the lease of the Liaotung Peninsula aroused indignation throughout Japan, and this feeling soon centered in an attack on the Government.

A Political Bloc The Kaishin-to, Kakushin-to, People's Association, Chugoku Progressive Party, Financial Kakushin-to and Ohté Club were united in criticizing the Government's weak diplomacy, and formed a union called the Central Representative Club. The Liberal Party did not join the Club, because it had come to some understanding with the Government, and had a special connection with Ito, who gradually had drawn nearer to this political party. Just before the 9th session the Liberal Party took off its mask and openly declared its coalition with the Ito Cabinet. This was the first instance of a political party being publicly united with the Government.

The Progressive Party Ito's policy was a success and the 9th session end-

ed in the victory of the Government by the faithful support of the Liberal Party. The defeated parties recognized the need of a stronger union and on March 1, 1896, the Kaishin-to, Kakushin-to and three other bodies dissolved themselves and organized the Shimpoto or Progressive Party under Okuma.

Since then the Liberal Party and the Progressive Party, as the two greatest political parties in the country, became rivals. The members of the Lower House, by party grouping, were as follows at the end of March: the Liberal Party 110, the Progressive Party 100, People's Association 32, Yamaguchi Group 5, Kishu Group 4, unaffiliated 49.

Itagaki Joins Ito After the 9th session, Itagaki of the Liberal Party entered the Ito Cabinet and took the post of Home Minister. The Ito Cabinet was in power three full years and managed numerous political matters of importance but it collapsed in August 1896, mainly because of the difficulty of making the Budget meet the post-war financial need. The Matsukata Cabinet which came next was a coalition of Matsukata's Satsuma clan and Okuma's Progressive Party, for these two elements were most fitted to manage the financial difficulty of the country. This cabinet took a very progressive policy in removing long existing political evils and financial defects and its activity was welcomed with much expectation. But the Liberal Party, now in opposition, was ready to make attacks against its political enemy. The tenth session which was convoked on Dec. 25, 1896, passed off with little trouble for the Government, although the Liberal Party attacked it on the score of its foreign diplomacy. It is to the credit of the Matsukata Cabinet that it established the gold standard of national currency.

Exit Okuma Okuma, Foreign Minister, resigned in November 1897, and the relation between the Cabinet and his party was severed. Matsukata now endeavored to get the support of the Liberal Party but in vain, and the Cabinet faced the 11th session of the Diet without any assistance from political parties. A non-confidence resolution was proposed by 38 members in the session and seconded by 150. On Dec. 25, 1897, the Lower House was suddenly dissolved, but the Cabinet itself resigned in miserable defeat. Ito was

ordered to form a cabinet for the third time, and it was again a transcendental one. The 12th session was begun on May 14, 1898. The Government proposed an increase of taxes on land, saké, and incomes, but was defeated by an absolute majority of 247, and the House was dissolved in revenge. This action of the Government, however, greatly stimulated the development of anti-governmental parties and brought about an extraordinary political phenomenon. It was but a faint herald of the dawn of party government, but it gave a real shock for the first time to the foundations of the clan and bureaucratic forces in Japanese politics. Both the Liberals and the Progressives had had a very hard time in the past to wage war against clan statesmen and bureaucracy, but in most cases they had been treated by the latter like mere instruments for accomplishing their own purposes. Now they came to their senses and saw that their real foes were these same clansmen and bureaucrats who monopolized the government, and that their first aim must be to destroy them. On June 21, 1898, both parties held final meetings simultaneously and dissolved themselves, and on the 22nd they all met at the Shintomi Theater, Tsukiji, Tokyo, and amalgamated themselves into a new party, the Kenseikai, or Constitutional Party, to put an end to bureaucratic government and to establish a party government.

The Kenseikai and Ito All the elder statesmen, clan and bureaucratic bodies were alarmed in the extreme by this organization of the Constitutional Party. A meeting was called before the Emperor on the 24th and a hot discussion on counter measures against the power of the party was continued for several hours. Ito asserted that there were but three ways for him to meet the situation: either to form a governmental party himself to carry on the government, or to resign first and form a party to support the Government from outside, or lastly to surrender altogether before the Constitutional Party and let them organize a cabinet with Okuma and Itagaki at their head. Yamagata of the Nagato or Choshu clan was firmly opposed to this proposal. On June 27, 1898, however, Okuma and Itagaki were finally called to the Imperial Court and ordered to form a cabinet. A coalition cabinet was thus formed on the 30th of

that month, all the posts except those of Navy and Army Ministers being filled by party men.

It was, however, a combination of antagonistic forces for convenience sake, and the partisans soon began to quarrel among themselves, so that the Constitutional Party, which tried to advance too quickly, soon split up again into the former Liberal and Progressive Parties, largely by the tactics of Toru Hoshi, who played an influential part in politics as a member of the Liberal Party, and was assassinated later in a room of the Tokyo City Hall. So the first party cabinet was compelled to dissolve without meeting a session of the Diet on Oct. 31, 1898, within four months of its formation.

Yamagata Returns Now came the turn of bureaucracy again, under Yamagata of the Nagato or Choshu clan (these two Japanese words indicate the same Nagato province at the south-western end of the Main Island), in November 1898. Yamagata had had bitter experience with political parties and this time he succeeded in getting the support of the Liberal Party (which called itself *Kenseito* as yet) and handled the 13th session of the Diet as he wished, many important revisions of the national laws being made, and the military preparations being enlarged by raising the taxes on many important items.

It was during the life of this cabinet that the new treaties which had been concluded with foreign nations at the time of the former Ito Cabinet were put into force, and Japan came to stand on an equal footing with the other civilized countries of the world politically and diplomatically. This was on July 17, 1899. The Yamagata Cabinet accomplished great feats in the administration of complicated and extensive political affairs after the Sino-Japanese War, and laid the foundations for the future development of Japan. But as a representative of the old bureaucracy, a survivor of the discarded clan officials, he left many bureaucratic traces in the law and the governmental system by establishing the rule that the posts of Army and Navy Ministers can be held only by officers on the active list, and by enlarging the power of the Privy Council which hindered the healthy development of political parties in later days.

Satisfied with his own performance

in the enlargement of military preparations, completion of laws and institutions in general, revision of the election law, improvement of local governments, and advancement in the educational system and institutions, Yamagata tendered his resignation to the Throne in September 1900.

Ito Forms the Seiyukai A little before that, Ito returned from his tour of China and wanted to organize a powerful political party himself, and the Liberal Party was anxious to get him to revive its power after its separation from the Yamagata Cabinet. The party wished to put Ito at its head, while Ito wanted to organize a party purely of his own without the help of any existing party. But the general trend of political affairs at this time finally compelled these two to become united into one, and the Liberal Party was renewed by Ito, assuming a new name, *Rikken Seiyukai*, or Constitutional Party, on Sept. 15, 1900. On Oct. 9, 1900, Ito formed a cabinet for the fourth time, and it was welcomed by the party men and the people at large, but the reactionary movement of the House of Peers shortened its life, and Ito never again had an opportunity for organizing a cabinet, although he had much to do yet for national politics, especially in the field of Korean affairs.

The Katsura Cabinet On June 2, 1901, General Katsura formed his cabinet upon the basis of bureaucracy again. Katsura and the members of his Cabinet were rather young compared with those of the preceding cabinets, and the Elder Statesmen were anxious about their ability, but Katsura was quick to see the unrest in the *Seiyukai* and immediately took steps to control it for the convenience of the Government. In this he succeeded fairly well, and the 16th session of the Diet passed off in peace, at the beginning of the year 1902, winning, at the same time, the conclusion of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance on Feb. 12, 1902. The 7th general election was held on Aug. 10, 1902, in which the number of the Lower House members was enlarged from 300 to 376, and as the result the *Seiyukai* gained 189 seats, the *Kensei-honto* (Progressive Party) 104, the Empire Party 18, the *San-shi Club* 7, and Independents 58. As is always the case with a bureaucratic cabinet, even this clever and skilled tactician met with strong opposition from the

Elder Statesmen and the two great parties over the problem of raising funds for naval expansion by increasing the land tax, and the 17th session was dissolved because of a direct collision between the Lower House and the Katsura Cabinet. It did not end in the victory of the Government, but Katsura again made a painstaking effort to utilize parties, and found a way out in the 18th session by changing his policy from raising the land tax to floating a public loan to obtain the necessary means for the proposed naval extension.

Salonji Succeeded Ito The Katsura Cabinet had been in power over two years already and the general atmosphere suggested a change when the threatening state of affairs in Manchuria was further complicated by the aggressive policy of the Russian Government. Katsura was ordered to stay at his post although he tendered his resignation, largely because of the pressure of Ito, who was a *Genro* (see Chapter IV, Government, for the meaning of "Genro") and the head of the *Seiyukai* at the same time. According to the advice of Yamagata and Matsukata, who were also *Genro*, Ito and Salonji exchanged positions and President Ito of the *Seiyukai* was appointed President of the Privy Council; while Salonji, President of the Council, succeeded Ito as President of the *Seiyukai*.

Salonji was a progressive statesman, and it was his earnest desire to see a pure party cabinet come into existence. He had been many times suggested as Premier but had always refused, as he considered it unreasonable and bureaucratic to form a cabinet with no backing in the House of Representatives, so he gladly accepted this proposal of the *Seiyukai* and made great efforts for the revival of the party, which had shrunk to 120 from its absolute majority of 193 at the beginning of the 18th session largely because of long inner disturbances.

At the same time, the rival party *Kensei-honto* was also experiencing the same kind of internal troubles because of Katsura's despotic policy for reducing the power of all parties, and it was natural that the two parties should unite to impeach the Katsura Cabinet. The 19th session was convoked at the end of 1903, with Kono as President of the House of Representatives and Iyesato Tokugawa, that of the House of Peers.

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War with Russia War was declared against Russia on Feb. 10, 1904. The emergency session of the Diet was convoked on March 18 and the regular one on Dec. 28 of the same year, and in the latter the Diet unanimously passed a budget of ordinary expenses ¥110,000,000 and war disbursement ¥780,000,000. The famous victories at Port Arthur, Mukden and the Japan Sea finally brought peace, and by the mediation of President Roosevelt the peace treaty was concluded between Japan and Russia on Sept. 5, 1905. On the same day riots broke out in Tokyo and other big cities because of the general dissatisfaction with the terms of the peace treaty, and Tokyo was put under martial law. Ito, President of the Privy Council, went to Korea by Imperial Order in November and that country was made a protectorate of Japan, Ito becoming the first Resident-General, while Komura, who returned from Portsmouth, immediately went to Peking and concluded treaties with China on Japanese rights and privileges to settle the problems arising from the peace treaty.

The Salonji Cabinet The Katsura Cabinet remained in power as long as 4 years and 7 months and accomplished several important enterprises, but taking the responsibility for the riots and for a disturbance in the Tokyo Imperial University, which also occurred in connection with the conclusion of the Peace Treaty, resigned in January 1906, and Salonji was ordered to form a cabinet but failed to organize one of pure party-government because of the great power of bureaucracy behind the national politics. The most important measure in the 22nd session of the Diet was that for the State ownership of all railways. With great difficulty it was passed with an amendment by the House of Peers. The peace-loving Salonji strove for the civilization of Manchuria, transforming the military rule into civil administration. It was as an expression of this policy that the South Manchuria Railway Company was established in this year.

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The Salonji Cabinet continued for two-and-half years fighting against the forces of bureaucracy, and the Seiyukai obtained an absolute majority of 190 at the 10th election, May 1908. But Salonji left his position a little after the election partly because of his illness and partly owing to the stubborn pressure of the bureaucrats, who were specially critical of his liberal policy toward the socialists, who had gradually increased in number since the Sino-Japanese War.

The Second Katsura Cabinet The second Katsura Cabinet which was formed on July 14, 1908, was of course bureaucratic. One notable event of the 10th election was the appearance of representatives of business men in the Lower House, prophetic of the rise of the business class who now rode on the universal tide of capitalism. Katsura saw the change of the times and allied himself with business men to realize his policy for a readjustment of the taxation system and consolidation of the public loan. But the Seiyukai having no less than 193 seats in the Lower House at the 25th session, Katsura could do nothing without their agreement. With his usual tactics he came to a full understanding with them and the 25th and 26th sessions passed off very quietly.

Then Kensei-honto kept only 65 seats in the Lower House and internal discord caused it to dwindle further. But stimulated by the increase of the Seiyukai, it united with other forces on March 13, 1910, and merged itself into a new party named the Rikken Koku-min to or Constitutional Nationalist Party. This new party had 92 members in the Lower House and was led by Iwakai and Oishi.

During the three years' régime of the second Katsura Cabinet the outstanding events were the first general arrest of socialists and the annexation of Korea. The latter was hastened by the assassination of Ito by a Korean at Harbin station on Oct. 20, 1909. Terauchi, Minister of Army, was appointed to the additional post of Resident-General of Korea in May 1910, and on Aug. 29 of the same year Korea was at last annexed to Japan.

Army Division Increase Question Salonji became Premier for the second time on Aug. 30, 1911. His Cabinet was supported by 214 Seiyukai members in the House of Representatives and this

time he could form it without much regard for bureaucracy, although he could not yet wholly get rid of its interference, both open and secret. While he was in power, the Emperor Meiji passed away amid the sorrow and lamentation of the people on July 30, 1912, and the Emperor Taisho came to the Throne. After this national event, bureaucratic forces began to work again and caused General Uehara, Minister of Army, to propose an increase of two Army divisions. Uehara resigned his position independently because of the rejection of his proposal by the Cabinet. Salonji asked Yamagata to recommend his successor, but this Elder Statesman, who had himself established the military minister system for military and naval departments, and was the leader of the bureaucratic and military forces, rejected Salonji's request, and the Cabinet collapsed at once.

But this plot of the dark forces stirred up the party men to the extreme, and loud cries arose for the destruction of bureaucracy and protection of constitutional government, when Katsura appeared for the third time to form his bureaucratic government. Katsura tried every means to still the general antagonism, but in vain. Inukai, Ohoka and other influential party men led the national movement with the backing of public opinion for putting an end to bureaucracy, and the situation became so critical that to push Katsura's policy further meant something like the outbreak of a civil war, consequently he was compelled to resign after but 53 days. This was an epoch-making event in the political history of Japan and real party-government was now at hand although Katsura was succeeded by Yamamoto, who was one of the foremost navy men at that time.

Yamamoto to Okuma The defeated Katsura sadly realized the power of parties and organized the Rikken Doshikai or Constitutional Comrades Party after his resignation, and the 31st session of the Diet was held at the beginning of 1914, with the classification of members of the Lower House as follows:

Seiyukai	203	Chuseikai	37
Doshikai	93	Independents	7
Kokuminto	40		

The Yamamoto Cabinet was supported by the Seiyukai and had no doubt about passing the Navy Increase Bill,

but the unexpected exposure of bribery in high naval circles, the so-called "Commission Scandal," caused the overthrow of the Government at the end of March 1914. The council of Genro had difficulty in choosing the person to be recommended for the Premiership and after considering several candidates Okuma was finally ordered to form a cabinet.

About 15 years had passed since Okuma left his party, the Kenseito, and when he once more took the position of Premier the public welcomed him with sympathy and he responded to the public goodwill by reducing the power of navy men in politics with the support of the Doshikai which contained many former members of the old Kenseito. It was during his premiership that Japan entered the World War on Aug. 23, 1914.

It was the Seiyukai's turn to tread the thorny path of opposition. President Salonji had left it in 1913, and Hara had been its practical leader since then, and the number of members was declining when the question of election of the President arose. Opinions were divided and many a member wanted to call Salonji back, but he was too unselfish to accept the proposal and earnestly recommended Hara to be the new President of the Seiyukai.

The new President Hara was a plain untitled man, but a man of rare ability, and the Seiyukai renewed its strength under his leadership.

Okuma's Sweep The 35th session was dissolved because of the rejection of the Army Division Increase Bill by the Seiyukai and the Nationalist Party. The general election of March 1914, ended in victory for the pro-government parties, largely because of the aggressive interference of Oura, the Home Minister, the backing of a business clan and the sympathetic campaign conducted by the faculty and students of Waseda University, which had been founded by Okuma. The Doshikai gained 150 seats in the House of Representatives against 104 of the Seiyukai, which was reduced to half its former number. But the latter stubbornly attacked the Government on Oura's interference with the election and other matters, and compelled Oura to leave the Cabinet by bringing a public suit against him. Okuma once tendered his resignation to the Throne in relation to this matter, but was asked to stay at his post and re-

organize the Cabinet on July 30, 1915, thereby prolonging its existence for three months.

The Rice Riots At this time the Kenseikai was organized under Takaakira (Komei) Kato by the combination of the Doshikai Party, the Koyu Club, and the Chuseikai on Oct. 10, 1915, in the expectation of organizing the next cabinet. But Masataké (Seiki) Terauchi was recommended instead, and he again formed a transcendental government, a sort of off-shoot of the old Choshu clan; he soon met with a vote of non-confidence by the Lower House, and the 28th session was instantly dissolved. After the general election the Terauchi Cabinet got the support of the Seiyukai and the Nationalist Party and managed to get through the 39th and 40th sessions without damage to the Government. But the general cost of living shot up to unreasonable heights owing to the vast increase of capitalistic business during the World War, and the artificial rise in the price of rice caused nationwide rice riots in August 1918, which shook the foundation of the Cabinet, so that Terauchi was forced to resign on Sept. 21.

Among the five Genro, Inoue and Oyama, who had been the commander of armies at the time of the Russo-Japanese War, had died, and Yamagata, Matsukata and Salonji were the only ones now left, and they chose Salonji, the youngest, to be the next Premier. The Emperor requested Salonji to form a cabinet, but he was clever enough to see the progress of democracy among the people and courteously declined the Imperial appointment and recommended Hara instead. Yamagata finally yielded and gave his consent to this decision, but asked Hara to form a coalition cabinet of the Seiyukai and the bureaucrats.

The First Party Cabinet Hara rejected his suggestion and for the first time in Japanese party history a cabinet was organized by party men only, except for two or three ministers who were mostly pro-Seiyukai.

As was mentioned above, the political parties of Japan were originated by the statesmen of the samurai class and had much of the bureaucratic element in themselves, and the clan statesmen had the confidence of the Imperial Court and wielded real power in general politics as a matter of fact, re-

ardless of the public opinion represented and expressed by the political parties or through the press. Up to the first half of the Taisho Era the political parties could not make much progress as independent bodies, and were almost always made use of by the clan statesmen or military leaders, not having enough power of their own to form a party cabinet, but allowing themselves to become tools of bureaucracy even when the head of the party himself organized a cabinet. But the remarkable development of capitalism and the rapid progress of democratic thought among the people at the time of the World War and afterwards caused a decline in the power of the bureaucrats. The coming of Hara, President of the Seiyukai, who was a commoner, into power gave almost the last blow to the old bureaucracy, which gradually faded away by the beginning of the Showa Era.

Hara's Policy The policy of the Hara Cabinet was, in outline, the completion of national defence, the improvement of the educational system, the promotion of trade and the adjustment of traffic organs. The establishment of the jury system, the improvement and enlargement of the higher educational organs, and the revision of the Election Law must be counted to the credit of this Cabinet. Hara showed his democratic spirit in revising the military governmental system of Taiwan and Chosen so that a civil official might become the Governor-General of a colony. The 41st session passed without much disturbance. But the Seiyukai had not yet an absolute majority and when the anti-cabinet parties proposed the bill of universal suffrage at the following session, Hara took advantage of it and dissolved the Lower House to get his much-wanted majority. The result of the general election held on May 10, 1920, was as follows:

Seiyukai	279	Kokuminto	20
Kenseikai	108	Neutrals	48

Hara was able to do as he pleased, for he again had the support of the great Seiyukai, and pushing aside all opposition from his political foes he was advancing brilliantly toward the completion of the said policies when he fell a victim to the dagger of a young assassin at Tokyo Station on Nov. 4, 1921. He was succeeded as President of the Seiyukai by Korekiyo Takahashi,

who organized his Cabinet after the incident, but it was short-lived and was compelled to resign within 6 months. The Seiyukai had troubles among themselves, while the other great party, the Kenseikai, was rather weak so that bureaucratic cabinets were organized one after another for about three years. When Count Kiyoura formed his bureaucratic Cabinet in Jan. 1924, the Seiyukai was divided into two on the question of supporting or not supporting the new cabinet, and the majority of its members who were pro-cabinet seceded from the Seiyukai and organized the Seiyuhonto under the leadership of Yamamoto, Motoda, Nakahashi and Tokonami.

The General Election of 1924 The Kiyoura Cabinet dissolved the 48th session of the Imperial Diet and at the general election which was held in May 1924, the opposition parties, namely, the Kenseikai and the Kakushin Club stood up against the Government rallying their forces in defense of parliamentarism, and under Premier Kato who was the head of the then largest party, the Kenseikai, a coalition cabinet of the three parties was realized. This was a death-blow to the bureaucracy of Japan; the clan chieftains and bureaucrats entirely lost their power as a political class and the bourgeois parties completely took their place, the final blow being the passing of the Universal Suffrage Law at the 50th session of the Diet.

Universal Suffrage The 50th session of the Diet was convoked on Dec. 25, 1924, and it became a memorable one by passing the Universal Suffrage Bill. The demand for universal suffrage had a long history, but it seemed impossible to realize it as long as bureaucracy had its iron grip on all such questions. But the time had come for the mass of the people to voice their convictions on politics with freedom. This time the Government itself drafted the bill and it was first subjected to the examination of the Privy Council. The conservative Council advised revisions and the Government sent to the House of Representatives which passed the original bill of the Government and sent it to the House of Peers. The latter House could not directly oppose it, but passed it with amendments on weighty points pretty nearly to the same degree as those of the Privy Coun-

cil. The consultations between the two Houses were repeated, and the Universal Suffrage Bill was at last passed, to come into force on May 5, 1925. The antagonistic attitude of the House of Peers toward universal suffrage resulted in a revision of the House of Peers Law to the effect that the number of Kazoku or noblemen among its members was decreased.

Side by side with the accession of the bourgeois parties to power, there broke out many political movements of radicals and proletarians in the form of political parties. Radicals among the existing parties organized their own party, the Kakushin Club, mentioned above, in Nov. 1922, by the combination of the group of Ozaki, Shimada and their comrades who had left the Kenseikai, with the Nationalist Party which was led by Inukai, and one other group. But in May 1925, it broke up, and Inukai and his colleagues joined the Seiyukai. Later the Kakushin Club dwindled into a very small party, although it played an important part in the doings of the Imperial Diet.

There was another movement organized by businessmen under the leadership of Sanji Muto in April 1923, but this party was unable to get much sympathy from the general public.

Tanaka to Hamaguchi Viscount Takahashi resigned the Presidency of the Seiyukai and General Baron Tanaka was called to succeed him in April 1925. This change broke up the unity of the Coalition Cabinet of the three parties mentioned above, and it was forced to give up office. It was followed by a Kenseikai Cabinet under Premier Kato in August of the same year. The Premier fell ill and died, and Wakatsuki, the new President of the Kenseikai was ordered to form a cabinet in January 1926. Tokonami, who led the Seiyuhonto, took a very ambiguous attitude toward the other parties, but finally joined Wakatsuki and the two parties became one on June 1, 1927, assuming the new name of Minseitō. Of this new party Hamaguchi became President while Wakatsuki and Tokonami were made advisers.

On the other hand, the Seiyukai began to rally its power gradually under the leadership of Tanaka, inviting Inukai and his comrades and a part of the Seiyuhonto to join them and after the collapse of the Wakatsuki Cabinet in

April 1927, the Tanaka Cabinet came into being. But unsatisfied with the result of the first general election by universal suffrage in 1928, they tried to collect as many members as possible from among the neutrals and the Minseitō. At the same time, Tokonami, who had lost hope of becoming the head of the new Minseitō Party, seceded from it in August of the same year, and afterward, when the Hamaguchi Cabinet was formed in July 1929, he went back to his old home, the Seiyukai.

In July 1929, Hamaguchi organized the Minseitō Cabinet and his party won an absolute majority in the House of Representatives as the result of the second universal suffrage election in the following year. But on Nov. 14, 1930, Hamaguchi was shot at Tokyo Station, and although he lived another year his wound finally proved fatal and hard times again visited the Minseitō. Wakatsuki became its President again and formed a Cabinet in April 1931.

With retrenchment as its warcry, the Wakatsuki Cabinet carried out a general reduction of the salaries of officials and tried to make readjustment in the administrative, financial and tax systems, but without success. The Manchurian Incident of Sept. 18, 1931, occurred near Mukden.

The budget for the fiscal year 1931-1932 could not be made out without floating a national loan or increasing the taxes, which would of course be most unwelcome to the people. Rowdiness and riotous struggles in the House of Representatives at the 59th session which was held at the beginning of 1931, greatly lowered the standing of the House in the eyes of the people and the inability of the Imperial Diet to take any decided course of action after the Manchurian Incident brought parliamentary government into discredit with the nation, and this state of affairs much affected the stability of the Wakatsuki Cabinet. In October 1931, Wakatsuki expressed his wish to resign, and there arose discussions on the wisdom of forming a new cabinet which might combine the forces of the Minseitō and Seiyukai. But opinion was divided, and in the end the Wakatsuki Cabinet was forced to resign on December 11.

Inukai and the Embargo Inukai, who became President of the Seiyukai in 1929 after the death of Tanaka, publicly announced his idea of reimposing the

gold embargo at the general meeting of his party on November 10, and the resignation of the Wakatsuki Cabinet, which came immediately after it, therefore, suggested the possibility of something serious taking place with the choice of the succeeding government. Saionji, the Genro, laid the nomination of Inukai to the Premiership before the Throne, and on December 13, 1931, the single Seiyukai Cabinet came into power.

The Inukai Cabinet proclaimed the reimposition of the gold ban on the day following its installation, as had been expected. This Cabinet had a minority in the Lower House, so they intended to dissolve the Diet at the coming session when suitable occasion arose, to seek for an expression of national confidence at the general election, and hastened to make preparations for it. Hardly had a week passed before it changed most of the local governors to those who were favorable to the Seiyukai, because these officials had direct influence over the general election. The new Cabinet assumed the post but two weeks before the 60th session of the Diet and had no time for planning a budget of its own, which made it necessary for it to borrow that of the Wakatsuki Cabinet. It was, nevertheless, presented to the Diet with some changes or revisions, but it failed to be passed because of the dissolution of the Diet on January 21, 1932.

Previous to this, an unexpected event endangered the life of the Cabinet. It was nothing less than a bomb thrown at the Emperor's procession near the Sakurada Gate of the Palace Grounds and before the headquarters of the Metropolitan Police. The Emperor and an Imperial Prince narrowly escaped injury. This act of "lèse majesté" compelled the cabinet to resign, but the Emperor did not ask them to assume responsibility, and encouraged them to continue in office, and Inukai and other members of the Cabinet pledged their patriotism and loyalty to the Throne, in spite of public opinion which was rather against their holding on to the reins of power.

The Seiyukai's Victory The general election of Feb. 20 was carried out amidst the apparent apathy of the people because their attention was absorbed by the Manchurian problem and the events in Shanghai which seemed to be impelling the nation toward interna-

tional discord, with war as a final outcome. But the result was that the Seiyukai, the government party, piled up the grand majority of 304 while the Minseitō dwindled to 146.

The Seiyukai Cabinet, which had gained the absolute majority in the House of Representatives, was to call an extraordinary session of the Diet in March to decide upon the emergency military expenses.

The May 15 Affair In the meantime, the new State of Manchoukuo was born and the activities of international diplomacy helped to solve the complications in Shanghai, warfare there being terminated by mutual agreement. But Japan's international relations became strained and the world's attitude toward Japan became increasingly unfavorable, which reacted badly on the Inukai Government. The financial condition held out little hope for the business world, and the Government was unable to make any positive plans for the present and future of the public welfare. On the other hand, the general social and political unrest, and the discredit brought on parliamentary government helped the rapid growth of national socialistic thought in the minds of the people, and the organization of various Fascist associations among the hot-heads, both young and old. The repeated assassinations disturbed the public mind to the last extreme, and alarming rumors spread from the metropolis to the remotest parts of the Empire. The veteran statesman Inukai, the Premier, was eager to protect parliamentarism by making a thorough improvement of the political parties and realizing an even distribution of political benefits among the people in general instead of a partial accumulation of it in the hands of privileged classes. But the younger elements of the nation were too hasty-tempered to place reliance in his words and idealism, and on the evening of May 15, 1932, a dozen young cadets and officers of the Imperial Army and Navy armed with pistols broke into his official residence at Nagata-cho, Tokyo, and finding him in his Japanese sitting room fired at him and the Premier fell. At the same time another band of young farmers attacked the transformer stations in the suburbs with intent to throw the city into darkness, but they were caught before they could carry out

their plans.

The Saionji Cabinet Consequently the Cabinet, having lost its head, immediately tendered its resignation to the Throne. Saionji recommended Viscount Saionji to the Throne after a thorough consultation with such experienced statesmen as might well be called vice-Genro. The Saionji Cabinet was composed of five bureaucrats, three representatives of the House of Peers, three Seiyukai members, and two Minseitō members, so that it was called a "National Cabinet."

At its second extraordinary session in 1932, the Imperial Diet passed the most important resolutions on the relief of the financial hardship of farmers and the recognition of the new state Manchoukuo. The latter was carried out in spite of obstacles, visible or otherwise, and to carry out the former decision a vast amount of money was needed in order to give substantial aid to the hard-stricken farmers, with their debt of ¥4,000,000,000.

The 64th Session of the Diet The 64th session of the Imperial Diet was convened on Dec. 24, 1932, with the following line-up in the Houses:

House of Peers:

(Number of members, 402, vacancies 4)	
Imperial Princes	18
Kenkyukai	148
Koseikai	69
Dowakai	41
Kōyū Club	40
Kayukai	34
Doseikai	15
Independents	37

House of Representatives:

(Number of members, 450, vacancies 7)	
Seiyukai	294
Minseitō	110
Kokumin-Domei	32
Proletarian Parties, etc.	14

This session closed on March 25, 1933. It was a peaceful or rather monotonous one, and passed the budget of over ¥2,300,000,000 without a single cut, and 51 of the 53 bills proposed by the Government and 7 of the 97 bills proposed by the members of the Diet. Among those passed, there were such important laws as the Farm-Village Debt Readjustment Law, a law for the relief of the people of Tohoku district who had suffered from earthquake and tidal waves,

the Child Ill-treatment Prevention Law, the Juvenile Protection Law, and the revision of the Iron-manufacture Promotion Law which meant the union of all the largest iron-manufacturing works.

Social Mass Party In 1931, the National Socialist movement suddenly appeared on the surface of the sea of social unrest, and the tide of Fascism began to permeate the proletarian fighting lines; the right-wing of the legitimate proletarian parties turned toward National Socialism. On the other hand, the left-wing was influenced by the Japan Communists, who never ceased their clandestine movements in spite of the constant interference of the authorities, and the power of the proletarian parties was greatly reduced. This state of affairs induced another union, and on the 24th of July 1931, the Social Mass Party was organized by the union of the Social Democratic Party and the National Labor-Farmer Mass Party. This new party elected Isao Abé, Chairman of the Central Executive Committee; and Hisahiko Aso, Chief Secretary.

Orientation to National Socialism In 1931 the Labor Union established the Japan Labor Club with the purpose of realizing a great union of the right wing. Stimulated by the supremacy of Fascism in Italy and the Fascist movement of the Nazis in Germany, there appeared a movement for National Socialism among the members of the Social Democratic Party. Besides, after the Manchurian incident the atmosphere among the Japanese people was very suitable for the growth of nationalism and patriotism, and the national socialistic section of the Party increased their power under the leadership of K. Akamatsu, chief secretary, and R. Hirano.

The rise of the nationalistic tide, which coaxed the proletariat partisans away, correlatively gave inspiration to the activities of the old nationalists, and their leading principles began to take national socialistic color in compliance with the change of the social state of affairs.

Super-legal Movements of the Rights In addition to the national commotion arising from the Manchurian incident, the failure of the crops in the north-eastern districts dealt a heavy blow to the poor villagers groaning under financial depression, and the problem of finding some means of relieving the peo-

ple in the emergency became so acute that no time was to be lost. This nation-wide suffering and anxiety urged the right-wing movement to proceed to extremities, and they passed far beyond the limits of lawful action. In the midst of the election campaign, on February 9, 1932, Junnosuké Inoué, ex-Minister of Finance, was shot to death by a young man, Konuma, of the Blood Brotherhood League headed by Nisaho Inoué, a priest of the Nichiren sect. On March 5, Takuma Dan, Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Mitsui Company and one of the ablest contemporary business men, was assassinated by Hishinuma, a member of the same secret association. At 5:30 on the afternoon of the 15th of May, Premier Inukai was killed. This was the so-called "5:15 Affair" as it occurred on the fifteenth of the fifth month, 1932. The after-claps of the event appeared in the secret plots of Dr. Imamura, adviser to the Jimmu-kai, in the middle of August, and of the Tenko-kai and the Independent Young Men's Association in November, finally at the arrest of Dr. Shumel Ohkawa, head of the Jimmu-kai and the Far Eastern Economic Research Bureau.

Later investigations showed that those directly connected with the affair were 10 young Navy officers, 11 students of the Military College and 21 farmers and scholars.

The Farmer-Central Movement As a result of the May 15 Affair the Saito Cabinet was organized. The new Government called the second Emergency Session of the Diet in June and the third session was held in August, and the Diet passed the "Resolution for the Relief of the Economic Depression," for the purpose of relieving the impoverished villages of the farmers. The motive power of this action of the Imperial Diet was the Farmer-Central Movement of the Self-governing Farmers' Council and its sympathizers.

The Self-governing Farmers' Council was led by the farmer-central idea of Mr. N. Gondo, and rejecting both the strikes of farmers and national socialism, it endeavored to realize a farmer-central government with the harmonious co-operation of the ruling class and the people, and unifying the landowners, the landed farmers and the tenant farmers. The Council was organized by the association of the Nagano-Prefecture Japan

Farmers' Association, the Emancipation Society, K. Tachibana, the head of the Aikyo Juku (Village Loving School), and R. Nagano of the Japan Village Government Union, which had been established in 1931, with him as its leader.

Communist Movements The Nippon Communist Society was apparently broken up by the wholesale raids of 1914 and 1915, and the members who then escaped arrest hid themselves in the depth of society, and secretly continued their endeavors to reconstruct it. But the leaders of the new society, which they organized in 1927, were all arrested on April 16, 1928, and the remaining members had a difficult time to accomplish the work under the constant oppression of the authorities, and the society showed its activity before the public at the general election of 1931. It was for the third time scattered by the iron hand of the Government after February 1931, but it continued its secret activities by order of the International Headquarters with the subdivisions of the communists.

Withdrawal from the League of Nations On March 27, 1933, Japan served notice to withdraw from the League of Nations to which she had made valuable contributions for over 12 years. (See Chapter VI).

The year also witnessed a decided decline of the left-wing socialistic parties, especially the communists, many of the leaders leaving camp and ceasing activities.

65th Session On December 23, 1933, the 65th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened and after the customary recess for the New Year's holiday, resumed its work on January 23, 1934.

Finance Minister Takahashi presented the 1934-35 budget, which amounted to ¥2,112,000,000 (¥8,000,000 less than the previous year), of which ¥1,248,000 was to be met by ordinary revenue, ¥19,000,000 to be covered by the balance of the previous year, and ¥785,000,000 to be obtained from loans. Of the ¥785,000,000 loan, ¥606,000,000 was for covering the deficit.

On March 14 the Budget passed the House of Peers without amendment. But the amount voted for the relief of farmers was meager and by the request of the Diet the Government presented an additional budget for the purpose amounting to ¥20,990,000 for Japan

proper and ¥8,200,000 for Chosen, which passed the Diet as a matter of course.

On March 26 the Session adjourned, passing the budget for the fiscal year 1934-35 and 50 laws.

The Saito Cabinet Resigns The detention on May 19, 1934, of Hideo Kuroda, the Vice-Minister of Finance, on charges connected with the Teikoku Rayon scandal was sufficient reason for the resignation of the Saito Cabinet. This was a matter of political common sense. But on the other hand, the charge partook somewhat of a political nature and it was considered unwise to tender resignation hurriedly. So the resignation was delayed, but the development of the case and the outbreak of other cases to the disadvantage of the Cabinet finally compelled Premier Saito to tender resignation to the Emperor on July 3, 1934. The new cabinet with Admiral Katsuké Okada as Premier came to power on the 8th of the same month.

The Okada Cabinet The Okada Cabinet was virtually the continuation of the Saito Cabinet. It was a non-party cabinet, as was the Saito Cabinet, and had likewise the tidying-over of the crisis years as its objective. When forming the cabinet the first plan was to exclude party men, but later this restriction was modified, due to difficulties which such cabinet would probably meet. Thus it was finally composed of seven men out of officialdom and five party men (2 from the Minseito and 3 from the Seiyukai). The Seiyukai had turned down Okada's invitation to join his cabinet and when three of its members became ministers in the new Cabinet, it forthwith announced their expulsion from the Seiyukai.

Farm-Village Problem By the end of October 1934, the National Treasury disbursed approximately ¥300,000,000 for the relief of farm-villages. This means that the yearly disbursement was approximately ¥100,000,000, and, when left alone, it would necessitate increased taxation. The relief of farm-villages thus assumed the position of an important factor in national finance.

The impending questions which had to be solved were how to dispose of the stock of rice and how to restrict over-production so as to increase farmers' income by higher prices. The solution of the questions was complicated by the fact that over a half of the farmers could hardly afford to consume

rice which they themselves raised because of the high price. This resulted in a shortage of rice in the farm-villages.

In order to cope with the situation, though partially, it was decided at the 65th session of the Diet to increase the fund for purchasing surplus rice, and also the Government undertook to find out more effective means to meet the situation. Under the Okada Cabinet a committee was appointed for the study of the problem from among the members of the both Houses and also private persons. The Seiyukai and Minseito were also united in organizing a committee for drafting a more effective law dealing with the problems.

Extraordinary Session and After The Okada Cabinet at first took a lukewarm attitude toward convening an extraordinary session of the Diet in spite of the resolution passed at the last session under the Saito administration and the strong demand on the part of the Seiyukai, which was essentially a farm party. But an unexpected event compelled the Government to give heed to the above demand. A damage greatest since 1923 was sustained in the Kansai district and Central Japan by the typhoon of September 21, 1934. The year 1934 was also a very unfavorable one for farmers. An untimely cold weather checked the growth of rice plants in the north-eastern district and Hokkaido, precipitation was scanty in Shikoku and Kyushu islands, and the south-western half of the country was visited by the typhoon just mentioned. An immediate relief of farmers thus became a national necessity, and on September 28 the Government decided to convene an extraordinary session by December.

The 66th Session An extraordinary session of the Diet was, therefore, convened on November 27, 1934, and closed on December 10. The main objective of the session was the relief of the sufferers in a variety of natural calamities in the year.

The budget for the relief (214 million yen) passed both Houses without amendment, though it was attacked as being too small to meet the need, especially by the Seiyukai.

The 67th Session The regular session of the Diet was convened on December 24, 1934, and closed on March

26, 1935. Notwithstanding the expectation generally entertained of a collision between the Government and the Seiyukai on the various questions pending, both sides were, in the final analysis, willing to come down the wall half way and the session was carried on in peace. The peace was, however, an armed peace and the Seiyukai took care that a number of important government bills were killed. The promise which the Government made at the last session in regard to the relief appropriation was made good to the amount of ¥15,000,000, instead of ¥180,000,000, as was originally demanded by the Seiyukai.

The Government, beside the Budget for 1935-36 which passed without amendment, proposed over 50 bills to the Diet. Of these only 5 important bills passed the Diet and among those shelved there were such important bills as the Rice Control Law, Cocoon Distribution Law, Manure Control Law, Iron and Steel Tariff Law, and the Regulations for Fishing in the Northern Seas.

The session was enlivened unexpectedly with a discussion in regard to the interpretation of the Constitution. It was in February that a criticism on the exposition of the Constitution by Dr. Tatsukichi Minobé, Emeritus Professor at the Tokyo Imperial University and Professor at the Commercial University, was raised. Dr. Minobé's theory is that the Tennō, the Emperor, is the highest institution of the Empire and against this the assailants stated that Tennō is the absolute Sovereignty and origin of all laws. The discussion was ended, at least so far as the Houses and the session were concerned, by the promise given by the Government at the initiative of the House of Peers that it would do all to clarify the specific nature of the Japanese State.

Political Affairs in 1935-36

Legislature The year 1935 was rather a poor one in legislative activities. The 67th session of the Diet passed 44 out of the 55 bills presented by the Government and 9 of the bills proposed by the House of Representatives, but the majority of them were of the nature of administrative rules or in connection with the 1935-36 budget. Few important laws were passed, the principal ones being the Special Profits Tax Law, the Warehouse Law, etc.

Political Movement of the Proletariat

The political movement of the proletariat in 1935 was, generally speaking, a continuation of the previous year. Since 1932 the political power of the proletariat has waned mainly due to the nationalistic atmosphere generally prevailing in the political world. But the elections of the members of prefectural assemblies in the fall of 1935 proved favorable and this served to prepare good ground for proletarian parties to try their fortune in the general election for the Diet.

By this time the Marxists had lost their leaders and their political activities had sunk almost underground. They had lost the support of the people because of their misdeeds, such as attacking banks for funds. And side by side with this the tide of extreme rights had exhausted itself and it had not developed into a political party. It was thus that the Social Mass Party grew to power, which now occupies the leading position in the proletarian political movement. It was in 1932 that the party was formed through the amalgamation of the Social Democrats and the Mass Party. The party sent 53 candidates to the prefectural elections just mentioned and secured 25 seats in the assemblies. In the 67th session of the Diet (1934-35) the Social Mass Party had only three seats in the House of Representatives, but put up a brisk fight against the overwhelming power of the bourgeois parties in the House. They presented two important bills, i. e. the tenant bill and a bill for preventing the attachment on food of farm-households for one year. Both of them were shelved, but a prevention law quite similar in nature was passed. In February 9, 1935, the party held a mass meeting in Tokyo "for demanding the immediate dissolution of the House of Representatives." The meeting adopted 6 resolutions and handed them to the Presidents of both Houses and the Premier. The resolutions urged an immediate promulgation of the emergency industrial labor law, an increase of Government subsidies for unemployment relief, the promulgation of the tenant law and a law for preventing the attachment on food of farm-households, a thorough measure for securing the living of laboring classes in cities, the suspension of payment of all Government bonds for two years, and an immediate dissolution of the House of Representatives.

in the elections of members of prefectural assemblies which were carried out in September and October 1935, the proletarian parties secured 41 seats and 219,854 votes.

In the beginning of the year 1935, liberalism appeared regaining power and criticism of the actions of the national socialists and others was heard in a considerable degree at the 67th session of the Diet. The Army Ministry seemed amenable to the criticism, as shown by its thoughts, the reaction shown among military bodies, the removal of the high officers in August, etc. Public opinion evidently welcomed the Army Ministry's policy. The assassination of Lieutenant-General Nagata, Director of the Board of Military Affairs, on August 12, 1935, by Saburo Aizawa, Lieutenant-Colonel on the active list, was a turning moment for the general policy of the Army Ministry. Aizawa was one of the group of officers who were associated with the May 15 affair of 1932. General Hayashi's place was taken by General Kawashima as Army Minister in September and the general policy of the Army Ministry naturally swung back to the former one.

Dissolution of the House There were many predictions, and hopes in some

cases, entertained as to the relation of the Cabinet and the Seiyukai, the Opposition, from the end of 1935 to the beginning of 1936. But the hopes entertained toward effecting a possible understanding remained unrealized and the Seiyukai hardened its front more and more towards the cabinet. Okada, thereupon, asked H.I.M. the Emperor to dissolve the House of Representatives, which was done on January 21, 1936, and it was declared that a general election would be held on February 20.

The strengths of political parties in the House of Representatives at the time of dissolution were as follows:

Total Number of Seats	466
Seiyukai	242
Minseitō	127
Kokumin Dōmei	20
Showakai	24
Social Mass Party	3
Independents	11
Vacancy	39

The 19th General Election The General Election was held on February 20, 1936, with the number of eligible voters totalling 14,479,553 and 878 candidates for 466 seats. The wacry of the General Election was "Pure Election." The Government took a mean attitude toward the whole affair of the election, and the result was as follows:

THE 19TH GENERAL ELECTION, FEBRUARY 20, 1936

(As it stood on February 24)

Number of Seats in the House of Representatives	466
Number of Voters	14,479,553
Number of Candidates	878
Collective Votes	11,117,116

According to Parties:

	Candidates	Elected	In Janu- ary	Increase or Decrease	Votes Ob- tained	%
Seiyukai	336	174	242	-68	4,156,643	37.4
Minseitō	296	205	127	+78	4,456,250	40.1
Kokumin Dōmei	33	15	20	-5	401,261	3.7
Showakai	49	20	24	-4	523,663	4.7
Social Mass	30	18	3	+15	518,360	4.6
Other parties	33	9	0	+9	285,670	2.6
Independents	101	25	11	+14	775,269	6.9
Total	878	466	427	+39	11,117,116	100.0

The defeat of the Seiyukai which had held an absolute majority in the House was unexpected, as was the great advancement of the Social Mass Party. Reasons were complicated and no final inference can be drawn from the re-

sult. But this much was clear that the general demand for a radical change in the country's politics so as to insure and advance the welfare of the mass is reflected in the return of 18 members of the Social Mass Party.

Political Affairs in 1936 and 1937

February 26 Incident The Cabinet was anything but displeased with the result of the election, for it had brought about the defeat of the Seiyukai. But an event unprecedented in the history of the country since the Restoration of 1868 was in store for it. Early on the morning of February 26, 1936, over 1,480 soldiers rose against it and the high officials, and assassinated Admiral Makoto Saito, Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, Korōkiyo Takahashi, Finance Minister, and Lieutenant-General Jotaro Watanabe, Inspector-General of Military Education, and seriously injured Admiral Kantaro Suzuki, Grand Chamberlain, at their residences.

Martial law was immediately put into force for a part of Tokyo surrounding the Imperial Palace under the command of Lieutenant-General Kohei Kashi. (For a full account of the incident see the Japan Year Book, 1937, pp. 135-143.)

The Hirota Cabinet Admiral Okada and other members of the Cabinet tendered their resignations to the Throne on February 27, taking full responsibility for the Feb. 26 Incident. On March 5, Koki Hirota, Foreign Minister in the Okada Cabinet, was summoned to the Imperial Palace and he accepted the Imperial Order to form a new Cabinet.

The formation of the Hirota Cabinet met difficulties on its course, but was finally completed and the inauguration took place on March 9, 1936.

Imperial Diet, 69th Session The 69th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened on May 1, 1936 and closed on the 27th of the same month. Kojiro Tomi-in of the Minseitō was elected President of the House of Representatives, and the formal opening ceremony was held on the 4th of May in the presence of His Majesty the Emperor, who gave an Imperial Message.

The reference to the February 26 incident in the Imperial Message strongly touched the hearts of the members of the Cabinet and both Houses and the session was carried out in a most serious attitude of mind all through the three weeks.

Many important bills awaited the decision of the Diet in this short 69th Session, such as supplementary budgets, the autonomous rice control bill, the rice control law revision bill, the joint unhulled rice storage subsidy bill, the

cocoon disposal control bill, the bill to revise the silk manufacturers' guild law, the bill to revise the silk industry law and the important fertilizer control bill, all of these pertaining to the welfare of the agricultural communities, the shipping business control bill, the bill for the establishment of two companies to aid the rehabilitation of the north-eastern districts, the bill for the establishment of a central bank for commercial and industrial guilds, the seditious literature restriction bill, the national mobilization secrets protection bill, and the workers' discharge reserve fund and allowance bill. The supplementary budgets (given in full in the Japan Year Book, 1936, pp. 237-280) passed both Houses without amendment.

Important Policies of the Hirota Cabinet The much talked about new policies of the Hirota Cabinet met with difficulties before being finally decided upon the following 7 national policies:

(1) Completion of National Defense; (2) Improvement of the Educational System; (3) Readjustment of National and Local Tax Systems; (4) Stabilization of the Living of the People by a more effective prevention of natural disasters, completion of health protection, further economic measures for helping villagers and city merchants and manufacturers of small means; (5) Promotion of Industry and Expansion of Foreign Trade by the increase and control of electric power, self-supply of liquid fuel and iron and steel, full supply of materials for the fiber industries, aid and control of foreign trade, encouragement of aviation and sea transportation businesses and encouragement of emigration; (6) Establishment of important policies with regard to the relation of the Empire with Manchoukuo such as the emigration of Japanese to Manchoukuo or the greater investment of the Japanese capital in that country; (7) Improvement or Reformation of the Administrative System.

Advance to the National Control of Economics The financial policy of the Hirota Cabinet advanced to the national control of important economic organs and industrial enterprises. The phrase "Quasi-wartime economic system," which was frequently used by the Financial Minister and journalists in the latter half of the year, well voiced the Government's intention for national economic control. The first aim of this eco-

nomie control was the completion of national defense, the second was the remedying of the defects of individualistic capitalism and the third was the establishment of an economic policy of self-sufficiency along with the world tendency of forming economic blocs.

Among the bills which were put by the Government before the 69th session of the Diet and which passed both Houses, were many which aimed at this betterment of the life of the people and strengthening of defense, for instance, the Rice Control Law, the Cocoon Disposition Control Law, the Important Fertilizers Business Control Law, the Important Commodities of Trade Control Law, the Automobile Manufacturing Business Law, the Revised Industrial Control Law and the Navigation Control Law. These laws had been planned by former cabinets so were not the legitimate offspring of the Hirota Cabinet policies, but they passed into law because of the Diet's desire to strengthen economic control to meet the quasi-wartime needs.

Sino-Japanese Issue On August 24, 1936 a Chinese mob attacked four Japanese at Chengtu, Szechwan province, killing two newspaper correspondents and seriously injuring the other two. This event aroused the indignation of the whole Japanese nation as similar misdeeds against Japanese subjects in China had become rather frequent. Negotiations between the Japanese envoys at Nanking and Chinese Foreign officials for the peaceful settlement of these matters were becoming a daily feature.

The Japanese Government and people took the occurrence of these regrettable incidents as a natural outcome of the anti-Japanese education and policy of the Nanking Government. The recurrence of such incidents could not be prevented, the Japanese inferred, by a mere proclamation of the Chinese Government enjoining on Chinese people to behave in a more friendly manner toward the Japanese. The Japanese Government seemed rather too cautious, while the public opinion in Japan was strong enough to back the Government in taking any positive measures toward China. The Nanking Government took a negative attitude all through and, taking advantage of the East Suiyuan issue at the end of the year, communicated to the Japanese re-

presentatives that it would be difficult to bring the Nanking negotiation to a successful conclusion so long as the East Suiyuan question was not settled, and assumed an attitude threatening to repudiate all agreements so far reached. The final outcome of all conversations between the representatives of the two Governments, which had extended over three months, was the visit of Ambassador Kawagoe to Chang Chun, Chinese Minister for Foreign Affairs, on December 3, 1936 when a note embodying points on which agreement had been reached was handed him, and the Nanking parley entered a holiday, both sides publishing statements contradicting each other.

The Sino-Japanese issue in the last three months of 1936 left the final solution to a later occasion. The Japanese press and the people as a whole were not satisfied with the activities of the authorities concerned with the issue, considering their attitude as disclosing weakness on the part of the Hirota Cabinet and taking, on the other hand, the unfriendly attitude of the Nanking Government so heavily to heart that another crisis between the two nations seemed likely at any moment.

Japan-German Agreement In cognizance of the fact that the object of the Communist International, or the so-called Comintern, is the disintegration of existing States recognized by it as Imperialistic or capitalist, and that its interference in the internal affairs of nations not only endangers their internal peace but threatens international peace, and desiring to co-operate for defense against communistic disintegration, Japan and Germany agreed, on November 25, 1936, on a mutual exchange of information concerning the activities of the Comintern, confer upon necessary measures of defense and carry out such measures in close cooperation.

The 70th Session The 70th session of the Imperial Diet, convened on December 24, 1936, was of great importance to the Hirota Cabinet, which had been formed to cope with the grave state of national and international affairs and the February 26 Incident and which was now to ask the judgment of the nation concerning its plans and administration for the first time, because the 69th session had been a short and extraordinary one. There was a

fresh expectation in general for the session because it was to be held for the first time in the new and permanent edifice of the Imperial Diet Building which had been completed in November 1936.

The strength of the political parties in the House on the day of the opening of the Imperial Diet was as follows:

The House of Peers:	
Princes of the Blood	18
The Kenkyukai	160
The Koseikai	66
The Kayokai	42
The Koyu Club	36
The Dowakai	34
The Doseikai	22
Independents	30
Total	408
The House of Representatives:	
The Minseitō	205
The Seiyukai	171
The Showakai	25
The Kokumin-Domei	12
The Tohokai	9
The Social Mass Party and Local Proletarians	21
Other small groups	18
Independents	4
Vacant seats	1
Total	466

The general atmosphere at the opening of the 70th session of the Diet suggested a strong attitude of the leading political parties against the policies of the Government, especially against the lukewarm Arita diplomacy. But the collision between the House of Representatives and the Hirota Cabinet occurred on January 21 in connection with the interpellation of K. Hamada and the answer of Lieutenant-General Terauchi, Army Minister.

Resignation of the Hirota Cabinet
The Hirota Cabinet tendered its resignation en bloc to the Throne on January 23, 1937, after two days of extraordinary adjournment of the Diet. The events surrounding the formation of the succeeding Cabinet revealed many facts important to Japan's history of politics and gave valuable suggestions concerning the future of the constitutional government of Japan.

The hot words exchanged between the Army Minister and Kunimatsu Hamada on January 21 were too insignificant to be the cause of the resignation of the Hirota Cabinet, but the Army

was unwilling to discuss matters any further with the party men in the House of Representatives, not because of the alleged insult of Hamada against them but for the reason that there was a difference of opinion between the Army and members of the House of Representatives in regard to the recognition of the seriousness of the situation into which the country was thrown as a result of the declarations of the leading parties at their general meetings and the move of the party men in the Houses. The Army insisted upon an immediate dissolution of the House of Representatives. Hamada and his party found no reason for making an apology on what he had said in his interpellation, although the general atmosphere among the parties seemed to be toward a compromise.

But all the efforts of the Ministers for bringing the House of Representatives and the Army to a compromise proved futile. The Army took a firm stand and handed the resignation of the Army Minister Lieutenant-General Terauchi to the Premier by the morning of the 23rd, evincing thereby the uncompromising attitude of the Army on the issue.

Premier Hirota did not give his consent to the asking of the Throne for the dissolution of the Lower House, but, on the contrary, decided on his own accord to give up all measures for maintaining the life of the Cabinet, and announced his reason for resignation to the effect that since assuming the duties of Premier by Imperial Order in March 1936, he had done his best for the proper administration of state affairs, but in spite of all his efforts the difficulty of the political situation had become an unsurmountable obstacle.

Premier Hirota's attitude toward the 70th Session of the Diet was rather negative. Criticism of the diplomatic failure of the Hirota Cabinet in general and the discouraging atmosphere regarding the important bills and budget before the meeting of the Diet was such that it was expected that the political parties would force the resignation of the Government. Both the Minseitō and the Seiyukai were represented by two members in the Cabinet, yet their attitude towards it became worse with the approach of January 21 when the 70th session of the Diet was to begin its business. Premier Hirota took no measures to better his position, but easily

yielded to the adverse situation and handed in his resignation after but two days' deliberation, in spite of all surmises in political circles that there might come either a dissolution of the House of Representatives, or the Government would manage matters so as to get through the 70th Session and resign, if necessary, after the session, and after having made full preparations for the quick succession of a new cabinet.

General Kazushige Ugaki who had been enjoying a quiet life for years at Nagaoka, Shizuoka prefecture, came up to Tokyo on January 25, 1937, and was granted an audience and received the Imperial Order to form a cabinet. But he met with difficulties in the formation of a cabinet and after five days' deliberation and negotiations, that is, on the 29th, he gave up his task and asked the pardon of the Throne for his inability to form a Cabinet.

The Hayashi Cabinet Prince Saionji first recommended Baron Kiichiro Hiranuma, President of the Privy Council, and then, General Senjuro Hayashi as candidate for Premiership, and the latter was ordered to form the Cabinet.

The Hayashi Cabinet was organized in February 2, 1937.

Dissolution of the House of Representatives
The 70th Session of the Imperial Diet which had been convened on December 24, 1936, was closed on March 31, 1937, with the Dissolution of the House of Representatives. The session was a very extraordinary one, for, during its sitting, the Hirota Cabinet resigned and the Hayashi Cabinet came into power. It adjourned three times, at the end of January and in the beginning of February, on account of the change of the Cabinet, and at the end of March it was prolonged for 6 days beginning with the 26th and finally on the last day it met the Dissolution. All through the session the Cabinets, both old and new, were unsympathetic with the parties in the House of Representatives, while the parties, in turn, took a negative and equivocal attitude toward these governments as a whole, although some of their members were brave enough to make attacks on the movement of a part of the Imperial Army or Government's social policies.

The Dissolution was also peculiar. The Diet was closing on March 31 in peace, hurriedly passing resolutions and bills left over to that day, 49 important

bills including the budget for 1937-38 being voted already, when it all of a sudden was dissolved to the surprise of the members of the House of Representatives and the general public.

General Election of April 1937
The general election of April 30, 1937, was carried out without a clearer aim than that of the Government, which asked for the "repentance" of the House of Representatives because its behavior had been unsatisfactory in the eyes of the Cabinet and the election was the outcome of the Dissolution brought about by its behavior. It was neither a fight between the Government and the parties around important issues nor an election of confidence on Government's policies. In any case, the results of the election were entirely against the Government. The victory of parties whose platforms were decidedly against the Government was overwhelming, and the combined forces of the Minseitō and the Seiyukai in the Lower House kept the absolute majority as it was in March. The number of the representatives sent by the Social Mass Party, which was most strongly opposed to the Government's political ideas, was nearly doubled. On the other hand, the number of the representatives of the Showakai, the ministerial party, was reduced from 24 to 18 and another pro-governmental party the Kokumin-Domei gained nothing, while the independents who were in sympathy with the Government sent but a few members to the new House of Representatives. All the efforts of the Government to turn the results to its benefit were defied. The general election presented the people with a chance of expressing their deep concern with the political affairs of the country and the bustle of the election which had been thought meaningless by many at the outset gave birth to many points suggestive of the future of the Imperial Diet. The first of them was that the voters did not sympathize with the political ideas destructive of the existing parliamentary system, the second was that they showed a strong opposition against the attitude of the Government which seemed to fill the political stage to the exclusion of others, and the third was that they expressed their earnest wish for the renovation of the Diet in the votes that went to the Social Mass Party.

According to the Local Bureau of

the Home Ministry, which has been investigating the voting at the 20th general election of April 30, 1937, the percentage of absentees increased by 5.4%, being 26.7 against 21.3 at the previous election, and in the comparison of in-

valid votes, blank votes increased by 2,012 and voting papers on which were written miscellaneous things increased by 3,652, while on the whole the total number of invalid votes decreased by 2,779.

RESULTS OF THE 19TH AND THE 20TH GENERAL ELECTIONS

Parties	19th Election	20th Election	Percentage of Increase(+) or Decrease(-)
Minsaito			
No. of persons elected	205	179	- 12.5
No. of votes obtained	4,456,250	3,666,067	- 17.7
Selyukai			
No. of persons elected	174	175	+ 0.5
No. of votes obtained	4,156,643	3,608,882	- 13.1
Social Mass Party			
No. of persons elected	18	36	+100.0
No. of votes obtained	518,360	900,916	+ 73.8

On May 3, Premier General Hayashi published a statement in connection with the result of the 20th general election which was received by the public as voicing the Government's determination to carry on its mission in the face of all criticism none of which supported the Government's stand. The unanimous opinion was that the Government would have to retreat in a few months, either before the proposed extraordinary session of the Diet in August or at its beginning when a non-confidence decision would be passed by a unanimous vote.

Resignation of the Hayashi Cabinet
In spite of the Premier's statement matters went from bad to worse for the Hayashi Government. Movements for the formation of a new ministerial party all failed, while the much talked about disruption, if there had been any possibility of one, of the existing large parties was checked by the Dissolution and the general election, for these events worked contrary to the hope of the Government for bringing about such a disruption and strengthened the unity of political parties in their common fight against the Hayashi Cabinet.

The general state of political affairs and the trend of public opinion in May tied up Hayashi's hand in trying to get persons for the vacant ministerial chairs. Besides, secret movements for a new cabinet began to be more active, along with the public movements and decisions of leading parties for the downfall of the Hayashi régime.

On May 31, 1937, the resignation of the Hayashi Cabinet en bloc was finally announced.

Konoé Comes to Power. The public nomination for the new Premier was Prince Fumimaro Konoé, President of the House of Peers. The Imperial wish was the same, for the Genrô, Prince Salonji, the President of Privy Council Baron Hiranuma and the Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals Kurahel Yuasa unitedly recommended Konoé to the Throne on June 1, 1937.

Konoé's coming to power was welcomed by all circles in Japan. His family prestige is second to none among the Japanese subjects, his political career as the President of the House of Peers has been brilliant, and his knowledge of and sympathy with the conditions of the people as well as his understanding of military issues is thought to be deep and thorough.

The formation of the new cabinet went on smoothly in favorable circumstances. Prince Konoé was successful in the first place in persuading the Army and Navy Ministers to stay in their former chairs, then in bringing Dr. Eiichi Baba, Minister of Finance in the Hirota Cabinet, to the chair of Home Minister, and finally in getting Koki Hirota, the former Premier, for the Foreign Affairs portfolio. According to his policy of forming a cabinet in which all the political forces are represented, Prince Konoé was able to get one Minister from each leading party. Ryutaro Nagai, Chief Secre-

tary of the Minsaito, to be Minister of Communications, and Chikuhel Nakajima, one of the four members of the Acting-Presidential Board of the Selyukai, to be Minister of Railways.

The Konoé Cabinet was formally inaugurated on June 6, 1937.

The new Cabinet came into power with the full support of the press, the military circle, the leading political parties and the economic world. It was believed that the Konoé Cabinet intended to make all efforts to overcome the quasi-wartime crisis by the united force of the defense services, the bureaucracy and the political parties, keeping harmony with military forces and heeding the wishes of officialdom. The economic policy of the Cabinet was to adjust the international payments of Japan, to establish a concrete program for the development of productive power in the country and to get a clear prospect of demand and supply and control the relations of the two most effectively.

The 71st Session The 71st session of the Imperial Diet was convened on July 25, 1937, the opening ceremony being honored by the presence of H.I.M. the Emperor.

The addresses of the Premier, the Minister for Foreign Affairs and the Minister of Finance were delivered at the general meeting of both Houses on the 27th.

The minute reports of the North China Incident made by the Army Minister, General Gen Sugiyama, before the Diet on the same day and on several other occasions held the attention of the audience, and the Diet gave consent to the Government's request for the second supplementary budget in relation to the North China Incident which reached ¥419,800,000, without any amendment.

The 71st Session of the Diet passed two bills presented by the Lower House and the 34 bills introduced by the Government, including budgets for the Incident and for the establishment of the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs. Only one bill was laid on the table. The closing ceremony was held on August 8, 1937.

The North China Incident On Wednesday night, July 7, 1937, a small unit of Japanese troops was engaged in manoeuvres on their usual grounds, near Marco Polo Bridge, southwest of Peking, and in the vicinity of Lukouchiao

and Lungwangmiao on the Yungting River. With the regular summer inspection but a fortnight ahead, all Japanese troops in the area had been drilling day and night for weeks. The Chinese authorities had been notified of these manoeuvres, as usual and nothing untoward had occurred or been anticipated.

But suddenly, at 11:40 o'clock on this particular night, the Japanese troops were fired upon by Chinese soldiers from the directions of Lukouchiao and Lungwangmiao. This small incident brought in its train the present China Affair.

Political Affairs in 1937 and 1938

The political affairs of the country in the second half of 1937 and the first half of 1938 were almost exclusively concerned with the international developments arising from the China Affair which began on July 7, 1937. The Government, the political parties and the people of Japan were united closely in pressing forward Japan's national policy with regard to the East Asiatic continent by concentrating the national power to the utmost. All the conflicting opinions and movements were promptly set aside before the great task, and the nation was ready for utmost sacrifice both on the war and the home front.

The 72nd Session The 72nd Diet was specially convened at the beginning of September 1937. It was opened on September 4 in the presence of His Majesty the Emperor and closed on the 9th of the same month after passing the supplementary budget for military operations and other legislative bills.

In October 1937, the Government organized the Cabinet Advisory Council to reinforce its power by gathering veteran statesmen and experienced businessmen around the Cabinet. The first 10 members of the new Cabinet Advisory Council who were appointed on October 15, 1937, were as follows:

General Kazushigé Ugaki
General Baron Sadao Araki
Admiral Baron Kiyokazu Abo
Admiral Nobumasa Suetsugu
Chuji Machida of the Minsaito
Yonezo Maeda of the Selyukai
Kiyoshi Akita, M. H. R.
Baron Seinosuké Go
Seihin Ikeda
Yosuké Matsuoka

The 73rd Session The 73rd session

of the Imperial Diet was convened on December 24, 1937, and closed on March 27, 1938.

During the session discussions were centered round the National General Mobilization Bill, the Electric Power Control Bill, and the bills for the increase on taxes. After lively debates and keen deliberations all of these epoch-making bills and 86 other bills, submitted by the Government, were passed by both Houses, amendments being made on the Electric Power Control Bill and 11 others only. Among the 86 bills mentioned above, there were such important ones as those for establishing Governmental companies in North and Central China, for tending the limit for issuance of fiduciary notes, for increasing the production of important minerals, for the readjustment of farm lands, for the revision of the Conscription Law, the Health Insurance Law, the Shop Law, the Pension Law and the Labor Exchange Law, for the establishment of the central funds for pensioned and salaried men.

Political Affairs in 1938 and 1939

Ugaki Resigns General Kazushige Ugaki, Foreign Minister and Overseas Minister, tendered resignation to the Throne, on September 29, 1938. The reason was unintelligible, but it was generally surmised that there was a certain discrepancy of opinion in the Cabinet in regard to foreign policy at issue.

Machiro Arita who had been the Foreign Minister in the Hirota Cabinet in 1936, was appointed again Foreign Minister, and Yoshiaki Hata was installed as Overseas Minister on October 29, 1938.

Wartime Financial and Economic Measures During the months after September, the Government was fully occupied with the wartime situation at home and diplomatic affairs in relation to international questions which constantly arose with the development of the China Affair. Important steps taken by the Government in continuation from preceding years or as new measures were as follows:

For the purpose of meeting war expenses which amounted to 7,400 million yen, bond issues amounting to 6,700 million yen, encouragement of savings among the people, tax increase for obtaining 400 million yen, and transfers from special accounts to the sum of

100 million yen; For an increased production of munitions material, expansion of factories and equipments in mining and heavy industries; For the maintenance and improvement of international balance of payments, trade control and foreign exchange control; For increasing imports and the maintenance of foreign exchange and the international value of currency, promotion of export business, creation of foreign exchange fund system, installation of export and import link system, utilization of bonded factories, a new system to advance export funds, increase of receipts in invisible trade, encouragement of gold production and concentration of gold with the Government, and regulations against profiteering; For restraining rises in commodity prices and stabilization of the living conditions of the people, price restraining measures, creation of the Price Commission and Price Adjustment Commission, institution of the standard maximum price system, official price system, net price system and economic police system; For the relief of the unemployed and persons who have been forced to suspend business or change occupation on account of restriction on importation and use of goods, state management of labor exchanges and other measures; For safeguarding adequate supply of military material, restriction on and prohibition of use of goods, control of distribution of important goods, encouragement of invention and use of substitutes, subsidy for manufacture of substitutes, and encouragement of reform of the people's way of living.

The Konoé Cabinet has been, in general, successful in carrying out these measures with good understanding and loyal support of the people, except such complicated and apparently difficult question as price control and the relief of persons who lost business and were compelled to change occupation, both of which have been left to the good office of the Hiranuma Cabinet.

China Affair In regard to the advance to and occupation of important points and cities in China by the Japanese army and navy, minutes are given in Chapter VI, Foreign Relations and the Chapter on China. The Japanese conviction in the present incident and the attitude toward the Kuomintang Government have been announced unchanged by competent authorities on

various occasions.

On November 3, 1938, the Government made a statement concerning the future of East Asia.

Premier Konoé's Address On the same day, Prince Konoé, Prime Minister, made a radio address on the same subject, excerpts from which follow:

Following upon the capture of Canton, Hankow, the heart of China, was also taken, so that the so-called "Middle Plain" with its seven great cities, which virtually sustain the life of modern China, has now fallen into our hands. There is an old Chinese saying to the effect that "He who controls the Middle Plain controls the whole land." Thus the Chiang Kai-shek Government is no longer anything but a local régime. Japan has achieved these results without overstraining her fighting power, which has always been kept at a level sufficient to ward off any intervention from the outside. We are moved, as never before, by the consciousness that this has been made possible by the august virtue of His Majesty the Emperor, and the heroic efforts of His valiant officers and men. . . The key to China's fate is now in our hands. What, then, do we want? We want not the destruction of China but her prosperity and progress; not the conquest of China but cooperation with her. Working hand in hand with the Chinese awakened to a new consciousness of being people of the Orient, we want to build up an East Asia which is peaceful and settled.

It is an historical necessity that the three great neighbor nations, China, Manchoukuo and Japan, while fully retaining their respective individuality should stand closely united in their common duty of safeguarding East Asia. It is deeply to be deplored not only for the sake of Japan but for that of all Asia that the attainment of this goal has been thwarted through the mistaken policy of the Kuomintang Government. The policy of that government was based on the transient tide of the period that followed the Great War. It did not originate in the inherent intelligence and good sense of the Chinese people. In particular, the conduct of that government, which in its efforts to stay in power cared not whether the nation was left a prey to Communism or relegated to a minor colonial status, cannot but be regarded

as treason toward those many patriotic Chinese who had risked their lives in order to erect a new China. It was in those circumstances that Japan, reluctant as she was to be involved in the tragedy of two great kindred nations fighting against each other, was compelled to take up arms against the Chiang Kai-shek régime.

Japan fervently desires the awakening of China. It is my hope that wise and foreseeing Chinese will be swift to assume leadership and to guide their nation back to the right path, and lead the rejuvenated state forward in the fulfillment of our common task in East Asia. Already in Peking and Nanking signs of rebirth have appeared. And in the wide plains to the north and west, a new Mongolia is springing to life. Let the Chinese people, who in the past 5,000 years of their history have illumined again and again the annals of civilization, prove once more their greatness by sharing in the stupendous task of creating a new Asia. Participation even by the Nationalist Government need not be rejected if, returning to the true spirit of China, it should repudiate its past policy, remould its personnel and offer to join in the work as a thoroughly regenerated régime.

The Japanese Government, which had hitherto published statements mostly on the general aim and principle of Japan in carrying on the China Affair, made a substantial statement in regard to her demands upon China, in the name of Premier Konoé, on December 22, 1938, as was quoted on p. 157, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.

Diplomatic Issues The rapid development of the China Affair gave rise to many diplomatic problems between Japan and the Powers which have rights and interests in China such as Great Britain, France and the United States of America, during the period under survey. The explanations on the problems and negotiations with these countries are given in Chapter VI, Foreign Relations. As a whole, the Powers were very moderate in their attitude toward Japan, apparently with due understanding as regards the inevitability of troubles arising under such circumstances, and negotiations are going on without any grave frictions.

Matters concerning Japan's aid for the rehabilitation and reconstruction of China are stated in the Chapter on

China at the end of this volume.

Anti-Comintern Agreement The German-Japanese Agreement against the Communist International which had been concluded on November 25, 1936, was reinforced by the participation of Italy on November 8, 1937, as it was stated in the 1938-9 Japan Year Book, pp. 200, 201. Now this Tripartite Anti-Comintern Pact developed to a hexadic agreement, with the participation of Hungary and Manchoukuo on February 24, 1939, and Spain on March 27, 1939.

Change of the Cabinet On January 4, 1939, Prince Fumimaro Konoé, Prime Minister, tendered resignation to the Throne. H.I.M. the Emperor granted audience to Baron Kilchiro Hiranuma, President of the Privy Council, on the same day, and gave him order to form the new Cabinet.

Baron Hiranuma succeeded in his task with an unprecedented speed and the inauguration of the new cabinet took place in the Imperial palace in the afternoon of January 5, 1939.

According to the press comments on the occasion, the Konoé Cabinet was confronted with difficulties in carrying out wartime political, economic and social renovation measures. Another reason was in the failure of the efforts for the formation of a new political party sponsored by some members of the Cabinet and outsiders, and Prince Konoé, who was always unwilling to be brought forward as the president of the proposed party, was glad to be freed from this lure as well as premier's responsibility and leave the pending questions with a certain senior statesman.

The 74th Session The 74th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened on December 24, 1938, and closed on March 26, 1939. The strength or representation of different organizations and parties in the Houses on the day of its opening was as follows:

House of Peers:	
Body Represented	Membership
Imperial Princes	16
Kenkyukai	161
Koseikai	69
Kayukai	44
Koyu Club	35
Dowakai	31
Doseikai	21
Others	36
Total	413

House of Representatives:

Party	Membership
Minseitō	178
Seiyūkai	170
The First Room Club	46
Social Mass Party	35
The Second Room Club	13
Tohokai	12
Others	6
Total	460

Note: Vacancies 6.

The Houses gave consent to the Governmental budgets which amounted to over ¥3,400,000,000, and passed all the 89 bills presented by the Cabinet, only 10 of which were amended in some minor points. Important bills passed and later promulgated as new laws were as follows:

1. Financial Laws; Revised China Affair Special Tax Law, Revised Special Profits Tax Law, Revised Temporary Land Tax Disposition Law, Law for the Exemption from or Postponement of Levying Taxes for the Relief of Calamity Stricken People, Revised Tariff Law, and four other laws on taxes. Nine laws for the floatation of public bonds. Three laws for special accounts. Four laws for readjustment of funds.

2. Laws pertaining to exploitation of resources; The Imperial Mining Company Law, Law for mining coal in Karafuto, The Japan Gold Mining Company Law, Revised Gold Mining Law, Law for the Manufacture of Light Metals, Revised Industry Law, Revised Mine Law, Rice Distribution Control Law, Taiwan Rice Importation Control Law, Horses Protection Law, and six other laws.

3. Laws on transportation; The Dai-Nippon Airways Company Law, The Sea Transportation Association Law, Shipbuilding Industry Law, and four other laws.

4. Military Laws; Military Resources Secrecy Protection Law, Revised Conscription Law, and five other laws.

5. Social or Cultural Laws; Officials' Health Insurance Law, Mariners Protection Law, Revised Health Insurance Law, Revised P. O. Annuity Law, Cinema Law, Copy Right Agent Law, and two other laws.

6. Educational or Religious Laws; Religious Organization Law, and five other laws.

7. Judicial Laws; Arbitration Law, Criminals Protection Law, Revised Court Formation Law, and four other laws.

8. Laws in relation to colonies: For

Chosen five laws, for Taiwan one law, and for others four laws.

9. Others; Revised Insurance Law, Law on the way of taking Census, and one other law.

Political Affairs in 1939—1940

The Hiranuma Cabinet Complications almost unprecedented in Japan's history marked the political situation in this country in the second half of 1939. In August, the signing of the German-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact came as a bolt from the blue. The Hiranuma Cabinet, engrossed in its endeavors to strengthen the anti-Comintern axis with Germany and Italy, was compelled to resign on August 28 after only eight months in power. The 74th session of the Diet, which closed on March 26, 1939, not only revealed that the administrative policy of Premier Hiranuma was aimed at the maintenance of the status quo, but also that his Cabinet was not powerful enough to satisfy the general expectation. During the 74th session of the Diet the public was made acquainted with many important facts such as a concrete policy for the disposal of the China Affair, and the future direction of the materials mobilization and productivity expansion plans.

The Hiranuma Cabinet was tormented from start to finish by the strengthening of the Tokyo-Berlin-Rome anti-Comintern axis, and finally collapsed as a result. The Hiranuma Cabinet failed to leave any meritorious accomplishments except as one of a chain of Cabinets advocating maintenance of the status quo.

The Abe Cabinet On the same day, an Imperial order to form the next Cabinet was received by General Nobuyuki Abe. The Abe Cabinet was organized on August 30, and tracked with considerable élan all pending problems inherited from preceding Cabinets and was ready to make known its policies and platforms. Diplomatically, the troubles surrounding the proposed strengthening of the Tokyo-Berlin-Rome axis vanished with the exit of the Hiranuma Cabinet. The China Affair had reached a new phase. Thus, externally, the Abe Cabinet made its start with comparatively light tasks.

The Second European War By that time, however, the European situation became increasingly worse. Germany, like a whirlwind, swept over Poland and Germany and the Soviet on one

side and England and France on the other came to rival each other. Thus, the curtain was raised on the second World War. Under the circumstances, the Abe Cabinet issued a statement on September 4, setting out its policy of non-involvement in the European War.

The Abe Cabinet declared that the disposal of the China Affair was the pivot of the national policy, and also endeavored to solve all pending problems from the days of the Konoé Cabinet. The Cabinet applied the provisions of the General Mobilization Law concerning the prevention of the advance of prices, salaries, etc., and thus resorted to an epoch-making measure to cope properly with the price problem.

Economic Problems Economic problems concerning the supply of materials and control of prices became more acute. Toward the middle part of October, the unilateral accumulation and uneven distribution of rice became apparent, besides a plethora of illegal transactions. In order to cope with the situation, the Government raised the maximum price of unpolished rice from ¥39 to ¥43 (per koku) on November 6, and later enforced the provisions of the General Mobilization Law for the compulsory use of 70-per cent-polished rice. Thus, the Government was compelled to concentrate its whole efforts on the adjustment of the supply and demand of rice, coal, charcoal, etc. by purchasing foreign rice and other measures.

Diplomacy In diplomatic dealings, Foreign Minister Nomura and Foreign Vice-Minister Tani negotiated with the British Ambassador Sir Robert Craigie, the American Ambassador Clark Grew and the Soviet Ambassador Smetanin, respectively, in an effort to adjust diplomatic relations with these countries. Efforts were directed toward renewing the American-Japanese Treaty of Commerce and Navigation and for solving various outstanding problems in China with the United States, for solving pending issues of varying kinds, including the Tientsin Issue with Great Britain, and for concluding a Japanese-Soviet commercial treaty and a fishery pact as well as delimiting the border line with Soviet Russia.

Confronted with Difficulties The Abe Cabinet, which succeeded the Hiranuma Cabinet, took up domestic problems, but

pulsory control, consumption control and corporation accounts control can be cited. The consumption control steadily came to take a concrete form as the disorder of price control and unrest among consumers became visible. In these circumstances, the State control over daily necessities came in the form of the enactment of the Charcoal Distribution Control Regulations in December 1939, enforcement of the charcoal ration system in seven major cities in Japan in August 1940 and the ticket ration system for sugar and matches in June of the same year. In this connection, Regulations Restricting the Production and Sales of Luxuries, etc., decided upon in July 1940 and enforced from October, meant a step forward as an attempt to restrict direct consumption of objects of daily use. The corporation accounts control, coming as it did in the fourth stage, was important as having made this transition to the fourth stage decisive.

Fourth Stage in Reorganization With the Italo-German-Japanese Tripartite Alliance concluded in September 1940, clarifying Japan's fundamental national policy to cope with the changing international political situation, Japan's wartime economy was naturally called upon to stabilize its self-supplying and self-sufficient structure to meet with this new development. A demand for the reconstruction of State control came to be strongly expressed in order to tide over the deadlock of controlled economy which, passing through three stages already, came to a standstill together with a new structure movement in political circles. Those two demands of the times, were together responsible for the advent of the fourth stage in national reorganization. The special features of the new stage were the thorough reorganization of controlled economy, its application domestically upon a planned basis over a wide sphere of economic activities.

Internal Inevitability of Reorganization An acute depression came to prevail in domestic economic circles in the fall of 1940 and the downward tendency of production conspicuous since the summer of 1939 failed to recover. Industrial profit rates and stock prices tended generally downward. Specially, small-scale and medium-sized enterprises found themselves in difficulties due to the adjustment and merger

necessitated by the enforcement of the priority principle and the Government ban on production and sales of luxuries. As a result, the money market became stringent and dishonored bills kept on sharply increasing. Causes leading to such a strained situation may be traced to various inevitabilities such as the characteristic inner weakness of wartime economy and the aggravation of foreign trade situation due to the spread of war. However, they were also attributable in no small measure to the faults in the method of conducting economic control. Note should be taken that Government control in the past was principally concentrated on the control over prices or control over distribution, and the production control which directly touched the root of production processes was not stabilized. In order to remedy this evil and strengthen and enliven the productivity expansion, the treatment of industries charged with the task of productivity expansion was to be fundamentally re-examined and reconsidered. The actual application of industrial control in the past, however, was made in a compulsory, formal and bureaucratic manner as a reaction to the autonomous control which had been tried first and had failed. Enterprises, which were purely profit-making concerns were treated as the direct object of control. Under the circumstances, the display of initiative and the autonomous character of enterprises were eliminated. An outstanding example of control legislature is the Corporation Accounts Control Ordinance promulgated in October 1940. This ordinance provided for the necessity of governmental permission on annual dividends exceeding 8 per cent on the basis of dividend rates in the business year just preceding the year concerned through the rationalization of the dividend restrictions provided by the Corporation Profit Dividend Ordinance.

Early in December 1940, the historic economic new structure plan was decided upon formally by the Cabinet meeting, thus laying an immutable cornerstone for wartime controlled economy. The plan did not distinctly provide for the separation of capital from management, but emphasized the priority of public interest in the stabilization of the industrial structure and urged the necessity of operating control through civil and governmental cooperation on the basis of the priority principle, and thus

responded to the general demand for the economic reorganization of the nation. A single unit law was enacted to thoroughly legalize the economic bodies, and the National General Mobilization Law was drastically revised in order to meet the demand in this connection. The population policy plan announced at the close of January 1941 and the scientific and technical new structure stabilization plan announced toward the end of May 1941, together with the economic new structure plan, form an important element of the economic reorganization. In November 1940, the Cabinet decided formally upon the labor new structure stabilization plan, and toward the close of that month the Japan Patriotic Industrial Association (Dainippon Sangyo Hokoku Kwai) was organized.

Expansion of Economic Structure Keeping pace with the general progress of economic reorganization within Japan, economy on the Continent also made a great development. The first step toward the synthetic and comprehensive utilization of land in Japan and Manchoukuo was taken by the announcement of the national land development plan in the latter part of September 1940. Early in November 1940, the Japan-Manchoukuo-China economic construction plan was decided upon officially by the Japanese Government, and the fundamental principles concerning the stabilization of a self-supplying and self-sufficient economic structure with those three countries as a single unit for the coming ten years were thus clarified. The greatest fruit in the period under review, however, was the drafting of a concrete policy by the Government for an advance to the East Asia co-prosperity sphere, a term which had come into the limelight toward the close of the preceding period, and the consequent development of the Japan-Manchoukuo-China economic bloc to the East Asia regional economy. On the occasion of the advance of the Japanese forces to French Indo-China at the close of September 1940, economic negotiations with French Indo-China were started. The negotiations also had an encouraging influence on Japan's mediation in the Thai-French Indo-China border trouble. With the Netherlands East Indies Japan commenced negotiations through her first delegate Ichizo Kobayashi, Minister of Commerce and Industry, and then through Kenkichi

Yoshizawa. The negotiations, however, finally ended in failure, although Japan had its claim partly recognized by the Netherlands Indies. Separately from the economic negotiations, Japan concluded a monetary arrangement with the Netherlands Indies in December 1940. Economic negotiations have also been under way with Thailand.

Reorganization and Strengthened Control In the course of those reorganization activities both at home and abroad, the Government also took many necessary steps for economic control at home. The small rice crop of 60,000,000 koku in 1940 despite strenuous efforts toward the increased production urged a fundamental re-examination into the maintenance of agricultural productivity. To cope with the situation, the Government took various steps such as the Regulations Pertaining Control Over Rice aiming at placing rice under State control, Temporary Farmland Prices Control Ordinance, Farmland Development Law, Temporary Farmland Control Ordinance, etc. The rice ticket ration system in six major cities, Living Necessaries Control Ordinance, Raw Fish Distribution Control Regulations, etc. adopted in parallel, also serve to indicate the direction of control measures taken by the Government in the period under review. Two important problems which were seriously studied parallel with the proposed economic reorganization were the treatment of smaller and medium-sized industries and that of newly-rising financial interests. The vocational change and unemployment problem of smaller and medium-sized enterprises called for solution again since the time when the Government decided upon the essentials of the new economic structure through the strengthened enforcement of the priority system. As measures to cope with the situation, the National Recovery Bank, National Vocational Guidance Office and National Labor Training Camp were established, while a plan was outlined for adjustment of machinery and iron-steel industries for the purpose of improving the status of smaller and medium-scale industries.

Side by side with the revision of low prices, the Government came to give serious consideration to the absorption of purchasing power. Shipping companies, which played an important role in Japan's foreign trade, were left to