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THE
JAPAN
YEAR BOOK
1939-40

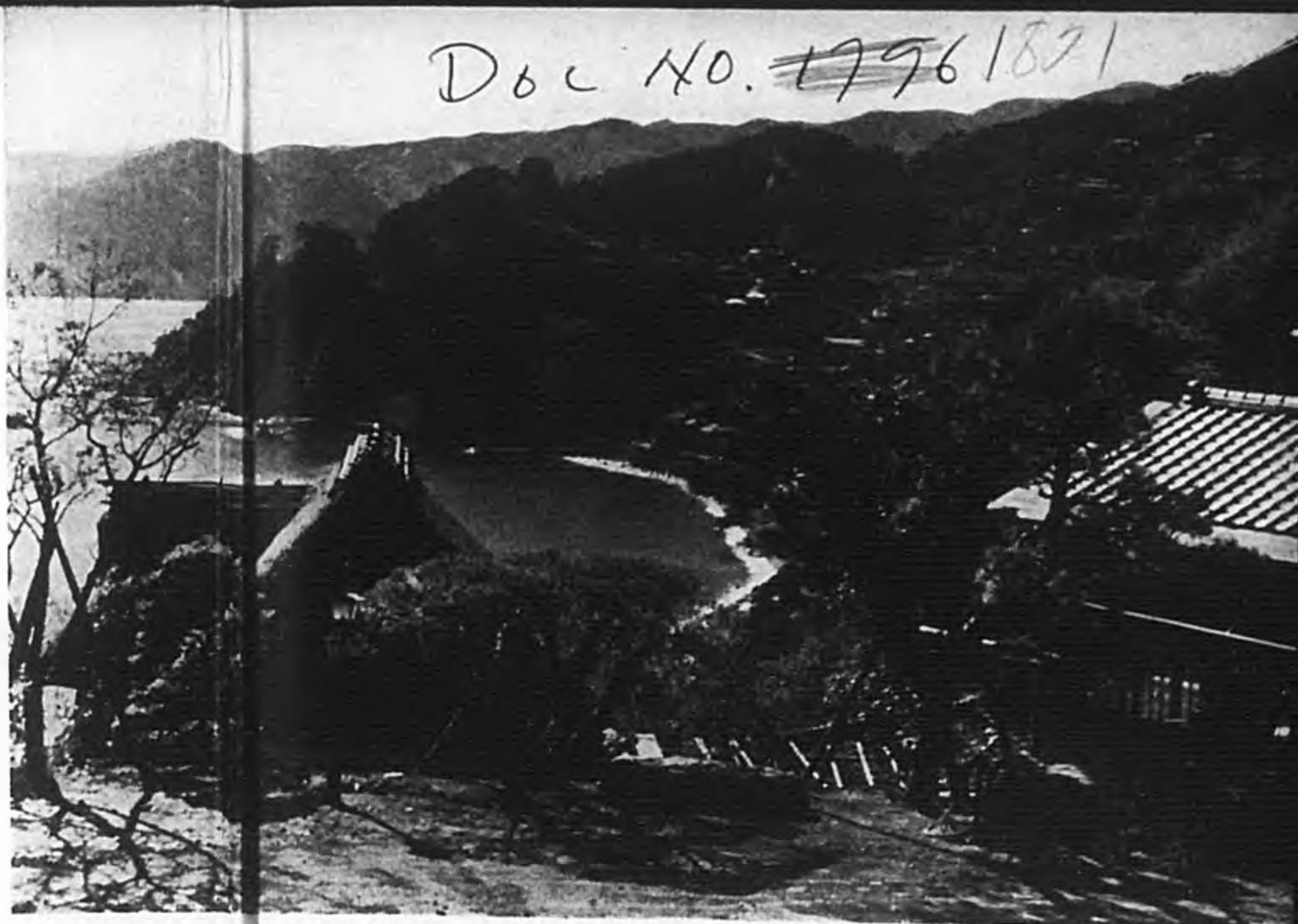
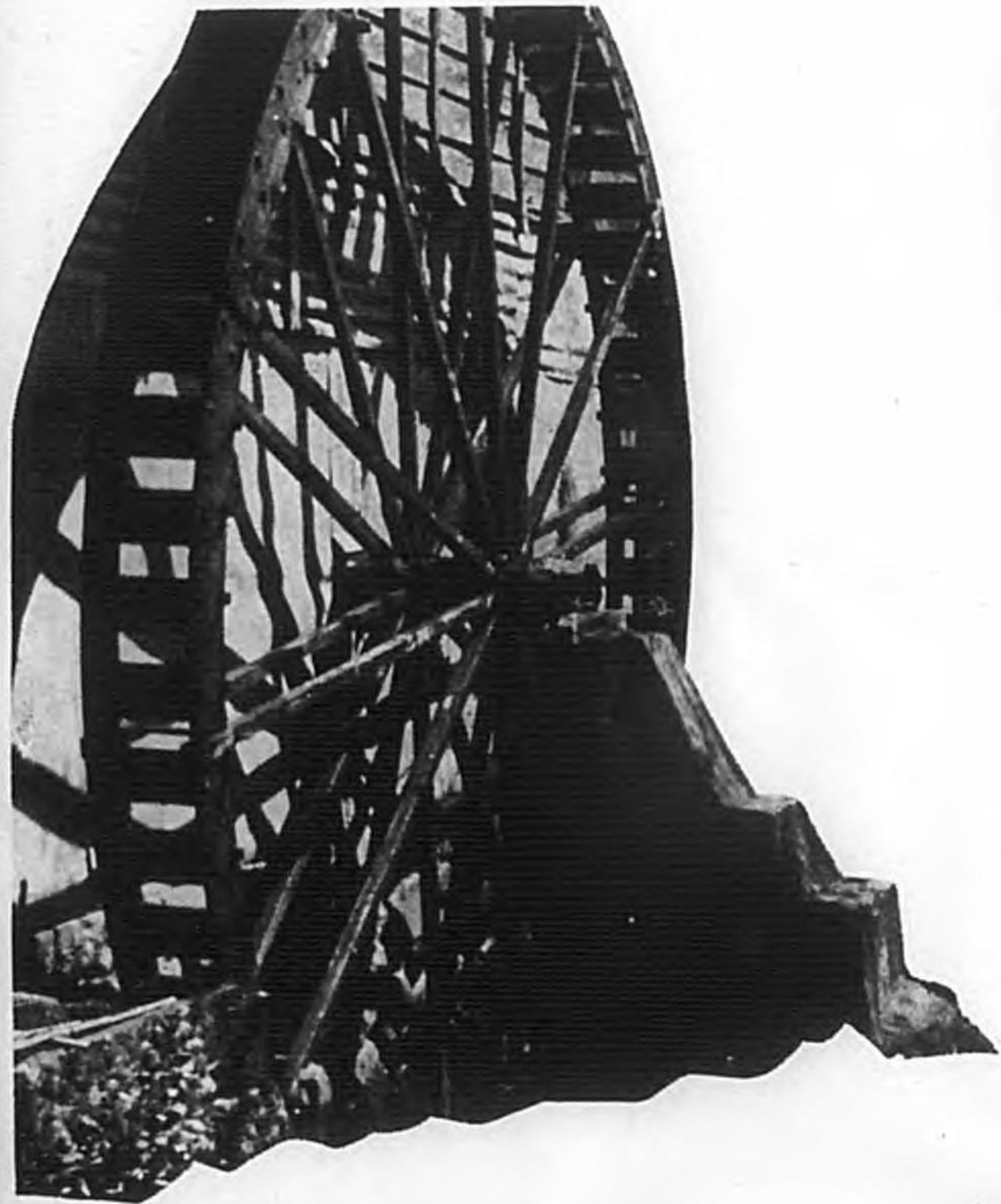


THE JAPAN
YEAR BOOK
1939-40



THE
ASSOCIATION
OF
JAPANESE
STUDIES
IN
AMERICA

JAPAN



FOR PARTICULARS APPLY TO:—
JAPAN TOURIST BUREAU
&
ALL TOURIST AGENCIES

BOARD OF TOURIST INDUSTRY
JAPANESE GOVERNMENT RAILWAYS

MOMOYAMA

I. J. G. MONOPOLY BUREAU



MITSUBISHI CONCERNS

MITSUBISHI COMPANY, LIMITED

Cable Address:—"IWASAKIGEN TOKYO"
President: Baron KOYATA IWASAKI
Vice-President: Mr. HIKOYATA IWASAKI
CAPITAL:—¥ 120,000,000
Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo.

MITSUBISHI JUKŌGYŌ KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(Mitsubishi Heavy-Industries, Ltd.)
Cable Addresses:—"IWASAKIJUK TOKYO"
"IWASAKIAIR TOKYO"
Shipbuilders; Manufacturers of Engines, Boilers & Machinery for Marine & Land purposes; Designers & Constructors of Aircraft & Aero-engines; Manufacturers of Steel Plates, Casting & Forgings.
CAPITAL:—¥ 120,000,000
Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo.
Shipyards, Docks & Engine Works:—Nagasaki, Kobe, Hiroshima & Yokohama. Arms Works:—Nagasaki. Steel Works:—Nagasaki. Aircraft Works:—Nagoya. Aero-engine Works:—Nagoya. Engineering Works:—Tokyo.

MITSUBISHI SOKO KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(Mitsubishi Warehouse Co., Ltd.)
Cable Address:—"IWASAKISOK TOKYO"
Landing, Shipping & Forwarding Agents; Stevedores; Wharfingers; Customs Brokers; Warehousemen.

CAPITAL:—¥ 20,000,000

Head Office:—Edobashi, Nihonbashiku, Tokyo.
Branches:—Yokohama, Osaka, Kobe, Moji.

MITSUBISHI SHOJI KAISHA, LIMITED

(Mitsubishi Trading Co., Ltd.)
Cable Address:—"IWASAKISAL TOKYO"
Importers & Exporters, Manufacturers, Commission Merchants, Brokers, Shipowners.
CAPITAL:—¥ 50,000,000

Head Office: Marunouchi, Tokyo.
Branches, Representatives & Agencies:
(Home) Aomori, Fusan, Hakodate, Heijo, Keelung, Keijo, Kobe, Kunsan, Kure, Moji, Nagasaki, Nagoya, Niigata, Osaka, Otaru, Sasebo, Seishin, Sendai, Taihoku, Takao, Tokushima, Yawata, Yokohama, Yokosuka, etc.
(Oversea) Alexandria, Antung, Baghdad, Bangkok, Batavia, Beirut, Berlin, Bombay, Buenos Aires, Calcutta, Cape Town, Casablanca, Dairen, Hankow, Harbin, Hongkong, Hsinking, Johannesburg, Karachi, London, Lyons, Madras, Manila, Melbourne, Mukden, Muzankiang, Nanking, New York, Paris, Rangoon, Rome, San Francisco, Santiago de Chile, Seattle, Shanghai, Singapore, Soerabaya, Sydney, Teheran, Tientsin, Tsinan, Tsingtao, Yingkow, etc.

MITSUBISHI KOGYO KAISHA, LIMITED

(Mitsubishi Mining Co., Ltd.)
Cable Address:—"IWASAKIMIN TOKYO"
Producers and Sellers of Coal, Metals & Other Minerals.
CAPITAL:—¥ 200,000,000
Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo.

Metal Mines:—Makimine, Otarizawa, Sado, Ikuno, Akenobe, Hosokura, Ohira, Teino, Arakawa, Tsunatori, Izushi, Takara, Kintei, Moran, Kenjho, Ginryu, Kasai, etc.
Coal Mines:—Takashima, Bibai, Namaruta, Shinyu, Hojo, Kamiyamada, Oyubari, Iizuka, etc.
Smelting & Refining Works:—Naoshima, Osaka.
Branches & Representatives: Tokyo, Yokohama, Niigata, Shimizu, Fushiki, Tsuruga, Wakamatsu, Moji, Nagasaki, Keijo, Otaru, Muroran, Hakodate, Sapporo, Kushiro, Aomori, Ominato, Funakawa, Sendai, Sakata, Rumoye, etc.
Mining & Metallurgical Laboratory—Omiya, Saitama-ken.

THE MITSUBISHI BANK, LIMITED

Cable Address:—"IWASAKIBAK TOKYO"
General Banking & Exchange Business.
CAPITAL:—¥ 100,000,000
Head Office: Marunouchi, Tokyo.

Branches: Tokyo, Osaka, Kobe, Kyoto, Nagoya, Otaru, Shanghai, Dairen, London, New York.

MITSUBISHI DENKI KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(Mitsubishi Electric Manufacturing Co., Ltd.)
Cable Address:—"IWASAKILEC TOKYO"
Manufacturers of Generators, Motors, Transformers, Other Electrical Machinery, Air Brake Apparatus, Door Control Engines, etc.
CAPITAL:—¥ 30,000,000
Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo.
Works:—Kobe, Nagasaki, Nagoya.

MITSUBISHI TRUST COMPANY, LTD.

Cable Address:—"IWASAKITRU TOKYO"
General Trust Business.
CAPITAL:—¥ 30,000,000
Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo.
Branch:—Osaka.

MITSUBISHI ESTATE COMPANY, LTD.

Cable Address:—"IWASAKILAD TOKYO"
Owners of Controllers of Estates & Buildings
CAPITAL:—¥ 15,000,000
Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo.

ESTABLISHED IN 1872

OJI SEISHI KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(THE OJI PAPER MANUFACTURING CO., LTD.)

*Chairman of the
Board of Directors*
GINJIRO FUJIHARA

President
KIKUJIRO TAKASHIMA

CAPITAL STOCK Yen 300,000,000

Annual Output:

Paper, all kinds 900,000 Tons
Wood Pulp 850,000 "

Manufacturers of PAPER & PULP

LIST OF MANUFACTURES:

*Cigarette Paper, Carbonizing Tissue, Condenser Paper, Celluloid Tissue,
Printing Paper, Newsprint, Book Paper, India Paper, Cover Paper,
Art Paper, Simili Paper, Writing Paper, Bond Paper, Ledger Paper,
Foolscap, Postcard Paper, Drawing Paper, Blotting Paper, Wrapping Paper,
Glassine, Imitation Parchment, Kraft Paper, Match Paper, Coloured Paper,
Wall Paper, Strawboard, Manilaboard, Coated Manilaboard, Bleached and
Unbleached Sulphite Pulp, Rayon Pulp, Sulphate Pulp, etc.*

Main Office: Sanshin Building, Tokyo, Japan

PAPER AND PULP MILLS:

Chosen	Kamedo	Nagoya	Shibakawa
Esutoru	Kanzaki	Nakatsu	Shirutoru
Fuji No. 1	Kokura	Noda	Tomakomai
Fuji No. 2	Kumano	Ochiai	Tomarioru
Fuji No. 3	Kushiro	Odomari	Toyohara
Fushiki	Kyoto	Oji	Yatsushiro
Iwabuchi	Maoka	Sakamoto	Yebetsu
Jujo	Miyakojima	Senju	Yedogawa
	Yodogawa		

The Kanegafuchi Spinning Co., Ltd.

ESTABLISHED 1889

HEAD OFFICE:
Sumida-machi, Mukojima-ku, Tokyo

Business Headquarters:
Misakicho, Hayashida-ku, Kobe

President: SHINGO TSUDA, Esq.

CAPITAL SUBSCRIBED Yen 120,000,000.00
CAPITAL PAID-UP " 75,000,000.00
RESERVES " 80,439,000.00

—(DECEMBER, 1937)—

Reelers and Throwsters of Raw Silk; Manufacturers of all classes of Pure Silks; Spinners of all kinds of Cotton and Spun Silk Yarns; Manufacturers of all kinds of Cotton Cloths, Spun Silk Fabrics and Woollens. Printing, Dyeing, Bleaching and Finishing Works.

For Home and Foreign Markets

AGENTS:

IN ALL THE IMPORTANT COMMERCIAL CENTRES
OF THE WORLD

Cable Address :
"GLASS TOKYO"



Code Used :
Bentley's Complete
Phrase Code

Registered Trade Mark

ASAHI GLASS CO., LTD.

(Established in 1907)

Capital : ¥40,000,000 (Paid up)

MANUFACTURERS AND EXPORTERS OF

Window and Sheet Glass, Polished Plate Glass, Figured Glass, Ribbed Glass, Figured and Ribbed Wire Glass, Photo Glass, Safety Glass, Glass Fibre, Soda Ash, Caustic Soda, Sodium Carbonate Anhydrous E. P., Sodium Bicarbonate, Sodium Sesquicarbonate, Calcium Chloride, Fire Bricks, Corhart Electrocast Blocks.

ANNUAL PRODUCTION CAPACITY

Glass Products	520,000,000 sq. ft.
Soda Products	593,600 tons
Calcium Chloride	20,000 tons
Fire Bricks.....	23,000 tons
Corhart Electrocast-Blocks	11,000 tons

Head Office :Marunouchi, Tokyo, Japan
Branch Offices :Tokyo, Osaka, Moji, Nagoya, Otaru
Factories :Amagasaki, Yawata, Yokohama
Laboratory :Yokohama

EXPORT AGENT :
Mitsubishi Shoji Kaisha, Ltd.



Nippon Seitetsu Kabushiki Kaisha

Yusen Building, Marunouchi, TOKYO

PRODUCTS : Pig Iron, Billets, Steel Bars, Structural Steel, Rails, Wire Rods, Sheet Piles, Steel Plates and Sheets, Strips and Tin Plate, Forgings, Slag-Cement, Slag-Bricks, Slag-Ballast, Slag-Wool, Ammonium Sulphate, Benzol, Creosote, Coal-Tar, Pitch, Etc.

Japan Iron & Steel Manufacturing Company Limited

HEAD OFFICE :

Yusen Building, Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku,
TOKYO

Mills :

<i>Yawata Iron & Steel Works</i>	Yawata-shi, Fukuoka Pref.
<i>Wanishi Iron & Steel Works</i>	Muroran-shi, Hokkaido.
<i>Kamaishi Iron & Steel Works</i>	Kamaishi-shi, Iwate Pref.
<i>Fuji Steel Works</i>	Kawasaki-shi, Kanagawa Pref.
<i>Osaka Steel Works</i>	Osaka-shi, Osaka Pref.
<i>Kenjiho Iron & Steel Works</i>	Kenjiho, Kokaido, Korea.
<i>Hirokata Iron & Steel Works</i>	Shikama-gun, Hyogo Pref.
<i>Seishin Iron & Steel Works</i>	Seishin, Kankyohokudo, Korea.

THE DENKI KAGAKU KOGYO KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(THE ELECTRO-CHEMICAL INDUSTRY CO., LTD.)

ESTABLISHED IN MAY, 1915

CAPITAL Yen 56,000,000

President : SHINTARO OHASHI

Managing Director : TETSUJI KONDO

MAIN PRODUCTS

Calcium Carbide, Calcium Cyanamide,
Ammonium Sulphate, Ferro Alloys
and other chemical products

HEAD OFFICE:

Yurakucho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo

FACTORIES:

Aomi Factory

Aomi, Niigata Pref.

Omuta Factory

Omuta, Fukuoka Pref.

Teikoku Senryo Seizo K. K.

(Imperial Dyestuffs Mfg. Co., Ltd.)

Kaijo Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo

WORKS:

Fukuyama, Kokura

CODES:

Bentley's, A.B.C. 6th

OSAKA OFFICE:

Sanwa Building

Kawaramacht, Higashi-ku,

OSAKA

CAPITAL Y5,000,000

President Y. HARA

Managing Director H. TAKAHASHI

Executive Directors S. ENDO & Z. TAKAHASHI

LIST OF PRODUCTS

Sulphur Colours

Vat Colours

Basic Colours

Direct Colours

Naphtol Colours

Acid Colours

Acid Mordant

Chemicals &

Colours

Intermediates

FUKUYAMA WORKS



TRADE MARK

Established 1854



Capital ¥10,000,000

MARUBENI

MARUBENI SHOTEN, LTD.,

36, Hommachi 2 Chome, Higashiku, Osaka

MANUFACTURERS, EXPORTERS & IMPORTERS
Specialist in Textile & Yarns

COTTON, RAYON, SILK, STAPLE FIBER, WOOLLEN
PIECE GOODS & YARNS

TEXTILE MACHINERY, ACCESSORIES & PARTS,
"MORAL" CASH REGISTER,

CHEMICALS—INDUSTRIAL CHEMICALS, MEDICINES,
DYEING MATERIALS, etc.

BUILDING MATERIALS—CEMENT, GALVANISED
SHEET, FRAMES, NAILS, WIRE, etc.

PROVISIONS—CANNED & BOTTLED GOODS, TEA, etc.
"KINGLITE" (PHENOL RESIN) INSULATIVE & ACID
PROOF RODS, TUBES, PIPES, COCKS,
VALVES, PUMPS, etc.

TEXTILE SUNDRIES & GENERAL MERCHANDISE

BRANDS:

KINSEN (Rayon & Silk P. Goods)	RAYONITE BOW (Yarns)
LUMINA (Rayon & Silk P. Goods)	BENITEX (Piece Goods)
LUMINAX (Rayon & Silk P. Goods)	OASIS (Cotton P. Goods)

Cable Address : APPOLICO

Branches :

Code Used : Schofield's 3 Letter
Paramount 3 Letter
Oriental 3 Letter
Oriental Improved
Bentleys' Complete

Bombay	Shanghai
Tientsin	Seoul
Tokyo	Osaka
Kobe	Nagoya
Kyoto	Fukui

IMPORTS:

RAW COTTON, JUTE, ETC.

EXPORTS:

COTTON, RAYON, WOOLLEN YARN &
PIECE GOODS, STAPLE FIBRE &
YARN, TEXTILES AND
SUNDRY GOODS

CODES:

ABC 6TH, ACME.
BUENTING'S 2ND, BENTLEY'S
COMPLETE & 2ND,
LOMBARD, ORIENTAL,
PARAMOUNT, SCHOFIELD'S
ECLECTIC & 3 LETTER,
UNITED TELEGRAPH



POST:

CENTRAL P. O. BOX 57,
OSAKA, JAPAN

TELEGRAMS:

"SHOWA MENKA OSAKA"

SHOWA MENKA KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(SHOWA COTTON CO., LTD.)

GOSHO BUILDING, NAKANOSHIMA,
OSAKA, JAPAN



NIPPON SEIREN

KABUSHIKI KAISHA, LTD.

157, Komagome-Higashi-Katamachi, Hongo-ku, Tokyo
Tel. Koishikawa (85) 1135, 1136, 1137, 1138

Bichromate of Potash	Water-tightening Liquid for Cementing Materials	Phosphide of Lime
Granulated Bichromate of Potash	Potassium Permanganate	Phosphoric Acid & Anhydride
Bichromate of Soda	Potassium Chlorate	Glycero-Phosphate of Lime
Bichromate of Ammon	Caustic Potash	Calcium Hypophosphite
Chromic Acid Anhydride	Sulfuric Acid (Contact & Oleum)	Zinc White
Chrome Alum	Aluminium Sulfate	Red Lead
Chrome Green	Sodium Sulfate dehydrated	Litharge
Chrome Yellow	Metallic Chrome	Lithopone
Silicate of Soda DI	Metallic Zinc, Electro.	Sulfide of Zinc
Silicate of Soda TR	Ferro-Chrome	Blanc Fixe (Pulp & Dry)
Silicate of Soda TT	Ferro-Mangan	Barium Chloride
Amorphous Silicate of Soda	Ferro-Silicon	Barium Carbonate
Metasilicate of Soda	Ferro-Phosphorus	Barium Nitrate
Silicate of Potash	White Phosphorus	Nitre
Water Softening Agent (Green Purelite)	Red Phosphorus	Iodine & Pots. Iodide
Quick Cementing Liquid	Phosphorus Sulfide (Sesqui & Penta)	Varnish
		Size & Drier

FACTORIES :

Head Factory : 1, 1-chome, Komatsugawa, Tokyo.
Tel. Joto (68) 668, 669, 696, 697.

2nd Factory : 3, 1-chome, Komatsugawa, Tokyo.
Tel. Joto (68) 0735.

Osaka Factory : 7, 3-chome, Izuohama-dori, Taisho-ku, Osaka.
Tel. Sakuragawa 2231, 6181.

Kameido Factory : 200, 9-chome, Kameido-machi, Joto-ku, Tokyo.
Tel. Sumida (74) 3072, 3073.

Koriyama Factory : Takaminami, Koriyama City, Fukushima-ken.
Tel. Koriyama 0173, 0863.

TOKYO OFFICE:

Kogin Bldg.,
Marunouchi Tokyo



ANGAUR & HUAESU
PHOSPHATE MINES:
Angaur Is., Huhaesu Is.,
South Sea Islands

Nanyo Takushoku Kaisha Ltd.

ESTABLISHED 1937

HEAD OFFICE: Palau I., South Sea Is.

CAPITAL SUBSCRIBED ¥20,000,000

CAPITAL PAID-UP ¥15,273,000

President: Baron RYUTARO FUKAO



ENTERPRISES:

SHIPPING, FISHING INDUSTRY, PHOSPHATE MINING, AGRICULTURAL INDUSTRY, CONSTRUCTION OF TOWN RESIDENTIAL QUARTERS, THE MAKING OF LOANS ON THE MORTGAGE OF VARIOUS INDUSTRIAL ENTERPRISES AND ON OTHER CORPORATIONS

Agents for

THE BANK OF JAPAN

Concerns invested by our Company:—

Toyo Aluminium Kabushiki Kaisha
Kyokuyo Hogeï Kabushiki Kaisha
Nanyo Aluminium Kabushiki Kaisha
Nanko Suisan Kabushiki Kaisha
Nantaku Kogyo Kabushiki Kaisha
Nantaku Pineapple Kabushiki Kaisha
Nippon Shirju Kabushiki Kaisha

Nanyo Kisen Kabushiki Kaisha
Taiyo Shinju Kabushiki Kaisha
Nanpo Sangyo Kabushiki Kaisha
Nanyo Denki Kabushiki Kaisha
Nettai Nosan Kabushiki Kaisha
Honan Sangyo Kabushiki Kaisha
Kabushiki Kaisha Nanyo Simpo Sha



Taiwan Takushoku Kabushiki Kaisha

(The Taiwan Development Company, Ltd.)

ESTABLISHED 1936

Capital.....¥30,000,000

President: **KYOHEI KATO**
Vice-President: **TADASU HISAMUNE**

PLANTATION, AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY,
FISHERY, MINING, AND OTHER INDUSTRIES
IN FORMOSA AND ABROAD; FINANCING OF
EMIGRATION AND ENTERPRISES OVERSEAS

Head Office: **TAIHOKU, FORMOSA**

Branch Office: **TOKYO, TAICHŪ, TAINAN, TAKAO**

Cable Address :
NANHATSU TOKYO



Code Used :
Bentley's Complete
Bentley's 2nd Phrase
A B C
Acme & Private

Nanyo Kohatsu Kabushiki Kaisha

—(ESTABLISHED 1921)—

CAPITAL - - - - - ¥40,000,000 *

PRESIDENT : **HARUTSUGU MATSUE**



LINE OF BUSINESS : EMIGRATION, LAND DEVELOPMENT
MANUFACTURES : SUGAR, PURE ALCOHOL, STARCH, PHOS-
PHATE, FISHERY, COTTON, DAMAR, COPAL

HEAD OFFICE : SAIPAN, SOUTH SEAS

BRANCH OFFICES : SAIPAN, TENIAN, ROTA, PALAO, PONAPE,
PELILIU, TOKOBEI, KUSAIE, SHINNAN Is., NEW GUINEA, CELE-
BES, HALMAHERA, CERAM, PORTUGUESE-TIMOR, PHILIPPINE
BOHOL

FACTORIES : SAIPAN, TENIAN, ROTA, PONAPE

TOKYO OFFICE : 1-CHOME, UCHISAIWAI-CHO, KOJIMACHI-KU,
TOKYO

TELEPHONE : GINZA 2191—2198

Referenc : MITSUI BANK—YASUDA BANK—BANK OF CHOSEN—DAIICHI
GINKO—DAIHYAKU GINKO—NOMURA BANK—BANK OF TAIWAN

O.S.K. Line



NEW ROUND THE WORLD LINER M. S. "ARGENTINA MARU"

MAIDEN VOYAGE

From Yokohama11th July, 1939
From Kōbe15th July, 1939

SISTER BOAT

M. S. "BRASIL MARU"

Commissioned early in 1940

O. S. K. ROUND THE WORLD LUXURY CRUISE

JAPAN • CHINA • MALAY • CEYLON • S. AFRICA • BRASIL •
URUGUAY • ARGENTINA • PANAMA •
NORTH AMERICA • JAPAN

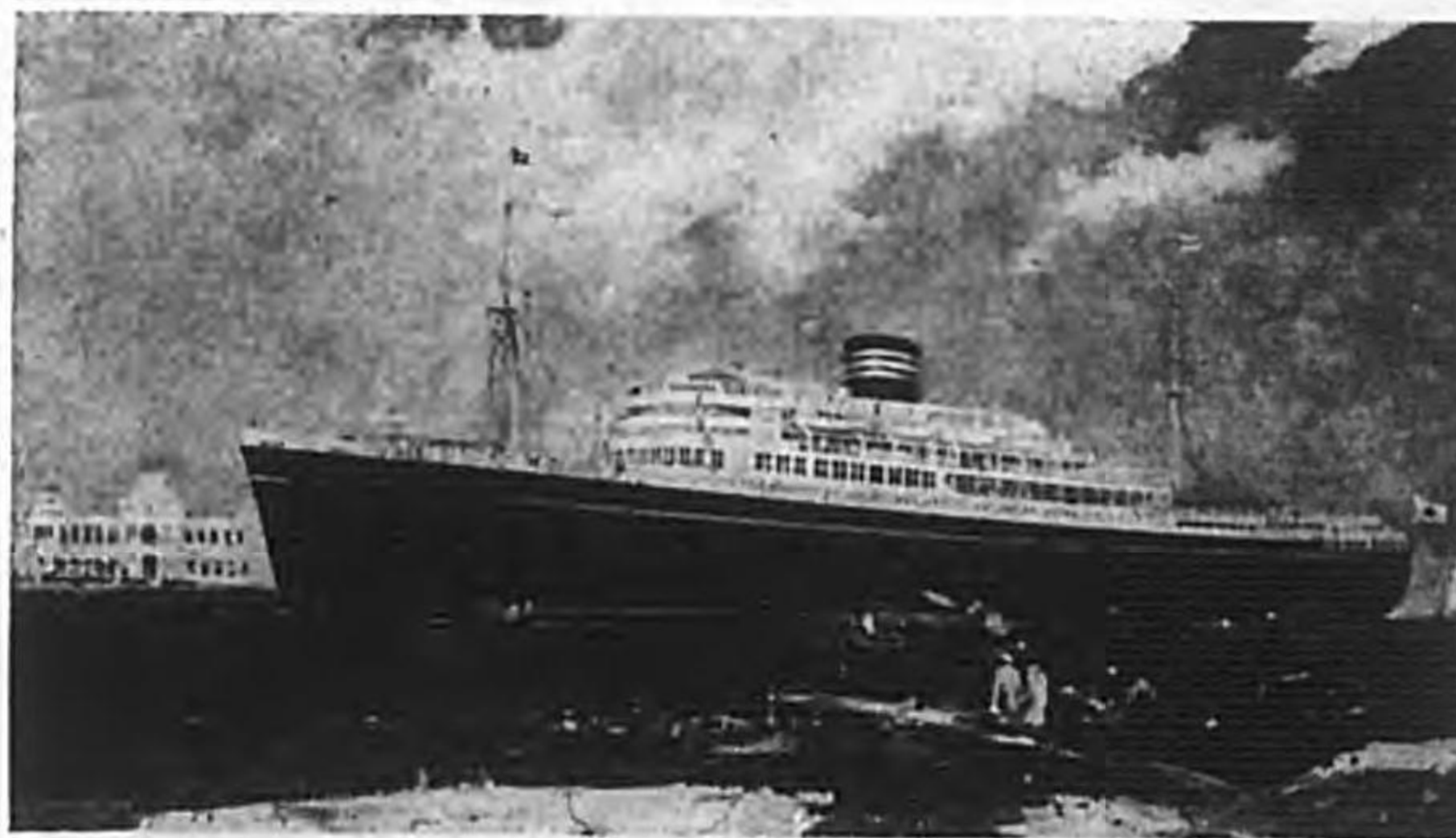
TAKING ONLY 3 MONTHS
FARE £162 UP

ŌSAKA SYŌSEN KAISYA

HEAD OFFICE • ŌSAKA, JAPAN
BRANCHES & AGENTS ALL OVER THE WORLD

World-wide Passenger and Freight Services

N. Y. K. Positively Leads Seven Seas
With the Swift, Modern Liners
of Its Great Fleet



New Japan-Europe Line Vessel, Nitta Maru—16,500 gross tons
Sister Vessels—Yawata Maru and Kasuga Maru

N. Y. K. LINE

(JAPAN MAIL)

Head Office: TOKYO, JAPAN

Branches & Agents throughout the World



REGULAR SERVICES:

Japan-East Australia
 West Australia-Orient
 Japan-New Zealand
 Australia-Philippines-Hongkong
 Shanghai-North China
 Japan-(Shanghai-North China)-
 Seattle-Vancouver

Japan-(Shanghai-
 North China-Philippines)-
 Los Angeles-San Francisco-
 Portland
 Far East-New York-
 South America
 Japan-Persian Gulf
 Japan-Philippines
 All over the World.

IRREGULAR SERVICES:

Vessels under the Company's
 Management
 900,000 Tons D/W

YAMASHITA LINE



THE YAMASHITA STEAMSHIP CO., LTD.

Head Office: KOBE, JAPAN

Cable Address: "YAMASHITA KOBE"

BRANCHES:—TOKYO, YOKOHAMA, NAGOYA, OSAKA,
 IMOJI, WAKAMATU, YAWATA, OTARU, DAIREN,
 TSINGTAO, SHANGHAI, MANILA, LONDON, SYDNEY,
 WELLINGTON (N.Z.), SEATTLE, PORTLAND, NEW YORK,
 VANCOUVER & BUENOS AIRES.

AGENCIES IN ALL PRINCIPAL PORTS OF THE WORLD

YAMASHITA KISEN KAISHA



KOKUSAI LINE

KOKUSAI KISEN KAISYA

S. KUROKAWA
PRESIDENT

Owners of Motor and Steam Vessels
 Aggregating
 300,000 Tons Deadweight

Head Office: Tokyo, Japan
 Telegraphic Address: INTERSHIP TOKYO

PRINCIPAL REGULAR SERVICES

Far East—North Europe—Far East

*The new motor vessels in the above service operate from Kobe to Marseilles in
 32 days via Suez or from Yokohama to London in 36 days via Panama,
 carrying a limited number of passengers.*

Orient—New York—Orient

*The new motor vessels in the above service operate from Yokohama to New York
 in 24 days via Panama, carrying a limited number of passengers.*

New York—Hamburg—New York Japan—Australia—Japan
 Japan—Africa—Japan Japan—Bombay—Japan
 Etc., Etc., Etc.

BRANCH OFFICES

KOBE: Kogin Building, Nisi-mati, Kobe
 Telegraphic Address: KOKUSAISEN KOBE

YOKOHAMA: Sin-ei Building, Hontyo, Yokohama
 Telegraphic Address: KOKUSAISEN YOKOHAMA

LONDON: Holland House, Bury Street, London, E. C. 3
 Telegraphic Address: KOKUSAISEN LONDON

NEW YORK: 1 Broadway, New York
 Telegraphic Address: KOKUSAISEN NEWYORK

LOS ANGELES: 490 Chamber of Commerce Building, Los Angeles, Calif.
 Telegraphic Address: KOKUSAISEN LOSANGELES

Agencies at all Principal Ports in the World

TEL. ADDRESS:
KURIBAYASI SYOSEN
MURORAN



TEL. ADDRESS:
KURIBAYASI SYOSEN
MARUNOUCHI TOKYO

KURIBAYASI SYOSEN KAISYA

PRESIDENT. T. KURIBAYASI

CAPITAL.....¥10,500,000

HEAD OFFICE: MURORAN

BRANCH OFFICE: TOKYO, OSAKA, KOBE, JOSIN

22 Vessels with 77,000 GROSS TONNAGE:

Regular Services

Muroran, Kushiro and Karafuto—all important ports of Japan. Hakodate—North Kurile Is., Petropavlovsk



Fleet

"ZUISYO MARU"	"GOZAN MARU"
"EISYO MARU"	"YUBAE MARU"
"CANADA MARU"	"HUKI MARU"
"PANAMA MARU"	"SINPUKU MARU"
"TAIRYU MARU"	"RYUHO MARU"
"SINGO MARU"	"SINTO MARU"
"SUEZ MARU"	"KOSIN MARU"
"SINYU MARU"	"HOKUYO MARU"
"SINSYO MARU"	"SIMMEI MARU"
"TAIEI MARU"	"HUKUEI MARU"
"DOVER MARU"	"SINZUI MARU"



TOYO KISEN KAISHA

(Oriental Steamship Co., Ltd.)

TOKYO, JAPAN

I. TAKAHASHI, President



FLEET

M.V. "Soyo Maru"	S.S. "Koyo Maru"
M.V. "Ryoyo Maru"	S.S. "Fukuyo Maru"
M.V. "Tenyo Maru"	S.S. "Reiyo Maru"
M.V. "Zenyo Maru"	S.S. "Biyo Maru"
M.V. "Keiyo Maru"	S.S. "Hayo Maru"
S.S. "Senyo Maru"	S.S. "Woyo Maru"
S.S. "Manyo Maru"	S.S. "Juyo Maru"
S.S. "Okuyo Maru"	

Total Tonnage: 121,277 Tons



TATUUMA KISEN KABUSIKI KAISYA

(Tatuuma Steamship Co., Ltd.)

Head Office
32 Honmati Nisinomiya
Japan

Kobe Office
α Kaigan Dori Kobe
Japan



SHIP OWNERS

Fleet 27 Steamers D/W 165,000 tons

REGULAR SERVICES:

Tokyo-Osaka-Kobe-Tyosen Tokyo-Osaka-Kobe-Taiwan
Japan-North China

IRREGULAR SERVICES:

Far East, Austraria, North Pacific etc.

OCEAN  LINE

The United Ocean Transport Co., Ltd.

(DAIDO KAIUN KABUSHIKI KAISHA)



Fortnightly Fast Freight Service

JAPAN PACIFIC & ATLANTIC COAST

M/S "KOSEI - MARU"	10,190 D/W TONS
M/S "KORYU - MARU"	10,140 D/W TONS
M/S "KOYEI - MARU"	10,089 D/W TONS
M/S "KOTOKU - MARU"	10,003 D/W TONS
M/S "KOZUI - MARU"	10,002 D/W TONS
M/S "TAIHEI - MARU"	9,307 D/W TONS
M/S "KEISHO - MARU"	9,119 D/W TONS
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THE JAPAN YEAR BOOK

1939-40

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1939-40



THE FOREIGN AFFAIRS ASSOCIATION
OF JAPAN

THE KENKYUSHA PRESS

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JAPAN YEAR BOOK

1939-40



THE FOREIGN AFFAIRS RESEARCH
OF JAPAN

PREFACE

In the compilation of The Japan Year Book, 1939-40, care has been taken to preserve the features which characterized the preceding editions, while adding a new chapter on China. All the chapters have been gone over thoroughly and revised so as to bring the material up to date and to insure greater balance as between the various sections. In this attempt some sections and even chapters have had to be entirely or partially re-written.

Both in selection and classification of material the original plan used in the previous editions of the Year Book has been followed as the most convenient one to present this country as it is before the reader.

The Map of Japan issued with the Year Book has been changed into a combined Map of Japan and Manchoukuo to facilitate reference to places coming under review.

It is with pleasure that the editor acknowledges with thanks the assistance he has received from many friends, especially from officials of the Government, for material used in the compilation of this book.

Tokyo, September, 1939

The Editor

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 kilogrammes
Mommé	$= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0.13228 \text{ oz. (Avoir.)} \\ 0.12057 \text{ oz. (Troy)} \end{array} \right\}$	=3.75000 grammes
Kin=160 mommé	$= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1.32277 \text{ lb. (Avoir.)} \\ 1.60754 \text{ lb. (Troy)} \end{array} \right\}$	=0.60000 kilogamme
Koku (fish)=40 kan		
Metric system,		
Kilogramme=	2.20459 pounds (Avoir.)=	0.26667 kan
Gramme	=15.43210 grains (Avoir.)=	0.26667 mommé
Ton	=1,000 kilogrammes=	2,204.6 pounds
Gross Ton	=1,016.064 kilogrammes=	2,240 pounds

Measures of Length

Ri=36 cho=2,160 ken	=2.44030 miles=	3.92727 kilometres
Ken=6 shaku	=5.96516 feet=	1.81818 metres
Shaku=10 sun	=0.99419 foot=	0.30303 metre
Shaku (cloth measure)	=	1.25 shaku
Tan (a roll of cloth)	=	about 35 shaku
Metric system,		
Kilometre=	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. kilometres
Cho (chobu)=10 tan=	3,000 tsubo=	2.45064 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. kilometre=	0.386 sq. mile=	247.10 acres=
		0.06484 sq. ri.

Measures of Capacity

Koku=10 to=100 sho=1,000 go=	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 4.96005 \text{ bushels} \\ 5.11902 \text{ } \\ 47.95389 \text{ gallons} \\ 39.6804 \text{ } \end{array} \right.$	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{(U.S.A.)} \\ \text{(U.S.A.)} \\ \text{(British)} \end{array} \right\} = 1.80391 \text{ hl.}$
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,		
Hectolitre	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 2 \text{ bush.}, 3.35 \text{ pecks (Dry)} \\ 26.42 \text{ gal. (Liquid)} \end{array} \right\}$	=5.54352 sho

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MAP OF JAPAN AND MANCHOUKUO (In Separate Envelope)



THE 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 Mr. Kinsaku Maruo, chamberlain at the Aoyama Palace, in charge of his affairs. At the age of 7, he entered the elementary department of the Peers' School. In 1912, the year of his father's accession to the Throne, he was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Army and Sublieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy and decorated with the Grand Cordon of the Chrysanthemum.

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. Promotion to the ranks of Lieutenant in the Army and Sublieutenant, 1st Class in the Navy came the same year; to Captain and Lieutenant in 1916, and to Major

and Lieutenant-Commander in 1920. 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. Two years later, his ranks in the defence services were raised to those of Lieutenant-Colonel and Commander. Marriage to Princess Nagako took place on January 26, 1924. In 1925, he was promoted to the ranks of Colonel in the Army and Captain in the Navy. 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 Kyoto 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 23, 1922. At that time she was decorated with the 1st Order of Merit. She was proclaimed Crown Princess on the day of the marriage,

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).

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]. She entered the Peers' School for Girls in 1890 and advanced to the higher course six years later, leaving in 1899. Her marriage to Crown Prince Yoshihito, later the Emperor Taisho, took place on May 10, 1900. She was proclaimed Crown Princess on that day; Empress on July 30, 1912, and Empress Dowager on December 25, 1926. Her Majesty now resides in the Omiya Palace, Akasaka-ku, Tokyo.

H.I.H. THE CROWN PRINCE

H. I. H. Prince TSUGU (Akihito) was born on December 23, 1933, and is Heir-Apparent.

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 29, 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 Infantry, 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 decorated with the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum in the same year

and 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 Mr. 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 Hirotsuki 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 Colonel on August 1, 1939. His residence is at Omotécho, Akasaka-ku, Tokyo.

H. I. H. Prince TAKAMATSU (Nobuhito), Lieutenant-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 Sublieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy, he was ordered to take up duties aboard the battleship Fuso. At the same time, he was decorated with the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum. Promotion to the rank of Sublieutenant, 1st Class came in 1927.

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, partly to return 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. The Imperial Prince, now a Lieutenant-Commander, is attached to the office of the Naval General Staff.

H. I. H. Prince MIKASA (Takahito), Lieutenant in the Cavalry, 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. 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.

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 (Sanétomi) [Peer].

The heir is H. I. H. Prince Kan-in (Haruhito), Major in the Cavalry, 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 Directors of the Research Section of the Cavalry School. On July 14, 1936, he married Princess Ichijo (Naoko), 4th daughter of the late Prince

Ichijo (Sanétoru) [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 29, 1876, 1st daughter of the late Prince Iwakura (Tomasada) [Peer]. The residence is at Tokiwamatsu-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 (Sadanaru). Ordered to Germany in 1899, 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, and Admiral of the Fleet in April of the same year.

His consort, H. I. H. Princess Fushimi (Tsuneko), was born on September 23, 1882, 9th daughter of the late Prince Tokugawa (Yoshinobu) [Peer]. She died on August 18, 1939.

The 1st son and heir, H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyoshi), Captain in the Navy, died on October 18, 1938. His consort Tokiko, 3rd daughter of the late Prince Ichijo (Sanétoru) [Peer], was born on June 20, 1902. Their 1st son H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyuki), 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 Kio-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). He was appointed Sublieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy in August, 1919, and on July 10, 1922, married Princess Kaya (Sakiko), who died in the great earthquake the following year. His residence is at Fujimi-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

The House of Yamashina was founded in 1664 by the late Prince Yamashina (Akira), 1st son of H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Kunihé), who had earlier entered the priesthood and taken the name Kanshuj.

KAYA. The 2nd head of the House. H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Tsunenori), Colonel in the Cavalry, 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 is now Colonel 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 Toshibiko, who was born on May 16, 1903, 5th daughter of the late Prince Kujo (Michizane) [Peer]. They have six children: H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Kuninaga), born on April 21, 1922; H. I. H. Prince Koya (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 and H. I. H. Princess Kaya (Michiko), born on July 29, 1923.

H. I. H. Princess Kaya (Yoshiko), consort of the late Imperial Prince Kaya (Kuninori), was born on December 7, 1865, 1st daughter of the late Marquis Daigo (Tadayori).

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 Sanbancho, Kojimachi-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 four 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; and the fourth daughter H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Hidoko) was born on July 21, 1937.

H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Chikako), consort of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyoshi), mother of H. I. M. 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 Minase (Takasuke). There are three children: H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Iehiko), born on

March 17, 1920; H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Norihiko), born on November 19, 1922, and H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Kuniko), born on May 18, 1917, and was married to Prince Niho (Sukemoto) [Peer] on April 2, 1939.

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 Ise, 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, 1898; Second Lieutenant, January, 1899; Captain, March 1901; sent to Europe for study, 1903; returned home and immediately sent to the front at 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 Ise, 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 Mitake-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

ASAKA. H. I. H. Prince Asaka (Yasuhiko), 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 on August 1, 1939.

There are two children: H. I. H. Prince Asaka (Takahiko), Captain in the Infantry, 1st son, born on October 8, 1912 and married Chikako, 5th daughter of Count Tōdō (Takatsugu) on December 16, 1938; and H. I. H. Princess Asaka (Kiyoko), 2nd daughter, born on August 2, 1919. The residence is at Shirokané Dal-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 three sons: H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Morihiro), Lieutenant in the Artillery, 1st son, born on May 6, 1916; H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Akitsumo), 3rd son, born on May 13, 1920, and H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Toshihiko), 4th son, born on March 24, 1929. The residence is at Ichibei-cho, Azabu-ku, Tokyo.

KITASHIRAKAWA. H. I. H. Prince Kitashirakawa (Nagahisa), Captain in the Artillery, 4th of the line, was born on February 19, 1910, only son of the late Imperial Prince Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa), who died in Paris in 1923. He is now a student in the Staff College. 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 (Fusako), consort of the late Prince Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa), 3rd of the line, was born on January 28, 1890, 7th daughter of the Emperor Meiji. One of her three daughters remains in the House: H. I. H. Princess Kitashirakawa (Taeko), 3rd daughter, born on April 15, 1920.

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 Takanawa Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

TAKEDA. H. I. H. Prince Takéda (Tsuneyoshi), Captain in the Cavalry, 2nd of the line, was born on March 4, 1909, only son of the late Imperial Prince Takéda (Tsunehisa). He married Miss Mitsuko, 2nd daughter of Prince Sanjo (Kintōru) [Peer], on May 12, 1934.

H. I. H. Princess Takéda (Masako), consort of the late Imperial Prince Takéda (Tsunehisa), was born on Sep-

tember 30, 1888, 6th daughter of the Emperor Meiji.

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

Korean Royalty

Treatment equal to that accorded members of the Imperial House is given to members 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. H. Prince Ri (Gin), Major-General in the Infantry, head of the House of Shotoku-kyu since the death in 1926 of his brother, Prince Ri (Seki), 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 on July 15, 1938, and appointed Commander of the Second Infantry Guard Brigade, Imperial Guard Division, on August 1, 1939.

H. 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. H. Princess In, consort of the late Prince Ri (Seki), 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, Kojimachi-ku.

H. H. Prince Ri (Ken), Captain in the Cavalry, heir of the retired Prince Ri (Ko), was born on October 28, 1909. On graduation from the Military Academy in 1930, he was appointed Lieutenant in the Cavalry, and was promoted to the rank of Captain on August 1, 1936. He was appointed Commander of the 2nd Infantry Regiment, Imperial Guard Division on December 10, 1938.

H. H. Princess Ri (Yoshiko), whom Prince Ri (Ken) married in 1931, was born on October 6, 1911, 1st daughter of Captain Yutaka Matsudaira, of the Navy. Their first son, Ri (Chu), was

born on August 14, 1932, second son Ri (Ki) was born on March 4, 1935, and the first daughter Ri (Haruko) was born 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 Artillery, 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 heirless.

H. H. Princess Ri (Sanshu), whom Prince Ri (Gu) married on May 3, 1935, was born on November 11, 1914, grand-

daughter of Marquis Boku-Ei-ko. They have one child Prince Ri (Sei) who was born on April 23, 1936.

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 Zai-tei.

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 at their own wishes, 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 (Téruhisa)	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 (Shigémáro)	" " "	1929
Count Higashi-Fushimi (Kunihidé)	" Kuni (Kuniyoshi)	1931
Marquis Otowa (Tadahiko)	Asaka (Yasuhiko)	1936
Count Fushimi (Hirohidé)	Fushimi (Hiroyasu)	1936

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)	Late Viscount Takénouchi (Korétada)	1892
Éiko	" "	Viscount Higashizono (Motoharu)	1899
Teiko	" Fushimi (Sadamaru)	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)	Kuroda (Nagamichi), heir of Marquis	1914
Yukiko	Late Kaya (Kuninori)	Machijiri (Kazumoto), heir of Viscount	1915
Hiroko	" Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	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), heir of Viscount	1924
Noriko	Nashimoto (Morimasa)	Count Hirohashi (Tadamitsu)	1926
Hanako	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Marquis Kwacho (Hironobu)	1926
Tokuhei	Late Ri (Kei)	Count So (Takéyuki)	1931
Kikuko	Asaka (Yasuhiko)	Nabéshima (Naoyasu), heir of Marquis	1931
Minéko	Late Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	Tachibana (Tanékatsumi), heir of Viscount	1933
Ayako	" Takéda (Tsunéhisa)	Sano (Tsunémitsu) heir of Count	1934
Sawako	" Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	Viscount Higashizono (Motobumi)	1935
Kuniko	" Kuni (Taka)	Prince Niho (Sukemoto)	1939

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 provincial general, 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 ¥3,965,000. 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 Éisho 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 the Takato, Shinano, but in 1879 it came under the control of the Imperial Household Department 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) Niho Detached Palace. Originally Niho Castle, in Nakagyo-ku, Kyoto, it was made a detached palace in 1884.

(9) 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.

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

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

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

(13) Hayama Imperial Villa. Because of its proximity to Tokyo, at Hayamamachi, Kanagawa prefecture, it is a favourite retreat, especially in the winter. Here the Emperor Talsho died in 1926.

(14) Taté-ishi Rest-House. It is located at Nishifura-mura, Miuragun, 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 Gunma 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, Mugi-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-ralls, etc.

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

In 1930, the Nagoya Detached Palace was donated to Nagoya city; and the Odawara Imperial Villa and Shizuoka Imperial Villa were abolished, part of the latter being granted to Shizuoka city. In 1931, the Atami Imperial Villa and Kamakura Imperial Villa were abolished and the former was sold to the city of Atami.

Miyanoshita Imperial Villa was abolished, December, 1933, and given to H. I. H. Imperial Prince Takamatsu.

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 it is required. At present, it amounts to ¥4,500,000. The Board of Imperial Auditors is located in the Imperial Household Department and its present Director-General is Mr. Michio Kinoshita. Prince Salonji, 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 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 in the execution of his duty.

Present Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals is Mr. Kurahéi Yuasa.

The Imperial Household Department

The Imperial Household Department 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 follows 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 Department are:

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

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), meaning the "Flowers of the Nation". 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, 67 Koreans of distinction were selected to become Peers, 6 Marquises, 3 Counts, 22 Viscounts and 45 Barons.

The families of the Peerage stood as follows on June 30, 1938:

Grade	Number of Families	Korean Peers
Prince	19	—
Marquis	41	7
Count	109	3
Viscount	376	17
Baron	408	32
Total	953	59

Decorations

To recognize and reward persons who render distinguished and meritorious service 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, but worn at the left hip 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 devices 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

and resting on the left hip, 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.

Precious Crown Its full name is the Imperial Order of the Precious 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 Precious 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.

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.

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.

Medals of Honour The Medal with Red Riband is conferred on persons who risk their lives in rescuing others; the Medal with Green Riband on those who distinguish themselves for filial piety, feminine virtues, devotion to the aged and loyalty to masters; the Medal with Blue Riband on those who aid public and private undertakings by important discoveries or inventions; the Medal with Dark Navy Blue Riband on those who contribute money or property for public welfare; and the Medal with Yellow Riband, divided into two classes, gold and silver, on persons who help undertakings connected with coast defence. Cups of gold or wood or monetary gifts are sometimes granted simultaneously to the recipients.

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 Department in accordance with the Court Rank Act, promulgated in 1926.

There were 282,257 holders of Court rank at the end of 1937, divided as follows:

	Senior	Junior
First	—	—
Second	28	76
Third	492	880
Fourth	2,032	5,127
Fifth	10,105	13,754
Sixth	16,740	21,191
Seventh	40,490	71,577
Eighth	97,688	2,077

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 honour, known as Kyuchuzue 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:

Prince Salonji (Kimmochi)
Count Kiyoura (Kéigo)
Baron Kuratomi (Yuzaburo)
Viscount Kanéko (Kentaro)
Viscount Ishiguro (Tadanori)
Baron Yamamoto (Tatsuo)
Mr. Ikunosuké Fujisawa
Baron Kojiro Uchiyama
General Goro Shiba

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
	Taikan Yokoyama
	Yukihiko Yasuda
	Kansétsu Hashimoto
	Kéigétsu Kikuchi
	Eisaku Wada
	Saburosuké Okada
	Takéji Fujishima
	Metal Carver
Metal Worker	Shushin Katori
Ceramist	Hazan Itaya

State Funerals

There had been no special provision for the State Funeral for honoured personages, although it had been held several times since the 16th year of Meiji, or 1883. The Government, however, issued the State Funeral Ordinance as an Imperial Order 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; the first one is called the Grand Funeral and is for the Emperor, the Great Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager and the Empress, while the second one 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 Funerals are held under special ritual according to the Provisions of the Imperial House Funeral Ordinance.

The State Funeral for the subjects is held in honour of those who contributed 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 (Sanétomi) [Peer]	1891

Year	Occasion	Purpose or Recipient	Amount in Yen
1897	Empress Dowager Éishe'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 works		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 Colonies		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 Saiséi-kai, the Imperial Charity Association, which continues active today. 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 the Colonies 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, Viscount Kiyoura, Premier at the time, established the Kéifuku-kai,

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 (Masayoshi)	1924
Prince Ri (Séki)	1926
Marquis Togo (Héihachiro)	1934

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:

Beatitude Association, for promotion of social work done by private bodies. On every Kigénsétsu, the anniversary of the foundation of the country, which takes place on February 11, Imperial grants are made directly to public and private social welfare organizations. At first limited to such organizations as the Japan Red Cross Society, the Women's Patriotic Association, the Imperial Association for the Support of Soldiers, the Salvation Army, the Fukuden-kai (Charity Association) Orphanage and the Tokyo Asylum, these grants have been greatly increased since 1921 and now go even to superior private bodies in Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Sea Islands. In 1939, the number of the recipients of the Imperial donation reached 807 organizations, the money amounting to about ¥200,000.

In 1932, a grant of ¥1,500,000 was made

to the Association for the Promotion of Learning through the Education Minister.

Since the days of the Emperor Meiji, it has been customary for the Emperor, while travelling in the provinces to supervise the grand military and naval manoeuvres or on observation tours, to send representatives to various welfare organizations to present money or other gifts.

Also since the beginning of the Meiji Era, the Emperor, the Empress, the Empress Dowager and the Imperial Princes and Princesses have frequently visited charity hospitals, schools for the blind and dumb and other social welfare institutions. Many such organizations have Princes and Princesses of the Blood as presidents. The present 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 the 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.

Kigénsétsusai, 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-Korétsai, 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.

Shūki-Korétsai and **Shūki-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 Kashiko-dokoro at the Imperial Palace on October 17.

Niinamé-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, 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 Komei, great-grandfather of 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 the Emperor, is performed on February 21 in the Koréiden. Offerings are made and a ritual conducted at his mausoleum on the same day.

Tenchōsétsusai, held in the Three Shrines on April 29, the birthday of 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 the Emperor. Offerings are made and a ritual performed at his mausoleum on the same day.

Meijisétsusai 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-barai, 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

Position and Extent

The Japanese Empire, wholly within the Asiatic half of the North Pacific, consists of Japan proper and various colonies. 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 Yezo, and 4,068 adjacent islands of smaller size. Russia ceded the long chain of islands called the Chishima, or the Kuriles, in 1875. The Ogasawara-jima, or Bonin Islands, were formally annexed in 1877, and the Ryukyu, or Loochoo Islands, in 1879, though both groups had been earlier under Japanese control. All these areas today constitute Japan proper.

The Colonies The first colony, 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. Chosen or Korea, was annexed in 1910. The mandated Caroline, Mariana and Marshall Islands, former German possessions in the South Sea, were received by Japan at the Versailles Peace Conference, 1919. With the exception of the Aleutians, the northern half of Saghalien, the Philippines, North Borneo, Hawaii and a few small scattered islands, including Guam, the Empire spreads over all the islands in the Pacific north of the equator.

The most northern part of the Empire, the island of Araito in the Chishima, touches 50° 55' N. Lat. The southern extreme is in the mandated Caroline Islands, 1° 01' N. Lat. To the west, the Bokoto extend to 119° 18' E. Long., and to the east, the mandated Marshall Islands reach 172° 10' E. Long.

Length and Width If the South Sea Islands, the Kwantung Leased Territory the South Manchuria Railway Zone and the continental peninsula of Chosen are omitted, the Empire is a semi-circle of islands extending in latitude from 21° 45' N. to 50° 55' N., approximately 3,380 kilometres, and in longitude from 119°

18' E. to 156° 30' E., with a maximum width of about 320 kilometres.

Area

The Home Ministry's revised investigation puts the total area of the Empire at the end of 1936, at 681,323.30 square kilometres, distributed as shown in the following table:

	Area in sq. km.
Grand Total	681,323.30
Japan proper	382,545.42
Honshu	230,532.32
Shikoku	18,772.83
Kyushu	42,078.99
Hokkaido	88,775.04
Ryukyu	2,386.24
Chosen	220,794.34
Taiwan	35,834.35
Bokoto	126.86
Karafuto	36,090.30
Kwantung Leased Territory	3,462.45
South Sea Mandated Islands	2,148.80
S. M. R. Zone	320.78

Of 675,391.27 square kilometres, exclusive of the three 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 each.

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

AREA OF PREFECTURES (In sq. km.)

	Area in sq. km.	%
1. Hokkaido	88,775.04	23.2
2. Iwaté	15,235.31	4.0
3. Fukushima	13,781.61	3.6
4. Nagano	13,626.13	3.6
5. Niigata	12,578.05	3.3
6. Akita	11,663.86	3.0
7. Gifu	10,494.70	2.7
8. Aomori	9,630.92	2.5
9. Yamagata	9,325.76	2.4
10. Kagoshima	9,103.81	2.4
11. Hiroshima	8,436.52	2.2
12. Hyogo	8,322.85	2.2
13. Shizuoka	7,769.91	2.0
14. Miyazaki	7,738.85	2.0
15. Kumamoto	7,437.75	1.9
16. Miyagi	7,273.75	1.9

17. Kochi	7,103.62	1.8
18. Okayama	7,046.48	1.8
19. Shimané	6,624.60	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	6,090.99	1.6
24. Yamaguchi	6,082.11	1.6
25. Mié	5,765.28	1.5
26. Éhimé	5,667.26	1.5
27. Aichi	5,081.14	1.3
28. Chiba	5,062.09	1.3
29. Fukuoka	4,939.70	1.3
30. Wakayama	4,723.48	1.2
31. Kyoto	4,621.20	1.2
32. Yamanashi	4,465.87	1.2
33. Fukui	4,264.48	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. Saitama	3,802.68	1.0
40. Nara	3,688.60	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	2,352.81	0.6
45. Tokyo	2,144.80	0.6
46. Kagawa	1,858.73	0.5
47. Osaka	1,813.63	0.5
Total	382,545.42	100.0

Geological Formation

The Japanese Islands lie at the east end of the Eurasia Continent, spreading more than 3,800 kilometres 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 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 to 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 Kwenlun mountain system. Recent excavations seem to show that it 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 centre 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 Akaiishi range and runs through the Kil 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.

Palaeozoic Layer The Japanese palaeozoic layer 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 Palaeozoic Era the Japanese land lay deep in the waters and did not treasure up coal as did the Palaeozoic layer of the Continent. The oldest stratum of the Main Island which has been proved with a fossil is the Carboniferous layer, and any decision on older layers must remain uncertain until similar proof is available. The Palaeozoic layer forms the bones of the big mountain ranges developing at the circumference of the Archaean stratum of the southern part of the Nippon Bow and is distributed in the Akaiishi, Kil, 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 Stratum 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 Kil range, the southern

part of Shikoku, the Kyushu range and the Taiwan range. In Chosen, it is found in the Kelsho 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 Stratum 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 day of the same era, the lowest and the newest stratum 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 ..	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 Akaishi 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, Cryptogams grew in great forests which disappeared with the end of the era.

At the Jurassic period of the Mes-

ozoic 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 Coniferæ 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 Kwenlun 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 Akaishi range through Shikoku Island and Kii province. It is also known that the sea between the Japanese Islands and the Continent is but 200 metres 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 a sharp comparison, 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, paleontology gives us proof in fossil teeth of the elephant. In the layers which belong to the tertiary period or the diluvial day of the quaternary period, these fossils are often found, and some are of the same kind as those excavated in the southern districts of China. We may thus conclude 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 Yezo, 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 Akaishi ranges.

Japanese mountains have characteristic fine creases, cut by the rainfall, which is specially heavy in this country. The Kyushu, Shikoku and Akaishi 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 Mahiru 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, Kampuzan, Moriyoshi-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 Dalsen, 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 Heradake, Taté-yama, Ko-tombi, Washibadake, Iwo-daké, Norikura-daké and On-také.

(6) The Mikasa volcanic chain, to the west of the Hida volcanic chain, beginning with Horaiji-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 Kaimon and extending to the Ryukyu Islands, where it connects Iwojima, Kuchino-Irabéjima, Kuchinosé, Nakano-jima, Suwanosé, Waruiwa-jima, Tori-shima and Aguni-shima.

(9) The amphibolite andesite volcanic chain, which connects Aono-yama of Shimané 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, Tateshina-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, Hak-koda, 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 Hwang-hai, 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 metres, sounded by the warship

Manshu in 1925 between Honshu and Ogasawara Is. 30° 49' N. Lat. and 142° 18' E. Long. Previously the record was the 8,517 metres of the Tuscarora 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 kilometres. 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 kilometres, has a mean depth of 839 metres. The Sea of Japan, estimated to extend over 1,007,307.41 square kilometres, has a maximum depth of 3,440 metres and a mean depth of 1,350 metres. The Eastern China Sea, except near the Ryukyu and Taiwan, is less deep. With a length of about 354 kilometres and a maximum width of 77 kilometres, the Inland Sea covers 3,430.43 square kilometres and reaches its greatest depth at 124 metres.

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 26° 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 605 kilometres, 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 metres at Jinsen, or Chemulpo, Chosen, and 5.5 metres at Milké, Omuta, on Tsukushi Bay, Kyushu, but in the Sea of Japan they average little more than 0.6 metre. Along the Sea of Okhotsk, they range from 1.2 to 1.5 metres; along the Pacific coast, from

1.8 to 2.7 metres, and in the Inland Sea, from 1.8 to 4 metres.

Coast-line The coast-line is exceptionally long, being 52,231.787 kilometres for the whole Empire, exclusive of the Kwantung L. T. and the mandated South Sea Islands. For Japan proper, it is 30,605.458 kilometres, which means a kilometre to every 12.43 square kilometres of area, and for Chosen 18,203.726 kilometres, a kilometre to every 12.12 square kilometres. 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 harbours, about half of which are utilized for trading. The best harbours 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 metres above sea level, the highest being the celebrated Mount Fuji, which lifts its white cap sublimely 3,773 metres above the beautiful Suruga Gulf. Chosen has 51 and Formosa 130 mountains in the same category, but the latter has five peaks higher than Mount Fuji, Nittaka-yama being the highest mountain in the Japanese Empire with its height of 3,950 metres. 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 metres)

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

Name	Location	Height (m.)
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
Shirouma	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
Misawa	Nagano	2,846
Minami	Nagano	2,842
Ho-o	Yamanashi	2,841
Washiwa	Toyama	2,841
Nakanomata	Toyama	2,840
Nakadaké	Toyama	2,839
Subari	Nagano	2,838
Mitsumata	Nagano	2,835
Yoko	Nagano	2,830
Misumi	Nagano	2,830
Masago	Nagano	2,826
Ébisu	Gifu	2,823
Osawa	Shizuoka	2,819
Nukido	Gifu	2,812
Kogochi	Nagano	2,805
Kamtkochi	Nagano	2,803
Rengé	Toyama	2,799
Choko	Yamanashi	2,799
Onidaké	Nagano	2,799
Asahi	Nagano	2,786
Gongen	Nagano	2,786
Takaminé	Yamanashi	2,779
Rengé	Niigata	2,769
Akaiwa	Nagano	2,769
Tsubakuro	Nagano	2,763
Yakushi	Yamanashi	2,762
Jonen	Nagano	2,757
Tatésawa	Nagano	2,754
Yotsutaké	Gifu	2,744
Iwo	Nagano	2,742
Shogigashira	Nagano	2,727
Kotaro	Yamanashi	2,725
Kiso	Nagano	2,721
Minamimasago	Nagano	2,710

Name	Location	Height (m.)	Name	Location	Height (m.)
Akazawa	Nagano	2,706	Kanzan	Kantocho	3,667
Hoéisan	Shizuoka	2,702	Taisuikutsu	Taichushu	3,645
Shiasan	Nagano	2,700	Kiraishuzan	Karenkocho	3,605
Kitaarakawa	Shizuoka	2,698	Tóguntaisan	Taichushu	3,605
Jijli	Nagano	2,697	Daisétsu	Taichushu	3,600
Karamatsu	Nagano	2,696	Taihasenzan	Shinchikushu	3,573
Narusawa	Nagano	2,667	Sétsupō	Takaoshu	3,569
Chogataké	Nagano	2,664	Takushatai	Taichushu	3,488
Kitanomata	Toyama	2,661	Tōrantaiizan	Taichushu	3,465
Kamigataké	Toyama	2,661	Gōkanzan	Taichushu	3,394
Kitami	Nagano	2,658	Nangyoku	Takaoshu	3,391
Iwagoyazawa	Nagano	2,657	To-zan	Shinchikushu	3,390
Néishi	Nagano	2,646	Shinkan	Karenkocho	3,381
Karasawa	Nagano	2,632	Hitsuroku	Karenkocho	3,379
Hakusan	Ishikawa	2,631	Tantaizan	Karenkocho	3,371
Zarugataké	Shizuoka	2,629	Hakkotaiizan	Taichushu	3,349
Gakidaké	Nagano	2,627	Nansoto	Karenkocho	3,333
Minamizawa	Nagano	2,625	Nōkōzannanpō	Karenkocho	3,333
Washitaké	Toyama	2,625	Pinanshuzan	Takaoshu	3,305
Éboshitaké	Nagano	2,621	Kantakumanzan	Taichushu	3,304
Fudosan	Nagano	2,621	Kashipanan	Karenkocho	3,294
Senninyama	Toyama	2,617	Guntaiizan	Taichushu	3,292
Tobiyama	Toyama	2,614	Tarokotaiizan	Karenkocho	3,292
Otakeyama	Nagano	2,614	Koséki	Takaoshu	3,255
Koéhyaku	Nagano	2,613	Nōkō	Karenkocho	3,252
Yukikura	Toyama	2,611	Byobu	Karenkocho	3,234
Nokogiri	Nagano	2,605	Taibu	Taitocho	3,232
Dainichi	Toyama	2,605	Senzan	Karenkocho	3,222
Chausu	Nagano	2,600	Batotsunofu	Taihokushu	3,221
Kimpo	Yamanashi	2,599	Hainotonan	Taitocho	3,175
Fudo	Toyama	2,595	Mablisan	Taihokushu	3,167
Kokushi	Yamanashi	2,592	Hakuséki	Karenkocho	3,138
Hikari	Nagano	2,591	Wanoshin	Takaoshu	3,132
Tsuji	Yamanashi	2,585	Antogun	Karenkocho	3,089
Shirané	Tochigi	2,577	Rantaiizan	Taichushu	3,076
Nagabéi	Nagano	2,565	Kanmon	Karenkocho	3,052
Okaramatsu	Yamanashi	2,555	Taisékiiko	Karenkocho	3,048
Itotake	Nagano	2,554	Kosétsu	Taichushu	3,043
Nanakura	Nagano	2,550	Bokyo	Taichushu	3,028
Asama	Gumma	2,542	Unsu	Kantocho	3,010
Kurohi	Nagano	2,540	Burakusan	Kantocho	2,992
Tatéshina	Nagano	2,530	Ronbutan	Karenkocho	2,948
Ushikubi	Toyama	2,527	Sékiul	Tainanshu	2,895
Amikasa	Yamanashi	2,524	Kokolbo	Karenkocho	2,883
Nittadaké	Shizuoka	2,524	Héigan	Taichushu	2,879
Maékaké	Nagano	2,520	Sékisan	Takaoshu	2,877
Kohikagé	Nagano	2,505	Sentogan	Takaoshu	2,862
Minoto	Nagano	2,500	Rokurin	Taichushu	2,859
Chosen			Hattsuséki	Taichushu	2,841
Hakuto	Kankyōnando	2,744	Manmen	Takaoshu	2,840
Kanbo-san	Kankyōhokudo	2,541	Nantaiibu	Kantocho	2,831
Hokusuihaku	Kankyōnando	2,522	Muto	Takaoshu	2,822
Shonichi	Kankyōnando	2,506	Toho	Taichushu	2,809
Taiwan			Surabatan	Takaoshu	2,747
Nitaka	Taichushu	3,950	Kinajil	Shinchikushu	2,713
Tsugitaka	Taichushu	3,931	Sékisan	Taichushu	2,694
Shukoan	Karenkocho	3,833	Sansu	Karenkocho	2,692
Maboras	Taichushu	3,806	Rokujotai	Shinchikushu	2,684
Nankotaiizan	Karenkocho	3,797	Taito	Taichushu	2,663
Chuosenzan	Karenkocho	3,715	Takai	Taihokushu	2,657
			Kéinan	Takaoshu	2,642

Name	Location	Height (m.)	Name	Height (m.)
Sui	Tainanshu	2,627	Daisen	1,713
Futako	Karenkocho	2,577	Kanmuri-yama	1,339
Kodama	Tainanshu	2,568	Aono-yama	908
Rinparapara	Takaoshu	2,555		
Matsuyama	Taichushu	2,551	Shikoku Island	
Gunko	Taichushu	2,532	Tsurugi-yama	1,955
Tozan	Tainanshu	2,520	Sasaga-miné	1,860
Mubéyama	Karenkocho	2,514	Ishizuchi-yama	1,921
Shukusan	Taichushu	2,504	Onigashiro-yama	1,142
OTHER FAMOUS MOUNTAINS				
(Below 2,500 m.)				
Ohu district				
Osoré-yama ¹		700		
Iwaki-yama		1,625		
Hakkoda-yama		1,585		
Moriyoshi-yama		1,454		
Iwaté-yama		2,041		
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		
Otakeiné-yama		1,193		
Kanto district				
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		
Nokogiri-yama		329		
Tsukuba-yama		876		
Kinki district (Kyoto, Osaka)				
Oé-yama		833		
Ibuki-yama		1,377		
Hira-také		1,174		
Kurama-yama		670		
Hiéi-san		848		
Atago-yama		924		
Rokko-san		932		
Ikoma-yama		642		
Kongo-san		1,112		
Sanjo-také		1,720		
Odagahara-san		1,695		
Shaka-také		1,800		
Koya-san		985		
Chugoku district				
Kori-yama		1,510		
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 1934 was about 4,348,862 h.p.				
The major rivers, with navigable length, follow:				
	Length in Km.	Navigable Length in 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		

¹ Yama, také, daké, san, zan, miné, and sen suffixed all mean "mountain"

	Length in Km.	Navigable Length in Km.
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		
Dakusuikei	165	—
Shimotansuikéi	156	—
Sobunkéi	132	—
Tansuigawa	130	—
Chosen		
Ohryokko	790	698
Rakutoko	525	344
Tomanko	521	85
Kanko	514	330
Daidoko	439	260
Kinko	401	130
Ringhinko	254	124
Seisenko	199	152
Reiseiko	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 (m.)	Area (Sq. km.)	Depth (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

	Above Sea Level (m.)	Area (Sq. km.)	Depth (m.)
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
Oguraké	10.0	7.90	1.7
Hirofuchiko	3.0	7.12	2.3
Ashinoko	723.2	7.09	43.5
Kumhamako	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
Abashiriko	0	34.04	17.6
Akkéshikanko	0	31.99	6.9
Mashuko	345.0	20.00	211.5
Tonbetsuko	0	15.00	3.2
Akanko	399.0	12.93	36.6
Karafuto			
Taraikako	0	180.06	1.8
Tominaiko	0	168.18	34.0
Tofuchiko	0	40.43	6.4
Kuchishiko	0	34.77	3.7
Waaiko	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	—
Koshihashiko	—	8.27	—
Amaiké	—	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:

- (a) Tropical forest zone, or the banian (*Ficus retusa*) zone.

- (b) Subtropical forest zone, or the kashi (*Quercus acuta*) zone.

- (c) Temperate forest zone, or the beech-tree (*Fagus Sieboldi*) zone.

- (d) 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 Formosa lower than 450 m. above sea level, as well as the Loochoo, Bonin, 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 Loochoo Islands and Formosa it forms impenetrable forests. The coconut tree is rare but grows well. In Formosa 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 (*Caria 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 Formosa, and as low as sea level in the northern half of the Loochoo Islands. The plains of Kyushu, Shikoku, that part of the Main Island south of 35 degrees North Latitude, and the southern half of the Korean 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, 600 m. in Chugoku or west of Kobe; 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 Korea; 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 Formosa, the mountain valleys which are between 1,800 and 4,550 m. above sea level belong to this zone, and there grow the cryptomeria, the *Picea jezoensis*, the hemlock and the Formosan 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 acrose trees such as the Japanese cypress, the *Chamaecyparis obtusa*, the hatchet leaved arborvitae (*Thujaopsis dolabrata*), the fir (*Abies firma*), the *Tsuga Sieboldii*, the *Abies homolepis*, the Korean pine (*Pinus koraiensis*), the *Larix kaempferi*, and the like. The timber line of this zone is 4,550 m. in Formosa,—Kyushu, Chugoku, Kinki or the Kyoto-Osaka districts have no mountain which rises above this line; 2,060 m. in Shikoku; 1,700-1,760 m. in Shizuoka prefecture; 1,500 m. in Nagano and Yamanashi prefectures; 1,400-1,060 m. in the northern districts of the Main Island; 450 m. in the southern part of Hokkaido, and down to sea level in the centre 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 Kiso valley,

namely, the Japanese cypress, the *Thuja standishii*, the *Thujopsis dolabrata*, and the *Sciadopitys verticillata*. The *Cryptomeria* 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 Formosa, and does not exist in Kyushu, except in small patches above 900 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 randalensis* and the Alpine-rose (*Rhododendron himalaicum*) grow in this zone, but the principal trees differ according to districts. In Formosa, 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 Bonin 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.

Korea 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 Ja-

pan.

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 Korea. 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 *Pemphis acidula*, *Scaevola frutescens* and *Tournefortia argentea* 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. There are in Japan, nearly 20,000 species of flora known to botanists. The "Illustrated Book of Botany" published by a Tokyo botanical association contains 2,070 representative species classified as follows:

I Phanerogamæ		
A Angiospermæ		
(a) Dicotyledonæ	No. of	Species
1 Sympetalæ		519
2 Archichlamydeæ		1,046
(b) Monocotyledonæ		242
B Gymnospermæ		
(a) Gnetacæ		1
(b) Coniferæ		
1 Araucariacæ		23
2 Taxacæ		7
(c) Cycadacæ		1
(d) Ginkgoacæ		1
II Archegoniata		
A Pteridophyta		
(a) Lycopodiæ		
1 Isoetacæ		1
2 Selaginellacæ		6
3 Psilotacæ		1
4 Lycopodiaceæ		12
(b) Equisetinæ		
Equisetacæ		4
(c) Filicinæ		
1 Marsiliacæ		1
2 Salviniacæ		2

3 Ophiolossacæ	5
4 Osmundacæ	1
5 Schizacæ	1
6 Gleicheniacæ	2
7 Polypodiaceæ	97
8 Hymenophyllacæ	4
B Bryophyta	
(a) Hepaticæ	2
(b) Musci	9
III Thallophyta	
A Fungi	
	21
B Algæ	
1 Rhodophycæ	29
2 Phacophycæ	25
3 Characæ	1
4 Chlorophycæ	6
Total	2,070

Fuji, Sakura, Sumiré, Sugé,
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 very many which are specially Japanese and unique in the botanical world. Several of the most prominent of these plants are selected here and a brief explanation on each of them is given below:

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, it therefore cannot be classed as belonging to the same species as the Japanese fuji.

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. Botanists in the West consider it an independent species, but it is only 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 are very long and they sometimes measure as much as several feet.

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. *spontanea*), or wild cherry blossom, is the most important of all species of cherry blossoms. The famous poem of Norinaga Motoori, Shikishima no

Yamato gokoro-wo hito iowa ba
Asahi ni niwo yamazakura bana.
(Isles of blest Japan!)

Should your Yamato Spirit
Strangers seek to scan,

Say—the cherry wild and fair

Lightened up in morn's sun-lit air!) refers to this yamazakura. 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.

Recently some scientists made an attempt to call it *shiro yamazakura*, or white wild cherry, because they gave the name of *beni yamazakura*, or red wild cherry to the other species. But to this red wild cherry the name of *oyamazakura* (*Prunus serrulata* var. *sachalinensis*) has already been given.

Oyamazakura grows in the mountain districts of the Central provinces, Tohoku, Hokkaido and Karafuto and was not probably known to our ancestors in the western half of the Main Island who loved yamazakura.

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

The so-called *satozakura*, 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 to-day all over the country with Tokyo as the centre, is known as *somei-yoshino* (*Prunus yedoensis*), in the botanical world. It appeared in Tokyo at the beginning of the Meiji Era. But where florists at Somei got its seedlings is not known. It was about the fifth year of Meiji that they were planted in Ueno Park. The reason that this blossom is called *somei-yoshino* by scientists is to avoid confusion with the sakura at Yoshino mentioned above. *Somei-yoshino* appears not to have existed in Yedo, the present Tokyo, during the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

This *somei-yoshino*, strange as it is, existed exclusively in Tokyo, and was

rarely transplanted out of the city for long. It is found everywhere in Japan to-day, but it is only since 1902 that it began to spread out from Tokyo.

It has become known that this species of sakura is growing wild in Saishu Island, Korea. However, since it cannot be surmised that its seedlings were brought to Tokyo from this island, the true origin of this sakura in Japan proper is still unknown. Some Western botanists consider somei-yoshino as a species akin to higan-zakura (*Prunus subhirtella*), which blossoms at the time of the equinoctial week, and oshima-zakura (*Prunus serrulata* var. *albida*, a kind of yamazakura which grows on Oshima Island, Tokyo prefecture). But it is not confirmed yet.

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 (western) district and blossoms much prettier than the other variety. It is also found in Nagano prefecture, although it grows into a comparatively large-sized tree.

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. Shidare-zakura (the willow sakura) also comes from this species and is called azuma-higan.

Sumiré (*Viola mandshurica*) The species of sumiré or violets is called viola in botany and violet is the popular English name, while sumiré is the popular Japanese name for it. This name is said to have originated in the carpenter's "sumitsubo or sumiré", or Indian inkstand made of wood resembling the flower in shape. According to this theory "sumiré" gradually changed into "sumiré," the name by which the flower is known today.

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 phalaecarpa*), ezo-sumiré, ki-sumiré, tsukushi-sumiré (*Viola diffusa*), etc.

Japan is a kingdom of violets where more than a hundred species are found. No other country in the world compares with Japan in this respect.

Sugé (*Carex*) Of sugé, carex or sedges, the most prominent is kasa sugé (*Carex disparata*), or umbrella sedges,

and mino sugé, or raincoat sedges. More than 300 species of carex are found in Japan.

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 touches the Oriental heart and has been the subject of many celebrated poems. There are many species such as masuhono-susuki, masuno-susuki, sugurono-susuki, etc.

Susuki grows abundantly on mountains and in fields, and the tufts of obana nod before the wind, giving a characteristic Japanese touch to the autumnal landscape.

Kiku (*Chrysanthemum sinense*) Kiku or chrysanthemum is a celebrated flower in Japan. It is worthy of being 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*. The name chrysanthemum is that given to the genus of this family in Europe apart from kiku, before this flower was known in that continent. Sinense is the name of the species and means China. Therefore *Chrysanthemum sinense* means the Chinese chrysanthemum. *Chrysanthemum japonicum*, therefore, is the scientific name of the Japanese chrysanthemum or ryuno-giku. *Chrysanthemum arcticum*, or arctic chrysanthemum, is the scientific name for kohama-giku.

The origin of the chrysanthemum is the wild chrysanthemum grown in China. The Chinese began to cultivate it. 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 Loochoo Islands, Kyushu, Shikoku and the part of the Main Island west of Kobé.

He gave it the name of nojigiku (*Chrysanthemum sinense* var. *japonense*).

The stems, leaves, flowers, colour and fragrance which nojigiku possesses are the same as those which the original species of cultivated chrysanthemum in China has.

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, Saghalien, Hokkaido, Japan proper, and Korea, while the Oriental ones range over the islands of Formosa and Loochoo.

Because birds and animals can move their habitat it is more difficult to classify them but, in general, Formosa, the Loochoo, and the Bonin Islands belong to the so-called Oriental zone, according to the world biological division, and include such tropical animals as the buffalo (*Bubalus bubalis*), the Formosan leopard (*Felis dardi brachyurus*), the Manis pentadactyla and the big snakes. Tropical insects are found in abundance. In the Loochoos 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 Bonin Islands and southward the Japanese white-eye congregate. On Sulpur 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 (*Capricornis crispus*), deer (*Sika nipponi*), 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 scintillans*), snowy heron (*Egretta garzetta garzetta*), hawk (*Astus gentilis schvedowi*, etc.); the crow (*Corvus coronoides japonensis*) is the 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 Korea, the hedgehog (*Erinaceus koreanus*), tiger (*Felis tigris coreensis*), Korean pheasant (*Phasianus colchicus karpowi*), crane (*Megalonis japonensis*) and the like are seen.

As there is a wide difference between the kinds of animals in the Main Island and Korea, 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 of it, the majority of them being considered as peculiar and finding their homes in the southern district. Such species are represented by *Hynobius nebulosus*, *H. stejnegeri*, *H. vandenburgi*, 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. Although not common, it is not very rare. It is known to occur also in China, and may be said to represent a good example which marks off the East Asian sub-region from the others. 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.

The freshwater fishes are known from an immense number of species, many of which appear to be rather limited in distribution. Some are confined to particular river valleys, others inhabit the lakes of a limited district only, while some are restricted to a comparatively narrow area. Generally speaking, the southern district presents us with the following species: *Acheilognathus limbatus*, *Sarcocheilichthys variegatus*, *Opsarichthys uncirostris*, *Zacco temminckii*, *Brittosus kawamabari*, *Sicyopterus japonicus*, *Rhinogobius hadropterus*, etc. Ranging over the northern area are found such forms 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

On the Pacific side Japan has two principal streams of different temperatures. The warm current is known as the Japan stream, or Kuroshio, which is peculiar for its high salinity. This stream has its origin in the north Pacific current from the east, and passes into the East China Sea, moving northwards by way of Luzon and Formosa.

The cold current is the well-known Kamchatka stream, or Oyashio, which rises from the Behring Sea, and passes down south along the eastern coast of the Kurile group and Hokkaido, extending farther southwards off Kinkazan, or beyond, where it meets the aforesaid Kuroshio.

Receiving a paramount influence of the currents just sketched out, 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 limits north in the Behring Sea and south off the Loochoo group, respectively, the following three faunal areas may be more or less clearly recognized, though contiguous zones blend one into the other:

(1) Northern zone, extending from the shore of the Kurile group to that of the northern part of Honshu which lies to the north of Kinkazan.

(2) Middle zone, extending from off Kinkazan to near the Shionomisaki, on the Pacific side, and representing the zone of mingling of the arctic or subarctic and tropical or subtropical forms. The Japan Sea may be dealt with as corresponding as a whole to this zone.

(3) Southern zone, comprising the shores of the parts of Japan proper lying to the south of the Shionomisaki, the Loochoo group, the Bonin group, and Formosa.

Northern Zone This district is frankly subarctic, 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 Steller 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 (*Callorhinus 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 Kuriles.

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

Around the Kuriles, Hokkaido, and Saghalien are found in immense quantities many fishes like the cod, salmon, and herring, which are of the same great economic importance as in Norway, Scotland, Newfoundland, and other countries.

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 echinoderms.

Ranging from the Behring Sea to the Japan Sea occurs *Paralithodes camtschatica*, which attains a large size and is one of great economic importance. Its famous fishing grounds are the coasts of Kunashir and Saghalien. With this is associated the most edible crab, *Chionecetes opilio*.

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

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

Middle Zone 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, which are of great economic importance. 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 finwhale (*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 Korea.

Here intruded from the southern seas are found a few species of reptiles, like *Distertia 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, bonitos and tunnies 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 karasboya*, *Microcosmus hartmeyer*, *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 trituberculatus* is also endemic and ranges all around Japan proper. Having a range nearly similar to the giant crab is an edible spiny lobster, *Palinurus 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 bonitos and *Euthynnus* are scarcely found in the Sea. Some crabs, like *Chionecetes 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 much 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 characteristically Japanese, having much in common with the neighbouring shores of the islands of Bonin, Loochoo, and Formosa, where there are forms which are almost or quite identical with those met with about the South Sea 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*, *Grammatorcynus bilineatus*, and *Gymnosarda nuda* which inhabit the tropical seas have their range to Loochoo; *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 Formosa to Hokkaido, on the Pacific side, and to middle Honshu, on the Japan Sea side, though very few in number. *Cybilium 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*, *Evyris caridialis* and *Taius tumifrons* are distributed from Formosa 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 Idzu, and *Safole toeniura* 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 Loochoo and Kyushu.

Ranging from off the Goto group to the Kumano Sea is a famous coral-bed, where we have 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 Bonin group, as well as north to Formosa.

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 Of more than 20,000 species of animals in Japan, 3,725 representative species are contained in the "Illustrated Book of Japanese Animals," by Mr. S. Uchida and others. In addition there are illustrations of 113 species which have been imported into Japan for various purposes. They are classified as follows:

I Vertebrata	No. of Species
A Mammalia	91
B Aves	280
C Reptilia	83
D Amphibia	34
E Pisces	448
F Cyclostomata	2
II Prochordata	
A Cephalochorda	1
B Ascidiacea	36
C Thaliacea	4
D Larvacea	2
E Enteropneusta	2
III Arthropoda	
A Insecta	568
B Myriapoda	15
C Arachnoidea	70
D Crustacea	493
IV Mollusca	
A Cephalopoda	40
B Pelecypoda	128
C Scaphopoda	3
D Gastropoda	320
E Amphineura	5
V Prosopygia	
A Sipunculoidea	8
B Bryozoa	42
C Entoprocta	1
D Brachiopoda	4
E Phoronida	2
VI Annelida	
A Chaetopoda	88
B Archiannelida	1

	No. of Species
C Myzostomida	4
D Hirudinea	30
E Echiuroidea	6
VII Trochelminthes	
A Rotifera	28
B Gastrotricha	1
C Kinorhyncha	1
VIII Chætogonatha	5
IX Nematelminthes	
A Nematoda	65
B Scanthocephali	5
X Nemetritini	10
XI Plathelminthes	
A Turbellaria	25
B Trematoda	50
C Cestoda	40
XII Echinodermata	
A Crinoidea	30
B Asteroidea	52
C Ophiuroidea	56
D Echinoidea	56
E Elothuroidea	56
XIII Coelenterata	
A Ctenophora	8
B Actinozoa	67
C Scyphomedusæ	23
D Hydrozoa	115
XIV Porifera	
A Calcarea	19
B Hexactinellida	31
XV Mesozoa	1
XVI Protozoa	
A Ciliphora	22
B Sporozoa	20
C Rhizopoda	30
D Mastigophora	26
XVII Larva	72
Total	3,725
XVIII Foreign animals	113

Earthquakes

Italy and Japan are the two countries in the world which are famed for earthquakes. In the frequency of earthquakes in recent years Japan beats Italy. In 1923, when the Great Kanto Earthquake occurred, there were 2,786 perceptible earthquakes and 3,915 imperceptible ones. The number of perceptible earthquakes in the five years, 1927-1931, was 12,476 in the whole Empire. About 45% of them occurred in the Kanto district, Kyoto and Osaka districts coming next with 22%. But such earthquakes as were accompanied with casualties were very few, numbering only three during the five-year period. The seismic history of the country since 1596 records 21 big earthquakes in which the loss of lives amounted to over 1,000 each.

GREAT EARTHQUAKES IN JAPAN IN THE PAST THREE CENTURIES

Date	A.D. Japanese Year	Districts	Number of Persons killed
Sept. 3	1596 (Keicho 1)	Oita (Kyushu)	708
Sept. 4	1596 (Keicho 1)	Kobé—Osaka district	1,173
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
June 16	1662 (Kanbun 2)	Central district	800
Feb. 2	1666 (Kanbun 6)	Takada (Niigata prefecture)	1,500
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 20	1751 (Hōrēki 1)	Takada (Niigata prefecture)	2,000
March 8	1766 (Meiwa 3)	Tsugaru straits	1,335
May 21	1792 (Kansēi 4)	Unzen Mt. (Kyushu)	15,200
Dec. 18	1828 (Bunsēi 11)	Niigata prefecture	1,443
May 8	1847 (Kōka 4)	Nagano and Niigata prefectures	12,000
July 9	1854 (Ansēi 1)	Nara to Tokyo	1,057
Dec. 23	1854 (Ansēi 1)	Pacific coasts	600
Dec. 24	1854 (Ansēi 1)	Kyushu, Shikoku, Isé	3,000
Nov. 11	1855 (Ansēi 2)	Tokyo and vicinity	7,000
Nov. 6	1872 (Meiji 5)	Hamada (Shimané prefecture)	600
Oct. 28	1891 (Meiji 24)	Gifu and Aichi prefectures	7,275
Oct. 22	1894 (Meiji 27)	Akita and Yamagata prefectures	720
June 15	1896 (Meiji 29)	Miyagi, Iwaté and Aomori prefectures	27,122
Sept. 1	1923 (Taisho 12)	Kanto district	44,279
May 23	1925 (Taisho 14)	Northern Hyogo prefecture	394
March 7	1927 (Showa 2)	Western Kyoto prefecture	3,017
Nov. 26	1930 (Showa 5)	Shizuoka and Kanagawa prefectures	248
March 3	1933 (Showa 8)	Miyagi, Iwaté and Aomori prefectures	2,805
April 21	1935 (Showa 10)	Shinchiku, Taichu in Taiwan	3,185

The Kanto Earthquake and Fire which occurred on September 1, 1923, was the severest of all the recorded earthquakes in the country in the number of casualties and amount of damages.

The quake started at 11:58:31 A.M. on that day, the epicentre being at the bottom of the sea 23 kilometres below the sea level near the mouth of the Sagami river, 139°17' E. Long., 35° 23' N. Lat. It was a seismic activity caused by a block movement of the earth, and the shock was felt all over the Empire and recorded by all the seismographs of the world. The largest width of the vibration reached to about 8 inches, and the duration of the quake, as recorded by the seismograph in the laboratory of the Tokyo Imperial University, was over three and a half hours.

As to the casualties and damages caused by the earthquake and fire a variety of reports is published. The statistics here given are made out of those published by the Extraordinary Earthquake

Rescue Bureau of the Department of Home Affairs, and those given in the Empire Statistic Year Book published by the Government.

DAMAGES TO BUILDINGS

(Earthquake Rescue Bureau Figures)

Damage	Number	%
Totally burnt	381,090	54.9
Half burnt	517	0.1
Completely damaged	83,810	12.1
Half damaged	91,233	13.1
Carried off by tidal waves	1,390	0.2
Partly broken	136,572	19.6
Total	694,621	100.0

Of the above Tokyo had 354,453 houses damaged (51%), or 73.4% of the total number of houses in the city, while Yokohama had 94,882 houses destroyed (13.7%) or 95.9% of the total number of houses in the city.

CASUALTIES

(Figures from Empire Statistic Year Book and other statistical publications)

	Total	Men	Women	Proportion per 100 population in the district
Killed	44,279	20,953	23,326	0.38
Severely wounded	16,514	9,406	7,108	0.14
Wounded	35,560	20,865	14,695	0.34
Total	96,353	51,224	45,129	0.86

The number of persons killed is usually said to have reached over 100,000, and the Earthquake Rescue Bureau figures give 91,344. But the later statistics given by the Government in the Empire Statistic Year Book seem to be more correct. Of the total number there given as killed, 29,703 were crushed, 15,450 burnt in the ensuing fire, and 121 were drowned by the tidal waves.

No authoritative survey was made in regard to the loss of property and a variety of amounts is given as estimates. Most of them, however, are necessarily exaggerated. But taking the number of destroyed households, the average individual wealth and other factors as guides, the total amount of the loss may be safely said to have reached approximately ¥2,550,000,000.

Earthquake of 1933 The biggest quake of the year occurred in the Sanriku district at 3:31 A. M. March 3. The district, which covers the Pacific coast line of three northeastern prefectures, Miyagi, Iwate and Aomori, had often been washed by tidal waves due to seismic activities at the sea bottom, the severest loss of life being experienced in 1896. The people were, therefore, fully aware of possible tidal waves when they felt the first shock and immediately hurried to the hills, but the waves overtook them within half an hour or so, drowning 2,805 people and carrying away 15,683 houses, together with over 10,860 fishing boats, loss caused by all damages on houses, boats and farms being estimated at ¥18,100,427. The number of casualties was but 10% of those of the 1896 quake, but the area covered and the destruction caused by it was greater.

Formosan Earthquake in 1935 On April 21, 1935 an earthquake struck Shin-chiku and Taichu prefectures, Taiwan (Formosa). The shock suddenly began at 6:2' 17" A.M. (Taiwan time or 7:2' 17" A.M. in Japan proper) and lasted nearly one hour. The epicentre was at a point about 10 kilometres below the surface at the mouth of the Dalankel near the town of Taiko, Taichu. The

width of the vibration reached from 8 mm. to 16 mm. and the shock was especially strong in a limited district because it occurred at a comparatively shallow spot. Records tell that Formosa experienced big quakes in 1655, 1720, 1722, 1861 and 1867, and this was the 46th quake after 1868 and is said to have been the largest so far as the damages are concerned, the statistics of which follow:

DAMAGES AND CASUALTIES IN THE FORMOSA EARTHQUAKE IN 1935

(April 24, Ministry of Overseas Affairs Report)

Casualties:	
Killed	3,185
Severely wounded	9,215
Wounded	1,415
Missing	6
Total	13,821
Damages:	
Dwellings completely damaged	15,292
" half damaged	15,457
" greatly damaged	4,436
" partly damaged	3,380
Total	38,565
Other buildings completely damaged	574
" half damaged	129
" greatly damaged	104
" partly damaged	184
Total	990

Akita Earthquake in 1939 The latest earthquake of any importance in Japan proper struck Akita prefecture on May 1, 1939. The strongest shock began at 2:59 p.m. and lasted for about 2 minutes. It was caused by a depression of the sea bottom off cape Nyudo, at a point 50 kilometres to the north-west of the city of Akita. The width of the vibration reached 3 mm., and the whole length and width of Ojika peninsula, west of Lake Hachirogata was rocked with 27 towns and villages on it to cause the following casualties and damages: persons instantly killed 26, heavily wounded 53; houses completely turned down 476, half damaged

926; and the amount of damage estimated at ¥1,020,000.

National Parks

On October 8, 1932, a committee of 11 headed by Baron Yoshio Fujimura, which had been conducting investigations for a year under instructions from the Home Office, submitted a report recommending 12 places in Japan as worthy of preservation and development as national parks. They were (1) Mount Fuji and Hakoné, (2) Nikko, (3) Akan, (4) Daisetsusan, (5) Lake Towada, (6) the Japan Alps, (7) Yoshino and Kumano, (8) the Inland Sea, (9) Daisen, (10) Mount Aso, (11) Unzen and (12) Mount Kirishima.

All of them were officially announced as national parks by the authorities in January, 1936.

Descriptions of the national parks follow:

Mount Fuji and Hakoné In the three prefectures of Yamanashi, Kanagawa and Shizuoka in the centre of the Mainland of Japan, the combination of the world-famous Mount Fuji, the five beautiful lakes at its foot and the hot spring resort of Hakoné is to be known as Fuji Park. Mount Fuji, superb, peerless and highest mountain of Japan proper, is known the world over for its beauty. Its perfect cone rises 3,773 metres above sea level. In July and August, crowds of pilgrims and others climb its sacred slopes to the summit.

Below Mount Fuji are the famous five Fuji lakes, all of which are visited by nature lovers because of their scenic beauty.

Few visitors to Japan fail to visit the Hakoné district, noted for its mountain scenery, invigorating climate, hot springs and places of general interest. The district, popularly known as Mount Hakoné, is the crater of an extinct volcano. Lake Ashinoko is famous for its reflection of Mount Fuji when that elusive peak is visible.

Nikko. In the prefectures of Gumma, Fukushima, Tochigi and Niigata in the centre of the Mainland of Japan, 90 miles north of Tokyo, Nikko is famous the world over for its combination of art and nature. The gorgeous shrines and temples are as striking as its cryptomeria avenue, the mountains, lakes and waterfalls. Lake Chuzenji, the largest lake in the park, is extremely beautiful, and the Kégon waterfalls, which serve as an outlet of the lake, are a most striking sight. Beside the lake stands Mount Nantai, which resembles in shape Mount Fuji. In inner Nikko are smaller lakes and also the hot spring

district of Yumoto.

Akan Situated in Kushiro province on the Island of Hokkaido, this park contains a wide area of active volcanic mountains, imposing forests and lakes. Lake Mashu, one of the beautiful lakes below the range of volcanic mountains, lies within 10 kilometres of the Teshikaga hot springs. The lake is nearly 20 square kilometres in area, and in its centre lies a small island.

Lake Kutcharo, the largest of the group in Akan Park, measures 76.22 square kilometres in area, with the beautiful island of Tomoshiri in its centre, 12 kilometres in circumference. At the southern extremity of the lake is a small protruding strip of highland called Wakoto Peninsula, at the foot of which is Wakoto hot springs.

Lake Akan, probably the most beautiful of the Akan group, 11.86 square kilometres, has a zigzag shore and, being rich in changes, presents a very pleasing appearance. On the southwest of the lake rises Mount Oakan, an active volcano.

Akan Park is suitable for sight-seeing trips of two or four days from the city of Kushiro.

Daisetsusan The Great Snow Mountains district, in the centre of the Island of Hokkaido, presents a range of active volcanoes known as the Daisetsusan range. Because of the great height of the mountains, this is often called the Roof of Hokkaido. Surrounding the mountains are virgin woods over an area of 490,000 acres. The mountains form the source of the Ishikari River, the largest river on the island.

The Daisetsu volcanic range rises in more than 10 mountains, including Mount Tokachi and Mount Sangoku. Many lakes are found on the summits of the volcanoes. Mount Asahi, the highest mountain in the group and the highest in Hokkaido, is 2,290 metres above sea level. Its shape, resembling that of Mount Fuji and trailing far to the foot, is very beautiful to look at from a distance. From its summit can be seen on a fine day all Hokkaido.

Lake Towada. In the Ohu district in northern Japan, extending over the two prefectures of Akita and Aomori, Towada Park is distinguished by Lake Towada on the south and Mount Hakoda on the north. Lake Towada, the second deepest in Japan, is 378 metres deep at the greatest depth. So clear is the water that one can see into it for 18 metres.

The lake, which is 401 metres above sea level is 78.02 square kilometres in area and 46.2 kilometres in circum-

ference. In origin and scale, the lake resembles Crater Lake in America, but the beauty and variety of scenery here is said to be far superior to that of the American lake.

The Japan Alps (Chubu Sangaku or central mountains) Extending over the prefectures of Nagano, Gifu, Toyama and Niigata in central Japan, the Hida range of mountains is called the Japan Alps after the European Alps because of its similarity in shape and scenery. Mounts Tsubakuro, Shirouma, Yari, Hodaka and Norikura are some of the high peaks, in the upper valleys of which snow may be found even in mid-summer. The region is an excellent place for summer mountain climbing and camping.

Kamikochi, probably the most popular spot in the region, is a flat valley in the shape of an S, 1,500 metres above sea level and surrounded by peaks towering an additional 2,000 metres. Through this valley runs the clear-watered Azusa River. The Kurobé Valley on the north is equally known for its majesty. Steep cliffs of great height stand on both sides, running for almost 80 kilometres from south to north. The region is the source of many beautiful streams and cascades which adorn and add colour to the mountain scenery.

Yoshino and Kumano On the Pacific coast of central Japan and extending over the prefectures of Wakayama, Nara and Mie, Yoshino and Kumano Park has the dual beauties of mountains and sea. The park area includes Ominé and Odaigahara mountain ranges, the Kitayama Valley, Toro Glen, Onigajo and the beach.

Yoshino, noted for its cherry blossoms, and the other mountains in the Yoshino range are from 1,000 to 2,000 metres above sea level. One of the highest of the 70 mountains is Mount Ominé, which is visited by 200,000 pilgrims annually. Mount Bukkyo, 1,915 metres above sea level, the highest peak in the region, commands on a fine day a striking view over the surrounding country. The sea coast within the area extends 80 kilometres. At the southern extremity of the Shio promontory stands a 63-foot Shionomisaki lighthouse. Within the park are the Nachi waterfalls, the greatest in Japan with a height of 433 feet, and 48 other waterfalls of varying sizes.

The Inland Sea This sea park lies between the Island of Shikoku and the Chugoku district on the Mainland of Japan, extending to the three prefectures of Hiroshima, Okayama and Kagawa and

consisting of numerous islands of all shapes and sizes between Shodo-shima in the east and Abuto in the west. The seascape is ever changing as one voyages on its historic waters. Most of the trans-Pacific liners traverse it and occasional glimpses of its beauty can be had from the trains between Kobé and Shimonoséki. The sea is famous for its great variety of fish and their superior flavour.

The area between Kitaki Island and Shimotsui, dotted here and there by numerous islands of varying sizes, presents the best scenic view in the region.

The Island of Shodo, the largest of the group, is renowned for its scenic beauty, especially its crimson autumnal leaves at Kankaké Valley. Yashima is known in history as the spot where the military clans of Genji and Héiké staged a decisive battle centuries ago, ending in the victory of the former.

Daisen In the prefectures of Tottori and Okayama, in western Mainland, Daisen Park is the only national park facing the Japan Sea. It includes, besides Mount Daisen, 1,713 metres above sea level, several peaks of similar height. Mount Daisen is called the Fuji of Hoki, because it resembles Mount Fuji in shape when seen from Shimané prefecture. While its western side is graceful, the northern is very imposing and majestic. Numerous rocks of huge size protrude from the ground. Wide plains around the mountain offer the best skiing ground in the Chugoku district.

Mount Aso In the centre of Kyushu, Aso Park consists of Mount Aso, which forms five peaks. Aso is an active volcano, with the largest and most celebrated crater in the world. Being double-cratered, it has a huge depression measuring 16 kilometres from east to west and 20 kilometres from south to north, in the centre of which lies the central crater. Within the large crater are 11 villages where 50,000 people live.

The five Aso peaks have characteristics all their own. Naka Peak has a crater which is very active and emits smoke which ascends furiously. Half way up Eboshi Peak are hot-spring districts, such as Toshita and Tochinoki, 800 metres above sea level.

Unzen In Nagasaki prefecture, Kyushu, the renowned sulphide hot springs of Unzen, discovered in 1661, annually attract many foreigners and Japanese. Unzen is famous for the medicinal properties of its waters. It is regarded as the best summer resort in Kyushu and is also visited for its wild cherry blossoms in spring, its splendid azaleas in

May, its maple foliage in autumn and its celebrated "Silver Thaw" in winter, when trees and shrubbery are coated with ice are equally famous.

Unzen, consisting of the lower peaks of Unzen, Nodaké, Takatwa, Kusenbu, Torikabuto, Azuma, Hachimaki, and Bizan, has a feminine beauty of mountain scenery in contrast with the masculine grandeur of Mount Aso.

Mount Kirishima In the prefectures of Miyazaki and Kagoshima, Kyushu, Kirishima Park consists of 22 gracefully shaped volcanic mountains with characteristic craters, lakes, plains, woods and forests. The view from the mountains extends as far as Sakura Island in

Kinko Bay, and that toward Mount Aso and Unzen in the distance is extremely beautiful. Kirishima is also rich in folklore, which gives it a touch of romance.

To have the best view, one must go up Mount Karakuni, the highest peak in the group, 1,700 metres above sea level. The woods turn into slopes and farther on comes a huge plain. The crater lake is soon reached, and hence a steep road leads to the summit. Three hours of walking are needed to reach Mount Takachiho. In the neighbourhood of Shinnen and Nakadaké, wild azaleas bloom in May, turning the locality into a veritable flower garden.

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 is such that the land within Japan proper leaves scant room for expansion.

The fourth quinquennial national census, taken on October 1, 1935, showed a total population for the Empire of 99,456,818 including Kwantung province, the South Manchuria Railway Zone 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%

POPULATION OF THE EMPIRE According to the Census of October 1, 1935

	Total Population	Male	Female	Population 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
Korea	21,058,305	10,763,679	10,294,626	95	104.6
Formosa	4,592,537	2,353,288	2,239,249	128	105.1
Karafuto	295,196	168,532	126,664	8	133.1
Kwantung Leased Territory and South Manchuria Railway Zone	1,328,011	809,044	518,967	355	155.9
South Sea Mandated Islands	69,626	37,929	31,697	32	119.7

This increase, it is to be noted, started with the opening of the country to world commerce and paralleled 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 the past 5 years show an adverse tendency in the population of Japan proper, the birth rate falling from 33.00 in 1929 to 29.87 in 1934. With a total area of 382,545 square kilometres, Japan proper has a population density of 181 persons to the square kilometre.

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.

1935 AND 1938 POPULATION

37

According to the Census of October 1, 1935

	Total Population	Male	Female	Population per sq. km.	Men to 100 Women
Empire	97,697,555	49,242,622	48,454,733	145	101.6
Japan proper	69,254,148	34,734,133	34,520,015	181	100.6
Korea	22,899,038	11,662,645	11,236,393	104	103.8
Formosa	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

The average rate of annual increase of population during the five years from 1930 to 1935 in Japan proper was 14.47 per 1,000; 14.06 in male and 14.89 in female. In Chosen it was 16.90, in Taiwan 23.53, in Karafuto 23.75.

The Quinquennial Increase of Population

	1925-1930	1930-1935
Empire	6,939,114	7,301,468
Japan proper	4,713,183	4,804,143
Korea	1,535,360	1,840,390
Formosa	599,129	620,682
Karafuto	91,442	36,753
Kwantung L. T. and S.M.R. Zone	273,937	328,752
South Sea Mandated Islands	13,332	32,612

1938 Population Censuses have been taken quinquennially since 1920 by the Japanese Government. For the years in which censuses are not taken the Statistics Bureau has been issuing estimates, as of October 1st annually, of the population in Japan proper.

On October 1, 1938, the population of Japan proper, as estimated by the Bureau of Statistics, was 72,222,700, including 36,182,700 males and 36,040,000 females. The total indicates an increase of 969,900 over 1937.

Among Japan's forty-six prefectures and Hokkaido, Tokyo, with a population of 6,963,900, occupies the predominant position, followed by Osaka with 4,765,000. The northern island of Hokkaido takes the next numerical position with 3,226,400 persons, while the prefectures of Hyogo with 3,094,400, Aichi with 3,045,200, Fukuoka with 2,897,100 and Niigata with 2,034,400 follow in order. Shizuoka rose, in this year, to 2 million level with 2,027,600. None of the remaining prefectures had a population of 2,000,000. The totals for nine prefectures were over 1,500,000; Kumamoto and 13 others had over 1,000,000; Wakayama and eight others over 700,000;

000; Saga and four others had over 500,000. Tottori prefecture with a population of 491,200 was lowest in the list.

The number of cities in Japan Proper on October 1st was 148, with an aggregate population of 25,946,700, or 35.9 per cent of the total population. The percentage gained 0.7 over the previous year.

An examination of the trend of population in Japan Proper since 1920 reveals that the first quinquennial period (1920-1925) witnessed an aggregate increase of 3,770,000, or an annual average gain of about 750,000. The increase during the second period (1925-1930) was 4,710,000, or an annual average gain of 940,000 to 950,000. A still more drastic increase of 4,800,000 was recorded in the third period (1930-1935), an annual gain of 950,000 to 960,000 persons.

On the basis of estimates from the 1935 census, it may reasonably be assumed that the population of Japan proper since that date has been increasing at an annual rate of approximately 1,000,000. Similarly it may be assumed that within the next ten years, the population will advance from the present 70,000,000 level to 80,000,000.

That this remarkable expansion of population is attributable mostly to the differences between the birth-rate and mortality rate, or the so-called natural increase of population, is significant. Since immigration has played no part, the increase simply reflects the natural expansion of the Japanese race.

Over 100,000,000 The Cabinet Statistics Bureau gives another estimates on the population of the Empire of Japan as standing on December 1, 1937. According to the estimates the total number of Japanese subjects, including the inhabitants in Japan proper, Korea, Formosa, Karafuto, Kwantung leased territory, the mandated South Sea Islands and foreign countries, reached 103,087,100. It means a treble increase within 65 years since 1872 when it was estimated at 33,000,000. Details follow:

POPULATION

Estimated Number of the Japanese People on December 1, 1937

Japan Proper	71,372,400	Kwantung L. T.	194,400
Chosen (Korea)	23,640,800	South Sea Islands (mandated)	78,600
Taiwan (Formosa)	5,445,700	Japanese residents in foreign countries	2,016,700
Karafuto (Japanese Saghalien)	338,500	Total	103,087,100

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

Year	Population of the Empire		Japan Proper		Natural Increase
	Japan Proper	Others	Births	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	2,190,681	1,162,058	1,028,623
1936	70,258,200	27,821,464	2,101,920	1,230,397	871,523
1937	71,252,800	29,602,604	2,180,734	1,207,899	972,835
1938	72,222,700	—	1,928,321	1,259,805	668,516

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

PREFECTURAL POPULATIONS

According to the Census of October 1, 1935
(and Estimated Population for 1938)

Prefecture	Area (sq. km.)	Households (Revised)	Population	Population per sq. km.	Estimated Population for 1938
Hokkaido	88,775,036	545,387	3,068,282	35	3,226,400
Aomori	9,630,924	161,823	967,129	100	1,021,000
Iwaté	15,235,306	175,051	1,046,111	69	1,089,800
Miyagi	7,273,754	200,142	1,234,801	170	1,291,700
Akita	11,663,861	175,380	1,037,744	89	1,068,700
Yamagata	9,325,757	184,741	1,116,822	120	1,139,500
Fukushima	13,781,613	272,537	1,581,563	115	1,626,900
Ibaraki	6,090,990	287,676	1,548,991	254	1,587,200
Tochigi	6,436,585	213,082	1,195,057	186	1,228,000
Gumma	6,335,823	225,219	1,242,453	196	1,277,300
Saitama	3,802,700	277,548	1,528,854	402	1,571,900
Chiba	5,078,810	293,939	1,546,394	305	1,593,500
Tokyo	2,144,787	1,287,620	6,369,919	2,970	6,963,900
Kanagawa	2,353,484	358,316	1,840,005	782	1,976,200
Niigata	12,578,050	355,772	1,995,777	159	2,034,400
Toyama	4,257,419	154,911	798,890	188	811,200
Ishikawa	4,197,513	158,110	768,416	183	775,600
Fukui	4,017,969	133,533	646,659	152	664,300
Yamanashi	4,465,866	124,095	646,726	145	656,400
Nagano	13,626,130	332,730	1,714,000	126	1,712,100
Gifu	10,494,701	244,557	1,225,799	117	1,255,100
Shizuoka	7,769,912	348,139	1,939,860	250	2,027,600
Aichi	5,081,142	569,723	2,862,701	563	3,045,200
Mié	5,765,280	239,812	1,174,595	204	1,185,200
Shiga	4,050,929	151,137	711,436	176	723,700
Kyoto	462,196	353,587	1,702,508	368	1,795,000
Osaka	1,813,631	898,059	4,297,174	2,369	4,765,000
Hyogo	8,322,875	611,066	2,923,249	351	3,094,400

RACES OF THE JAPANESE EMPIRE

Prefecture	Area (sq. km.)	Households (Revised)	Population	Population per sq. km.	Estimated Population for 1938
Nara	3,688,600	123,886	620,471	168	635,400
Wakayama	4,723,423	184,753	864,087	183	884,700
Tottori	3,489,481	95,080	490,461	141	491,200
Shimané	6,618,042	157,635	747,119	113	751,800
Okayama	7,046,475	281,761	1,332,647	189	1,362,700
Hiroshima	8,436,517	382,243	1,804,916	214	1,874,600
Yamaguchi	6,082,108	259,129	1,190,542	196	1,224,500
Tokushima	4,143,221	145,835	728,748	176	736,300
Kagawa	1,858,730	152,187	748,656	403	758,400
Ehime	5,667,108	243,083	1,164,898	206	1,179,000
Kochi	7,103,620	156,373	714,980	101	713,000
Fukuoka	4,939,646	533,779	2,755,804	557	2,897,100
Saga	2,443,897	127,717	686,117	280	682,700
Nagasaki	4,075,777	252,998	1,296,883	318	1,336,100
Kumamoto	7,437,723	261,520	1,387,054	186	1,407,500
Oita	6,333,880	195,351	980,458	155	1,001,900
Miyazaki	7,738,846	158,432	824,431	107	864,000
Kagoshima	9,103,810	332,623	1,591,466	175	1,613,000
Okinawa	2,386,288	126,287	592,494	248	601,800
Total	382,314,390	13,504,364	69,254,148	181	72,222,700

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 (32,300,000 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 Korea and Japan, but the main population of Korea is Korean and numbers about 20,000,000.

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 16,000. In Karafuto there were about 1,500 in 1934; 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 neighbours. In 1935 the total number of the Ainu was 16,389. In 1936 it increased to 16,519. There lived 1,445 in Karafuto in the same year.

As to the position of the Ainu in the ethnic system, there is no consensus of opinion. It was, and still is, a conundrum in anthropology. Years ago the view that the Ainu formed a "Race Island" was put forward by Y. Koganéi.

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 "Nickbun" and were reported in 1936 to be 98 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 287 in 1936.

The inhabitants of Formosa 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 5,109,307 in 1936; 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: Talyal, Sed-daka, Saiset, Tsouu, 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, 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 Saipan, 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 Saipan, although some have emigrated to the islands of Palau and Yap, and comprised 3,870 in all in 1934. The other, commonly known as the Kanakas, and found scattered in almost every island, numbered 50,524 in 1938.

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

	In 1930	In 1920
Formosans	4,611	1,703
Gilyaks and Orokes	22	31
Westerners in the Bonin	18	3
Foreigners	54,320	35,569
Chinese	39,440	22,427
Russians	3,587	1,714
Americans	3,640	3,966
British	3,144	4,188
Germans	1,228	630
French	694	674
Others	2,587	1,970
Total	64,450,005	55,963,053

Age Distribution

Figures for 64,450,005 persons residing in Japan proper on October 1, 1930, show that those less than 14 years of age, termed juveniles, constitute 37 per cent of the population; those from 15 to 59 inclusive, termed productives, 56 per cent and those of 60 or more, termed the aged, 7 per cent.

The number of juveniles of elementary school age, i.e. from 6 to 14 years, is 20 out of 1,000 of population. Men of 17 to 40 years of age, who are liable to the defence services constitute 36 per cent of the total number of the male; women of 15 to 50, that is, of child bearing age, constitute 48 per cent of the total female population. The number of persons above 14 years of age who come under the judicial law is 66 per cent of the total population.

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE AND MARRIAGE

Japan Proper, on October 1, 1930

Total Age	Total		Unmarried	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
	32,390,155	32,059,850	18,508,059	16,010,492
Under 1	1,952,306	985,978	985,978	966,328
1	1,799,131	906,284	906,284	892,847
2	1,749,485	882,064	882,064	867,421
3	1,773,731	892,926	892,926	880,805
4	1,736,482	876,190	876,190	860,292
5	1,625,564	818,268	818,268	807,296
6	1,563,445	787,488	787,488	775,957
7	1,570,946	791,425	791,425	779,521
8	1,528,554	770,332	770,332	758,222
9	1,478,576	747,273	747,273	731,303
10	1,557,981	787,708	787,708	770,273
11	1,266,193	638,012	638,012	628,181
12	1,303,277	657,616	657,616	645,658
13	1,322,107	668,724	668,724	653,276
14	1,351,487	684,500	684,477	666,201
15	1,322,615	670,377	670,252	646,365
16	1,350,684	687,032	686,408	644,145
17	1,320,413	670,302	666,829	599,415
18	1,301,759	659,262	642,497	540,192

Age	Total	Total		Unmarried	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
19	1,244,133	631,690	612,443	611,294	444,773
20	1,193,111	607,136	585,975	569,932	344,461
21	1,181,627	593,436	588,191	527,367	266,688
22	2,122,289	568,102	554,187	461,258	189,305
23	1,089,434	557,128	532,306	392,751	137,127
24	945,045	489,604	455,441	290,023	86,171
25	978,773	497,517	481,256	234,023	62,832
26	948,525	487,241	461,284	172,559	44,887
27	980,860	503,125	477,735	133,449	36,935
28	975,245	501,079	474,166	99,368	29,716
29	852,231	491,795	460,436	72,836	24,686
30	895,532	461,605	433,927	51,305	19,663
31	844,932	437,622	407,310	39,718	16,137
32	868,273	446,004	422,269	34,158	15,660
33	811,157	420,519	390,638	27,241	13,162
34	793,771	409,290	384,481	22,721	11,525
35	779,348	404,573	374,775	19,449	10,238
36	741,559	384,820	356,739	16,539	9,229
37	707,038	366,631	340,407	13,608	7,911
38	713,020	368,993	344,027	12,663	7,409
39	643,868	331,888	311,980	10,457	6,830
40	677,835	349,878	327,957	10,062	6,647
41	708,016	364,120	343,896	9,355	6,459
42	671,065	346,957	324,108	8,292	5,676
43	648,262	331,246	317,016	7,114	5,261
44	581,300	295,733	285,567	6,247	4,723
45	606,570	307,629	298,941	6,061	4,866
46	611,517	307,067	304,450	5,514	4,758
47	608,661	303,068	305,593	5,436	4,619
48	603,820	301,051	302,769	5,603	4,703
49	615,695	306,342	309,353	5,554	4,710
50	570,608	285,734	284,874	4,766	4,169
51	588,529	293,312	295,217	4,562	4,230
52	567,530	284,354	283,176	4,290	3,875
53	547,563	271,418	276,145	3,984	3,825
54	556,464	275,758	280,706	3,782	3,757
55	497,866	245,697	252,169	3,429	3,330
56	475,999	233,846	242,153	3,063	3,157
57	456,220	222,549	233,671	2,995	3,034
58	417,517	204,467	213,050	2,864	2,846
59	368,501	179,307	189,194	2,553	2,604
60-64	1,722,085	820,315	901,770	9,653	10,212
65-69	1,255,830	577,193	678,637	5,776	6,556
70-74	926,601	403,984	522,617	3,813	4,456
75-79	551,718	222,451	329,267	1,939	2,512
80-84	245,461	89,183	156,278	663	1,068
85-89	70,163	22,259	47,904	148	336
90-94	11,246	3,061	8,185	16	45
95-99	2,751	586	2,165	5	14
100 and over	105	31	74	1	1

Total Age	Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	12,477,501	12,516,167	1,115,777	3,150,041	288,818	383,150
Under 1	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	—	—	—	—	—	—
2	—	—	—	—	—	—
3	—	—	—	—	—	—
4	—	—	—	—	—	—
5	—	—	—	—	—	—
6	—	—	—	—	—	—

POPULATION

Age	Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
7	—	—	—	—	—	—
8	—	—	—	—	—	—
9	—	—	—	—	—	—
10	—	—	—	—	—	—
11	—	—	—	—	—	—
12	—	3	—	—	—	4
13	3	103	—	—	1	25
14	22	761	—	—	3	266
15	122	5,584	—	23	23	905
16	601	18,541	—	61	168	2,117
17	3,278	48,402	27	177	474	4,037
18	9,157	97,846	82	422	979	5,637
19	19,290	161,313	127	720	1,692	7,546
20	35,287	232,778	225	1,190	2,555	9,332
21	63,122	310,252	392	1,919	3,746	10,277
22	102,411	352,923	687	2,682	5,280	10,988
23	157,938	380,743	1,159	3,448	6,170	10,355
24	191,894	354,863	1,517	4,052	7,642	11,403
25	253,609	401,718	2,243	5,303	8,599	11,071
26	303,184	399,044	2,899	6,282	9,335	11,254
27	356,615	421,902	3,726	7,644	9,920	11,172
28	387,223	424,600	4,568	8,678	9,824	11,198
29	404,002	414,815	5,133	9,737	9,314	10,149
30	395,402	393,643	5,584	10,472	8,711	9,412
31	383,448	370,385	5,745	11,376	8,866	10,031
32	396,478	383,077	6,502	13,501	8,203	9,268
33	378,426	354,011	6,649	14,197	7,773	8,809
34	371,805	348,375	6,991	15,772	7,803	8,626
35	369,763	338,086	7,558	17,825	7,244	8,296
36	353,271	320,271	7,766	18,943	6,862	7,869
37	338,262	304,042	7,899	20,585	6,838	8,092
38	340,720	305,259	8,772	23,267	6,080	7,303
39	306,565	274,095	8,786	23,752	6,339	7,675
40	323,198	285,727	10,279	27,908	6,616	7,950
41	336,491	297,032	11,658	32,455	6,185	7,270
42	320,021	277,480	12,459	33,682	5,907	7,407
43	304,882	268,115	13,343	36,233	5,487	6,892
44	270,831	237,037	13,168	36,915	5,724	7,270
45	280,534	245,208	15,310	41,597	5,773	7,461
46	279,102	245,797	16,678	46,434	5,797	7,483
47	273,883	242,574	17,952	50,917	5,969	7,736
48	269,968	235,833	19,511	54,497	6,009	7,779
49	273,166	236,257	21,613	60,607	5,594	7,185
50	253,723	213,019	21,651	60,501	5,709	7,457
51	258,830	215,552	24,211	67,978	5,486	7,141
52	249,495	201,665	25,083	70,495	5,337	6,867
53	236,112	190,978	25,985	74,475	5,517	7,133
54	238,207	188,389	28,252	81,427	4,925	6,237
55	209,933	163,666	27,410	78,936	4,583	5,881
56	198,441	151,971	27,759	81,144	4,290	5,533
57	187,041	140,574	28,223	84,530	4,065	4,896
58	170,197	123,323	27,341	81,985	3,530	4,275
59	147,198	104,462	26,026	77,853	15,583	18,170
60-64	647,384	424,526	147,695	448,862	10,080	10,795
65-69	417,466	237,718	143,871	423,568	6,224	6,565
70-74	252,843	117,442	141,104	394,154	2,910	3,240
75-79	114,593	42,778	103,009	280,737	865	1,113
80-84	34,990	9,919	52,665	144,178	177	245
85-89	6,287	1,418	15,647	45,905	19	34
90-94	617	154	2,409	7,952	12	17
95-99	162	117	407	2,017	1	1
100 and over	8	1	21	71	1	1

AGE DISTRIBUTION

Total Age	PERCENTAGE (In every 10,000 of population)							
	Unmarried		Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Under 1	2,871.7	2,484.2	1,936.0	1,942.0	173.1	488.8	44.8	59.4
1	153.0	149.9	—	—	—	—	—	—
2	140.6	138.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
3	136.9	134.6	—	—	—	—	—	—
4	138.5	136.7	—	—	—	—	—	—
5	135.9	133.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
6	127.0	125.3	—	—	—	—	—	—
7	122.2	120.4	—	—	—	—	—	—
8	122.8	120.9	—	—	—	—	—	—
9	119.5	117.6	—	—	—	—	—	—
10	115.9	113.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
11	122.2	119.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
12	99.0	97.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
13	102.0	100.2	—	0.0	—	—	—	—
14	103.8	101.4	0.0	0.0	—	—	—	0.0
15	106.2	103.4	0.0	0.1	—	—	0.0	0.0
16	104.0	100.3	0.0	0.9	—	0.0	0.0	0.0
17	106.5	99.9	0.1	2.9	—	0.0	0.0	0.1
18	103.5	93.0	0.5	7.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3
19	100.8	83.8	1.4	15.2	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.6
20	94.8	69.0	3.0	25.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.9
21	88.4	53.4	5.5	36.1	0.0	0.2	0.3	1.2
22	81.8	41.4	9.8	48.1	0.1	0.3	0.4	1.4
23	71.6	29.2	15.9	54.8	0.1	0.4	0.6	1.6
24	60.9	21.3	24.5	59.1	0.2	0.5	0.8	1.7
25	45.0	13.4	29.8	55.1	0.2	0.6	1.0	1.6
26	36.3	9.7	39.3	62.3	0.3	0.8	1.2	1.8
27	26.8	7.0	47.0	61.9	0.4	1.0	1.3	1.7
28	20.7	5.7	55.3	65.5	0.6	1.2	1.4	1.7
29	15.4	4.6	60.1	65.9	0.7	1.3	1.5	1.7
30	11.3	3.8	62.7	64.4	0.8	1.5	1.5	1.7
31	8.0	3.1	61.4	61.1	0.9	1.6	1.4	1.6
32	6.2	2.5	59.5	57.5	0.9	1.8	1.4	1.5
33	5.3	2.4	61.5	59.4	1.0	2.1	1.4	1.6
34	4.2	2.0	58.7	54.9	1.0	2.2	1.3	1.4
35	3.5	1.8	57.7	54.1	1.1	2.4	1.2	1.4
36	3.0	1.6	57.4	52.5	1.2	2.8	1.2	1.3
37	2.6	1.4	54.8	49.7	1.2	2.9	1.1	1.3
38	2.1	1.2	52.5	47.2	1.2	3.2	1.1	1.2
39	2.0	1.1	52.9	47.4	1.4	3.6	1.1	1.3
40	1.6	1.1	47.6	42.5	1.4	3.7	0.9	1.1
41	1.6	1.0	50.1	44.3	1.6	4.3	1.0	1.2
42	1.5	1.0	52.2	46.1	1.8	5.0	1.0	1.2
43	1.3	0.9	49.7	43.1	1.9	5.2	1.0	1.1
44	1.1	0.8	47.3	41.6	2.1	5.6	0.9	1.1
45	1.0	0.7	42.0	36.8	2.0	5.7	0.9	1.1
46	0.9	0.8	43.5	38.0	2.4	6.5	0.9	1.1
47	0.9	0.7	43.3	38.1	2.6	7.2	0.9	1.2
48	0.8	0.7	42.5	37.6	2.8	7.9	0.9	1.2
49	0.9	0.7	41.9	36.6	3.0	8.5	0.9	1.2
50	0.9	0.7	42.4	36.7	3.4	9.4	0.9	1.2
51	0.7	0.6	39.4	33.1	3.4	9.4	0.9	1.1
52	0.7	0.7	40.2	33.4	3.8	10.5	0.9	1.2
53	0.7	0.6	38.7	31.3	3.9	10.9	0.9	1.1
54	0.6	0.6	36.6	29.6	4.0	11.6	0.8	1.1
55	0.6	0.6	37.0	29.2	4.4	12.6	0.9	1.1
55	0.5	0.5	32.6	25.4	4.3	12.2	0.8	1.0
55	0.5	0.5	30.8	23.6	4.3	12.6	0.8	0.9

POPULATION

Age	Unmarried		Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
57	0.5	0.5	29.0	21.8	4.4	13.1	0.7	0.9
58	0.4	0.4	26.4	19.1	4.2	12.7	0.6	0.8
59	0.4	0.4	22.8	16.2	4.0	12.1	0.5	0.7
60-64	1.5	1.6	100.4	65.9	22.9	89.6	2.4	2.8
65-69	0.9	1.0	64.8	36.9	22.3	65.7	1.6	1.7
70-74	0.6	0.7	39.2	18.2	21.9	61.2	1.0	1.0
75-79	0.3	0.4	17.8	6.6	16.0	43.6	0.5	0.5
80-84	0.1	0.2	5.4	1.5	8.2	22.4	0.1	0.2
85-89	0.0	0.1	1.0	0.2	2.4	7.1	0.0	0.0
90-94	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.4	1.2	0.0	0.0
95-99	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.0
100 and over	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

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

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE

The Empire on October 1, 1935

Total Age	Total		Male	Female
	99,456,818	50,295,614		
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	
6	2,499,601	1,264,055	1,235,546	
7	2,471,279	1,252,585	1,218,694	
8	2,462,404	1,256,274	1,226,130	
9	2,366,509	1,202,558	1,163,951	
10	2,329,728	1,179,561	1,150,167	
11	2,218,043	1,124,312	1,093,731	
12	2,184,707	1,106,309	1,078,398	
13	2,193,334	1,111,348	1,081,986	
14	2,113,944	1,078,075	1,035,869	
15	2,131,382	1,086,661	1,044,521	
16	1,807,626	921,726	885,900	
17	1,824,730	929,882	894,848	
18	1,881,584	957,467	924,117	
19	1,862,266	948,427	913,839	
20	1,788,083	908,558	879,525	
21	1,808,942	912,324	896,618	
22	1,750,397	885,020	865,377	
23	1,729,025	879,889	849,136	
24	1,715,726	877,500	838,226	
25	1,594,627	814,093	780,734	
26	1,620,854	826,755	794,099	
27	1,528,215	785,866	742,349	
28	1,455,338	749,951	705,387	
29	1,368,541	713,101	655,440	
30				1,353,223
31				1,247,508
32				1,310,019
33				1,305,222
34				1,291,569
35				1,246,298
36				1,144,670
37				1,211,411
38				1,133,901
39				1,103,276
40				1,063,195
41				1,002,997
42				946,350
43				987,938
44				899,664
45				933,691
46				931,697
47				925,902
48				872,366
49				769,356
50				774,375
51				795,168
52				779,243
53				771,376
54				793,737
55				716,069
56				756,936
57				677,047
58				637,977
59				659,753
60-64				2,580,507
65-69				1,858,568
70-74				1,210,924
75-79				736,087
80-84				324,516
85-89				98,240
90-94				17,213
95-99				2,177
100 and over				387

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE AND MARRIAGE
Japan Proper, on October 1, 1935

Total Age	Total		Unmarried	
	69,254,148	34,734,133	34,520,015	20,136,155
Under 1	2,035,909	1,031,081	1,004,828	1,004,828
1	1,846,556	933,210	913,346	913,346
2	1,845,254	931,018	914,236	931,018

AGE DISTRIBUTION

Age	Total	Total		Unmarried	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
3	1,818,641	918,975	899,666	918,975	899,666
4	1,782,141	899,717	882,424	899,717	882,424
5	1,724,347	870,382	853,965	870,382	853,965
6	1,705,464	858,901	846,563	858,901	846,563
7	1,690,165	852,881	837,284	852,881	837,284
8	1,721,824	867,527	854,297	867,527	854,297
9	1,689,619	853,572	836,047	853,572	836,047
10	1,617,266	814,735	802,531	814,735	802,531
11	1,540,102	776,991	763,107	776,991	763,107
12	1,547,049	780,365	766,670	780,365	766,670
13	1,515,627	763,582	752,045	763,581	751,936
14	1,465,203	741,101	724,102	741,089	723,484
15	1,534,539	776,367	758,172	776,297	753,092
16	1,252,480	631,960	620,520	631,690	607,605
17	1,276,159	643,259	632,900	641,406	599,708
18	1,281,349	645,384	635,965	640,318	566,814
19	1,296,390	653,743	642,647	641,909	515,634
20	1,253,110	630,192	622,918	606,861	429,080
21	1,235,316	608,136	627,180	563,925	352,706
22	1,205,723	598,567	607,156	518,424	261,009
23	1,212,452	610,643	601,809	471,751	188,761
24	1,164,470	589,245	575,225	390,581	130,010
25	1,121,277	567,214	554,063	308,640	91,842
26	1,117,639	564,031	553,608	237,876	69,429
27	1,065,558	542,553	523,005	172,584	51,395
28	1,031,687	528,353	503,334	126,274	41,448
29	903,922	468,097	435,825	84,558	30,324
30	932,966	474,670	458,296	62,873	24,194
31	902,098	464,869	437,229	47,231	19,248
32	941,022	482,303	458,719	39,603	17,645
33	940,451	483,147	457,304	33,797	15,531
34	916,100	474,503	441,597	28,131	13,557
35	866,706	446,621	420,085	22,193	11,627
36	806,935	419,209	387,726	18,209	9,711
37	832,181	430,075	402,106	17,159	9,832
38	777,287	404,539	372,748	14,259	8,570
39	762,737	393,002	369,735	12,064	7,662
40	740,852	385,265	355,587	10,544	6,953
41	705,226	367,706	337,520	9,460	6,310
42	671,933	349,124	322,809	7,959	5,482
43	677,630	350,381	327,249	8,079	5,541
44	610,370	315,151	295,219	6,824	5,084
45	648,106	333,627	314,479	7,058	5,211
46	668,777	343,211	325,566	6,456	4,972
47	635,550	326,956	308,594	5,807	4,569
48	611,585	311,132	300,453	5,046	4,308
49	548,816	276,253	272,563	4,406	3,838
50	569,109	286,472	282,637	4,244	3,879
51	571,336	284,261	287,075	4,030	3,894
52	566,780	279,110	287,670	4,066	3,861
53	560,088	276,434	283,654	4,288	3,983
54	565,562	278,099	287,463	4,241	3,926
55	525,500	258,825	266,675	3,771	3,635
56	534,043	261,471	272,572	3,553	3,623
57	515,440	252,886	262,554	3,472	3,467
58	496,261	240,876	255,385	3,537	3,708
59	499,893	241,034	258,859	3,298	3,510
60-64	1,930,611	916,820	1,013,791	11,609	13,083
65-69	1,387,092	630,008	757,084	6,396	7,820
70-74	913,423	394,223	519,200	3,051	3,811
75-79	561,804	224,829	336,975	1,633	2,059

POPULATION

Age	Total	Total		Unmarried	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
80-84	263,979	95,043	168,936	546	830
85-89	82,255	25,930	56,325	129	287
90-94	14,621	3,884	10,737	11	41
95-99	1,557	362	1,195	2	6
100 and over	228	40	188	1	3

Age	Total	Married		Widowed		Divorced	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	13,133,831	13,174,225	1,169,286	3,357,603	294,861	393,875	
Under 1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
9	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
11	—	4	—	—	—	—	—
12	—	14	—	—	—	—	—
13	1	108	—	—	—	—	1
14	12	608	—	2	—	—	8
15	67	4,896	—	34	3	—	150
16	258	12,396	—	89	12	—	430
17	1,752	31,890	26	145	75	—	1,157
18	4,786	66,687	52	285	228	—	2,179
19	11,309	122,963	72	516	453	—	3,534
20	22,320	188,007	143	896	868	—	4,935
21	42,499	266,227	254	1,526	1,458	—	6,721
22	77,254	335,572	475	2,345	2,414	—	8,230
23	133,928	398,965	999	3,755	3,965	—	10,328
24	191,841	429,408	1,458	4,708	5,365	—	11,099
25	250,011	444,725	2,029	5,797	6,534	—	11,899
26	315,758	464,558	2,823	7,430	7,574	—	12,191
27	357,864	450,748	3,567	8,775	8,538	—	12,087
28	388,937	440,053	4,244	9,884	8,898	—	11,949
29	370,033	384,311	4,661	10,226	8,845	—	10,964
30	397,475	410,796	5,285	11,981	9,037	—	11,325
31	402,656	393,859	5,838	13,437	9,144	—	10,685
32	426,625	414,435	6,533	15,638	9,542	—	11,001
33	432,382	413,162	7,429	17,452	9,539	—	11,159
34	429,029	398,788	7,977	18,581	9,366	—	10,671
35	407,316	378,217	8,137	20,262	8,975	—	9,979
36	384,489	348,272	8,423	20,708	8,088	—	9,035
37	394,736	358,605	9,696	24,085	8,484	—	9,584
38	372,635	330,287	9,630	24,912	8,015	—	8,979
39	362,765	326,041	10,665	27,438	7,508	—	8,594
40	356,130	310,618	11,229	29,744	7,362	—	8,272
41	339,241	291,571	11,895	31,486	7,110	—	8,153
42	322,276	276,534	12,368	33,258	6,521	—	7,535
43	322,107	276,769	13,601	37,171	6,594	—	7,768
44	288,734	246,044	13,583	37,139	6,010	—	6,952
45	304,584	258,330	15,660	43,522	6,325	—	7,416
46	312,764	263,911	17,729	49,020	6,262	—	7,603
47	296,500	246,432	18,552	50,521	6,097	—	7,072
48	281,089	235,441	19,292	53,742	5,705	—	6,962
49	247,420	208,113	19,129	54,122	5,298	—	6,490

VOCATIONAL DISTRIBUTION

Age	Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
50	255,396	212,097	21,372	60,022	5,460	6,639
51	251,757	209,932	23,116	66,510	5,358	6,739
52	245,176	205,271	24,655	71,685	5,213	6,853
53	240,190	197,078	26,474	75,789	5,482	6,804
54	240,092	194,506	28,424	82,324	5,342	6,707
55	221,403	174,448	28,707	82,253	4,944	6,339
56	221,924	173,077	31,078	89,459	4,916	6,413
57	212,254	160,726	32,287	92,203	4,873	6,158
58	200,117	149,440	32,640	96,465	4,582	5,772
59	197,703	144,885	35,379	104,575	4,654	5,889
60-64	724,610	491,354	163,458	488,248	17,143	21,106
65-69	456,404	259,658	156,581	476,542	10,627	13,064
70-74	252,318	118,130	132,871	390,276	5,983	6,983
75-79	118,342	42,571	101,973	288,899	2,881	3,446
80-84	38,228	10,820	55,290	155,911	979	1,375
85-89	7,517	1,678	18,092	54,001	192	359
90-94	744	148	3,110	10,481	19	67
95-99	62	35	297	1,151	1	3
100 and over	11	6	28	177	—	2

Vocational Distribution

According to the census of 1930, the percentage of the unoccupied was 54 per cent, that of persons actually en-

gaged 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 People who		%
					Households investigated	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 and Communications	1,107,574	1.7	1,028,596	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.

	Total	Male	Total	Male
Stone-pits	33,944	31,848		
Industries	5,699,581	4,269,151		
Ceramics and 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		

POPULATION

	Total	Male		Total	Male
Paper and Printing	265,263	227,623	Officials, civil	436,293	420,005
Leather, Brush	33,119	28,602	Army and Navy officers on service	242,796	242,796
Bamboo, Mat, etc.	703,325	635,981	Judicial	7,492	7,492
Salt	21,848	18,222	Educational	327,192	225,305
Foodstuffs	446,803	342,333	Religious	151,248	126,776
Building, etc.	1,000,078	996,567	Medical	266,637	126,569
Gas, Electric, etc.	128,624	128,486	Secretarial and Scrivener	439,410	399,405
Other industries	181,406	154,856	Writers, Artists, Actors, etc.	114,773	89,841
Commerce	4,478,098	3,013,903	Others	58,302	53,614
Wholesale and retail	3,255,215	2,511,073	Domestic	781,319	84,203
Banking and insurance	61,843	56,756	Miscellaneous	570,966	488,265
Entertainments	1,161,040	446,074	Unoccupied	34,830,365	13,359,918
Transportation and Communications	1,107,574	1,028,595	Those who have income	190,836	120,194
Transportation	935,922	904,732	Children, the aged, etc.	34,639,529	13,239,724
Communications	171,652	123,863			
Officials and Free Occupation	2,044,151	1,691,803			

POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE SIZE OF HOUSEHOLD

(Census taken on Oct. 1, 1930)

Total number of households investigated	%	Members per Household	No. of Households	%
12,600,276	100.0	4	1,905,489	15.5
		5	1,826,367	14.4
Total number of members	—	6	1,596,536	12.6
		7	1,243,343	9.8
Members per household	No. of Households	8	851,617	6.7
1	694,063	9	516,311	4.0
2	1,480,773	10	297,722	2.5
3	1,870,115	11 and over	317,940	2.6

ACCORDING TO THE SIZE OF THEIR DWELLINGS

Total number of households investigated	12,557,931	Percentage of Household	
Total number of members	62,630,774	100.0	
Households living dwellings which consist of	Households	Persons	
Less than 1 room	6,147	11,357	0.04
1 room	1,398,960	4,442,016	11.14
2 rooms	3,114,387	12,924,735	24.80
3 rooms	2,576,473	12,680,718	20.51
4 rooms	2,721,291	14,931,173	21.67
5 rooms	1,382,189	8,395,507	11.00
6 rooms	686,361	4,416,294	5.46
7 rooms	310,060	2,114,638	2.46
8 rooms	159,105	1,124,188	1.26
9 rooms	77,729	567,068	0.61
10 rooms	49,667	379,706	0.39
11 rooms or more	75,562	643,374	0.60

Marriages and Divorces

In 1937 the number of marriages in Japan proper was 674,500, an increase of 115,384 as compared with the previous year. The number of marriages per 1,000 population was 9.47 or 1.65 higher than the previous year. The number

MARRIAGES AND DIVORCES

of divorces in the same year was 46,500 or 333 more than in 1936. The number of divorces per 1,000 population was 0.65 or 0.01 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 1920.

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 BY AGE GROUPS

Year	Husbands									
	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Under 19	11,654	10,617	9,896	8,467	7,734	6,635	6,186	5,775	6,022	5,004
20-24	146,627	142,225	145,421	144,234	145,917	130,569	131,592	136,871	127,360	148,047
25-29	202,217	204,513	209,552	205,747	214,886	205,402	223,695	250,418	255,849	313,497
30-34	68,419	69,012	70,638	70,903	77,421	73,934	78,274	85,506	83,382	111,989
35-39	28,629	28,299	28,718	27,893	29,299	29,129	30,075	32,547	32,458	45,427
40-49	27,431	27,664	27,565	24,940	25,303	25,454	26,967	28,635	28,430	31,653
50-59	10,535	10,942	10,755	10,397	10,720	10,740	11,441	12,111	11,666	13,029
Over 60	4,043	4,138	4,129	3,985	3,990	4,195	4,424	4,867	4,969	5,854
Total	499,555	497,410	506,674	496,574	515,270	486,058	512,654	566,730	549,116	674,500

Year	Wives									
	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Under 15	27	27	34	26	37	19	38	28	15	30
15-19	117,694	109,115	105,467	96,039	92,064	80,592	78,091	79,058	72,492	83,702
20-24	243,966	250,233	263,962	267,714	279,728	263,644	280,497	305,857	301,948	357,288
25-29	78,086	77,795	77,755	76,528	83,836	83,152	92,582	105,956	109,613	146,325
30-34	27,480	27,656	27,432	26,155	26,567	27,181	27,975	30,272	29,660	41,929
35-39	13,297	12,963	12,797	12,395	13,044	13,320	13,867	14,968	14,767	19,734
40-49	13,223	13,557	13,049	11,759	12,017	11,987	12,966	13,487	13,596	16,894
50-59	4,735	4,926	5,087	4,868	4,886	4,999	5,373	5,710	5,524	6,687
Over 60	1,047	1,138	1,091	1,090	1,091	1,161	1,265	1,394	1,501	1,911
Total	499,555	497,410	506,674	496,574	515,270	486,058	512,654	566,730	549,116	674,500

PROPORTION PER 1,000 MARRIAGES

Year	Husbands									
	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Under 19	26.5	25.4	23.3	21.3	19.5	17.1	15.0	13.7	12.1	10.4
20-24	313.0	302.2	293.5	285.9	287.0	290.5	283.2	268.6	256.7	245.8
25-29	379.2	393.4	404.8	411.2	413.6	414.3	417.0	422.6	436.3	449.8
30-34	134.4	133.7	137.0	138.7	139.4	142.8	150.3	152.1	152.7	153.6
35-39	60.1	58.9	57.3	56.9	56.7	56.2	56.9	59.9	58.7	58.5
40-49	57.3	56.3	54.9	55.6	54.4	50.2	49.1	52.4	52.6	51.5
50-59	21.4	21.8	21.1	22.0	21.2	20.9	20.8	22.1	22.3	21.8
Over 60	8.1	8.3	8.1	8.3	8.1	8.0	7.7	8.6	8.6	8.7
Total	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0

Year	Wives									
	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Under 15	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1
15-19	246.0	247.2	235.6	219.4	208.2	193.4	178.7	165.8	152.3	142.0
20-24	476.8	475.3	488.4	503.1	521.0	539.1	542.9	542.4	547.1	549.4
25-29	154.8	155.7	156.3	156.4	153.5	154.1	162.7	171.1	180.6	190.3
30-34	55.1	54.7	55.0	55.6	54.1	52.7	55.4	55.9	54.6	54.4
35-39	27.7	26.9	26.6	26.1	25.3	25.0	25.3	27.4	27.0	26.9
40-49	28.0	27.9	26.5	27.3	25.8	23.7	23.3	24.7	25.3	24.2

POPULATION

Year	Wives									
	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
50-59	9.3	10.0	9.5	9.9	10.0	9.8	9.5	10.3	10.5	10.3
Over 60	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.4	2.5	2.6
Total	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0

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 1916 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.

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	2,121,253	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	1,161,936	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

BIRTHS AND STILL-BIRTHS

Year	Total	Births (Infants living)		Illegitimate	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
1927	2,060,737	977,205	939,545	71,741	72,246
1928	2,135,852	1,018,477	974,168	72,225	70,982
1929	2,077,026	989,627	949,351	69,039	69,009
1930	2,085,101	1,001,441	949,438	68,110	66,111
1931	2,102,784	1,006,360	963,502	67,025	65,897
1932	2,182,742	1,050,185	999,016	67,769	65,772
1933	2,121,253	1,022,150	970,041	65,538	63,524
1934	2,043,783	981,451	940,178	61,285	60,869
1935	2,190,704	1,060,007	1,005,526	62,860	62,310
1936	2,101,969	1,017,497	967,727	58,700	58,045

Year	Still Births Total	Infants (Legitimate)	Infants (Illegitimate)	Percentage Males to 100 Females Births	Living Births (per 100 births)	Still Births
1927	116,922	93.0	7.0	103.7	94.6	5.4
1928	120,191	93.3	6.7	104.4	94.7	5.3
1929	116,971	93.4	6.6	104.0	94.7	5.3

EXPECTATION OF LIFE

Year	Still Births Total	Infants (Legitimate)	Infants (Illegitimate)	Percentage Males to 100 Females Births	Living Births (per 100 births)	Still Births
1931	116,509	93.7	6.3	104.3	94.8	5.2
1932	119,579	93.9	6.1	105.0	94.8	5.2
1933	114,138	93.9	6.1	105.2	94.9	5.1
1934	113,043	94.0	6.0	104.2	94.8	5.2
1935	115,593	94.3	5.7	105.2	95.0	5.0
1936	111,056	94.4	5.6	104.9	95.0	5.0

Note: On the details of deaths see Chapter XXXII. The illegitimate largely include births between couples who form homes yet unregistered.

Expectation of Life

The following table prepared by the Government Bureau of Statistics gives

the average expectation of life for Japanese people of both sexes, and is based on the vital statistics for a period from 1926 to 1930.

EXPECTATION OF LIFE

Average of 1926-1930

Age	Male	Female	Age	Male	Female	Age	Male	Female
Under 1	44.82	46.54	35	29.61	32.53	70	7.43	8.88
1	51.07	52.10	36	28.83	31.83	71	7.03	8.36
2	52.35	53.37	37	28.05	31.13	72	6.66	7.91
3	52.54	53.59	38	27.28	30.43	73	6.29	7.46
4	55.33	53.43	39	26.51	29.72	74	5.94	7.01
5	51.85	53.00	40	25.74	29.01	75	5.61	6.59
6	51.18	52.37	41	22.99	28.30	76	5.29	6.18
7	50.42	51.65	42	24.23	27.59	77	4.98	5.79
8	49.62	50.86	43	23.49	26.86	78	4.69	5.42
9	48.79	50.03	44	22.75	26.13	79	4.41	5.07
10	47.93	49.18	45	22.02	25.39	80	4.15	4.73
11	47.05	48.33	46	21.30	24.64	81	3.90	4.41
12	46.17	47.48	47	20.58	23.90	82	3.66	4.11
13	45.28	46.62	48	19.88	23.15	83	3.43	3.82
14	44.41	45.84	49	19.18	22.41	84	3.22	3.55
15	43.58	45.11	50	18.49	21.67	85	3.02	3.30
16	42.79	44.44	51	17.81	20.94	86	2.83	3.06
17	42.07	43.82	52	17.14	20.22	87	2.65	2.83
18	41.40	43.24	53	16.49	19.50	88	2.48	2.62
19	40.78	42.67	54	15.84	18.79	89	2.32	2.43
20	40.18	42.12	55	15.21	18.09	90	2.17	2.24
21	39.57	41.56	56	14.58	17.39	91	2.03	2.07
22	38.95	41.00	57	13.97	16.70	92	1.89	1.91
23	38.32	40.43	58	13.38	16.02	93	1.77	1.76
24	37.67	39.84	59	12.79	15.34	94	1.65	1.63
25	37.01	39.23	60	12.23	14.68	95	1.55	1.50
26	36.33	38.61	61	11.67	14.04	96	1.45	1.39
27	35.63	37.97	62	11.14	13.40	97	1.35	1.28
28	34.91	37.32	63	10.62	12.78	98	1.26	1.19
29	34.18	36.66	64	10.12	12.17	99	1.18	1.09
30	33.43	35.98	65	9.64	11.58	100	1.09	1.01
31	32.68	35.30	66	9.17	11.01	101	0.99	0.91
32	31.92	34.62	67	8.72	10.45	102	0.84	0.49
33	31.15	33.93	68	8.27	9.91			
34	30.38	33.23	69	7.84	9.38			

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. Concur-

rently, municipalities have amalgamated to form larger units. The following tables show the trend toward larger urban centres; the first, the increase in the number of municipalities of large population, and the second, the increase in the proportion of the population re-

siding 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

	1935	1930	1925	1920	1913	1908	1903	1898
Total Number	11,546	11,865	12,019	12,244	12,356	12,457	13,323	14,027
Population up to 499	64	70	82	126	163	228	461	646
500-999	250	258	265	304	306	360	512	738
1,000-1,999	2,015	2,092	2,277	2,354	1,982	2,190	2,667	3,311
2,000-4,999	6,564	6,886	7,052	7,264	7,584	7,652	8,065	8,018
5,000-9,999	1,953	1,878	1,734	1,639	1,852	1,654	1,343	1,081
10,000-19,999	466	428	392	374	335	268	185	152
20,000-29,999	86	93	78	76	55	35	25	33
30,000-39,999	44	38	36	40	25	26	33	25
40,000-49,999	16	27	31	20	17	15	7	3
50,000-99,999	54	65	51	31	26	19	16	12
Above 100,000	34	32	21	16	11	10	9	8

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

Size of Communities	Oct. 1, 1935	Oct. 1, 1930	Oct. 1, 1925	Oct. 1, 1920	End of 1913	End of 1908	End of 1903	End of 1898
up to 499	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.1	2.3	3.5
500-999	2.9	3.2	3.6	4.3	4.3	5.3	8.1	12.4
1,000-1,999	46.3	51.8	60.9	67.2	57.6	67.6	87.3	115.2
2,000-4,999	305.2	343.2	377.2	412.2	441.6	469.2	518.1	540.5
5,000-9,999	186.8	193.5	192.1	193.4	219.6	207.5	177.2	151.3
10,000-19,999	90.3	88.7	87.5	90.7	81.6	69.3	50.7	44.1
20,000-29,999	29.8	34.2	30.3	32.3	23.6	16.3	12.4	17.5
30,000-39,999	21.5	20.1	20.9	25.1	16.1	17.8	23.3	18.7
40,000-49,999	10.7	18.5	23.1	15.9	13.5	12.8	6.3	2.8
50,001-99,999	53.2	68.3	57.7	37.6	33.6	26.1	22.2	17.0
Above 100,000	253.0	178.2	146.3	120.7	107.7	107.0	92.1	77.0

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, 1935, there were 127 cities in Japan proper, which meant an increase of 4 every year since the 1930 census. According to the census on October 1, 1935, the number of major cities which have more than 100,000 population was 34, including 4 cities which have more than 1,000,000, Tokyo leading others with 5,875,667. The total urban population comprises 22,655,920 or

32.7 per cent of the population of Japan proper. In 1938, there were 148 cities with an aggregate population of 25,946,700 or 35.9 per cent of the total estimated population 72,222,700 on October 1. 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		Increase		Quinquennial Rate of Increase	
	Japan proper	Cities	Japan proper	Cities	Japan proper	Cities
1925	59,739,822	16,606,809	3,773,769	2,697,504	6.7	19.39
1930	64,450,005	19,439,405	4,713,183	2,832,596	7.9	17.06
1935	69,254,148	22,655,920	4,804,143	3,216,515	7.4	16.54
1936 (estimate)	70,258,200	23,620,200				
1937 (")	71,252,600	25,109,400				
1938 (")	72,222,700	25,946,700				

NUMBER OF CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES IN JAPAN PROPER

(On April 1, each year)

	Cities	Towns	Villages	Cities	Towns	Villages
1889	39	715	12,632	1934	124	1,683
1898	52	1,169	13,557	1935	127	1,702
1908	66	1,164	11,233	1936	129	1,720
1913	69	1,246	11,033	1937	141	1,707
1920	83	1,366	10,782			
1925	100	1,510	10,451			
1930	109	1,702	9,980			

A village is an administrative unit consisting of several villages.

CITIES IN JAPAN PROPER

Census of October 1, 1935
and Estimates for 1938

	Population in 1935 (Census)	Population in 1938 (Estimate)	Population in 1935 (Census)	Population in 1938 (Estimate)
1. Tokyo	5,875,667	6,457,600	45. Kofu	82,664
2. Osaka	2,989,874	3,321,200	46. Matsuyama	81,940
3. Nagoya	1,082,816	1,224,100	47. Nagano	77,325
4. Kyoto	1,080,593	1,159,800	48. Okazaki	77,195
5. Kobe	912,179	989,100	49. Ube	76,642
6. Yokohama	704,290	777,500	50. Kiryu	76,145
7. Hiroshima	310,118	334,600	51. Fukui	75,273
8. Fukuoka	291,158	316,400	52. Wakamatsu (Fukuoka prefecture)	73,345
9. Kuré	231,333	256,700	53. Matsumoto	73,353
10. Sendai	219,547	234,200	54. Amagasaki	71,072
11. Nagasaki	211,702	229,700	55. Otsu	71,063
12. Yawata	208,629	237,900	56. Yamagata	69,931
13. Hakodaté	207,480	213,800	57. Morioka	69,130
14. Shizuoka	200,737	216,800	58. Tobata	67,800
15. Sapporo	196,541	210,300	59. Tsu	65,971
16. Kumamoto	187,382	201,400	60. Naha	65,208
17. Yokosuka	182,871	211,900	61. Muroran	65,095
18. Kagoshima	181,736	191,200	62. Miyazaki	64,726
19. Wakayama	179,732	191,600	63. Takasaki	64,283
20. Sasébo	173,283	213,400	64. Mito	63,816
21. Okayama	166,144	176,900	65. Beppu	62,345
22. Kanazawa	163,733	191,600	66. Hachinohe	62,210
23. Kawasaki	154,748	214,400	67. Nagaoka	62,152
24. Otaru	153,587	159,000	68. Oita	61,732
25. Sakai	141,286	175,700	69. Shimizu	61,123
26. Toyohashi	140,735	142,000	70. Akita	60,646
27. Niigata	134,992	141,100	71. Hachioji	59,494
28. Hamamatsu	133,338	163,600	72. Yokkaichi	58,471
29. Shimonoséki	132,737	162,100	73. Fukuyama	58,186
30. Gifu	128,721	135,700	74. Chiba	57,446
31. Moji	121,611	129,900	75. Takaoka	57,249
32. Kokura	110,372	144,100	76. Nobéoka	56,421
33. Omuta	104,992	109,800	77. Kushiro	56,170
34. Kochi	103,405	105,400	78. Nara	55,968
35. Tokushima	97,021	127,800	79. Koriyama	54,709
36. Aomori	93,414	100,400	80. Kawaguchi	53,716
37. Kurumé	91,920	97,400	81. Ichinomiya	53,376
38. Himeji	91,375	106,700	82. Ujiyama	52,494
39. Asahigawa	91,021	93,400	83. Matsue	52,033
40. Nishinomiya	89,909	100,900	84. Imabari	51,602
41. Maébash	87,181	88,600	85. Uwajima	51,280
42. Utsunomiya	87,129	90,700	86. Yonezawa	50,448
43. Takamatsu	86,840	91,100	87. Saga	50,154
44. Toyama	83,324	92,500	88. Numazu	49,824
			89. Ogaki	49,273
			90. Ashikaga	48,875

	Population in 1935 (Census)	Population in 1938 (Estimate)
91. Fukushima	48,484	50,200
92. Choshi	48,352	64,800
93. Séto	47,553	53,900
94. Ichikawa	46,711	52,200
95. Wakamatsu (Fukushima prefecture)	46,199	50,300
96. Hirosaki	46,014	52,800
97. Tottori	45,335	50,400
98. Urawa	44,328	48,900
99. Nogata	43,943	46,300
100. Akashi	42,644	44,900
101. Iizuka	39,629	39,400
102. Kishiwada	39,097	45,200
103. Hiratsuka	38,348	41,300
104. Kumagaya	37,649	38,700
105. Tsuruoka	37,224	39,000
106. Yonago	36,635	46,600
107. Miyakonojo	36,575	62,200
108. Tsuyama	36,092	37,300
109. Obihiro	35,695	40,400
110. Matsuzaka	35,661	37,200
111. Uéda	35,380	35,500
112. Kawagoé	35,192	35,800
113. Yamaguchi	34,803	36,300
114. Kurashiki	34,716	37,600
115. Sanjo	34,649	36,700
116. Ishinomaki	33,530	35,300
117. Hagi	32,587	32,900
118. Shingu	32,055	34,000
119. Sakata	31,866	32,800
120. Takada	31,284	31,500
121. Karatsu	31,058	32,200
122. Onomichi	30,777	49,600
123. Yawatahama	30,500	31,400
124. Nakatsu	30,328	31,400
125. Kainan	29,917	30,700
126. Marugamé	29,615	30,100
127. Shuri	19,305	18,900
128. Okaya	—	33,600
129. Toyonaka	24,126	44,300
130. Takayama	20,145	31,300
131. Mihara	21,130	43,000
132. Kamaishi	36,230	39,700
133. Taira	25,741	29,600
134. Tochigi	31,335	32,400
135. Funabashi	26,449	46,800
136. Tsuruga	26,828	33,000
137. Iida	17,991	29,200
138. Atami	17,768	25,300
139. Handa	18,217	49,800
140. Kuwana	28,366	38,800
141. Hikoné	23,366	36,300
142. Fukuchiyama	22,895	32,700
143. Fusé	48,696	116,200
144. Tokuyama	32,062	37,800
145. Bôfu	30,606	55,900
146. Higashimaizuru	—	39,400
147. Niihama	—	37,400
148. Maizuru	—	26,700

CITIES IN TERRITORIES

	CHOSEN (Korea)	
	1930 (Census)	1935 (Census)
Keijo (Seoul)	394,240	404,206
Fusan	146,098	180,271
Heijo	140,703	172,746
Taikyu	93,319	105,716
Jinsen (Chemulpo)	68,137	80,420
Kaijo	49,520	54,457
Shingishu	48,047	54,317
Kankyo	43,851	52,634
Gensan	42,760	58,409
Chinnampo	38,296	48,314
Seishin	35,925	50,085
Moppo	34,689	59,046
Masan	27,885	29,858
Kunsan	26,321	41,077
Taiden	—	36,379
Zenshu	—	40,593
Koshu	—	52,674
Saishu	—	36,188
Konan	—	39,092

TAIWAN

	1935 (Census)	1938 (Estimate)
Taihoku	283,085	292,340
Tainan	107,887	116,451
Kiurun	84,650	89,690
Takao	81,582	94,017
Kagi	70,083	77,093
Taichu	68,414	74,839
Shinchiku	54,100	55,015
Heito	41,715	46,398
Shoka	51,152	54,304

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 seven years has been as follows:

At the end of	Diplomatic and Consular Corps	Total	Male	Female
1931	390	28,317	19,655	8,662
1932	371	26,885	18,615	8,270
1933	374	29,268	19,764	9,504
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

Information given with the 1937 figures shows 8,355 foreigners engaged in commerce; 3,199 in professional work; 2,876 studying; 1,090 in mining and manufacturing; 136 in transportation; 8 in agriculture and forestry; 407 in various other occupations, and 14,767 without occupations.

The following table classifies foreign residents according to countries of origin:

FOREIGN RESIDENTS

(December 31, 1937)

Countries of Origin	Total	Men	Women
Total	30,838	19,847	10,991
China	15,526	10,670	4,856
Manchoukuo	2,420	1,974	449
Thailand (Siam)	261	243	18
Straits Settlements	14	11	3
Philippines	104	78	26
Dutch East Indies	18	17	1
Iraq	11	9	2
Cochin China	—	—	—
India	1,008	751	257
Afghanistan	18	12	6
Burma	4	1	3
Armenia	22	10	12
Iran	3	2	1
Malaya	—	—	—
Turkey	40	26	14
Syria	20	22	7
Russia	1,345	698	647
Arabia	3	2	1
Poland	76	49	27
Latvia	18	9	9
Lithuania	19	8	11
Estonia	21	12	9
Finland	17	7	10
U. S. S. R.	245	128	117
Sweden	111	58	53
Norway	46	35	11
Denmark	94	51	43
Great Britain	2,360	1,198	1,162
Holland	297	180	117
Belgium	53	24	29
Luxemburg	9	4	5
France	583	299	284
Spain	116	49	67
Portugal	224	103	121
Italy	241	135	106
Switzerland	273	162	111
Germany	1,959	1,129	830
Austria	74	47	27
Hungary	37	20	17
Bulgaria	—	—	—
Czechoslovakia	64	37	27
Rumania	10	5	5
Yugoslavia	20	10	10
Malta	2	1	1
Greece	12	8	4
Egypt	26	16	10

Countries of Origin	Total	Men	Women
South Africa	3	1	2
Canada	342	147	195
U. S. A.	2,347	1,218	1,129
Mexico	19	10	9
Nicaragua	4	3	1
Panama	10	5	5
Salvador	—	—	—
Venezuela	3	2	1
Dominica	1	1	—
Cuba	9	6	3
Brazil	25	20	9
Colombia	5	3	2
Bolivia	2	1	1
Argentina	20	11	9
Peru	39	18	21
Guatemala	7	3	4
Chile	9	5	4
Ecuador	1	1	—
Uruguay	3	2	1
Australia	43	19	24
Hawaii	94	54	40
New Zealand	7	2	5
Others	8	5	3

Emigration

History Though there are records of Japanese having gone abroad for trade and residence in the latter years of the 15th century and the first half of the 16th century, the rigid laws against leaving the country during the period of seclusion, from 1636 to 1858, reserved the problem of emigration for modern times. As a result of negotiations between the Japanese Government and the Hawaiian Consul in Yokohama, 153 emigrants went to Hawaii in 1868 to work on sugar plantations. The venture was a failure, however, and not until 1885, after the visit of King Kalakaua of Hawaii to Japan in 1881 and the conclusion of treaties regarding travel, emigration of labourers and navigation, was there further emigration to the islands. In that year, 951 went. Their success encouraged an increase in the ensuing period, and by 1894 approximately 30,000 Japanese entered Hawaii.

Because of the rapid development of emigration, the Government turned the business over to private companies, which soon became numerous. Regulations to safeguard the interests of the emigrants were enacted in 1896. The companies sent 10,000 to Hawaii and about 1,000 each to Australia and Canada in 1897 and 23,000 to Hawaii, 3,000 to the United States, 1,700 to Canada, 790 to Peru and about 2,500 to other countries in the following year. But the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands by the United States in 1898 and the establishment of the Territorial Government in 1900, brought

the application of American law against the entry of contract labourers, and dealt a great blow to the companies.

By 1904, the movement of Japanese from Hawaii to the mainland of the United States had assumed sizable proportions, as had emigration to that country directly from Japan. In the so-called Gentlemen's Agreement, arrived at in 1908, Japan agreed to restrict the issue of passports to nationals wishing to enter the United States. The United States Supreme Court decided in 1922 that Japanese are ineligible for citizenship, and two years later the Quota Immigration Act was passed, containing a clause denying the right of entry into the United States for permanent residence of any person not eligible for citizenship. Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Canada also provided, by various methods, for exclusion of Japanese.

These obstacles to entry into the Anglo-Saxon countries had two results, first, an abrupt decrease for a few years in the number of emigrants and, second, the discovery of new outlets. Several South American lands, notably Brazil, offered inducements. The Government adopted a positive policy of sending emigrants to quarters where they were not unwelcome, and in 1921 a subsidy was given to the Overseas Enterprise Company (Kaigai Kogyo Kaisha) to arouse interest in emigration. Encouraged by this change in policy, emigration associations sprang up one after another in the prefectures, and plans were made to purchase tracts of land in Brazil for colonization. To such land, the Shinano Emigration Association (Nagano prefecture) sent 450 emigrants in 1925.

Enactment of the Emigration Association Law in 1927 resulted in an increase of "independent" emigrants, quite different from the labour-contract emigrants which had constituted the bulk in earlier years. Prefectural emi-

gration associations set up under the provisions of this law organized a federation which co-ordinated the buying of Brazilian land. A home for emigrants was opened in Kobé, the main port of embarkation. Companies specializing in South American colonization came into being. Part of the reason for establishing the Ministry of Overseas Affairs in the Government in 1929 was to provide an agency for the administration and control of matters pertaining to emigration and colonization.

Movement The following table shows the movement of Japanese travellers and emigrants.

NUMBER OF PASSPORTS ISSUED

Year	Total	To Men	To Women
1925	22,170	15,828	6,548
1926	28,619	20,017	8,602
1927	31,177	21,364	9,813
1928	34,008	23,191	10,817
1929	37,990	25,689	12,301
1930	38,383	26,589	11,794
1931	27,144	19,803	7,341
1932	30,757	19,941	10,816
1933	42,451	27,163	15,288
1934	41,815	26,567	15,248

EMIGRANTS

Year	Leaving Japan	Returning to Japan
1926	16,184	14,549
1927	18,041	14,735
1928	19,850	15,004
1929	25,704	14,073
1930	21,829	14,546
1931	10,384	12,965
1932	19,033	13,170
1933	27,317	14,141
1934	8,087	—
1935	10,813	—
1936	11,119	—
1937	10,744	—

The destinations of those leaving Japan in recent years have been:

	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	1,802	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
1932	672,266	385,315	286,951
1933	749,158	—	—
1934	872,807	496,390	376,417
1935	689,818	398,060	291,758
1936	997,115	561,590	435,525
1937	1,043,412	592,233	451,179

JAPANESE RESIDING IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES IN 1937

(October 1)	
Asia	515,440
U. S. S. R.	2,822
Manchoukuo	411,995
China	59,345
Hong Kong Consul Area	544
Thailand (Siam)	516
French Indo-China	241
British India and Ceylon I.	1,424
Singapore Consul Area	7,951
Dutch East Indies	6,485
Philippine Islands	23,991
Others	126
Europe	2,882
England	1,312
Germany	471
France	554
Belgium	63
Spain	4
Holland	19
Switzerland	70
Italy	75
Austria	33
Sweden	20
U. S. S. R.	100
Others	161
North America	141,481
United States	114,642
Canada	21,129
Mexico	4,631
Panama	358
Cuba	714
Salvador	7
South America	228,478
Brazil	197,733
Argentina	6,267
Uruguay	74
Paraguay	484
Peru	22,150
Bolivia	769
Chile	294
Colombia	294
Venezuela	25
Africa	198
Oceania	154,933
Sydney Consul Area	3,026
Guam	57
Hawaii	151,850

CHAPTER III

OUTLINE OF HISTORY

Ethnologic Beginnings

According to modern scientific research it seems almost certain that Japanese tribes lived on these islands at least as early as 2,000 B.C., in the latter part of the New Stone Age. It seems probable that yellow folk from the mainland of Asia, the natives of some southern islands, and possibly some kind of white-skinned race from the northwest, drifted to the Japanese islands, where they found a milder climate and more fertile soil than in their homelands, and formed a mixed race which we may call the Yamato Tribe and their blood became so well blended in the course of time that many think the Japanese people, their descendants, to be homogeneous.

They lived mostly on seashores or riversides. Their shell-mounds are rich in relics of those early days. They dug caves in the hillsides and pits in the flat ground for their dwellings, used stone tools and lived on natural food such as game, fish and shell-fish.

In the 3rd century B.C. the Indo-Chinese brought rice to the islands and the natives learned to cultivate and eat it. By this time a primitive agricultural life must have begun, and according to one of the oldest Chinese records on Japan the islanders already had a knowledge of silk-making even in such a remote period. Four different styles of clothing seem to have been prevalent, that of the Ainu, Tunguse, Indo-Chinese and Huns, although there were some tribes who went naked. Judging by the clay images or idols they left behind them, the Ainu clothes consisted of an upper and a lower garment, the upper garment of the women being open in front, while that of the men was not. The dress of the Tunguse much resembled the Korean in style and they were fond of using jewels or stone ornaments.

They lived in groups, forming villages which consisted in some cases of several hundred households. They seem to have had a primitive communal life, each tribe or group being firmly united by ties of blood and belief. But there had appeared as yet no political organization or system and there was a

continual stream of immigrants from the continent. Clan and tribal fighting and alliances gave opportunity for mixing blood. By the beginning of the Christian Era the Ainu and the ancestors of the Japanese, mainly Tunguse by descent, gradually settled down on the islands, the former living in the north-eastern half and the latter spreading over the south-western half.

Age of Traditions (660 B.C.-531 A.D.)

The period of 1,000 years from the Emperor Jimmu, who founded the Japanese Government in 660 B.C., to the Emperor Keitai, who reigned from 507 to 531 A.D., may be called the Age of Traditions of Japan. The first book of history "Nihonshoki" (Japanese Annals) which was first compiled in the 23rd year of the Empress Suiko, and the second oldest record "Kojiki" (Antiquities) which appeared about one hundred years later, tell of some still older manuscripts which furnished them with materials. But of these no trace remains. These two books which are commonly called "Ki-Ki" collectively contain traditions long cherished by the islanders, although there are many fictions mixed or intermingled in them. Careful study of these records reveals the ancient life of the Japanese after the New Stone Age and at the beginning of the agricultural period.

Beginning of Shintoism People in this age formed large families and the clan system prevailed. In many families the succession followed the maternal side, clan councils were called and patriarchs were elected. The number of clans was about one hundred. Shintoism, though in the most undeveloped state, was already a creed: people revered their forefathers and worshipped their own family gods, and the members of each clan were united in the worship of their own particular god, gaining thereby a more vivid feeling of belonging to one and the same blood. In the Imperial House, the Emperor Jimmu instituted religious ceremonies for his Divine Ancestors, who became the objects of worship of the National Shintoism in later ages, and his successors

followed his example and prayed to the gods for the welfare of their beloved nation. Before Chinese models were adopted the ancient government of Japan was a very simple theocracy, and ritual observances and public affairs were one, as the Japanese "Matsurigoto" may mean either the administration of state affairs or religious ceremony.

Political Affairs In 87 B.C. the Emperor Sujin sent armies to the remoter central and western districts and subdued all the opposing tribes. In the first century A.D. the Emperor Keiko sent Yamato-Takeru or some generals to the farthest west and east, and succeeded in bringing the whole land under his sway, sending his sons to be the rulers over those subdued districts. Later the Emperor Seimu divided the whole land into territories and prefectures for the convenience of governing them. Sujin and Sulnin encouraged industry and commerce, the nation became rich and national power was so augmented that the small kingdoms in the Korean peninsula came one by one to be its tributaries. It was through these small Korean kingdoms that a knowledge of the religion and culture of the greater Oriental nations first reached Japan. In 285 A. D. Confucianism with its important moral precepts concerning righteousness, loyalty, filial piety, and love, was officially introduced into the country. In 552, during the reign of the Emperor Kimmel, the public introduction of Buddhism with its teachings on cause and effect opened up new vistas in religious and philosophic thought.

Civilization Introduced From the remains of this period it can be inferred that the Japanese people whose settlements extended from Kyushu to districts near the present-day Kyoto had risen above a barbarous life long before the first century of the Christian Era. Their shell-mounds contain many bronze utensils which correspond to the Chinese productions of the Han Dynasty (206 B.C.-221 A.D.). Do-taku which seem to have been used as musical instruments or kept as a kind of treasure have been found in the districts extending from the western end of the Main Island to Totomi and Kaga provinces near Nagoya and in Shikoku Island. They were found with relics of the so-called Yayoi style which characterizes the works of the original Japanese as distinguished from the Ainu, and tell of early Japanese intercourse with the continental countries. Do-ken or bronze swords of

different shapes have been found in the provinces of Kyushu, districts around the Inland Sea, the provinces of Aki, Izumo, Owari and Shinano and in Shikoku Island.

Japan had tributaries in Korea at this period, but, at the same time, heads of large families in Kyushu and Loochoo had some relations with the Han Dynasty as local tributary lords. Considerable numbers of continental people came to the islands either individually or in large bodies, and the civilizations of China, India and Korea were constantly introduced to the islanders or brought in by the immigrants themselves so that there had really been several centuries of preparation before the formal or official reception of Chinese books and culture in the 3rd century at the Central Court in Yamato province, Nara prefecture.

Japanese Traits In those days Japanese characteristics and tribal traits were already established. The mild climate and beautiful natural features of the islands and the surrounding seas exerted ineradicable influences on the nature of the inhabitants. From such an early period the islanders, economically self-supplying and self-sufficient, enjoyed comparatively peaceful lives without much danger of being invaded by outside political powers. Consequently they became admirers of the realistic world, highly optimistic with pragmatic ideals; they had deep appreciation of natural life and a religious belief full of light. Their mode of action was sprightly, innocent and active. Loyalty to one's lord and filial piety were their two main principles of morality fostered from the remotest past; next in importance came valour in the highest sense of the term. There was no distinction in the position of the sexes and able women assumed high places in public affairs.

Primitive Literature There were written numerous local histories and genealogies of the Imperial Court and clans, and stories of heroes of victorious battles were earnestly listened to at their gatherings. They had ballads and a crude form of poetry which later came to be called waka, the metrical arrangement being 5-7 or 5-7-7, instead of the later 5-7-5-7-7. The ideas expressed were simple, pure, and mostly concrete, immediate feelings being put into metre. The subject matter, in common with that of primitive peoples in other parts of the world, being that of women, war, and saké. Songs in praise of the natural beauty of the scenery were rarely sung.

No Pastoral Life The islands, severed as they were from the continent, were unsuited for raising cattle, and the ancient Japanese people had no experience of a pastoral life. Excavation of mounds gives no indication of it, while the undeveloped legs of the Japanese seem to suggest something of their ancestral habits.

With the progress of agricultural life the oldest clan system, which had no class differences, began to undergo changes because of the increase of population and consequent need of new land. Clans began to separate into branches, the latter leaving the parent stock and going out to get new lands. In many cases land was obtained by violence and there arose the connection of master and subject between the conqueror and the conquered. Blood relation among the people widened to local relation and there appeared ruling clan heads to control and represent the districts or provinces. Soon these ruling families transformed their temporary power into a hereditary one. The primitive or natural system of common property was transformed to that of private property. Powerful clans had serfs as property and subordinate clans or subjects paid tribute.

Age of Foundation (532-709 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 Sul and Tang Dynasties.

Political Events With religion, other things such as painting, sculpture and architecture were gradually introduced and in the sixth century Prince Shōtoku-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.

Emperor's Power Reduced 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 labour 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.

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 clothes making, 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 (Talkwa) 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. This 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. The following is but a summary of the vast Reformation:

(A) Public land and people (citizens). (1) The people had, hitherto, belonged to the powerful gens and families and had been kept in a condition not far removed from serfdom. The land had been the private estates of the gens, and wealth had been almost entirely accumulated by them alone. In this reformation the land was all confiscated by the Central Government, and the people became direct subjects or citizens of the Emperor; so was the clan system destroyed. (2) The public land was distributed to citizens evenly. A census was taken first and all the names of the people were registered and every male over the age of five was given two "tan", or a little less than half an

acre of land, while a woman was given two-thirds of this. This land was returned to the Government when the holder died. The registration was renewed every sixth year. (3) Three taxes were newly imposed: one was on the land, being two bundles of rice on each "tan". The second was a requisition of labour, or else twelve feet of cloth or about two-and-a-half bushels of rice instead, from each house, and the third was a certain proportion of the special products of the locality.

(B) Centralization of government. The reformation of Taika was specially concerned with the centralization of government and the abolishing of local divisions of the clan system. To accomplish this aim, a central government had to be established on a very strong basis. In 649, the Emperor ordered the establishment of a central government consisting of eight departments, modelled on the Tang government. In the country districts the old officials were replaced by new state and country governors, horse stations were established for the convenience of travel and traffic, barrier-gates were set up in important places, and defensive preparations were made in the remotest districts.

(C) Appointment of men of ability. The third merit of the Reformation was in the appointment of able men from among the people to important positions. Under the old clan system even the officials were hereditary and this gave birth to various political abuses. This hereditary officialdom was entirely done away with by the Taika Reformation, and any one who had real talent might become a high official, no matter to which or to what kind of clan or house he belonged.

Prince Naka-no-Ohyé, who headed the council of this great revolutionary improvement, declared, "As there are not two suns in the sky so there cannot be two kings over one nation, and the Emperor must be the only one who governs over and controls his people under heaven," and he set the first example to the people by handing over his own estates and subjects to the Mikado, thereby speeding the Reformation.

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 neighbour, 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 and the formal institutions mentioned in (A) soon began to collapse.

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 administrative offices and might over-rule the decisions of the Danjodal (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-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, Shintoism was formulated as the national religion. As to the nature of Shintoism and its philosophical analysis as a dogma opinions are divided, it nevertheless developed in this age from mere nature-worship to ancestor-worship, cosmogony and anthropomorphism, including a germ of the idea of a central diety of the cosmos in the belief in Amé-no-minaka-nushi-no-kami. On the other hand Buddhism was eagerly taken into the lives of the upper class people who had power to assimilate it.

Nara Age (710-793 A.D.)

Golden Age of Buddhism After the Taika Reformation in 646, the Govern-

ment 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, favoured 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 we see in the Manyoshu collection of waka of this period (See Chapter XXXV).

The use of abbreviated forms of Chinese characters was begun 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 Age.

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, labour and the digging of water courses were required, so 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 (660 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 Izumo district. At the time of Sujin the southern part of Korea became a Japanese protectorate, but its eastern neighbour, 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 had 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 Chinese 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 the Sui, diploma-

tic 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 Age, 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 Age. 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 Age (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 sceptre 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 favour 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 age 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-defence, 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 positions 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 honoured 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 behaviour 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 Age an abbreviated form of Chinese characters began to be used among scribes. In this Heian Age 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 age 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 XXXV). 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 Daigaku, (school of higher learning), which took in 400 boys of higher officials. There were 143 higher officials and 350 lower officials in the city. In the districts there were established Koku-gaku, provincial schools, open mainly for the boys of local officials. At Dazaifu in Kyushu the Gakugyo-in, or in-

stitute 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 Karum, 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. Many a young student went abroad. Prince Shinryo, a young monk of the Shochoji temple in Izumi province, (present Osaka-fu) went to the Tang capital, and started from Rasha to Raetsu, near Singapore, for the study of Buddhism, but died on the way. The needs of the time gave rise to many private schools. Some representative ones were the Bunsho-in of Seiko 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 ages 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 Manyōshū 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, Atōkuwa and Ōka. On the beach of Takahama in Hitachi (present Ibaraki) and by the straits of Asakumi in Izumo province (present Shimanē) there were primitive markets opened for the people. These markets were first started in connection with Shinto festivals. In the Nara Age, there were the East and West Markets in the city of Nara, where trees were planted for giving shade, and from there pedlars 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 Age 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 Genpei (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, Muko 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 at-

tained 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 Age. 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 Yédo Age. 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

honourable positions in the Imperial Court and in the second class mentioned above. According to a record of this age 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 Taiho 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 Age 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 Age, 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 Age.

Kamakura Age (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 Age, the Fujiwaras grasped despotic authority in politics, and the rule of the Imperial Court sank into formalism. Imperial of-

ficials 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 Séitai-Shogun or Generalissimo, 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 began 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 honour became strong; loyalty to the Emperor, patriotism, and belief in Japan as being the country specially favoured 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 Terakoya (see Chapter XXVIII) schools were started in the Buddhist temples of this age. Text books suitable for the education of samurai boys were compiled. At the time of the Ashikagas famous centres 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 age may be taken as a recognition of the individual value of men. (See Chapter XXXV.)

Commerce and Industry Before the Kamakura Age, 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 age, however, quickened the progress of commerce and industry in country places and local centres. 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.

Joeli Judicial Code In the first year of Joeli, 1232, a judicial code was issued. It was called Joeli Shikimoku (Joeli Judicial Code) compiled by Yasutoki Hojo and his colleagues. This was a compilation founded on the judicial customs of olden 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 Age (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 and interviewed Chinese merchants at his palace. In the Kamakura Age, 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, imitating 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 Age, Japanese pirates had plundered the coasts of China and Korea. In the Muromachi Age, 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 Age 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-Seikei, 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 age 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 usurped its authority. Both in the capital of Heian 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, favoured 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 age. 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 centres. Terakoya 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 favour 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), Kyushu, Funai in Bungo province (present Oita), Kyushu, and Azuchi in Omi province near Kyoto. The last one was opened in 1591, 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 dangers of the times. Chinese dicta concerning the "three obediences and seven reasons for divorce" making of woman little better than a slave or chattel, suited 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 Heian or Kyoto 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-Rikyu, the famous specialist in the tea ceremony, and Sukémon 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 Kaiseki. 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 Kakémono paintings. These were exported to the continent for the first time in the history of Japan.

The last quarter of this age, 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 Heaven-

ly 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 Age. 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 centres, and merchants and artisans were gaining standing as a class. Up to the middle of the Muromachi Age 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 the age 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 Age 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 Kobe 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 Tokugawa, 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 Ages 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 Iyé-

yasu 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 Yoshitaki Ashikaga the Shogun and demanded direct access to the Emperor Oginachi, 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 favouring 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 Toyotomi, 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 1588 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 obedience 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 Age 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 labouring 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 honoured 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 classes. 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 age 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-lords in later ages, especially in the Yédo Age, originated in the land-lords, 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 artisans 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 age gave rise to such port cities as Sakai, Hakata and Yamaguchi. 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 honourable 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, 1423. The mob demanded the so-called "Toku Sei", cancellation of debt or a permanent moratorium. Mobs which were united in the faith of Buddhism such as the Jodo or Hokké 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 Byodoin temple at Uji, Kyoto, in February, 1486. 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 age. 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.

Yédo Age (1602-1867 A.D.)

In 1600 Iyéyasu Tokugawa gained a decisive victory at Sekigahara, near Gifu, and 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 favourite 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, being quite 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.

Iyéyasu located the seat of the Central Government at Yédo (Tokyo) and governed from there his 200 lords and generals. The financial basis of this 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 centres of industrial and commercial activities, and all the mines of any value were under the Shogunate's direct control. It also retained the right of casting coins.

Duké Hatto (Samurai Law) After giving the final blow to the Toyotomis in May, 1615, Iyéyasu 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, Hidetada. 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 neighbouring 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 Yédo, the seat of the Shogunate, in April every other year, to stay there for one year and the Shogunate prepared their Yédo 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 behaviour. The number of daimyo was 157 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 included regulations regarding the positions of the Emperor, Imperial Princes and Princesses, the appointment of a Regency and chief councillor, adoption, court ranks, institution of the year name, costumes, the order of promotion, orders 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 Iyéyasu 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 Tokugawa 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 Yédo, 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 Ujiyamada were administered by governors directly sent from Yédo. The children of Iyéyasu were given large feuds and established the Houses of Mito, Owari, Echizen and Kishu, forming a defensive semicircular line. As a whole, Iyéyasu 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 travellers 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 Yédo, 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 raising 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 Tairo (the great elder), five Roju (the middle elders), and five Wakadoshiyori (the younger elders). The Tairo was the premier but, though the Shogun at times placed his most reliable and able statesman in the position, the years in which a Tairo 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 Shoshi-dai who represented the Sho-

gunate 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, jôruri (or gidaiyu), and kabuki (see Chapter XXXVII) 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 hand-work and special weaving arts reached the highest pitch.

In the Genroku period literary men were able to publish their writings free-

ly and the *loruri* of Chikamatsu, the novels of Saikaku, 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 centre 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 50 years, especially the first 50 years of it, was the golden age of the cultural life before the Meiji Restoration.

The policy of the Tokugawa Shogunate in handling the people from the lowest to the highest, was very severe, and the class most oppressed being the common populace. Social tragedies amply reflect themselves in the literature of *loruri* writers, Chikamatsu and his contemporaries, and in spite of the apparently good intentions of the Shogunate rulers and advisers to improve the political, economic and social conditions, in many cases 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 kept them from falling into hopeless discouragement and their surplus time and money were spent in amusements of all kinds. 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, realistic 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. Characteristic Japanese philosophy on human life or Shintōism was created by the combination of Chinese philosophies and Buddhism.

Gradual Economic Decline At the beginning of the Tokugawa Shogunate foreign trade was carried on to a con-

siderable 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 was lost for the time being. 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 rely upon the profits gained by the recasting of coin. 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 travelling expenses. They fell into heavy debt, their creditors being the wealthy merchants and money lenders at Yédo and Osaka, the two business centres of the time. From the middle of the Yédo Age 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 allowed 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 armour which had become useless in the long years of peace.

In the Yédo Age the country folk still lived on the natural products of their farms, helped out by some small income from their handwork, and each village constituted an economic unit, self-supplying and self-supporting. 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 50% of the farmers' income had to be paid to the lords, they were forbidden to move from one place to another, or to change their occupation, purchase of land was restricted, the *Gonin-gumi* and other feudal institutions fettered them hand and foot. So this class of people was also thrown into miserable depression, 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 unreasonable 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 Age 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 dreadful habit of infanticide which originated from the direct 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 labourers 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 Sankin-kotai. 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 produced in the Kansai, Chugoku (the Main Island west of Kōbe), 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 Oshu 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 hundred 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, *To-kaido*, *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 centre.

On the other hand factories were still undeveloped and most articles were made by hand in individual houses. Industry with large capital and in factories was limited to brewing at Nada, weav-

ing at Ashikaga, Kiriu near Yédo and Hakata in Kyushu, metal foundries in Chugoku and shipbuilding.

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 Age by the activities of the Gochuin-sen or registered vessels and small boats of the pirates. The Islanders were compelled to fall back on the old economic system of self-supply and self-sufficiency, and unwillingly relinquishing 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 or buké, farmers, businessmen, educationists 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 Age 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 Age. There were in 1752, the Shogunate House, its three relative lords, and 258 lords or daimyo. Among the 258 daimyo those who owned an estate above 600,000 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 1684 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 subjects 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 farmer 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 honoured because of their economic power. Toward the latter half of the Yédo Age they actually became freer than the samurai. At times their wealth and lives were forfeit to the Shogunate or local warlords, yet they laid an unshakable foundation for the business classes in new Japan after the Meiji Restoration in 1868.

The educational 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 meagre 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 Age, as in the preceding period, were the "éta" and "hinin." The number of "éta" or "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 "éta" 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. They were despised by other people to the extent that they were not allowed to eat or sit with them. Intermarriage and mixed residence with other classes was strictly prohibited by law. This "éta" class has been most unreasonably treated to the present, although the Meiji Government declared in 1871 that no legal distinction should exist between the "éta" and others. The "hinin," outcasts, beggars, and the like were put in the same class with the "éta". According to statistics taken by the Meiji Government in 1871 the number of the "éta" was 280,311, beggars 23,480 and others 79,097.

Ronin A characteristic phenomenon of the Yédo Age was the appearance of the Ronin or masterless samurai. Such samurai had existed in previous years, but at the time of the despotic Toyotomi their number was insignificant. The samurai who had followed lords defeated and ruined in battles became ronin, 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 lawless 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 Séki-gahara (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 in 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 Kéian 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 gravity of the situation and after the Kéian 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 Térakoya 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 praiseworthy 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 other countries. And thus the ambition of the Japanese for foreign expansion was quenched.

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 foreign people entirely in 1639, with the only exception of the Hollanders who helped the Shogun's armies in the fight against the religious mob at Shimabara and 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 meagre reports presented by the Dutch Consul. The people were kept in entire ignorance. The result of this isolation from the nations of the world was that the country dropped behind in world civilization.

But general movements among the nations of the world did not allow Japan to stay forever in a secluded condition. In the 16th century, foreign ships began to visit Japan, and the Islanders could no longer leave these intruders at their shores unheeded. The end of the Yédo Age was evidently drawing near.

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 16th 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. At the same time, strict orders were given to Japanese boats not to have any intercourse with foreign vessels (1625).

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 1840.

Treaty of Amity with America In the sixth year of Kaéi, 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, Hakodaté 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 Hakodaté for English vessels, and an agreement was reached between the two nations. Hakodaté 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, who finally succeeded in coming up to Yédo and got an interview with the Shogun Iyétsada in 1857. He earnestly requested the Government's consent to open trade relations, and asked that an American minister might be stationed in Yédo, assuring his hearers of Amer-

ican 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 (Kobé) in addition to Shimoda and Hakodaté. They allowed Americans to settle in those ports for trade, gave them freedom to come in to Yédo and Osaka, recognized their freedom of religious belief and extraterritorial jurisdiction, and regulated the rate of tariff in 1858. This was the so-called *Anséi modus vivendi*.

In the same year the treaty was sanctioned 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 earnestly requested 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 (Kobé) 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 Shimonoséki in 1864.

Downfall of the Shogunate

Court and Shogunate The Yédo 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 explained the irrationality of the Shogunate régime in the country of which the sovereignty belonged solely to the Imperial House. Down to the middle of the Yédo Age, however, these teachings did no harm to the Shogunate for both the ruling class and the people took them 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 Masahigé Kusunoki at Minatogawa, Kobé. Such other scholars as Ansei Yamazaki, Kéisai Asami, and Soko Yamaka, mostly praised 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 Umón 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 Atsutané Hirata greatly helped the cause of the loyalist movement. Hikokuro Takayama went around the provinces propagating the principle: Kumpéi Gamo visited the tombs of the deceased Emperors and publicly bewailed their neglected state. Sanyo Rai wrote a Japanese history in which he praised the Imperial House and chastised the Shogunate with a keen and powerful pen.

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 Koméi, father of Meiji the Great, 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 their rudeness in concluding treaties without the Imperial permission. Whereupon the Shogunate sent a delegate to apologize for the steps they had taken, but at the same time the Tairo (premier) Naosuké II declared the coup d'Etat of Ansei, 1858, and punished 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 1860.

The assassination of the Tairo gave what was to prove a final blow to the Shogunate though the Roju, Nobunasa 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 and hotly discussed the matter. 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 Iyéhigé tried to make improvements 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 Sanétomi 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 fanatical Kyoto loyalists demanded that a nation-wide anti-foreign movement should be launch-

ed, and the Emperor was inclined to take command of the movement himself, but the more sagacious and saner-minded princes and lords advised him to realize the unwisdom of anti-foreign action, 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 Shimonoséki 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 honour in the crisis.

Prince Sanétomi Sanjo, one of the seven Count 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 O-

kubo 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 Nijo 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 875 years the sovereign authority was restored to the Throne.

THE NEW JAPAN

Meiji Era
(1868-1912 A.D.)

The Meiji Restoration

In December of the same year, 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. In the following year, 1868, or the first year of Meiji, the Emperor

by the advice of Takayoshi (Koin) Kido, a vice-councillor, called together the princes and high officials to the Shishinden or central palace 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 pres-

ence 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 ascension to the Throne was held at the central palace, and in September the year-name Meiji was given.

Removal of the Capital The Emperor Meiji paid his first visit to Tokyo in the first year and made the castle of Yedo his permanent palace in the second year of the new era. 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, and there were seven departments in it. 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 the mutual 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 submitted an opinion on the surrender of all feudal possessions to the Emperor to complete the purpose of the Restoration, through Sanetomi Sanjo and Tomomi Iwakura; and at the same time he advised Lord Mori, Daimyo of Nagato, to return his territory to the Court. The latter was quite willing to do so, thereupon Takayoshi Kido worked with Toshimichi Okubo and succeeded in getting the consent of Lord (Daimyo) Shimazu of Satsuma, Lord Nabeshima of Hizen and Lord Yamanouchi of Tosa. These four lords tendered their petition for the territorial surrender in joint signature. Other lords followed them, and their petition was accepted in the second year. The lords gave up all their land and people, asking for nothing in return in a most admirable spirit of patriotism and loyalty. For the time being they were requested to continue as governors of their districts, and the feu-

dal 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. Fortunately, however, Yoshii of Gumma and Sa'yama of Osaka soon resigned their governorships, realizing the defects of the system, and many others followed their lead. Kido again was quick enough to grasp the situation, and taking advantage of the general trend he endeavoured with his powerful friends Toshimichi Okubo and Takamori Saigo 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 kindly explained to them about the abolition of their office. They were given conveniences to live in Tokyo, and were replaced by the prefectural governors. Through many changes, the country was finally divided as at present into one "Do" or district, three urban prefectures and forty-three prefectures in 1889. (Foreign relations are dealt with in Chapter VI.)

Social Reforms

After the cessation of samurai government the social system could not remain unaltered. 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" (flowers of the nation) or 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 Heimin 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 people were quick to adopt them in their daily social

life. In the second year of Meiji telegraphic communication was opened between Tokyo and Yokohama; in the fourth year, the regular mail service between Tokyo, Kyoto and Osaka was begun; and in the fifth year, the first train ran between Tokyo and Yokohama. In the fourth year, men were ordered to cut off their topknots and walk on the streets without wearing swords. In the same year, laws regarding European costumes and uniforms of officials were issued, the old lunar calendar was discarded and the solar calendar was adopted in its place, and national holidays were newly appointed. 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

After the appearance of the Samurai class in the middle age they held all the military power in their hands, and the people at large had nothing to do with it. But with the reforms following the Restoration, the military system was also revised and in the fifth year of Meiji the provisional Department of Military Affairs was changed into the two departments of Army and Marine, 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 protection 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 the second year the Colonization Bureau was opened. The name Hokkaido, or north-sea-district, was given to the land, formerly known as Ezo. In the third year, Kiyotaka Kuroda was appointed vice-president of the Bureau and he made untiring efforts to civilize the natives, to construct roads, to promote 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 guard and cultivate the land at the same time. The farming

and other population of Hokkaido has rapidly increased since. A troublesome question in the north was the boundary between Japan and Russia. The Shogunate had several diplomatic negotiations with the Russian admirals, and at the beginning of the Meiji Era this question again arose with the opening of the Colonization Bureau. Japan's wish was 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 mass of the people could hardly understand their need and meaning, being still prone to the old ways and systems. There were some who were offended by various policies of the Government. These people became a constant cause of political and social unrest, there were repeatedly assassinations of high officials; while in the country districts disturbances broke out one after another. Shimpéi Eto, caused some trouble in Saga prefecture; but he was soon subdued by the Imperial army. In Kumamoto, an adjacent prefecture to Saga, Otoguro 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 Hagi, 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 Takamori Saigo 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 city thus 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 Saigō, 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 Tateki Tani, bravely fought against Saigō's army and did not surrender. The Emperor Meiji was then travelling in the districts near Kyoto and Osaka, and stopped in Kyoto to take command of the Imperial army. He 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. Saigō's troops were compelled to raise the siege under the pressure of the big Imperial armies, and they retreated in disorder back to Kagoshima, and made Shiroyama their final stronghold. Shiroyama was a promontory in the outskirts of the town and there the great Saigō killed himself with his colleagues in the face of the assailing Imperial soldiers. This rebellion was really the last of the civil wars accompanying the Restoration. After this South-Western Civil War, the wounded soldiers, loyalist and rebel alike, were cared for impartially at the Imperial army hospitals, and the Emperor Meiji, the Empress and the Empress-Dowager showed them special kindness. It may be mentioned that 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 really 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 Ōto presented a petition for the 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 Se-

nate, 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 1879 prefectural assemblies were opened for deciding on district finances and representative government was first tried in the local districts.

Prefectural Elections The South-Western Civil War was ended and 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. Public faith in these new statesmen was not yet assured, but they were young and progressive and endeavoured to absorb Western ways and civilization for the benefit of the rising generation. In April, 1878, the second local governors' conference was held and Ito was its chairman. The items for discussion were rules on prefectural assemblies, local taxes, and the organization of towns and villages. In July of the same year the rules on prefectural assemblies were issued, and according to the articles public election of representatives and local self-government were for the first time to be put into practice in the following year. This was a further step toward constitutional government. As a matter of fact, it might be considered a rehearsal of the formation of a national diet. The election was most sincerely carried out, because the people honoured 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. For instance, the chairman of the Tokyo prefectural assembly was Genchiro Fukuchi and the vice-president was Yukiichi Fukuzawa, founder of Keio-Gijuku University, while the members were all men of honour. The famous members of the Imperial Diet and great statesmen of later days mostly came out of these primitive local assemblies.

Political Dissensions Political dissensions, which had appeared even under the turmoil of military struggles, came

to the fore, and hot discussions on both sides were carried on both in debates and through printed pamphlets. The one who attracted most public attention with his progressive opinions was Taisuké Itagaki of Tosa. 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 19 prefectures, and the third meeting in November made resolutions to send a petition to the Emperor, and drafted a letter with a long heading, "Letter of Appeal to the Public for demanding the establishment of the National Assembly," which was printed and distributed among the people.

Petition for Opening Diet In the city of Okayama, a little west of Kobé, hot-blooded young politicians composed a manifesto and distributed it, this moved their youthful contemporaries more strongly than the first had done. When the fourth meeting of the Patriots' Society was held at Osaka in April, 1880, 114 delegates from the 87,000 members of different societies met together, formed the "Volunteers' Association for Demanding the Opening of the National Assembly," and drafted a petition. It is said that over 50 such petitions were presented to the Government during the one year of 1880. In the midst of such movements a new scholar of French politics, Kimmochi Salonji, the last Genro or Elder Statesman came back from Paris and published the "Toyo Jiyu Shimbun" (Eastern Liberal News), and to the great surprise of the authorities, instructed the people in the principles of liberal politics. The acute state of affairs seemed to preface the early appearance of an Imperial Diet when the political events of 1881 occurred.

Imperial Edict Issued In that year the Government was going 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 ¥14,098,800 on them. There was a strong suspicion of favouritism for the Kagoshima merchants of the said Society, for many of the high officials came from that district, and criticisms arose against the abuse. This public criticism caught up by those who demanded liberty and they bitterly censured the official auto-

cracy. The very evening of his return from a tour of the north-eastern districts on the 11th of October, the Emperor Meiji gathered together the members of the Cabinet and the councillors and a meeting was held 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 12th, 1881. With the issuing of this edict the boisterous outbursts of 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 ten years later. The principal ones were the Jiyu-to, Liberal Party of Taisuké Itagaki and the Kaishin-to, or Progressive Party of Shigēnōbu Okuma.

Preparation of Constitution In 1882 the Government sent Hirobumi Ito to make thorough investigations regarding Western institutions, to find good models and suggestions for the Japanese parliament. Ito and his attendants 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 in a part of the Imperial Palace and appointing Ito the president of the Bureau, ordered him to make a draft of 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 officialism of the Central Government was reformed and a real 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, Marine, Justice, Education, Agriculture and Commerce, and Communications. The function of these ministers was to take joint responsibility on national politics in place of the Emperor and help him in good government over his faithful subjects. 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,

the most excellent and patriotic statesmen were appointed to its membership, 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 item of discussion. The Emperor Meiji was present at all sessions on the Constitution, earnestly listening to the opinions of the different members, and playing a great part in framing and discussing the resolutions.

Promulgation of the Constitution On the 11th February, the 2,549th anniversary of the accession of Jimmu Tenno, 1889 in Western reckoning, the Emperor Meiji reverently reported the promulgation of the Constitution to the ancestral gods and appeared in person with the Empress before the Imperial Princes, Cabinet ministers, high officials, representative people, and foreign ministers, and solemnly issued the Imperial Constitution (See Appendix). He issued an accompanying law relating to the Imperial family which regulated future accessions, and relative positions of the Imperial Princes, that no trouble might ensue on the question of the successor to the Throne. Other laws which were to accompany the Constitution were on the election of the members of the lower house of parliament and the institution of it. 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.

Laws Since the downfall of feudalism and return of fiefs to the Emperor, enacted uniform laws for the proper control of the people became an acute necessity and the Government first took in hand the criminal laws and issued revised ones in the sixth year of Meiji. Other laws were revised or newly compiled according to the need of progressive 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 ad-

vanced ideals and needs of the times.

Revision of Treaties

(See Chapter VI)

Sino-Japanese War

In August, 1894 Japan declared war against China, the Emperor setting up his headquarters at Hiroshima. Lieutenant-General Notsu routed the Chinese soldiers and drove them back from the boundaries of Korea 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 victoriously 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 yielded and asked for peace, appointing Li Hung-chang ambassador. Japanese ambassadors Premier Ito and Foreign Minister Mutsu met him at a peace conference at Shimonoséki. According to the peace treaty concluded in April, 1895, China recognized Korean independence, gave Japan the Liaotung Peninsula, Formosa and Boko Islands, paid about ¥300,000,000 to her, 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 Formosa was first governed by Governor-General Kabayama. In 1896, the whole island of Formosa 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. After the Sino-Japanese War, the Japanese Government and people united their efforts in many enterprises.

Military preparations were strengthened, schools improved in number and quality, industry and commerce thrived, communications were also greatly improved, and the national power remarkably augmented. In 1897 Japan adopted the gold standard, on the foundation of the gold coin received from China as indemnity.

The Boxer Rebellion In the meanwhile, anti-foreign feeling began to spread among the Chinese people, and, in 1899, the so-called "Boxer Rebellion" suddenly broke out in Shantung. The rebels hoisted the banners of "protect China, exterminate foreigners", murdered many Christian missionaries, destroyed churches, and, in the following year, advanced to Tientsin and attacked the residences of Europeans there. Later they united with the Government soldiers controlled by the Empress-Dowager and coming up to Peking attacked the foreign legations, some Japanese and German delegates being killed. Japan headed the combined forces of the Powers which marched on the capital for the relief of the legations. The Chinese yielded, asked for peace, punished the leaders of the anti-foreign movement, and agreed to pay a 450,000,000 tael indemnity, and to send delegates to Japan and Germany to make apology.

Anglo-Japanese Alliance After the experience of the North China incident, 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 Korean 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

Russia Reluctant to Go Under pressure of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance and the American Government, Russia promised China to return Manchuria, but was by no means ready to keep her promise and on the contrary, in 1903, she sent larger armies to Manchuria and was busy constructing permanent strongholds at Port Arthur, dispatched warships to the port, appointed Alexeiev, Governor-General with his headquarters at Port Arthur, acted as the sovereign power in diplomatic, civil and military affairs in the Far East, and in August of the same year invaded the northern part of Korea. This unrestrained Russian advance menaced the territorial integrity of Korea, the existence of

Japan, and the peace of the Far East, and Japan was compelled to take a firm stand against these designs, proposing a mutual understanding about the limitations of rights of both nations to avoid the impending danger of collision. But during the course of the negotiations, Russia continued to menace Japan, treating her with contempt and preserving her own aggressive attitude. The Japanese final proposal on the problems in Manchuria, of the 12th January, 1904, was left unanswered by Russia for two weeks, and the Imperial declaration of war against Russia was issued on the 10th February, 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 soldiers, 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 Korea in May; the Second Army, with General Oku in command was landed on the Liaotung peninsula and devising a united strategy with the Fourth Army, General Notsu, defeated the enemy in every place, and the three armies simultaneously advanced to Liaoyang. 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 reinforced armies 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 Nogi turned from Liaotung to the attack of Port Arthur. Nogi began the famous but awful siege warfare, and captured the so-called "203-metre hill" in December. In January, 1905, General Stoessel, head of the Russian garrison, surrendered to General Nogi 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 they advanced towards Mukden from three directions. After a fierce battle of 14 days the Japanese armies defeated the immense armies of the enemy, who returned to the north in a complete rout. This momentous event took place on the tenth of March, 1905.

The Baltic Fleet 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 leadership of Vice-Admiral Rozhdnestvensky. The Russian squadron made a long voyage to the Far East and Togo was able to make full plans to meet them in the most convenient place for the Japanese fleet. Had the Russian warships safely entered the port of Vladivostok the defenceless shores of Japan would have been exposed to their bombardment while the Japanese Manchurian armies might have been starved to death, unable to get supplies from the home islands. Togo was right when he hoisted high on the main-mast of his flagship the signal, "The fate of Japan will be decided with this battle; every sailor is requested to exert his best for the country," at the moment the outlines of the Russian fleet came into sight. The 38 boats of the two Russian squadrons sailed straight in majestic lines for their destination across the East China Sea. Togo kept the utmost secrecy as to his hiding place and chose the narrow Tsushima Straits to encounter the Russian fleet. It took only a few hours from the evening of the 27th May to the following morning to sink most of the Russian warships or blow them to pieces, and Rozhdnestvensky 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 Mr. Roosevelt, President of the United States seeing the disastrous conditions, financial and otherwise, which threatened both countries after the battles at Mukden and the Japan Sea initiated peace-proposals between Japan and Russia, and was successful in persuading the rival parties 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 in September, 1905. Russia recognized the supreme rights of Japan

over Korea, surrendered the southern half of Saghalien to Japan, and handed over the special rights of lease which she possessed in Kwantung, the railroad south of Changchun and the mining of coal along it.

After the Russo-Japanese War

Post-war Readjustment The Russo-Japanese war raised Japan's position in world politics, putting her almost on the same level as the European Powers, especially in regard to Oriental affairs. The international relations of Japan with the Western Powers became so intimate and important that all of them exchanged ambassadors with Japan in place of the former ministers. 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. The state-ownership of railroads was realized to improve the traffic of the islands. The patriotic contributions of the business men and merchants after the war must not be overlooked. In 1906 Port Arthur was made a naval station for the defence of the Kwantung littoral, and the South Manchuria Railway Company was established to manage the railroad 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.

Relation with Korea

(See Chapter VI.)

Treaties with Powers

(See Chapter VI.)

Blending of East and West Immediately after the Restoration the Government had been eager to invite and introduce all things Western, and the people had responded to the policy with alacrity. There followed, as a matter of fact, an age of Europeanization. It was during those days that so many Japanese treasures of Buddhism and fine arts went out of the country for very meagre amounts of money, and many beautiful old customs and precedents were carelessly dropped. But then came the victories over China and Russia to give confidence and conviction to the Japanese and turn them from a mere imitation of the West to the recognition of their own special abilities and valuable inheritances. Cries for the preservation of national characteristics were raised and the blending of

the Occidental and Oriental civilizations, the creation of a new Meiji civilization, was started and the nation began to make a steady and healthy advance in all phases of national life.

Demise of the Emperor Meiji In July, 1912, the Emperor Meiji passed away after only a few weeks of illness in his Tokyo Palace. His demise caused such profound grief among the people that an English correspondent was said to have telegraphed home "Japan is going into a decline!" with the death of the great Emperor. He died beloved of all, a love which was attested by the splendid Meiji Shrine which was built in his honour, 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 In August, 1914, the World War broke out and Japan was compelled according to the terms of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance to take necessary steps to combat German activities in the Orient. She requested Germany to withdraw her war vessels from Japanese and Chinese waters, and to return Shantung by a fixed date to China. Needless to say, Germany did not comply, and Japan declared war in the same month.

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. In deeper waters, the Japanese Third Squadron commanded by Rear-Admiral Tsuchiya kept watch over not only the China seas but also went as far as Philippine waters. 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, 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. Germany's strength in the Orient was thus completely wiped out.

Japan helped Russia also, chiefly by enabling her to attend to the War without any anxiety about Eastern affairs, and by supplying her with as much ammunition as she could. Russia was grateful for this friendly attitude of Japan and the relations between the two nations becoming more intimate a new treaty was concluded in 1916 to cooperate for the maintenance of perpetual peace in the Far East, and to negotiate freely with each other for the protection and defence of the special rights and territorial domination already recognized, instead of competing. 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 bravely and effectively attacking German submarines in co-operation with the Allied fleets and in harmony with the orders of the British Mediterranean Fleet Commander. In 1917 the Russian Revolution broke out in the midst of the War. The Romanoff dynasty was overthrown and the radical revolutionaries came into power and concluded a separate peace with Germany. This resulted in the permeation of the military influence of Germany and Austria into Russia and even to the Far East. A large body of Czechoslovak troops who had escaped into Russia, and were trying to make their way home to Europe by way of Siberia, suffered greatly in consequence. Japan kept a keen watch on these Russian disorders. In 1918 she sent ships to Vladivostok for the protection of the Japanese residents and to maintain order in that district for international benefit, in co-operation with the warships of other nations. And later, in agreement with America, Japan dispatched an army under General Otani to Vladivostok and helped the Czechoslovak army, in conjunction with the soldiers of other nations.

Japanese Massacred In March 1920 the Japanese garrison and citizens, about 700 in all, were massacred by Russian communists at Nikolievsk. This caused intense indignation in Japan. She sent armies to Siberia immediately and occupied a part of the coast district

and the remainder of Saghalien. Negotiations were opened again between the two nations and in 1925 a new Russo-Japanese treaty was concluded. According to its terms Japan withdrew her soldiers from North Saghalien while Russia gave Japan the mining rights and freedom of cultivating under licence the oil-fields in that district (See Chapter VI on Foreign Relations.)

The Kanto Earthquake On Sept. 1st, 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, Saitama 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 caused 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 splendid 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.

The birth of Manchoukuo in 1932 and the trade and industrial expansion in recent years have greatly strengthened Japan's position in the Orient.

Chronicle of Important Events

Age of Traditions (660 B.C.-531 A.D.)	Age of Foundation (532-709)
1. Beginning of the Empire 660 B.C.—The Emperor Jimmu ascended the Throne at the Kashiwara Palace, Unébiyama, Yamato province, near the present Nara.	4. Introduction of Continental civilization. 552 Buddhism introduced. 562 Japanese Office in Mimana is destroyed by Silla. 593 Imperial Prince Shotoku became Regent, and propagated Buddhism, building Horyuji and other temples. 604 The Regent Shotoku proclaimed the Constitution. 607 An Embassy sent to Sui. 630 An Embassy sent to Tang. 645 The Sogas punished and extirpated.
2. Subjugation of Clans and Tribes. 88 B.C. Neighbouring clans subdued by the armies of the Imperial Princes. 11 A.D. The Great Shrine of Isé built by the Emperor Suinin in honour of Amaterasu-Omikami. 97-110 Clans and tribes in Kyushu and the eastern half of the Main Island subdued by the armies of the Emperor Kéiko and Prince Yamatotakéru his son. 135 The Emperor Séimu divided his dominion into administrative districts.	5. The Taika (Talkwa) Reformation and After. 645 The custom of 'year-names' introduced, the first one being called Talka (great reformation). 646 The Taika Reformation. 660 Ézo (Hokkaido) subjugated by the army of Hirafu Abé. 663 Control over the Korean Peninsula abandoned. 701 The Taiho Law promulgated and the organization of the Imperial Government is fixed.
3. Intercourse with Korea 200 The Empress Jingo conquered Silla. 285 Confucianism introduced. 313 The Emperor Nintoku established the capital at Naniwa (Osaka) for the convenience of intercourse with Korea. 463-512 Troubles with Korea.	

646-707 The Hakuho Period of Art history.	in Manchuria, traded with Japan.
Nara Age (710-793)	11. Disorder in Rural Districts and Rise of the Samurai. 939 Masakado Taira rebelled and proclaimed himself Emperor. 941 Sumitomo Fujiwara disturbed the coasts of the Inland Sea but is suppressed. 950 The Samurai families of Minamoto (Genji) and Taira (Héishi or Héiké) gradually rose to power.
6. Establishment of the Capital at Nara and Compilation of a History of Japan. 710 The Empress Gemmyo founded Nara as her capital. 620-720 The first books of Japanese history, Nihon Shoki (Japanese Annals) and Kojiki (Antiquities) compiled.	12. Fujiwara Despotism. 1016 Michinaga Fujiwara assumed the Regency for the next 20 years and his son Yorimichi for 50 years. Climax of the Fujiwara despotism and prosperity.
7. Spread of Buddhism and Progress of Religious Fine Art. 747 Building of Todaiji temple and other provincial temples. 756 The Empress Kōmyo donated the treasures of the late Emperor Shomu to Todaiji temple. They are kept in the Shosoin Museum, built a little later. 769 Dictatorship of Dōkyo, Buddhist pope, opposed by the great loyalist Kiyomaro Waké. 710-781 The Tempyo Period of Art history.	13. Incessant Wars. 1019 Toi tribe in the north-eastern part of Korea invaded the islands of Iki and Tsushima. 1028 Tadatsuné Taira's treason in Shimoosa province. 1039 Armies of Buddhist monks rose in revolt. 1054-1062 The Abés in the Ohu district declared independence. 1086 The ex-Emperor Shirakawa took part in politics for nearly 40 years and set a precedent for government by ex-Emperors. 1085-1087 The Ohu district again disturbed by the Kiyowaras. 1087 For about a century the family of Kiyohira Fujiwara who subdued the Kiyowaras ruled over the Ohu district. 1156 Strife between the armies of the Emperor and the ex-Emperor (Hogen war). 1159 The Fujiwaras and Minamotos waged war against another branch of the Fujiwaras and the Tairas (Héiji war).
8. Founding of Héian (Kyoto) the Capital, and troubles in the north. 794 The Emperor Kammu founded the new capital Héian and the Government removed there from Nara. 801 Revolts broke out in Ézo, finally subdued by the expedition of Tamuramaro Sakanoué. 794-800 Establishment of governmental and private schools. 794-887 The Konin period of Art history.	14. The Gen-péi (Minamoto and Taira) Period. 1167 Kiyomori Taira promoted to Daijo Daijin. 1167-1180 Autocracy of Kiyomori and his family. 1180 Rise of the Minamotos in rivalry to the Tairas. Yoritomo Minamoto established headquarters at Kamakura. 1185 The Tairas destroyed by the armies of Yoshitsuné, brother of Yoritomo. 1185 Yoritomo appointed local military police and tax-gatherers for rural districts.
9. Rising of the Fujiwaras. 858 Yoshifusa Fujiwara assumed the Regency. 887 Mototsuné Fujiwara the Daijo Daijin and Regent became Kampaku (Chief Councillor) at the same time. 901 Michizané Sugawara, candidate for Kampaku reduced to the position of governor of Kyushu by the Fujiwara scandal.	
10. Foreign Relations. 894 Official intercourse with Tang broken off by the advice of Michizané Sugawara. 727-900 Bokkai, a maritime monarchy	

889-1185 The Fujiwara Period of Art history.

Kamakura Age
(1192-1337)

15. Beginning of the Kamakura Shogunate Régime.
- 1192 Yoritomo Minamoto promoted to Séi-Tai-shogun (Generalissimo) and the Shogun Government formally sanctioned. For the next 675 years Japan ruled by the samurai statesmen.
- 1204 Tokimasa Hojo became chief executive of the Shogunate régime.
- 1219 Minamoto Shogunate ended with the third Shogun, Sanetomo. But Masako, widow of Yoritomo, (called the 'Ama' or Nun Shogun) officiated as Shogun for several years.
- 1221 Trouble between the Kyoto Court and the Hojos (Shōkyū affair).
16. Hojo Rule.
- 1224 Yasutoki Hojo became chief executive of the Kamakura Shogunate. The Hojos continued to exercise the Shogun's duties for over a century.
- 1232 The Joéi Code promulgated for the discipline of the samurai.
- 1274 Yuan 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.
- 1331 War between the Imperial and the Hojo armies.
- 1333 The Hojos destroyed.
17. The Emperor Godaigo and Takauji Ashikaga.
- 1333 Temporary restoration of the Imperial direct rule by the Emperor Godaigo.
- 1335 Takauji Ashikaga rebelled against the Emperor.
- 1336 Masashigé Kusunoki, famous loyalist, died in the battle of Minatogawa (Kobé).
- 1336 The Emperor Godaigo moved to Yoshino mountain.
- 1336 The Imperial House divided into two, the South and the North (Yoshino and Kyoto) for 57 years.
- 1192-1337 The Kamakura period of Art history.

Muromachi Age
(1338-1602)

18. Beginning of the Muromachi Shogunate and the luxurious age of Yoshimitsu.
- 1338 Takauji Ashikaga proclaimed himself Shogun and established the Muromachi Shogunate in Kyoto.
- 1342 Takauji sent the Tenryūji-buné (trade boats) to China.
- 1368 Yoshimitsu Ashikaga publicly appointed Shogun and the Muromachi Shogunate officially sanctioned.
- 1399 The Ōéi Rebellion.
- 1401 Yoshimitsu traded with Ming; indulged in luxurious living.
19. Corruption of the Muromachi Shogunate and Political Commotion.
- 1438 The Éikyo Rebellion. Rising of military lords in Kanto district.
- 1441 The Kaki Rebellion.
- 1467-1475 The Ōnin war: Kyoto reduced to ashes in the street fighting. The Court and the Shogunate both lost power and the whole country became a scene of warfare among the military lords.
20. A Century of Civil Wars Among the Feudal Lords.
- 1491 Soun Hojo captured Odawara Castle and ruled over the Kanto district.
- 1476-1573 Feudal lords struggled for supremacy, the greater lords being as follows: Kanto district; Hojo, Uésugi. Ohu district; Daté, Ashina, Mogami, Tamba, Akita. Central district; Uésugi, Takéda, Imagawa. Kinki (Kyoto-Osaka) district; Saito, Asai, Asakura, Oda, Matsudaira. Chugoku (Western Main Island) district; Ukida, Amako, Ohuchi, Mori. Shikoku Island; Miyoshi, Kono, Chosokabé. Kyushu Island; Otomo, Ryuzoji, Shimazu.
- 1543 Coming of the Portuguese.
- 1543 Introduction of fire-arms.
- 1549 Christianity introduced.
- 1337-1573 The Muromachi Period of Art history.
21. The Oda and Toyotomi Period.
- 1568 Nobunaga Oda came up to Kyoto by Imperial order and repaired the Palace.
- 1571 Nobunaga destroyed Enryakuji

- temple to suppress the power of the monks.
- 1573 Downfall of the Muromachi Shogunate.
- 1576 Building of the Azuchi castle.
- 1582 Nobunaga assassinated.
- 1582 Hidéyoshi Toyotomi's supremacy.
- 1588 Hidéyoshi promoted to be Kampaku and Daijo Daijin.
- 1590 Unity of the Empire realized by Hidéyoshi, all the lords completely subdued.
- 1592 Invasion of Korea by armies of Toyotomi.
- 1597 Second invasion of Korea.
- 1598 Hidéyoshi Toyotomi died at Fushimi castle (Momoyama Palace).
- 1574-1598 The Momoyama period of Art history.
- Yédo Age
(1602-1867)
22. Beginning of the Tokugawa Shogunate.
- 1600 Battle of Sékigahara assured the supremacy of Iyéyasu Tokugawa (1542-1616).
- 1603 Iyéyasu appointed Shogun and founded the Yédo Shogunate.
- 1609 Began trade with Hollanders.
- 1609 The Loochoo Islands subjugated by Lord Shimazu.
- 1610 Sending of official letters to Nova-Hispania and Spain.
- 1612 Iyéyasu prohibited the preaching of the Catholic Faith.
- 1613 The lord Masamuné Daté sent Hasékura to Rome.
- 1613 Opened trade with the English.
- 1615 The Toyotomis destroyed at the Battle of Osaka.
23. Stabilization of the Yédo Shogunate.
- 1615 Proclamation of the Kugé Hatto (Court Nobles Law) and the Buké Hatto (Samurai Law).
- 1616 Death of Iyéyasu.
- 1623 Iyémitsu (1604-1651) became the third Tokugawa Shogun. Under his enlightened rule the position of the Yédo Shogunate became unshakable.
- 1630 Introduction of Western literature prohibited.
- 1636 Japanese forbidden to go abroad.
- 1637-1638 The Shimabara Rebellion.
- 1651 Death of Iyémitsu and attempted rebellion by Yuino Shosetsu and his colleagues.
24. The Golden Age of the Yédo Shogun-

- ate.
- 1657 Mitsukuni Tokugawa, lord of Mito began the compilation of the Dai Nippon Shi (Great Nippon History).
- 1687 The Shogun Tsunayoshi's Edicts for the protection of animals caused much loss of human life.
- 1688-1708 The Genroku Era of luxurious living.
- 1702 Revenge of the '47 Akao Ronin.'
- 1709 Hakuséki (Kunmi) Arai's Reformation.
- 1716 The 8th Shogun Yoshimune regulated officialdom and improved the administration, reigned for 30 years.
- 1720 Yoshimune loosened the Prohibition Law against Western books.
- 1759 Punishment of Takénouchi Shikibu, a loyalist.
- 1764 Norinaga Motoori commenced his commentary on the Kojiki (Antiquities).
- 1772-1784 Misrule of the Roju Okitsugu Tanuma.
- 1787 Succession of natural calamities. Adjustment of the administration by the Roju Sadanobu Matsudaira (Rakuo).
25. Waning of the Shogun Régime.
- 1792 Punishment of Shihéi Rin (Hayashi) who warned the Government of possible invasion by foreign Powers.
- 1792 Coming of Laxsman to Hokkaido.
- 1804 Coming of Lesanov to Nagasaki.
- 1808 Coming of an English boat to Nagasaki.
- 1825 Shogunate order to shut out all foreign ships by force.
- 1830 Great famine of the Tempo Era.
- 1837 Rebellion of Héihachiro Oshio to relieve the starving masses.
- 1837 Coming of the American ship Morrison.
- 1841 The Roju Tadakuni Mizuno's attempt at reformation.
- 1842 The 1825 order removed. A step towards the 'open door' policy.
- 1842 Controversies between the anti-foreign party and the liberalists became hotter.
- 1844 King of Holland gave advice to the Shogunate.
- 1846 First request of America for the 'open door.'
- 1853 Arrival of the American fleet under Commodore Perry.
- 1853 Coming of the Russian delegate

- 1854 Poutiatine to Nagasaki.
Institution of the Sun Flag to symbolize Japan. (Sanctioned by the Meiji Government in 1870.)
- 1854 Conclusion of Amity Treaties with America, England and Russia.
- 1855 Conclusion of Amity Treaty with Holland.
- 1856 Arrival of the American envoy Townsend Harris.
- 1858 Conclusion of Commercial Treaties with Foreign nations by the Shogunate.
- 1858 The Anséi coup d'état by the Tairo Naosuké II.
- 1860 The Japanese envoy Masaoki Niimi sent to America.
- 1860 The Tairo II assassinated at the Sakurada gate of the Shogun Palace.
26. Downfall of the Yédo Shogunate.
- 1862 Rise of the Anti-Shogunate movement.
- 1862 The Namamugi Affair.
- 1863 The Anti-Foreign Law, and attack on foreign ships at Shimonoséki and Kagoshima.
- 1863 Defeat of the Anti-Foreign party; the seven Court nobles flee to Nagato.
- 1864 The Anti-Foreign party demanded the release of the seven Court nobles by force; battle at the Hamaguri gate of the Kyoto Imperial Palace.
- 1864 A combined fleet of America, England, France and the Netherlands bombarded Shimonoséki.
- 1865 Imperial Sanction given to the treaties of 1858.
- 1865-1867 Hostilities between the Shogunate forces and the army of the Choshu (Nagato) Lord who represented the Anti-Shogunate and Anti-Foreign Party.
- 1866 Demise of the Emperor Koméi.
- 1867 Ascension of the Meiji Tenno (1852-1912), the 122nd Emperor.
- 1867 The Emperor ordered armies opposed to the Nagato Lord to withdraw.
- 1867 Rapid progress of Anti-Shogunate movement and a definite scheme promoted by Sanjo, Iwakura, Saigo, Okubo and Kido.
- 1867 The Emperor gave orders to the lords of Nagato and Satsuma to move their armies against the Yédo Shogunate in compliance with the request of Sanjo, Iwakura and their colleagues, October 14.
- 1867 On the same day (October 14) the Shogun Yoshinobu Tokugawa asked Imperial sanction for the return of all authority of the Government to the Throne. On October 24 the Emperor complied with his request and accepted Yoshinobu's resignation.
- 1867 Proclamation of the Restoration, December 9.
- 1868 The rise of the lords and warriors loyal to the Shogunate. Battle of Toba-Fushimi. March of the Imperial armies to Yédo. Surrender of the Yédo Castle without bloodshed. Battles at Uéno, Utsunomiya and Aizu.
- 1869 Battle at Hakodaté, May, after which all disturbances in the wake of the political change completely subdued.
- 1602-1867 The Yédo period of Art history.

The New Japan

(1868-)

27. The Meiji Era.
- 1868 Enthronement of the Emperor Meiji.
- 1868 The first year of Meiji, beginning with September. Proclamation of the Five Imperial Pledges. Establishment of the Dajokan. Removal of the Capital to Tokyo. Surrender of fiefs by the lords. New organization of the Government. Telegraphic communications opened.
- 1870 Ministers sent to foreign countries. Social castes done away with.
- 1871 Japan is divided into 1 "Dó," 3 urban prefectures and 72 prefectures for administrative purposes. (The number being reduced in 1889 to the present 1 Dó, 3 urban prefectures and 43 prefectures.) The people allowed to cut off their cues and the samurai forbidden to wear swords.
- 1872 Institution of the national school system. The Loochoo Islands definitely

- included within Japanese territory.
- Opening of railway line between Tokyo and Yokohama.
- 1873 Adoption of the solar calendar. Institution of the Conscription system of military service. Controversy over Korean affairs.
- 1874 Expedition to Formosa. Request for opening the House of Representatives. The Saga Affair.
- 1875 Karafuto exchanged for the Kuriles. First Convention of the local governors.
- 1876 Kumamoto incident, a reactionary movement by the Jimpuren band of Kumamoto Samurai. Similar events occurred at Aki-tsuki and Hagi.
- 1877 The South-Western Civil War, the rebellion of Takamori Saigo and his colleagues.
- 1879-1890 Rapid influx of things and ideas from Europe, called Roku-méi-kan period.
- 1879 First opening of local assemblies.
- 1880 Promulgation of new penal code.
- 1881 Imperial Edict promising the opening of the national assembly.
- 1882 Hirobumi Ito sent to Europe for the study of Western constitutional governments.
- 1884 Drafting of the constitution started.
- 1885 Institution of the cabinet. The Tientsin Treaty.
- 1886 Japan became a member of the International Red Cross Society.
- 1888 Institution of city, town and village divisions.
- 1869 Proclamation of the Dai Nippon Téikoku Kempo (The Constitution of the Great Empire of Japan), Feb. 11.
- 1890 The First Imperial Diet convened in November. Issuance of the Imperial Rescript on Education. Institution of the system of courts of justice and promulgation of court procedures.
- 1894 New Anglo-Japanese Treaty.
- 1894-1895 Sino-Japanese War.
- 1895 Shimonoséki Peace Treaty. April. The Three Powers' Intervention and return of the Liaotung Peninsula to China.
- Formosa ceded to Japan.
- 1898 Promulgation of the Civil Law.
- 1899 Promulgation of the Commercial Law. Boxer Uprising in China.
- 1902 Anglo-Japanese Alliance.
- 1904-1905 Russo-Japanese War.
- 1905 Capture of Port Arthur, January 1. Battle of Mukden, March 10. Battle of the Japan Sea, May 27. Portsmouth Peace Treaty, September. Korea became Japan's protectorate, November.
- 1906 Establishment of the Kwantung Government-General.
- 1907 Opening of the Karafuto Office. Promulgation of the Revised Penal Code.
- 1910 Annexation of Korea, August.
- 1911 Revision of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance. Revision of Treaties with Western countries on equal footing.
- 1912 Demise of the Emperor Meiji, July 30.
28. The Taisho Era.
- 1912 Ascension of the Emperor Taisho, July 30.
- 1914-1918 The World War.
- 1914 Capture of Tsingtao, November.
- 1915 New Treaty with China. So-called '21 Demands'.
- 1917 Gold embargo.
- 1918 End of the World War, November.
- 1919 Conclusion of the Versailles Treaty. The South Sea Islands mandated to Japan. Japan became a member of the League of Nations.
- 1921 Crown Prince's tour to Europe. Crown Prince became Regent.
- 1921-1922 The Washington Conference. Termination of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance.
- 1923 Great Earthquake of Kanto district, September 1.
- 1925 Conclusion of Treaty with the U. S. S. R. Promulgation of the new Election Law (Universal Suffrage).
- 1926 Demise of the Emperor Taisho, December 25.
29. The Showa Era.
- 1926 Ascension of the present Emperor, December 25.
- 1927 Financial Panic.

- 1930 Removal of gold embargo.
The London Disarmament Conference.
- 1931 Outbreak of the Manchurian Incident, September 18.
Replacement of gold embargo.
The Shanghai Affair.
- 1932 Independence of Manchoukuo, March 1.
The 'May 15 Affair' (assassination of Premier Inukai).
- 1933 Withdrawal from the League of Nations, March.
The World Economic Conference at London.
- 1934 Manchoukuo became an Empire with Kangte (Mr. Pu Yi) as first Emperor, March 1.
Japanese Government notified

- the U.S. Government their intention to terminate the Washington Naval Treaty, December 29.
- 1936 Japan withdrew from the London Naval Conference, January 15.
The 'February 26 Affair' (assassination of three political dignitaries, M. Saito, K. Takahashi, and General J. Watanabé).
- 1937 Beginning of the China Incident, July 7.
Beginning of the fight in Shanghai, August 13.
Complete occupation of Shanghai by the Japanese Army, November 10.
Downfall of Nanking, December 13.

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. There are four fundamental sources of the laws of Japan; (1) the Constitution, (2) the Imperial House Law, (3) certain laws containing constitutional provisions, and (4) the unwritten constitution.

The Constitution of the Japanese Empire was promulgated on Feb. 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 Highest Expression of State Will
The Constitution was given by order of the Emperor and is the highest expression of the will of the State. All laws must conform to it, while the functions of the highest political organs of the nation are stated in it. But there is no means specified for prevention or correction of a breach of the Constitution by those organs, whether they be constitutionally established or not, except in so far as the interpretative power of the Privy Council, (See section on Privy Council), can be said to

constitute such a check. Otherwise, this can only be provided for by the reciprocal restraint exercised by the Executive and the Legislature, the power of public opinion, or other means which are not specified by law. It must be remembered that not all the parts of the Constitution are new creations. Most of them are rather the expression of old laws in a new written form; many of the important political customs had already been incorporated in legal enactments before the Constitution came into being.

The Constitution does not include the whole of the law of the Constitution nor all the constitutional laws. It is one of the simplest constitutions in the world. For instance, such laws as the Imperial House Law or the laws concerning the composition of the Imperial Diet are not included in the Constitution, the reason being that, whereas the revision of these laws in accordance with changes in public thought may be necessary, it is undesirable that the Constitution itself should be revised easily and often. Revision of the Constitution must be initiated by the Tenno (Emperor), and the Imperial Diet has the power of deciding only on such revisions as are indicated by the Throne. No revisions have been made or constitutionally suggested since its establishment.

Other Constitutional Provisions
The Imperial Household Law (See Appendix) mainly regulates matters concerning the Imperial Household and Family, but there are many constitutional provisions contained in it. Of special importance are the articles concerning the succession to the Throne and Regency, which determine the form of the sovereignty of the State and are therefore clearly of equal importance to the Constitution itself.

Other legal enactments containing constitutional provisions are the following: The Law of the Houses, the Imperial Ordinance concerning the House of Peers, the Imperial Ordinance concerning the Election of Members of the House of Peers, the Imperial Ordinance concerning the Cabinet, the Penal Law concerning the infringement of Ordinances, the Judicial Court Formation

Law, the Court of Administrative Litigation Law, and the Board of Audit Law, which were enacted simultaneously with the Constitution; the Imperial Ordinances concerning the Privy Council and the Military Establishments, which were enacted before the promulgation of the Constitution; the Electoral Law and the common law for the formation of departments of the central government, which were promulgated after the Constitution. In addition there are many examples of post-Constitution laws with minor constitutional provisions.

Unwritten Provisions The Constitution of Japan is a written one in principle, but it does not exclude all unwritten provisions. There are still some spheres of governmental action which are not regulated by any document. Moreover, there are many cases in which the written laws have to be interpreted by unwritten laws or by national political custom or reason. For instance, the relation of the Japanese nation to the Shinto Shrines, the relation of State and religion, the site of the capital, the nature of the National Flag, the Calendar, and the customary procedure of the Imperial Diet are not defined in written laws, but are nevertheless constitutional observances. Other political customary observances of importance are that the Cabinet is formed, as a rule, by the members of the majority party in the House of Representatives, and that the Genro, Elder Statesmen, (at present only one, Prince Saionji) are consulted by the Emperor on the choice of a new Prime Minister.

The Form of Government

The form of the Japanese Government is that of a constitutional monarchy. The Empire is ruled by the Emperor (Tenno) 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 Japanese Reigning House is the oldest dynasty in the world and, in stability and historical continuity, the Japanese monarchy is unique in history. The actual power of the Emperor at the present time is much greater than that of other constitutional monarchs.

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 supreme power is concentrated in the State, and the exercise of sovereignty is all in the hands of the central government which gives orders to all other administrative organs.

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. The duties they owe to the State are numerous, but these two are specially mentioned in the Constitution.

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 the 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 Heimin (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 "Heimin" 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 2,597 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). In the history of Japan there were some Empresses in their own right, but their cases were always regarded as exceptional. The succession to the Throne as defined by the Imperial House Law is as follows:

- (1) Imperial eldest son. (Kotaisbi)
- (2) Imperial eldest grandson. (Kotaisson)
- (3) Other male descendants of eldest son.
- (4) Imperial son next in age.
- (5) Male descendants of same in the same order as above.
- (6) Other Imperial sons in order of age.
- (7) Male descendants of same in the same order as above.
- (8) Imperial brothers in order of age and their male descendants in the same order as shown above.
- (9) Imperial uncles and their male descendants in the same order as above.
- (10) Next nearest relative of the Emperor.

In all cases precedence is given to descendants of full blood over those of half blood.

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 upon the demise of the Emperor, and in no other circumstances. In ancient days, the Throne was succeeded to only for this natural reason, but the good custom was broken in the middle ages. The Imperial House Law aims at the re-establishment of the oldest custom and absolutely prohibits the abdication of the Throne in the Emperor's life time. The Imperial heir ascends to the Throne immediately upon the demise of the Emperor, although the ceremonial ascension comes later. For instance, the present Emperor came to the Throne in a room of the Hayama Winter Palace, where his father died, immediately after the demise was announced by the doctor on December 25, 1926, while the formal ceremony of accession was held about two years later in accordance with Art. 11 of the Imperial House Law which states that the ceremonies of Enthronement shall be performed and a Grand Enthronement Banquet (Daikōsai) in honour of the Ancestral Gods

held at Kyoto. 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, Kotaishi and Kotaisson 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. The Regency shall be assumed by major members of the Imperial Family in the following order:

Family Status	Majority Age
(1) The Imperial Eldest Son	18
(2) Imperial Eldest Grandson	"
(3) Imperial Prince	20
(4) Prince	"
(5) The Empress	"
(6) The Empress Dowager	"
(7) The Grand Empress Dowager	"
(8) Imperial Princess or Princess	"

Imperial Prerogative

According to the provisions of 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 honour 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 honour.

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 colonies 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, 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 War, (5) the Minister of Marine, (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 (The "Kōsei Shō", or the Department of Welfare, was established in January, 1938).

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. Through this specific function of the Premier (which, though not mentioned in the Constitution, is prescribed in the Cabinet Organization Ordinance), and the rapid growth of party government, his controlling power over the other State ministers has, of late, been greatly augmented, and as all matters of national importance are decided upon in cabinet meetings, State ministers are now, as a matter of fact, held jointly responsible to the Emperor.

Thus, each departmental minister has

a twofold function, first as a State minister and secondly as a departmental 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 department his function is to direct, control and supervise all the administrative affairs within his departmental jurisdiction, for which his responsibility is individual.

As it is informed in the chapter on parties and politics the Hirota Cabinet resigned early in February, 1937, and was succeeded by the Hayashi Cabinet which assumed position for but four months followed by the Konoé Cabinet which was formed on June 4, 1937. This was succeeded by the present Hiranuma Cabinet which was formed on January 5, 1939. The names and careers of members of the cabinet are given below.

The Members of the Hiranuma Cabinet (April, 1939) Prime Minister, Baron Kichiro Hiranuma, D.L., born in September, 1867; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1888; entered service at the Justice Ministry, 1888; judge at various courts and later public procurator at the Tokyo Court of Appeal and concurrently the chief of the civil and criminal bureau, Justice Ministry; sent to Europe and America for the study of the judicial system, 1907; Doctor of Law, 1907; Vice-Minister of Justice, 1911; Procurator-General, 1912-21; President of the Supreme Court, 1921-23; Minister of Justice, 1923; Privy Councillor, 1923; Vice-President of the Privy Council, 1926; Baron, 1926; President of the Privy Council, 1936-39.

Minister without Portfolio, Prince Fumimaro Konoé, President of the Privy Council. (See the Japan Year Book, 1938-39, p. 99.)

Minister for Foreign Affairs, Hachiro Arita, born in September, 1884; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1909; entered the Foreign Office service, 1909; Consul-General at Tientsin, 1925-27; Councillor at the Japanese Embassy in Berlin, 1927; Director of the Asia Bureau, Foreign Ministry, 1927-29; Minister to Austria and Hungary, 1930; Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs, 1932; Ambassador to Belgium, 1933-35; Ambassador to China, 1936; Minister for Foreign Affairs, 1936-37.

Minister for Home Affairs, Marquis Koichi Kido, M.H.P., born in July, 1889;

graduated from the Law Department, Kyoto Imperial University, 1915; in service at the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce and later Ministry of Commerce and Industry, 1915-1930; Chief Secretary to the Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, 1930; Minister of Education, 1937-38; concurrently Minister of Welfare, 1938.

Minister of Finance, Sotaro Ishiwata, born in October, 1891; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1916; entered service at the Finance Ministry and assumed various positions, 1916-1937; Vice-Minister of Finance, 1937-39.

Minister of War, Lieutenant-General Seishiro Itagaki. (See the Japan Year Book, 1938-39, p. 100.)

Minister of Marine, Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai. (See the Japan Year Book, 1938-39, p. 100.)

Minister of Justice, Suéhiko Shiono. (See the Japan Year Book, 1938-39, p. 100.)

Minister of Education, General Baron Sadao Araki. (See the Japan Year Book, 1938-39, p. 100.)

Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, Yukio Sakurauchi, M.H.R., born in 1880; rendered service for the establishment of the Nippon Electric Light Company which later merged into the present Tokyo Electric Light Company, 1911; President of the Kotokawa Power Company and has had relations with many other companies for many years; elected member of the House of Representatives, 1920; Secretary-General of the Minseito, 1931; Minister of Commerce and Industry, 1931; member of the Executive Board of the Minseito, and now an Adviser to the Minseito.

Minister of Commerce and Industry, Yoshiaki Hata, M.H.P., born in September, 1879; graduated from the Engineering Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1903; engineer of the Sanyo Railway Company, and that of the State Railways; sent to Europe and America, 1920; Director of the Construction Bureau, Railways Ministry; Vice-Minister of Railways, 1926-29; member of the House of Peers by Imperial Order, 1929; Vice-President of the South Manchuria Railway Company, 1932; Minister for Overseas Affairs, 1938-39.

Minister of Communications, Harumichi Tanabé, born in October, 1878; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1905; entered service at the Communications Ministry, 1909; sent to France for investigations, 1911-1913; Director of the Insurance Section, Deposits Bureau, 1916;

Governor of Osaka prefecture, 1927-28; Councillor to the Government of Manchoukuo, 1933; Secretary-General of the Cabinet, 1939.

Minister of Railways, Yonezo Maeda, M.H.R., born in 1882; began his career as a lawyer after graduation from Chuo University; Director of the Legislation Bureau, 1927; Minister of Commerce and Industry, 1931; Minister of Railways, 1938; member of the Cabinet Advisory Council, 1937-39; member of the House of Representatives since 1917; member of the Presidential Board of the Seiyukai, 1937-39.

Minister for Overseas Affairs, General Kunlaki Koiso, born in March, 1880; graduated from the Military Academy, 1900; later graduated from the Staff College; Major-General, 1926; Lieutenant-General, 1931; Vice-Minister of War, 1932; General, 1937; Commander of the Chosen Army, 1937-1938; attached to the General Staff Office, 1938.

Minister of Welfare, Hisatada Hirose, born in January, 1889; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1914; served as official at local governments, 1914-1929; Deputy-Mayor of Tokyo, 1929-30; successively Governor of Mie prefecture, Governor of Saitama prefecture, and Director of the Public Works Bureau, Home Ministry, 1931-36; Chief of the Social Bureau, 1936; Vice-Minister for Home Affairs, 1937; Vice-Minister of Welfare, 1938-39.

The Hiranuma Cabinet tendered resignation to the Throne on August 28, 1939, and the new cabinet under General Nobuyuki Abé was formed on August 30. The members of the new cabinet are as follows:

The Present Cabinet Prime Minister and Foreign Minister, General Nobuyuki Abé, born in 1875; Sub-Lieutenant 1898; after graduating from the Staff College sent to Germany for study and then served as Assistant-Military Attaché to the Japanese Embassy in Austria; assumed varied posts of Director of General Affairs Department, General Staff Office, Director of Military Affairs Bureau, War Vice-Minister and Acting War Minister in 1931 under the Hamaguchi Cabinet; Commander of the 4th Division, Commander of the Chosen Garrison; promoted to General, 1933; became a Supreme War Councillor in 1936; retired from active service, 1936.

Minister for Home Affairs and Minister of Welfare, Naoshi Ohara, M.H.P., born in January, 1877; graduated from the Law Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1902; a judge of the Tokyo

District Court, 1904; successively public procurator of the Chiba District Court, Counsellor to the Justice Ministry, chief public procurator of the Yokohama District Court, Tokyo District Court and Nagasaki Court of Appeal, and public procurator of the Supreme Court, 1905-1927; Vice-Minister of Justice, 1927-31; President of the Tokyo Court of Appeal, 1931-34; Minister of Justice, 1934-36; member of the House of Peers by Imperial order, 1936.

Finance Minister, Kazuo Aoki, born in November, 1889; graduated from Tokyo Imperial University, 1916; entered service at Finance Ministry and sent to England for study; assumed various posts in the Ministry, 1920-34; Director of the Bureau of Fund Employment, 1934-36; Vice-Director of the Manchurian Affairs Bureau, 1936; Vice-Chief of the Cabinet Planning Board, 1937-38; Chief of the Cabinet Planning Board, 1939, and concurrently remains in the post.

War Minister, General Shunroku Hata, born in 1879; finished the Military Academy, 1901; served in a number of positions, 1901-34; Commander of the 14th Division, 1935; Chief of the Aviation Department, 1935; Commander of the Formosan Garrison, 1936; member of the Supreme War Council, 1937; General, 1937; Supreme Commander of the Japanese Forces in Central China, 1937-38; again member of the Supreme War Council, 1938; Chief Aide-de-Camp to the Emperor, June, 1939.

Navy Minister, Vice-Admiral Zengo Yoshida, born in 1885; finished the Naval Academy, 1904; served in various capacities until he became Director of the Naval Affairs Bureau in 1933; Vice-Admiral, 1934; Commander of the Training Squadron, 1936; Commander-in-Chief of the Second Fleet, 1937; Commander-in-Chief of the Combined Fleet and the First Fleet, 1938-39.

Minister of Justice, Chōgorō Miyagi, born in September, 1878; graduated from the Law Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1908; a judge, 1908; served in the capacity of a judge, public procurator, etc. in various courts and in the Ministry of Justice, 1908-36; Chief public procurator of the Nagoya Court of Appeal, 1936-39.

Minister of Education, Kakichi Kawarada, M.H.P., born in January, 1886; graduated from Tokyo Imperial University, 1909; successively assumed sectional directorship of several prefectural governments and in the Home Ministry; sent to Geneva as the Government representative at the International Labour

Conference, 1919, 1924, and 1928; Vice-Governor-General of Taiwan, 1928-29; Vice-Minister for Home Affairs, 1931-32; a trustee of the Labour Arbitration Society, 1932-37; Minister for Home Affairs, 1937; President of the Board of Trustees of the Patriotic Industrial League, 1938-39.

Minister of Agriculture and Forestry and Minister of Commerce and Industry, Vice-Admiral, Dr. Takuo Godō, born in September, 1877; graduated from the Technical Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1901; entered service at the Kuré Naval Dockyard and after assuming several sectional directorships became Chief of the Kuré Naval Dockyard, 1921-28; Constructor Rear-Admiral, 1923; Constructor Vice-Admiral, 1926; Doctor of Technology, 1928; retired from active service and became the president of the Showa Steel Works, 1929-37; a trustee of the South Manchuria Railway Company, 1930-34; Minister of Commerce and Industry and Minister of Railways, 1937; member of the House of Peers by Imperial order, 1937; President of the Tokyo Chamber of Commerce and Industry, 1938-39.

Minister of Communications and Minister of Railways, Ryutaro Nagai, M.H.R., born in April, 1881; graduated from the Political Department of Waseda University, 1905; sent to England and Germany for study, 1905; professor at Waseda University, 1907-17; Parliamentary Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs, 1929-31; Minister for Overseas Affairs, 1932-34; Minister of Communications, 1937-39; member of the House of Representatives since 1920 and is the chief executive of the Minseito.

Minister for Overseas Affairs, Tsuneo Kanemitsu, M.H.R., born in March, 1877; entered service at the Finance Ministry and held positions at the Nagasaki Custom House, Kumamoto Revenue Superintending Bureau, etc. till 1908; entered the Suzuki Concern, 1908; became president of the Taisho Life Insurance, the Nippon Theatre, the Oji Electric Railway Company, and other firms; sent to Geneva as the Capital representative of Japan at the International Labour Conference, 1931; member of the House of Representatives since 1920 and Vice-Speaker of the House of Representatives, 1937-38.

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 Departments regarding jurisdiction.
- (5) Petitions from the people received from the Emperor or from the Diet.
- (6) Outlays not prescribed in the budget.
- (7) Appointments and removals of officials of "chokunin" rank and also of prefectural governors.

PREMIERS SINCE 1885

Date of Formation of Cabinet	Premier
Dec. 22, 1885	H. Ito
April 30, 1888	K. Kuroda
Dec. 24, 1889	A. Yamagata
May 6, 1891	M. Matsukata
Aug. 8, 1892	H. Ito
Sept. 18, 1896	M. Matsukata
Jan. 12, 1898	H. Ito
June 30, 1898	S. Okuma
Nov. 8, 1898	A. Yamagata
Oct. 9, 1900	H. Ito
June 2, 1901	T. Katsura
Jan. 7, 1906	K. Saionji
July 14, 1908	T. Katsura
Aug. 30, 1911	K. Saionji
Dec. 21, 1912	T. Katsura
Feb. 20, 1913	G. Yamamoto
April 16, 1914	S. Okuma
Oct. 9, 1916	M. Terauchi
May 29, 1918	T. Hara
Nov. 13, 1921	K. Takahashi
June 12, 1922	T. Kato
Sept. 2, 1923	G. Yamamoto
Jan. 7, 1924	K. Kiyoura
June 11, 1924	Takaakira Kato
Aug. 2, 1925	"
Jan. 30, 1926	R. Wakatsuki
April 20, 1927	G. Tanaka
July 2, 1929	O. Hamaguchi
April 14, 1931	R. Wakatsuki
Dec. 13, 1931	T. Inukai
May 26, 1932	M. Saito
July 8, 1934	K. Okada
March 9, 1936	K. Hirota

Date of Formation of Cabinet	Premier
Feb. 2, 1937	S. Hayashi
June 4, 1937	F. Konoé
Jan. 5, 1939	K. Hiranuma
Aug. 30, 1939	N. Abé

Cabinet Advisory Council

The Imperial Ordinance No. 593, promulgated on October 14, 1937, established an extraordinary system of Cabinet Advisory Council. The Councillors are chosen from among experienced political, military and businessmen, and are to give advices to the Premier and the Cabinet on important national policies pertaining to the present national and international situations.

The first Councillors were: General Kazushigé Ugaki; Mr. Chuji Machida, President of the Minseito; Admiral Kiyokazu Abo; General Sadao Araki; Admiral Nobumasa Suetsugu; Mr. Yonezo Maeda of the Seiyukai; Mr. Kiyoshi Akita of the Seiyukai; Mr. Yosuke Matsuoka, President of the S. M. R.; Baron Seinosuké Goh, former President of Nippon and Tokyo Chambers of Commerce and Industry; and Mr. Seihin Ikeda, former Governor of the Bank of Japan and President of the Mitsui Bank.

The present (April, 1939) members are Mr. Chuji Machida, Admiral Kiyokazu Abo, Admiral Nobumasa Suetsugu, Mr. Kiyoshi Akita, Mr. Yosuke Matsuoka, Baron Seinosuké Goh, Mr. Seihin Ikeda, General Iwane Matsui, Mr. Son-yu Ohtani, and Mr. Toshio Shimada.

Cabinet Bureaux

Important offices of the Cabinet are the Secretariat, Pension Bureau, Statistics Bureau, and Printing Bureau. There are three other bureaux which are affiliated to the Cabinet and which are under the Premier's direct control, namely the Legislation Bureau, Merit Bureau and Board of Planning. 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 was established in October, 1937, in the place of the former Bureau of Planning and the Resources Bureau. The function of the Board are 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 Departmental businesses for carrying out the national mobilization scheme.

On December 26, 1934, the Bureau for Manchurian Affairs was established. The bureau is under the Premier's direct control as are the other three bureaux. Its function is to supervise all matters concerning Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone through the Kwanto Bureau in the Japanese Embassy in Hsinking.

Two bureaux were established in 1937, the Tohoku Kyoku (Bureau for the North-Eastern Districts) and the Cabinet Bureau of Information.

The China Affairs Board was created, in December, 1938, as the central office for carrying on works pertaining to the rehabilitation and development of China.

There are many committees under the direct control of the Premier, important ones being as follows:—(a) The Higher Civil Service Examination Committee which is in charge of the higher civil service examinations, and of recommendations to certain higher posts. It consists of 8 members who are chosen from among high officials of the Government and its chairman is the Premier, (b) the Pensions Arbitration Committee, (c) The Resource Investigation Committee, (d) The Merit Examination Committee, (e) The Welfare Promotion Committee for the North-Eastern Districts, (f) The Committee for the Celebration of the 26th Centenary of the founding of the Empire, (g) The Election System Investigation Committee organized in July, 1936, and (h) the Diet Organization Investigation Committee instituted in July, 1936.

The Executive Departments

Department 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 Japa-

nese diplomats and consuls. The Department of Foreign Affairs is subdivided into five bureaux, namely, (1) East Asiatic, (2) European and Asiatic, (3) American, (4) Commercial, and (5) Treaties.

The East Asiatic Bureau is divided into three sections: the First Section handles diplomatic matters related to China, Hong-Kong and Macao; the Second Section those concerning Siam and protection and control of Japanese residents in those countries; and the Third Section those concerning Manchoukuo.

The European and Asiatic Bureau is divided into two sections: the First Section handles diplomatic matters related to the U.S.S.R., Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Turkey, Poland, Persia and Afghanistan; the Second Section those of all the European and other countries not coming under the control of any other bureau or section.

The American Bureau is divided into three sections: the First Section handles diplomatic matters concerning Canada, the United States of America and her territories; the Second Section, the Central and South American countries; the Third Section handles matters concerning emigrants and passports.

The Commercial Bureau is divided into three sections: the First Section handles matters concerning institutions and policies of trade and navigation; the Second Section control, promotion and protection of trade and navigation; the Third Section commercial affairs and reports.

The Bureau of Treaties is divided into three sections: the First Section handles matters concerning drafting, interpretation, sanction, publication and revision of treaties with foreign countries; the Second Section international judicial matters; the Third Section the League of Nations.

There are three other offices of importance. The Information Bureau is divided into three sections. The First Section handles matters concerning news in daily papers and broadcasting; the Second Section books, magazines, publication, foreign news agencies, propaganda, international meetings; the Third Section distribution of diplomatic knowledge.

The Investigation Bureau is divided into five sections and their duties are as follows: the First Section general business and study of diplomatic facts; the Second Section keeping of records and materials; the Third Section investigations on diplomatic and commercial situations in Asia and the Near

East; the Fourth Section investigations on Europe and Oceania; the Fifth Section political and diplomatic investigations on North and South American countries.

The Cultural Works Bureau handles matters concerning the cultural works for China which mainly consist of promotion and assistance of cultural investigations and enterprises on China.

Japanese Embassies, etc. (See Chapter VI. List of Envoys.)

Department 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 of Home Affairs has in recent years become the most important Government office politically, inasmuch as it supervises elections and administers local public works. The Minister is assisted by a parliamentary vice-minister, a vice-minister and a counsellor. The department has five bureaux, respectively in charge of the following affairs:—(1) Shrines, (2) Local Affairs, (3) Public Order, (4) Public Works, and (5) Planning.

The Bureau of Local Affairs has a vast field to supervise. It has to be in close touch with (1) all matters affecting elections, (2) all the work concerning local public associations and other general administration, (3) financial and economic matters of various local public associations, (4) all matters concerning conscription and requisition to be executed by the prefectural governments, (5) all matters concerning forests, reclamation and settlement in Hokkaido and other matters in Hokkaido which do not come within the scope of any other bureaux.

The Bureau of Public Order is invested with the highest authority over ordinary as well as political police matters, and the publication of books and other printed matter.

The Bureau of Public Works is in charge of all public undertakings, not only those under the direct control of the Home Department but also those of all the prefectural governments. All matters regarding expenditure for public works of all sorts directly undertaken by the Department of Home Affairs and the subsidies to be granted for prefectural public works are handled by this Bureau.

The Bureau of Planning makes plans for the improvement of cities and some 400 municipalities and for the

air defence of all districts.

The following institutions also come under the control of the Minister for Home Affairs:—the Asylum for Disabled Soldiers, the National Shrines Building Office, the Police Educational Institute, the National House of Correction for the Improvement of Juvenile Criminals, and the National Leper-Houses.

The Department 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 Department has the following four bureaux:—(1) The Accounts Bureau, which handles all matters concerning the national budget and settlement of accounts, special accounts, co-ordination of treasury business, control of accounting officials, etc. (2) The Bureau of Taxation, which handles matters pertaining to the levying of national taxes, supervision of taxation affairs, the land register, and customs and excise tariffs. (3) The Bureau of Fund Employment, which is in charge of matters concerning the employment of national funds, the administration of national treasury money, the coinage, general circulation of money, national loans, accident and relief funds, deposits and negotiable securities, annuities, and public loans floated by public associations. (4) The Banking Bureau, which takes charge of matters concerning special, ordinary and savings banks, other matters pertaining to banks, the central chest of co-operative societies and credit unions in the cities.

The following other bureaux and institutions are attached to the Department of Finance and are under the direct jurisdiction of the Minister:—(1) The Deposits Bureau, which handles a huge amount of deposits from the middle and lower classes of the people, special importance being always attached to the question of how to utilize this money, (2) The Foreign Exchange Control Bureau, (3) The National Property Bureau, which is in charge of all national properties, and makes arrangements for their disposal or acquirement. (4) The Mint Bureau, located in Osaka, which is in charge of the minting and melting down of all coins, the casting

of national medals or decorations, and laboratory work on metals. (5) The Customs Bureaux, which not only handle matters concerning the collection of import duties but also take charge of the control of ships going in and out of the trade ports, medical and health examination of passengers and crews, plants and animals, and registration of epidemics in accordance with the epidemics or tuberculosis prevention laws for men and animals. Customs Houses under these Bureaux are located at the seven trade ports, namely, Yokohama, Kobe, Osaka, Nagasaki, Moji, Nagoya and Hakodate. (6) The Revenue Superintending Bureaux, which handle matters concerning tax collection. (7) The Monopoly Bureau, which administers the four government monopolies, salt, camphor, tobacco, and pure alcohol (newly included in 1937).

One laboratory and several committees are under the direct control of the Minister of Finance, namely, the Brewing Laboratory and the Committees on Tariff Petitions Examination, the National Property Survey, Building Central Offices of the Government, Tariff Investigation, etc.

The Department of War The function of the Minister of War, 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 War 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).

The Department of Marine The Minister of Marine 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).

The Department of Justice The Minister of Justice supervises courts and procurators' offices; and controls all judicial proceedings. The Department contains three bureaux, dealing respectively with civil affairs, criminal affairs, and prisons.

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 cases of minor importance and those involving sums not exceeding one thousand yen. The Court also deals with criminal cases which are not felonies and those which do not require preliminary examination. The Local Court handles cases of bankruptcy and those concerning personal status and arbitration. In rent and commercial disagreements, an arbitration committee, composed of one judge and two laymen experienced in the matters involved in the dispute, may be appointed. The jurisdiction of a Local Court covers an average area of 2,587 square miles and a population of about 219,000.

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 and Appeal Courts are the 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.

There are one Supreme Court, 7 Courts of Appeal, 52 District Courts and 282 Local Courts in Japan proper.

Attached to each of these courts is a procurators' office, its functions being to conduct investigations, institute prosecutions, supervise the execution of sentences in criminal cases, and act as representative of the public interest in civil cases (For further details, see Chapter XXVII).

The Department 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 seven bureaux and one division in the Department, 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 Religion, and (7) Bureau of Thoughts.

Six imperial universities, 2 commercial universities, 7 medical universities, 1 technical university, 3 normal universities, 4 higher normal schools, and 79 colleges and special educational institutions come under the direct administration of the Department (see Chapter

XXVIII).

The following institutions are also established and controlled by this Department:—the Imperial Library; the Tokyo Observatory; the Central Meteorological Observatory; the Marine Meteorological Observatory; the Aerological Observatory; the Latitude Observatory; Epidemic Laboratory; Aeronautical Laboratory; Seismological Laboratory; Hot Spring Cure Laboratory; the Tokyo Science Museum; the Physical Education Laboratory; the Navigation Institute; the Geodesy Committee; the Examining Committee for Teachers' Licences; the Physical Sciences Literature Committee, for preparing a national list of books on physical sciences, as a branch of the International Committee for the same purpose; the Imperial Academy, which is composed of one hundred scholars appointed by the Emperor and is established for the promotion of science and culture; the Imperial Academy of Arts, which is composed of less than 80 members under a president, for the progress of fine art, literature and music; the Text Book Committee; the Science Council; the National Language Committee; the Aeronautics Council; the School Hygiene Committee; the Earthquake Disaster Prevention Committee; the Religious System Investigation Committee; and the National Treasure Preservation Committee.

The Department of Commerce and Industry The Minister of Commerce and Industry is assisted in administration of the Department by a parliamentary vice-minister, vice-minister and counsellor.

There are eight bureaux in this Department, dealing respectively with commerce, industry, mining, foreign trade, insurance, control (rationalization of commerce and industry), fuel and patents. Examination and control of weights and measures is under the Central Weights and Measures Office. Other affiliated office of importance is the Mine Supervision Bureau.

In May, 1932, an ordinance was issued empowering the Minister of Commerce and Industry to establish two industrial laboratories, in Tokyo and Osaka respectively. These laboratories are opened for the examination, analysis, and appraising of industrial commodities for the benefit of interested parties. Other institutions under the Department are as follows: the Fancy Mat conditioning Houses, the Silk Experimental Stations, the Earthenware and Porcelain Experimental House, the Silk Goods Export Conditioning House, the Industrial

Advice and Information Office, the Fuel Laboratory, the Industrial Art Examination Committee, the Unreasonable Low Price Investigation Committee, the Gas Business Committee, the National Products Promotion Committee and the Motor-car Manufacturing Business Committee.

The Department 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 Department is divided into the following seven bureaux:—(1) The Agriculture Bureau, which takes charge of matters concerning agriculture, tea production, subsidiary industries among farmers, industrial unions, the central chest of the co-operative associations, and the enforcement of Cereals Law. (2) The Forestry Bureau, which deals with all matters concerning forests and meadows. (3) The Fisheries Bureau. (4) The Stock Breeding Bureau, which deals with the improvement and breeding of domestic animals, their hygiene, insurance and hunting. (5) The Silk Bureau handles matters concerning sericulture and the silk industry. (6) The Horse Bureau, which was established in July, 1936, deals with improvement, breeding and other matters concerning horses and their pastures; and (7) The Rice Bureau for control of price of rice and its supply.

The following institutions are under the direct control of the Minister:—the Agricultural, Horticultural, Tea and Forestry Experimental Stations, the Fisheries Institute and Fisheries Experimental Stations, the National Stock-sheep Pastures, the Animal Disease Examination Institute, the National Bull Pastures, National Poultry Station, the Sericultural Laboratory, the Raw Silk Conditioning Houses, the Tea Experimental Houses, the Rice and Cereals Committee, and the Silk Price Committee.

The Department 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, hydraulic power and aviation. All business enterprises of electricity, ship-building, and water transportation together with navigation routes, ships and seamen are under his supervision. He also directs the operations of the Nippon Wireless Telegraph Company.

The Minister is assisted by a parliamentary vice-minister, and a counsellor.

The Secretariat, beside the ordinary secretarial work, supervises the training of clerks who are expected to enter the communications service and all matters concerning communications exhibitions. There are seven main bureaux in the Department:—Postal Service Bureau; Telegraph and Telephone Service Bureau; Bureau of Engineering; Bureau of Electricity; Bureau of Mercantile Ships; Aviation Bureau; and Bureau of Accounts and Supplies.

There are in addition the following affiliated offices:—Bureau of Savings, Lighthouse Bureau, and Communications Bureau. The Savings Bureau handles matters concerning the Post Office savings, and their transfer to the national deposit.

The following institutions are under the direct supervision of the Minister:—the Electro-Technical Laboratory, the Marine Court of Inquiry, the Marine Labour Exchange Committee, the Post-Office Life Insurance Investigation Committee, the Post-Office Life Insurance Reserve Fund Utilization Committee, the Electricity Committee and the Aviation Control Committee.

The Department of Railways The Minister of Railways administers all the affairs relating to the railways operated by the Government and supervises the operations on land of all private railway companies. The Department is divided into seven bureaux, namely, Bureau of Local Railway Administration, Bureau of Traffic and Operation, Bureau of Construction, Bureau of Mechanical Engineering, Bureau of Maintenance and Improvement, Bureau of Electricity, and Bureau of Finance and Purchasing. During the last few years there has been operated a special Tourist Industry Bureau for attracting foreign tourists, which is subdivided into the Controlling and Investigating Section and the Promoting Section. The administrative work of the state railways is apportioned to six local regions: Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, Moji, 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.

There are three committees affiliated to the ministry, the Railway Council, the Tourists Committee and the Railway Fare Investigation Committee. (See Chapter XXV, State Railways.)

The Department of Overseas Affairs The Minister of 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, besides the Secretariat, the following four offices in the Department: 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.

The Department of Welfare The Minister of Welfare administers all the matters relating to the health and well-being of the people. The Department is divided into five bureaux of Physical Strength, Public Hygiene, Disease Prevention, Social Affairs and Labour, which are responsible for matters relating to national health, social welfare and labour, and a Board of Insurance which is responsible for matters relating to health insurance, accident relief liability insurance for labourers, and other systems of social insurance as well as post office life insurance and post office life annuities. The following is the list of matters coming under the jurisdiction of the Department, classified according to the Bureaus and the Board: (1) Bureau of Physical Strength; matters concerning planning for the improvement of physical strength, matters concerning measures and institutions for the improvement of physical strength, matters concerning investigations of physical strength, matters concerning physical education and sports, matters concerning infant's, children's and maternity hygiene. (2) Bureau of Public Hygiene; matters concerning sanitation in food, clothing and dwelling places, matters concerning hygienic guidance, matters concerning medical and pharmaceutical affairs, other matters relating to public health which do not come under the supervision of other governmental institutions. (3) Bureau of Disease Prevention; matters concerning the prevention of infectious, local and other diseases, matters concerning quarantine, matters concerning mental diseases, matters concerning the hygiene in connection with venereal and other diseases detrimental to survival of the race. (4) Bureau of Social Affairs; matters concerning social welfare measures and institutions, matters concerning relief and free medical

treatment, matters concerning military relief, matters concerning the protection of mothers, infants and children, matters relating to other social welfare works, matters concerning employment exchange and supply and demand of labour. (5) Bureau of Labour; matters concerning labour conditions, matters concerning labour hygiene in factories and mines, matters concerning the general control of affairs in connection with the International Labour Organization, other matters relating to labour. (6) Board of Insurance; (a) Section of General Affairs, matters concerning personnel, documents and accounts, matters concerning actuarial work, matters concerning the planning of social insurance and post office life insurance systems and the planning and general control of hygienic measures for the insured, similar matters not coming under the jurisdiction of other governmental institutions, (b) Section of Social Insurance, matters concerning health insurance, accident relief liability insurance for labourers and other systems of social insurance, (c) Section of Post Office Life Insurance, matters concerning post office life insurance and 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 shinin (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 organization and procedure regulations of the Privy Council.

(6) Other matters submitted to 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 "Daijin" (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 Department. The Minister is in charge of all business concerning 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 present head of the Court is Dr. Hyoji Futakami.

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) Sonin rank, appointed by His Majesty's approval, and (4) Hannin rank of minor officials appointed by the heads of different offices.

At the end of 1937, civil officials who received salaries from the State Treasury numbered 159,877 in total, their salaries amounting to ¥190,788,126, of which officials of shinnin and chokunin rank numbered 1,786 with an aggregate salary of ¥9,008,915 a year, officials of sonin rank 16,194 with ¥42,048,598, and officials of hannin rank 141,811 with ¥110,764,448. The average salary of officials of chokunin rank was ¥5,089 a year, that of officials of sonin rank ¥2,598 and that of officials of hannin rank ¥781.

As to the number of officials of chokunin, sonin, and hannin ranks classified according to departments, the Department of Railways had the largest with 38,074, which was followed by 36,323 of the Department of Communications, 17,339 of the Government-General of Chosen and 15,228 of the Department of Finance. Departments other than those given above had less than 10,000 each, viz. the Department of Justice had 8,975, the Department of Education 8,180, the Government-General of Taiwan 5,921, the Department of Agriculture and

Forestry 4,438, the Home Department 2,923, Department of War 2,806, Bureau of Kwantung Leased Territory 1,870, the Department of Commerce and Industry 1,590, the Department of Marine 1,898, the Government of Saghalien Island 1,395 and the Department of Foreign Affairs 1,183. Other Departments had less than 1,000 each. Among prefectural offices, Hokkaido Office had 1,430, Tokyo Metropolitan Police Office had 309, and all other prefectures together 9,232. Each prefectural government office had 200 on the average.

Number and total amount of salaries paid to civil officials of the Government in the past 10 years follow:

Year	Number	Salary
1928	128,792	¥156,572,037
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	146,984	176,848,499
1937	159,877	190,788,126

Note:—The number of the other employees was 328,110, the wages paid to them amounting to ¥179,197,235.

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 Art. 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 representatives 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 Kotafson, 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 66.

The House of Peers, therefore, consists of 150 Counts, Viscounts, and Barons, 165 representatives of statesmen, scholars

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 (December 24, 1938) total of the members of the House of Peers was 413.

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 minor 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 460, vacancies 6, on December 24, 1938.

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
March, 1904	379	757,788
May, 1908	379	1,582,676
May, 1912	381	1,503,650
March, 1915	381	1,546,341
April, 1917	381	1,422,118
May, 1920	464	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
April, 1937	466	13,938,456

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 must also be approved by the Diet. Any 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 disbursements 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 sessions 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 appointments 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 ap-

pointed 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 commune.

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. In a prefecture all administrative business is unified under the control of the governor who supervises every kind of administrative work in the district according to the orders of the Premier and Ministers of the Central Government. Thus, the scope of his function is quite large and complicated. The appointment and dismissal of governors is made by the Minister of 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 three divisions, namely, the Home Affairs Division, the Educational Division and the Police Division. Some prefectures have an Engineering 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 the 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 kilometres 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 five divisions, namely, Home Affairs, Education, Civil Engineering, Colonization and Police. 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 Colonies see Chapters XL-XLIII.)

The Municipality (City, Town, Village)
On April 1, 1937 there were 141 cities, 1,707 towns and 9,568 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 for-

mation 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 communes 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 communes. 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 commune 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 Lower House, several kinds of national investigation, public engineering, public hygiene, relief work, educational supervision and encouragement, and certain work under the Conscription Law. This work is done without consulting the local assemblies, but simply as entrusted by the respective national officials.

CHAPTER V

PARTIES AND POLITICS

Pre-party Cabinet Period

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. The Imperial Edict for opening the national assembly within ten years was issued (see Chapter III) 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 Taisuké 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 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, Jichito 17, Officials 18, neutrals 69, independents 2.

This result presented a grave problem to the political parties, for none had a clear majority in the House of Representatives, so various amalgamations were effected before the opening of the first session of the Imperial Diet, and when it opened on November 25, 1890, the classification of the 300 members became as follows:

The Rikken-Jiyu-to (or Constitutional Liberal Party) 130, the Rikken-Kaishin-to (or Constitutional Progressive Party) 41, Taisei-kai 79, National Liberal Party 5, and outsiders 45. The first two were anti-government parties, while the second two were pro-government. The remaining 45 were neutral.

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.

According to the report of K. Suetomatsu, Director of the Prefectural Bureau, Home Ministry, on the first election on July 1, 1890, 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 and the prefecture which had the greatest percentage of voters as against the number of population was Shiga prefecture with 2 in every 100 of population, while Osaka and 25 prefectures had more than 1, and all other prefectures had less than 1, Tokyo standing lowest with 0.38. At that time Shiga was the richest prefecture, and Tokyo had but a small number of landowners who comprised most of the voters in the election in the previous century when Japan's industrialization was in its infancy and the accumulation of wealth in cities was just beginning.

Of the 300 members elected, 109, or one-third, was of the samurai class. As to the rate of representation Shizoku or

¹ For the political movement before the issuance of the Imperial Edict see the Japan Year Book, 1933.

the samurai class sent 1 person in every 18,152 to the House of Representatives while Helmin or the common people sent 1 person in every 207,438. The number of people of the samurai class was 1,976,480, while that of the common people was 37,630,754 out of Japan's total population of 39,607,234 in 1890.

The average age of members was 42.3 classified as follows:

Age	No. of members
31	7
32-37	85
38-43	99
44-47	40
48-61	59
Above 62	10

The average age was more than 10 years younger than that of the members of the House in the 17th election in 1930, which was 52.6. Several reasons may account for this change, but probably the strongest was that, political questions rather than business enterprises held by far the greater attraction for the ambitious men in their thirties and forties, for politics was almost the sole topic of national interest at the time of the first election. Another reason is in the natural increase of the age of old members who have been elected many times.

The first platform of the Constitutional Liberal Party was: (1) To maintain the sacredness of the Imperial House and to extend the rights of the people, (2) To oppose such policies as might interfere with the individual freedom of the people in home affairs, and to conclude treaties on equal terms in foreign affairs, (3) To realize parliamentary government and organize a party cabinet. And with these ideals the party men waged a fight for the establishment of a real parliamentary government. 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.

Itagaki's Party Suffers The party which suffered most from the poison of secret governmental control was the Constitutional Liberal Party, and they

held a general meeting at Osaka immediately after the first session of the Diet. At the meeting, Itagaki, who had retired when the party had been once dissolved, was again chosen President, its name was made simpler by cutting away the first word "Constitutional," and the unity of its members was strengthened. 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 convoked 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 misbehaviour 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 Liaofung Peninsula aroused indignation throughout Japan, and this feeling soon centred 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 ended 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. The platform of the new party was to exalt the sacredness of the Imperial House and to advance the rights and welfare of the people, (1) by establishing a responsible cabinet with the removal of political evils, (2) by enlarging the national power with the renovation of diplomacy, and (3) by developing private enterprises with the readjustment of the financial policy.

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 characters 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 the Cabinet which contained Okuma, their 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 endeavoured 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 the destruction of them. On June 21, 1898, both parties held final meetings simultaneously and dissolved themselves, and on the 22nd they all met at the Shintomi Theatre, 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 and declared, "It is against the Japanese Constitution to establish a cabinet upon a party foundation; let us quit the Constitution for the time being if necessary to meet the critical moment!" 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 War Ministers being filled by party men. Its composition was as follows:

Premier and Minister of Foreign Affairs, Okuma (Progressive); Home Minister, Itagaki (Liberal); Minister of Finance, Matsuda (Liberal); Minister of Justice, Daito (Progressive); Minister of Education, Ozaki (Progressive); Minister of Communications, Hayashi (Liberal); Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, Oishi (Progressive); Minister of War, Katsura (Choshu clan); and Minister of the Navy, Salgo (Satsuma clan).

It was, however, a combination of antagonistic forces for convenience's 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 War 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 general applause of the people on 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 56. 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 Succeeds 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 is the only remaining Genro at present. He 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 re-

fused, 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. But this session was dissolved immediately after its opening meeting because of the resolution impeaching the Government.

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. 23 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 an expression of this policy that the South Manchuria Railway Company was established in this year.

While the Seiyukai became prosperous as the government party, the Kensei-honto had a hard time and Okuma finally left it on Jan. 20, 1907.

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.

The 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 Kokuminto or Constitutional Nationalist Party. This new party had 92 members in the Lower House and was led by Inukai 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. 26, 1909. Terauchi, Minister of War, 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 public 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 Uchihara, Minister of War, to propose an increase of two Army divisions. Uchihara 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 answered 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. O-

kumia once tendered his resignation to the Throne in relation to this matter, but was asked to stay at his post and reorganize the Cabinet on July 30, 1915, thereby prolonging its existence for three months.

The Rice Riots At this time the Kenseikai was organized under Takaaki (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 Masatake (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 38th 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.

Formation of Party Government

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 Saionji were the only ones now left, and they chose Saionji, the youngest, to be the next Premier. The Emperor requested Saionji 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, regardless 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 all business 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	29
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 them-

selves, 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 defence 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 Council. 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 (see the following articles on these 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 readjustments in the administrative, financial and tax systems, but without success. The Manchurian Incident of Sept. 18, 1931, occurred near Mukden. The Manchurian problem and the relations between Japan and China had been becoming more acute year by year and the Manchurian railway affair called the attention of the world to the impending collision of the two nations. The incident proved a turning-point in the drift of national politics which now headed in a very different direction not only in diplomacy, but also in many home affairs. The Army and Navy took the lead over the Manchurian problem, no doubt, but they could do so only because the people at large sympathized with and supported them. 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 Seiyūkai. 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 Seiyūkai 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, there-

fore, 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 Seiyūkai 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 favourable to the Seiyūkai, 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 Seiyūkai's Victory The general election of Feb. 20th 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 towards international discord, with war as a final outcome. But the result was that the Seiyūkai, the government party, piled up the grand majority of 304 while the Minseitō dwindled to 146.

The Seiyūkai 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 unfavourable, 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 rumours 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 pointed their weapons at him. "Wait a moment," said Inukai quietly. "Let us talk things over and you will understand my ideas." But without answering a word they fired, 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 it out.

The Saitō Cabinet Consequently the Cabinet, having lost its head, immediately tendered its resignation to the Throne. Saionji recommended Viscount Saitō to the Throne after a thorough consultation with such experienced statesmen as might well be called vice-Genro. The Saitō Cabinet was composed of five bureaucrats, three representatives of the House of Peers,

three Seiyūkai 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
Kenkyūkai	148
Koseikai	69
Dowakai	41
Kōyū Club	40
Kayukai	34
Doseikai	15
Independents	37

House of Representatives:

(Number of members, 456, vacancies 7)	
Seiyūkai	298
Minseitō	116
Kokumin-Domei	32
Proletarian Parties, etc.	13

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.

Political Movement of the Proletariat

There were frequent outbreaks of rice riots in the days of the Tokugawa Shogunate. But the samurai class was above the farmers and artisans, who had neither political power nor military force.

Labour Movement Takes Shape When modern commerce and industry were

introduced to Japan in the Meiji Era and capitalism began to have sway over the working people, labour movements became active as a matter of course.

On the 1st of December, 1897, the Iron Workers' Union was organized in Tokyo with over one thousand members, and this was the first trade union in Japan.

Public Peace Police Law In 1900 the Imperial Diet passed a bill and enacted it into a law. The law was entitled the Public Peace Police Law. It proved to be the death knell to all phases of the labour movement, preventing the working classes from organizing themselves into unions. The law practically prohibited the industrial working classes as well as the tenant farmers from agitating in their own interests and against the employers and land-owners. And later the law was interpreted to mean that all labour movements were a crime.

In 1901, a socialist party was organized which was called the Social Democratic Party, the original members being S. Kotoku, I. Abé, N. Kinoshita, K. Kawakami, K. Nishikawa, and S. Katayama. It was soon suppressed by the authorities and transformed into a non-political organization, namely, the Socialist Association.

Marxism Introduced It was in 1903 that the socialist theory of Marxism was first introduced to the Japanese radicals, and the theory soon attracted large numbers of students. In 1906, the Socialist Party was organized for the second time, and on Feb. 17, 1907, the first anniversary meeting of the party was held in Tokyo. The resolution at the meeting announced the aims of the party as follows: a radical and fundamental change of the existing society, universal suffrage, anti-militarism and anti-religion. Later the socialists began conflicts and were divided over the question of socialist tactics into two groups, i.e. Marxists and direct actionists. Secret activities of radical socialists and stern suppression of the same by the Government developed more and more desperate tactics on both sides, and the Government finally came by a chance to destroy the entire socialist movement in the bud. They instituted the famous anarchist trial in 1911, in which Kotoku and twenty-three others were condemned as traitors, and he with eleven others suffered the death penalty.

Marxist propaganda and leadership of strikes and even anarchists' movement did not cease with the trial and execution of Kotoku and his comrades. One of the most conspicuous events in the annals of their movement was the

death of S. Osugi and his colleagues at the hands of the reactionaries in the midst of the Great Earthquake commotion in Tokyo in 1923.

But it must be said that Japanese social movement entered upon a new phase by the stimulus from the Russian Revolution in 1917 and its later development.

The Labour-Farmer Party The suppression of the Nippon Socialist Party in 1907 and the stern policy of the Government against socialist movements made the Japanese proletariat suffer and grope in the dark for the next decade.

In June, 1924, a society was established for the study of politics to prepare for the organization of a proletarian party. And by the proposal of the Japan Farmers' Union the first national proletarian party was organized on Oct. 1, 1925, and it was called the Farmer-Labour Party. But this party met the Government's order of suppression on the very day of its organization because of its communistic elements. Thereupon, the left-wing elements were expelled and the right-wing elements, namely the Japan Federation of Labour, were added, and in March, 1926, the Labour-Farmer Party was formed, with Mr. Motojiro Sugiyama as its president.

Schism in Proletarian Parties The Labour-Farmer Party soon became a nest of quarrelling cliques, and the question of opening the door to communistic elements gave a motive for the secession of the Japan Federation of Labour and the right leaders Isoo Abé, Toyohiko Kagawa, etc., who established the Social Democratic Party with the Federation as its main element and Abé as its President on December 5, 1926. The new party rejected communism and insisted upon parliamentarism as a pure social-democratic party.

Contemporaneous with the formation of the Social Democrats, the left-wing elements of the Japan Federation of Labour and the right-wing elements of the Japan Farmers' Union organized the Japan Labour-Farmer Party under the leadership of Hisashi Aso on December, 9, 1926, insisting upon the establishment of a right road for the proletarian movement.

The Labour-Farmer Party, which was stripped of half its force by the continuous secession of the right-wing elements, made Ikuo Ohyama its head and opened its doors to the communistic societies. The result was that it was practically led by the Japan Communists and played the part of a legitimate communistic party; and it was compelled to dissolve on the 10th of

April, 1928, being suppressed by the Tanaka Cabinet after the wholesale arrest of the Japan Communists on the 15th of March of the same year.

The old leaders of the dissolved Labour-Farmer Party organized a preparatory society for the establishment of a new party and endeavoured to realize their plan, but always met with the pressure of the authorities, and finally organized the Proletarian People's Party under the theoretical leadership of Hitoshi Yamakawa.

Their Union In the meantime, the right-wing elements of the Japan Union of Farmers organized the Japan Farmer Party with the idea of establishing a representative Japanese party of farmers under the slogan, "Farmers come to the Party of Farmers," on October 17, 1926, and there arose many small local proletarian societies or parties in different districts.

Such rivalry and disunion among proletarian parties naturally called forth a demand for the unification of fighting lines, and the parties, which kept to the middle way, like the Japan Labour-Farmer Party, the Japan Farmer-Labour Party and the General Proletarian Party, which were the three national proletarian parties, and the Proletarian Constitutional Party, the People's Party in the central district and two other local parties were all united into one and organized the Japan Mass Party.

The General Proletarian Party organized an anti-separation union and protested against the leaders of the Japan Mass Party, but they themselves were soon dissolved into the Tokyo Proletarian Mass Party and other local proletarian parties.

The leaders of the former Labour-Farmer Party, who had formed a preparatory society for the establishment of a new party just after the dissolution of their party, continued their movement for its reconstruction, but their project was prohibited half-way, and the preparatory society itself was ordered to close. They were thus compelled to organize a labour-farmer union, an illegitimate body, for obtaining political freedom and did not cease to follow a communistic policy. But they were involved in the wholesale raids on the Japan Communists on March 15, 1928, and April 16, 1929, in which the ablest radical leaders were accused of being members of the Communist Party and were mostly arrested so that their movement came to an end. The leaders who escaped the raid such as Ikuo Ohyama and Hajimé Kawakami

organized a Labour-Farmer Party on November 1, 1929. The purpose of their new movement was to proclaim the need of obtaining the right of public activity as a lawful left-wing party by establishing a standing political organization.

While the left and midway parties had been continually combining and re-dissolving, the right-wing party of the proletariat or Social Democratic Party alone developed without a hitch for some time, but in Sept., 1929, the Osaka Union of the Japan Federation of Labour, the main element of the party, separated from the federation and consequently withdrew from the party and established the National Democratic Party on January 15, 1930. But this party was united with the Japan Mass Party on the 20th of July of the same year and formed the National Mass Party.

The N. L. F. Mass Party The movement for the greater union of the proletarian parties was continued and the Society for the Realization of Unity of Proletarian Parties, which was a bloc of those who insisted on the unconditional union among the members of the National Mass Party, the Labour-Farmer Party, organized the National Labour-Farmer Mass Party on the 5th of July, 1931. In this new party there was no head of the central executive committee, but Hisashi Aso, President of the former National Mass Party, was appointed to the chair of the chief secretary, who also served as Acting President. Ikuo Ohyama, President of the former Labour-Farmer Party, retired from all official positions and went abroad. This National Labour-Farmer Mass Party stood between the extreme left and right, but the inner control gradually became loose and Hajimé Kawakami and Kanemitsu Hososeko were expelled along with some other members. These two were arrested as strong sympathizers of the Japan Communists.

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 La-

hour-Farmer Mass Party. This new party elected Isoo Abé, Chairman of the Central Executive Committee; and Hisashi Aso, Chief Secretary. The platform of the party was as follows:

(1) We will fight for the protection of the lives of the labour, farmer, and general working masses.

(2) We aim at the destruction of capitalism and the emancipation of the proletariat.

And this new party is acting as a social democratic party, rejecting both Communism and Fascism.

Universal Suffrage and Proletariats Since the birth of proletarian political parties with the purpose of sending representatives to the Diet, there had been three general elections. At the third general election, since the institution of universal suffrage, which was held on February 20, 1932, under the Inukai Cabinet in consequence of the dissolution of the Diet at the 60th session in the previous month the proletarian parties made plans for fighting against capitalistic parties, from their past experiences and on the basis of their characteristic principles and policies, and sending out 36 candidates, fought bravely with public speeches as their only weapon. The result was 5 members elected, with the gain of 290,979 votes. To make a comparison with the former elections, the number of successful candidates on the first occasion was 8 or 3 more, and on the second one it was 5 or the same number as at the last, while in the number of votes they lost at the third election 201,242, compared with the first one, and 207,242, compared with the second one. But the number of the candidates was much smaller than in previous elections, so that the number of votes per capita increased to 8,093 from 5,593 of the first and 5,475 of the second election, or every proletarian candidate at the latest election gained about 3,000 more votes than at the previous two general elections.

The National Socialists

Orientation to National Socialism In 1931 the Labour Union established the Japan Labour 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 sec-

tion of the Party increased their power under the leadership of K. Akamatsu, chief secretary, and R. Hirano.

Their Platform At the same time, National Socialism began to make its mark among the members of the National Labour-Farmer Mass Party, which kept to the middle way, and especially it gained power among the members who belonged to the National Labour Union, the strongest supporter of the party. Some powerful leaders of the National Labour Union moved for the establishment of a National Socialistic Party, but their motion was rejected by the party and they seceded from it in one body. The seceders met with those from the Social Democrats, and, on the 29th of May, they established the Japan National Socialist Party with K. Akamatsu at its head.

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 colour in compliance with the change of the social state of affairs.

The Production Party The Great Nippon Production Party, an extreme right-wing party, which had hailed Japanese nationalism but vaguely, showed a sudden activity and absorbed the Nippon Nationalists, the Radical Patriots and other parties of similar nature at the end of 1931. Their aim was the reconstruction of anti-nationalistic institutions, according to the fundamental national spirit of Japan.

The Jimmu-kai On February 11, 1932, the anniversary of the Foundation of the Empire, the Jimmu-kai, a strong nationalists' society, was organized. The central element of the society was the Ko-chi Sha of Dr. Shumei Ohkawa, who had intimate connections with military men, and the new party was also helped by Hiroichiro Ishihara, a business man, Daisaku Komoto, a colonel, and the like. At the general election of 1932, rallying the young members of the Ko-chi Sha, the Great Nippon Production Party and other Nationalistic bodies, they sent out bands on a canvassing tour over the whole country for the propaganda of Nipponism. It is said that they gained over 50,000 new members in a month or so of the campaign. (The Jimmu-kai was dissolved in 1935.)

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 fi-

ancial depression, and the problem of finding some means of relieving the people 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, Junnosuke Inoue, ex-Minister of Finance, was shot to death by a young man, Konuma, of the Blood Brotherhood League headed by Nissho Inoue, 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. Imamaki, 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. Shumei 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. After the arrest of members of the Blood Brotherhood League formed by Nissho Inoue, who entertained a plan to kill representative men one by one, his comrades undertook the continuation of the work. Lieutenant Hitoshi Fujii, a leader, had died in the battle at Shanghai on February 5, 1932, but had left a strong influence among his friends. Second lieutenants Kiyoshi Koga and Yoshio Nakamura, who belonged to the Kasumigaura airship corps, began to form bands with a view to bringing about a new government with the military as the central force, in plunging Tokyo into a state of siege by their sudden attack upon the capital. In the plot they were soon united by Kozaburo Tachibana, head of the Aikyo Juku (Village Loving School) of Ibaraki prefecture and a leader of the agricultural movement. Dr. Shumei Ohkawa, Hideo Toyama, head of the Tenko-kai, and Kenichiro Homma also came to their help and, moreover, supplied them with necessary funds and arms. At 5:30 p. m. May 15, 1932, four bands composed of military officers and cadets armed with pistols, attacked several points of

the capital and killed Inukai and others as mentioned above, while another band of farmers attempted to break into the transformer stations to throw the capital into darkness. Most of them were arrested on the day and the sentences for all of them (except one farmer who died in the meantime) were passed by February, 1934, the heaviest penalty given being imprisonment for life for Kozaburo Tachibana, but none of them were sentenced to death.

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 which became an incentive to the petition movement for rescue of the peasant villages from the ruin which threatened them.

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 endeavoured 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, Mr. K. Tachibana, the head of the Aikyo Juku (Village Loving School), and Mr. 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 depths of society, and secretly continued their endeavours 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 Gov-

ernment after February, 1931, but it continued its secret activities by order of the International Headquarters with the sub-divisions of the communists. Its slogan of 1932 was "the reconstruction and enlargement of the Society and its popularization." It aims at and works for the abolition of parliamentary government, the destruction or revision of capitalistic control of industry and reactionary labour laws, the relief of international unemployment, the improvement of all labour managements, the betterment of the conditions and privileges of women, the abolition or lightening of the penalties imposed upon communists, and its propaganda among the factory workers and the people at large.

The Kopf' This federation of proletarian artists was organized in November, 1932, and it works for the education of labourers, farmers and other workers in politics and economy, the improvement of the labourers' living, the establishment of proletarian civilization on Lenin-Marxism, the freedom of speech, publication, exhibition, drama, movies and broadcasting, the creation of cultural institutions for labourers and all workers.

Political Affairs in 1933-34

The 64th session of the Diet came to an end on March 25, after passing the 1933-34 budget, of over ¥2,300,000,000 and 58 bills. Among the latter there were such important laws as the Farm-Village Debt Readjustment Law, the Relief Law for Tohoku district, the Child Ill-treatment Prevention Law, the Juvenile Protection Law, the Rice Control Law and the Iron-Manufacture Promotion Law.

On March 27 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 ¥1,248,000,000 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. (See Chapter VIII.)

Discussions on the 1934-35 Budget continued from January 26 to February 4, and on February 13 the House of Representatives passed it by unanimous vote without amendments. The discussion mainly turned upon the issuance of Government loans, the military expenses, the need of establishing a definite financial plan for the future, and the increase of taxes. As to the last point, Takahashi disclosed his decision to increase taxes at a most convenient time.

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 Korea, 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.

Political Affairs in 1934-35

The Saito Cabinet Resigns The detention on May 19 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 Keisuké 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 tiding-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 pro-

bably meet. Thus it was finally composed of seven men out of officialdom and five party men (2 from the Minseitō and 3 from the Seiyūkai). The Seiyūkai 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 Seiyūkai.

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 both Houses and also private persons. The Seiyūkai and Minseitō 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 towards 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 Seiyūkai, 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 unfavourable 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 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 was as follows:

Year of Disbursement	Amount (in ¥1,000)
1934-5	70,664
1935-6	68,318
1936-and after	74,957
Total	213,940

The budget passed both Houses without amendment, though it was attacked as being too small to meet the need, specially by the Seiyūkai.

The 67th Session The regular session of the Diet was convened on December 24, 1934, and closed on March 25, 1935. Notwithstanding the expectation generally entertained of a collision between the Government and the Seiyūkai 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 Seiyūkai 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 Seiyūkai.

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 stat-

1 Federacio de Proletaĵ Kultur Organizoj Japanaj.

ed 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 3 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 favourable 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. On 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 labour 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 labouring 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. A comparison of the last three elections follows:

ELECTION OF PROLETARIAN MEMBERS IN PREFECTURAL ASSEMBLIES

	Candidates	Elected	Votes obtained	Votes for each Candidate
1927	216	23	257,832	1,193
1931	213	17	270,376	1,269
1935	96	41	219,854	2,290

Minobé Case After the close of the Diet, Dr. Minobé's case was taken up after some delay by the judicial authorities. He was heard twice by the judges of the Supreme Court in April and September, and the indictment was revoked. Dr. Minobé voluntarily resigning from membership of the House of Peers. The movement of nationalist groups against him, nevertheless, was continued all through the year and the Cabinet issued a statement on the question again on October 15, 1934, acknowledging the points put forward by the nationalists, but the agitation did not stop then and there.

In the beginning of the year 1935, however, liberalism appeared regaining power and criticism of the actions of the national socialists and militarists was heard in a considerable degree at the 67th session of the Diet. The War Ministry seemed amenable to the criticism, as shown by its thoughts and reactionary action on the part of military bodies, the removal of high officers in August, etc. Public opinion evidently welcomed the War 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 War Ministry. Aizawa was one of the group of officers who were associated with the May 15 affair of 1932. General Hayaishi's place was taken by General Kawashima as War Minister in September and the general policy of the War 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 Domei	20
Showakai	24
Social Mass Party	3
Independents	11
Vacancy	39

General Election The 19th General Election was held on February 20, 1936, with the number of eligible voters totaling 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 election, and the result was:

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 January	Increase or Decrease	Votes Obtained	%
Seiyukai	336	174	242	-68	4,156,643	37.4
Minseitō	296	205	127	+78	4,456,250	40.1
Kokumin Domei	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, Korékiyo Takahashi, Finance Minister, and Lieutenant-General Jotaro Watanabé, 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 Kohel Kashii. (For a full account of the Incident see the Japan Year Book, 1937, pp. 135-143.)

Formation of 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. Prince Saionji was called to Tokyo for his advice in the matter of choosing the succeeding premier. Prince Konoyé, President of the House of Peers, was first recommended, but he asked for Imperial pardon because of his weak health. Then, 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.

The first announcement of the new policies of the Hirota Cabinet was made by Dr. Eiichi Baba, Minister of Finance, on March 9, to the effect that the old financial policy of the late Finance Minister Takahashi would not be proceeded with, but as one of the new policies of the cabinet, the Finance Ministry was planning an increase of revenue from taxes and an enlarged floatation of national loans in connection with the budget for 1937-38 in order to meet the increased demands necessitated by changes of the times.

The statement of Prime Minister Hirota, published on March 17, 1936, on the policy of the new Government, rather disappointed the general public with its too reserved and abstract wording, but his intention to follow a central course was well pronounced in the words "over-hasty actions will be avoided through the wisdom of the people and a thorough understanding of the public sentiments."

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 Tomita 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 the Imperial Message as follows:

We hereby conduct the ceremony opening the Imperial Diet and so announce to the members of the House of Peers and the House of Representatives.

We rejoice over the fact that the relations of the Imperial Government and foreign nations have been becoming steadily more cordial.

We regret the outbreak of the recent incident in Tokyo. It is expected of our faithful subjects that they will unite as one, Government and people, civilians and military, in order to promote the development of the national fortunes.

We have ordered the Ministers of State to present to the Imperial Diet the urgent supplementary budget bill and other measures.

It is expected of you that you will deliberate upon them in harmony, thereby fulfilling Our wishes.

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. On May 8, Premier Hirota, Foreign Minister Arima, Finance Minister Baba and War Minister Terauchi made speeches on the general policies and what they were planning for the improvement and readjustment of the matters specially coming under their respective jurisdiction. Important points in their speeches related to the strained international relation between Japan and the U.S.S.R., the increase of revenue from taxation and the determination of the authorities to enforce discipline in the Imperial Army. The War Minister gave a full explanation concerning the Feb. 26 Incident to the members of both Houses in a closed meeting on the 7th May and the searching interpellation of Takao Saito of the Minseitō at the general meeting of the House of Representatives on the same day drew the keen attention of the House and members of the Cabinet and caused a sensation among the public, gaining the full support of the press.

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. 237-260) passed both Houses without amendment. As to the workers' discharge reserve fund and allowance bill, hot discussions arose from both the sides of capital and labour, but the bill was finally passed after important amendments had been made to make it applicable only to factories and mines with 50 or more workers and to make the discharge allowance less than 3 percent of the wages paid up to the time of discharge. The bills in connection with rice control were presented to the Diet to settle the long debated problems started with the presentation of similar bills which had been laid on the table at the 67th Session in 1935 after a desperate fight between farmers and merchants. This time they just got through both Houses with a conditional clause added to the original. The seditious literature restriction bill passed with important amendments to restrict the scope of its application and changing the name of the law into the seditious literature temporary restriction law. The Houses passed all the 46 bills presented by the Government in addition to the budgetary bills and over 150 memorials and resolutions, with the exception of the national mobilization secrets protection bill which was laid on the table because of the danger of its restricting the freedom of the people.

Important Policies of the Hirota Cabinet The much talked about new policies of the Hirota Cabinet met with difficulties before being finally decided upon. A part of the Government insisted on the separation of the defence policies and the general policies, the greater importance to be placed on the former, while the other part required the realization of numerous political, social and economic measures to fulfil the special mission of the Cabinet and to answer the expectations of the people, who wanted something in the way of a reformation after the precious sacrifice of the Feb. 26 Incident.

Important policies and new measures heaped up on the table of the Cabinet

meetings in such numbers that discussion on them became impossible in the limited time of the usual meetings, so after preliminary selection and study, a Cabinet meeting to consider important national policies was held on August 25, 1936, when it decided on and published the following 7 national policies:

- (1) Completion of National Defence;
- (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 fibre 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 control cannot be said to be as thorough as that in Fascist countries, but it entered in no small degree into the free commercial and industrial fields in 1936. The first aim of this economic control was the completion of national defence, 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. From the outset, the Hirota Cabinet took as its first mission the strengthening of national defence although it did not by any means try to destroy the existing capitalistic economic system or reject the old principle of commercial freedom, but it purported to effect a peaceful change

in the economic system of Japan, beginning with those enterprises the control of which was an acute necessity for the betterment of the life of the people and the strengthening of defence.

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 the strengthening of defence, 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 control ideals, 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 aggressive measures on 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 representatives 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 Mr. 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.

Control of Electric Power Control of electric power in Japan by the Government was included in the items of the seven national policies set out by the Hirota Cabinet as mentioned elsewhere and became one of the most important subjects of discussion in industrial and commercial circles. The plan was representative of the national control of all economic enterprises and the existing electric companies were necessarily opposed to it as against their interests, and the economic world condemned it as being contrary to the principle of commercial freedom and a kind of public robbery of another's property because under the plan it was intended to purchase compulsorily all the facilities and equipments of the companies at a price estimated by the Government. Heading the criticism of the plan the Ministry of Communications, the compiler of the bill, made amendments to the first plan, but the main difficulty lay in the value of the fixed assets of the power companies which were capitalised aggregately at over ¥800,000,000, besides which much doubt was entertained as to the practical result of the control, which aimed at the lowering of the price of electric power. The presentation of the bill to the 70th session of the Diet at the beginning of 1937 was therefore postponed and the question left over for the decision of the succeeding Konoé Cabinet.

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 defence 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 defence and carry out such measures in close co-operation.

Positive Attitude of Political Parties The 70th session of the Imperial Diet was convened on December 24, 1936, to sit for three months ending with March 25, 1937. The difficulties of the Hirota Cabinet were expected to arise over the Tax Increase Bill, the Electric Power State Management Bill and the Compulsory Education Prolongation Bill and it was felt that the Government must exert itself to overcome the antagonistic forces represented by many members of both Houses. To make the matters worse, there was a dissatisfaction at the foreign policy of the Government in general and a still smouldering complaint at the Government's attitude towards the political parties.

From what transpired at the meetings of the political parties preparatory to the 70th session of the Diet it was revealed that the parties were going to take a much more positive attitude in the discussions in the coming session of the Diet than they had been wont to do in former sessions. The Imperial edict at the opening of the 69th session called forth the sense of responsibility anew, not only among Governmental circles but also among party men, and the latter began to pay closer attention to the doings of the Hirota Cabinet. They were expected to enter into hot discussions over many drastic measures to be taken by the Government for political, economic and educational renovation discordant, in their eyes, to the present state of national progress, together with evident failures in the handling of international affairs by the Government.

The 70th Session of the Imperial Diet

The 70th session of the Imperial Diet, convened on December 24, 1936, was of great import 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 judgement 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.

Before the formal opening of the session the political parties held their general meetings and gave voice to what they thought of the general situation and their attitude towards the Government.

The Minseitō published its statement, saying, "The present state of national and international affairs in Japan calls for the fundamental reformation of international policies and administration of national affairs. But what the present Government is doing is far from their promise for the reformation of national administration thus causing a general unrest in the banking and industrial circles and deepening the economic depression among the working classes in urban and country districts alike so that the whole nation is put on the verge of an outbreak of thought confusion, while the foreign policy of the Cabinet has brought about a standstill of diplomacy between the country and Russia, China or Great-Britain, because of its inability to establish a stable diplomatic policy." The Seiyukai put emphasis on the effective activities of the Imperial Diet as an organ representing the mass of people in answer to the Imperial wish for discussing important matters with the subjects, calling special attention to the new taxation policies of the Government and its wavering diplomatic policy concerning matters pertaining to the welfare of the Oriental countries. The Social Mass party passed decisions on waging war, against the oppression of the Government of the Governmental labour unions, on a movement for the institution of the Trade Union Law and Tenant Law, on free discussion in the Diet, on the Budget, the revision of the tax system, the reformation of the governmental system, the revision of the Election Law and the control of the electric power business, and on the realization of a diplomatic policy in accordance with the wishes of the people, evincing their anti-Fascist political ideas.

The Strength of the Political Parties The strength of the political parties in

the Houses 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 Seiyūkai	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 Mr. Hamada and the answer of Lieutenant-General Terauchi, War Minister.

Resignation of the Hirota Cabinet
The Hirota Cabinet tendered its resignation en bloc to the Throne on January 23, 1937, after two days 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 cause of the resignation of the Hirota Cabinet appeared to be in the apparent dissension between the Cabinet and the political parties and the lack of the Premier's earnestness in pushing his policies because of the weakening support of the military.

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 resigna-

tion of the Government. Both the Minseitō and the Seiyūkai 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, and made no visit to the presidents of the leading parties to get their understanding as to the standpoint of the Government. It is usually understood, in such a case, that the Government is aggressive and disregards the co-operation of the political parties. But it was not so in Hirota's case, for he 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.

The hot words exchanged between the War Minister and Mr. 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 Mr. 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 which Japan was thrown into judged from 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. Mr. 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 towards a compromise.

Opinions were divided among the Cabinet members as to the dissolution of the House of Representatives and Navy Minister Vice-Admiral Osami Nagano and Dr. Gotaro Ogawa, Minister of Commerce and Industry, took the trouble to try and arbitrate between the dissenting parties in and out of the Cabinet. Dr. Ogawa belonged to the Minseitō and was anxious to bring the matter to a satisfactory conclusion in order to get the budget passed by the Diet, seeing that parties were not actu-

ally opposed to it, and to save his comrades from the blow of dissolution. Vice-Admiral Nagano found no reason for a deadly clash between the Government and the Lower House in the quarrel of the War Minister and Mr. Hamada, and was gravely concerned about the passage of the budget, which was threatened with postponement for at least half a year by the possible dissolution, for the Navy wanted to hasten the completion of its programme with the coming of the first year of freedom from treaty disarmament. The two Ministers had a consultation and the Minister of the Navy called on the Presidents of the Minseitō and Seiyūkai on the night of January 22 and early in the morning of the following day, and got the full understanding of the two Presidents.

But all the efforts of the Ministers proved futile. The Army took a firm stand and handed the resignation of the War 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. He probably saw it useless to push the matter any further. He saw that the support of the circles who wanted a quick and drastic renovation of the political and economic systems of Japan had become weak because of their dissatisfaction at his too cautious way of handling important matters. Besides, the movements in political circles, public and secret, had suggested that some schemes for the change of the Government had been going on. As a matter of fact several propositions for the establishment of a new political party continued to appear in the press in preparation for the bringing about of a new Cabinet. On January 23, 1937, Premier Hirota announced his reason of 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.

On the same day the War Minister published his statement in regard to his stand on the matter. "Mr. Hamada's address in the House is not to be taken as the reason of my resignation.

It is true that leading parties have their members in the Cabinet, but in spite of this fact, their declarations and presidents' addresses at their general meetings before the opening of the Diet, the interpellations of their representatives on the 21st of January, and the general atmosphere of the House of Representatives on the same day clearly indicate that there is a great gap between the understanding of Japan's present situation, national and international, by the Army and by the political parties. It is hard, in my opinion, to surmount the difficulties before us by a temporary compromise unless we all come to the right recognition of Japan's real situation. The existing state of affairs leads me to the conclusion that they are against my hope for the strengthening of military discipline, completion of national defence and renovation of state administration."

Ugaki's Failure 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 Imperial order to form a cabinet, and then began his task, first to get War and Navy Ministers. But he met with strong antagonism from the Army which answered that no high officers were willing to be recommended to the portfolio in spite of the combined efforts of the Chief of the General Staff, the War Minister and the Inspector-General of Military Education. Ugaki was supported by almost the entire press and majority of people, who sent him thousands of letters and telegrams of encouragement to fight against the adverse situation in which he was quite unexpectedly put. It was impossible for him, however, to choose the War Minister without the recommendation of the three just mentioned because of the regulation that limited the post to a General or Lieutenant-General in active service, the number of these being very small and all of them being under direct control of the Ministry.

Many suggestions were proposed to General Ugaki as extraordinary means of accomplishing his purpose, but he did not like to take any drastic measure in face of the apparent antagonism because of the peace of the country, 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 Birth of the Hayashi Cabinet

Whereupon, Mr. Yuasa, Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seal was sent to the

Genro, Prince Saionji, who recommended, this time, first, Baron Kijichiro Hirayama, President of the Privy Council, and, second, General Senjuro Hayashi. The first candidate declined and General Hayashi was called to the Palace and

Premier, Minister for Foreign Affairs and Minister of Education, Minister for Home Affairs, Minister of Finance and Minister for Overseas Affairs, Minister of War, Minister of Navy, Minister of Justice, Minister of Agriculture and Forestry and Minister of Communications, Minister of Commerce and Industry and Minister of Railways,

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 Cabinet, both old and new, was unsympathetic with the parties in the House of Representatives, while parties, on their part, 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.

The Government stated concerning the reason of the Dissolution as follows:

To cope with prevailing conditions at home and abroad, surmount the current difficulties and promote the national fortunes, co-operation between the Government and the people in the proper sense is absolutely essential. Thus the Cabinet, though it had just been formed, sought in the present session of the

was ordered to form the Cabinet.

The birth of the Hayashi Cabinet was premature for it consisted of but eight members instead of thirteen. The eight were:

General Senjuro Hayashi
Mr. Kakichi Kawarada

Mr. Toyotaro Yuki
Lieutenant-General Kotaro Nakamura
Vice-Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai
Mr. Suchiko Shiono

Mr. Tatsunosuke Yamazaki

Engineer Vice-Admiral Takuo Godo

Diet the passage of many bills in all sincerity. The manner in which the Lower House has discussed these bills, however, has been extremely lacking in earnestness, with the result that proceedings have been blocked with regard to important bills having the greatest bearing on national defence and stabilization of the living of the people, urgent business held up and doubts aroused as to whether parliamentary discussion could be carried on further in the way required by the seriousness of the prevailing situation.

We therefore saw much reason in the clamour for renovation of the Diet. In the hope of appealing to the just conscience of the people, submitting to the will of the people and making manifest the principles of the constitutional government of Japan, and at the same time in expectation of sound political awakening on the part of the people and co-operation between them and the Government in surmounting the present serious situation, we have petitioned the Throne for dissolution of the House of Representatives.

The 20th General Election

Results of the General Election in April, 1937 Of the total 122 election districts not one was carried complete by either the Minseitō or the Seiyūkai, the two leading parties. On the contrary, the number of districts in which all the candidates of these parties were defeated was 13 for the Minseitō and 7 for the Seiyūkai, due largely to the rise in the power of the Social Mass Party. The following tables, compiled by the Asahi, show the ups and downs of the political parties at the election:

NUMBER OF VOTES OBTAINED BY PARTIES

Parties	Number of votes	
	In Tokyo	Total
Minseitō	271,697	3,666,067
Seiyūkai	214,301	3,608,882
Social Mass Party	174,808	900,916
Showakai	18,196	404,846
Kokumin-Domei	22,292	281,826
Tohokai	—	212,505
Other small parties	61,097	286,661
Independents	41,365	845,612

SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATES BY PARTIES

Parties	Candidates	Elected	%
Minseitō	266	179	67.3
Seiyūkai	268	175	65.3
Social Mass Party	65	36	55.4
Showakai	35	18	51.4
Kokumin-Domei	20	11	55.0
Tohokai	20	11	55.0
Other small parties	43	7	16.3
Independents	109	29	26.6

DIFFERENCE OF POWER OF PARTIES BEFORE AND AFTER THE ELECTION

Parties	Before the Election	After the Election	Increase (+) or Decrease (-)
Minseitō	206	179	-27
Seiyūkai	172	175	+3
Social Mass Party	19	36	+17
Showakai	24	18	-6
Kokumin-Domei	11	11	—
Tohokai	9	11	+2
Other small parties	4	7	+3
Independents	19	29	+10

NUMBER OF OLD AND NEW MEMBERS OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

Parties	New	Old	Former	Total
Minseitō	21	149	9	179
Seiyūkai	31	122	22	175
Social Mass Party	15	19	2	36
Showakai	0	16	2	18
Kokumin-Domei	0	11	0	11
Tohokai	3	8	0	11
Other small parties	2	4	1	7
Independents	9	17	3	29
Total	81	346	39	466

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 behaviour had been unsatisfactory in the eyes of the Cabinet and the election was the outcome of the Dissolution brought about by its behaviour. 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 Seiyūkai 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.

Voting Analysis According to the Local Bureau of the Home Department, 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 invalid votes, blank votes increased by 2,012 and voting papers on which were written miscellaneous things increased by 3,682, while on the whole the total number of invalid votes decreased by 2,770.

	The 20th General Election (April 30, 1937)	The 19th General Election (February 20, 1936)
Total number of electors on the election day	14,075,010	14,303,780
Number of voters	10,317,756	11,249,663
Absentees	3,757,254	3,054,118
Percentage of absentees	26.7	21.3
Total number of valid votes	10,203,677	11,132,677
" " " spoilt votes	114,040	116,819
Blank votes	13,130	11,110
Voting papers containing miscellaneous written matter.	25,101	21,419
Others	75,809	84,282

Advance of the Social Mass Party
One of the most outstanding results of the 20th general election of April 30, 1937, was the advance of the Social Mass Party. The party gained 18 seats

more than it did at the 19th general election of February 20, 1936, and obtained 382,556 more votes. A comparison of the three largest parties at the two general elections follows:

RESULTS OF THE 19TH AND THE 20TH GENERAL ELECTIONS

Parties	19th Election	20th Election	Percentage of Increase (+) or Decrease (-)
Minseito			
No. of persons elected	205	179	- 12.5
No. of votes obtained	4,456,250	3,666,067	- 17.7
Seiyukai			
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

In many important election districts in Tokyo, Osaka, Kyoto and Kobe, candidates of the Social Mass Party obtained the largest number of votes. It was said that a large number of votes went to the party not only from labourers and farmers but also from well-educated people, small traders and industrialists, and even from Government officials.

Premier's Statement On May 3, Premier General Hayashi published a statement in connection with the result of the 20th general election as follows: Japan's political situation, national and international, is critical to the utmost extent. To surmount the crisis there is no other way than to aim at a radical reform in all directions, discarding conventionalism and yet not overruling the times. With this conviction the Government worked with the 70th Session of the Imperial Diet and came to realize that the renovation of the constitution of the Diet is one of the important things basic for the reform of all other organs of State, being the

first step of realizing the principles of Imperial constitutional government. I humbly asked the Throne for the Dissolution of the House of Representatives after a careful deliberation of these points, apart from the success or failure of the Government's policy in this respect. The 20th general election was carried out fairly. We expect the new representatives of the people to sacrifice their self-interest and to be eager to serve H.I.M. the Emperor in the momentous work of realizing the ideals of the Foundation of the Country in accordance with the principles of the national polity, in helping the progress of our unique constitutional government and in making contributions to the Imperial régime fully versed in the present political situation of Japan. This is what the whole nation expects of them. The Government is determined to carry on faithfully its policies indispensable at this time with the conviction and expectation stated above. We earnestly require the full co-operation of the people and their whole-

hearted sympathy with the intention of the Government.

This statement 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 Genro, Prince Saionji, the President of Privy Council Baron Hiranuma and the

Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals Mr. Yuasa unitedly recommended Konoé to the Throne on the first of June, 1937. Late in the afternoon, Prince Konoé was granted an audience in the Imperial Palace and received the Imperial Order for the formation of a new cabinet.

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. He is young, being 46 years old, and has but one defect, that of physical weakness.

The formation of the new cabinet went on smoothly in favourable circumstances. Prince Konoé was successful in the first place in persuading the War 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 Mr. 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, Mr. Ryutaro Nagai, Chief Secretary of the Minseito, to be Minister of Communications, and Mr. Chikuhei Nakajima, one of the four members of the Acting-Presidential Board of the Seiyukai, to be Minister of Railways.

The Konoé Cabinet was formally inaugurated in the presence of His Majesty the Emperor at the Phoenix Hall of the Imperial Palace, at half past three in the afternoon of the fifth of June, 1937. The 13 members of the Konoé Cabinet were:

Premier,
Minister for Foreign Affairs,
Minister for Home Affairs,
Minister of Finance,
Minister of War,
Minister of Marine,
Minister of Justice,
Minister of Education,

Prince Fumimaro Konoé, President of the House of Peers
Mr. Koki Hirota, M.H.P., former Premier
Dr. Eiichi Baba, M.H.P., former Minister of Finance
Mr. Okinori Kaya, former Vice-Minister of Finance
General Gen Sugiyama, who held the same portfolio in the Hayashi Cabinet
Admiral Mitsunasa Yonai, who held the same portfolio in the Hayashi Cabinet
Mr. Suehiko Satono, who held the same portfolio in the Hayashi Cabinet
Mr. Eiichi Yasui, Governor of Osaka Prefecture

Minister of Agriculture and Forestry,	Count Yoriyasu Arima, M.H.P., Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Central Cheat for Co-operative Societies
Minister of Commerce and Industry,	Mr. Shinji Yoshino, former Vice-Minister of Commerce and Industry
Minister of Communications,	Mr. Ryutaro Nagai, M.H.R., Chief-Secretary of the Minseito
Minister of Railways,	Mr. Chikuhei Nakajima, M.H.R., Member of the Acting-Presidential Board of the Seiyukai
Minister for Overseas Affairs,	Mr. Sonyu Ohtani, M.H.P.

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 defence 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 programme 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.

Birth of a New Party The formation of a party, either entirely new or by the amalgamation of radical elements in the Minseito and the Seiyukai or by the supposed disruption of the Seiyukai, had been much talked about in the last two years. But, the unity of members of these two leading parties was much stronger than was supposed by many, and became much more so after the dissolution of the House of Representatives in March, this year. Therefore, eminent figures in the political world who it had been presumed would assume the presidency of the new party made no move in that direction.

In the meantime, the Seiji Kakushin Kyogikai or the Political Reform Council began a movement for the formation of a new party, and held, on July 8, a preparative meeting of ten committee men including Genkuro Eto, Katsumaro Akamatsu, Shiro Koike and Tsunekichi Yamazaki. At the meeting it was decided that the name of the new party should be the Nippon Kakushinto (the Nippon Reform Party), and programmes were prepared for holding the inaugural meeting on the 18th at the Shiba Kyocho Kaikan (Shiba Hall of the Capital and Labour Harmonizing Council) and for beginning activities with a lecture

meeting to be held on the 21st at the Hibiya Public Hall.

The proposed general meeting for the organization of the Party was held as scheduled, when representatives of member bodies gathered together from all parts of Japan including the four members of the House of Representatives, Genkuro Eto, Katsumaro Akamatsu, Shiro Koike and Tsunekichi Yamazaki. The meeting passed decisions on the general principle and policies of the party as follows:

General Principle. The Nippon Kakushinto aims at the manifestation of the true Nippon in accordance with the principle of her national polity.

Policies (1) The establishment of a constitutional government and administrative system unique to Japan; (2) the establishment of a national planned economy based on its unification through peace and war times; (3) the unification of industry and economy in Japan and Manchoukuo; (4) the establishment of fundamental readjustment policies for national and local finances; (5) the completion of the provisions for national defence and the programme of national mobilization; (6) the establishment of an international policy in accordance with Imperial Justice; (7) the establishment of an educational system and means in accordance with Japanese principles; (8) the re-establishment and creation of national culture in accordance with Japanese principles; (9) the institution of measures for the elevation of the national physical standard; and (10) the establishment of policies for the relief of poverty-stricken people.

Officials of the party were appointed as follows: Chairman of the General Committee, Genkuro Eto; Chief for the Party Affairs, Katsumaro Akamatsu; General Committee, Shiro Koike, Tsunekichi Yamazaki, Itcho Sasai, Tatsuo Tsukui, Kyuzo Takayama, Hyozo Kanda, I. Ishibashi and Katsumaro Akamatsu; Chief of the Policy Investigation Council, Itcho Sasai.

The 71st Session of the Imperial Diet

The 71st extraordinary session of the Imperial Diet was convened on 25th of July, 1937, the opening ceremony being honoured 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 War 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 ¥19,600,000, 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 the 8th of August, 1937.

The Board of Planning The Imperial Ordinance authorizing the formation of the Board of Planning, and ordering the abolition of the Board of Investigation, was promulgated on May 14, 1937. On the same day, the new Board embarked on its important mission with the appointment of a President, a Vice-President, and other officials.

According to Article I of the Ordinance the functions of the Board are

(1) To make recommendations to the Cabinet, acting on the instruction of the Prime Minister. With pertinent observa-

tions, both in regard to important national policies and to their co-ordination and adjustment.

(2) To investigate the important policies proposed to the Cabinet by its Ministers and to make recommendations based on due observation of them. Policies proposed by different Departments are referred to the Board, which is to study them in the light of their importance, and investigate them from the point of view of the unity and harmony of all national policies.

(3) To investigate important policies, and to study the means of co-ordinating and adjusting them.

(4) To make recommendations concerning control over budget estimates on proposed policies.

(5) To have authority to call for explanations or explanatory data such as deemed necessary for carrying out its functions outlined above.

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 Peiping, 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. (See Chapter VI.)

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 ut-

most sacrifice both on the war and the home front.

Political Parties The year was one of inertia for all political parties. They had no time to indulge in expositions of their ideas and ideals for the situation called for united action and they were not slow to co-operate with the Government in all important matters, while the radical factions readily changed their views in conformity with the general trend of thought among the people who strongly felt the need for united action on the continent.

At the end of 1936 and the beginning

of 1937 the political parties were tending toward a revival of the situation which prevailed before the February 26 affair of 1936, especially in regard to foreign relations. But events came thick and fast and the political parties could do little to influence their course. There was at first General Ugaki's failure to form a cabinet, followed by the doings of the Hayashi Cabinet which was a going-back to old bureaucracy, and finally the formation of the Konoé Cabinet, which was acclaimed by the whole country. Even the result of the 20th general election in April, 1937, which ended in the victory of the existing political parties against the Hayashi Cabinet failed to give them a full chance for regaining their power. The new parties the birth of which had been much heralded by some groups proved equally unsuccessful. The rightists showed some activities outside the Diet, but could not gain any power, nor could the leftist parties, although one of them was successful in obtaining more seats in the Diet. With the outbreak of the incident most of the political movements of the proletariat parties were completely suppressed by the Government.

The talk of reorganizing the Seiyukai and the Minseito went on throughout the year, but the preoccupation with the problems relating to the incident has made the realization of this object difficult till now. In the 73rd session of the Diet political parties expressed strong criticisms on such important bills as the National Mobilization Bill, the Electric Power Bill and the Budget for 1938-39, but these bills were finally passed without material amendment.

Movement of Bureaucrats The failure of the Hirota Cabinet and the Hayashi Cabinet in renovating the administrative system meant the inability of the bureaucratic elements to rise to the national requirements. With the birth of the Konoé Cabinet which was formed in the spirit of a coalition of all the representative political elements in the country, the bureaucrats withdrew from the front ranks and assumed a proper attitude of obedience to and co-operation with the Cabinet.

The submissive attitude of the political parties and the withdrawal of the bureaucrats were the direct outcome of the situation which demanded complete national solidarity in attaining the national goal of defeating the Kuomintang Government and establishing a permanent peace in East Asia and creating a new Japan. National union and national mobilization should

be more difficult to achieve today than in the days of the Russo-Japanese War because the country is much greater now than it was 30 years ago, her international relations are much wider and more complicated, her people more educated and her economic system much more complex. But the traditional spirit of patriotism is ever the strongest factor in the Japanese national life and it is as a result of its call that the people have submerged all minor interests and differences of opinions in the greater need of the times.

Governmental Achievement As to the changes of the Hirota and Hayashi cabinets and the formation of the Konoé Cabinet mention has been made in foregoing pages, together with a description of the beginning of the China Affair up to August, 1937.

The attention of the Government since August, 1937, has been centred on planning and putting into effect all the necessary measures for carrying out Japan's purpose in relation to the China Affair, and all such measures have been passed by the Diet with little or no amendment.

In October, 1937, the Government organized the Cabinet Advisory Council by Imperial sanction, 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 Kazushige Ugaki
General Baron Sadao Araki
Admiral Baron Kiyokazu Abo
Admiral Nobumasa Suetsugu
Chuji Machida of the Minseito
Yonezo Maeda of the Seiyukai
Kiyoshi Akita, M. H. R.
Baron Seinosuké Go
Seihin Ikeda
Yosuké Matsuoka

Most of the pending problems of improvement in domestic, administrative and social affairs were postponed. In view of the importance of promoting the health and welfare of the people, the Government decided to establish the "Ko-Sei Sho" or a new Department of Health and Social Affairs; and for the purpose of power mobilization the Government presented the Electric Power Control Bill to the 73rd session of the Diet, and succeeded in getting its approval thereto, with some important amendments.

In December, 1937, Dr. Eiichi Baba, Minister for Home Affairs, resigned ow-

ing to illness and died shortly after in the same month. The portfolio was assumed by Admiral Nobumasa Suetsugu.

In January, May and June, 1938, a thorough reorganization of the Konoé Cabinet took place with the resignation of Koki Hirota, Minister for Foreign Affairs, Okinori Kaya, Minister of Finance, Shinji Yoshino, Minister of Commerce and Industry, Sonyu Otani, Minister for Overseas Affairs, and General Gen Sugiyama, Minister of War, who were replaced by General Kazushige Ugaki, as Foreign Minister and concurrently Overseas Minister, Seihin Ikeda, as Finance Minister and concurrently Commerce and Industry Minister, Lieutenant-General Seishiro Itagaki, as War Minister, while Marquis Koichi Kido who had assumed the Portfolios of Education and Health and Social Affairs concurrently was released from the responsibility of Education and General Baron Sadao Araki was given the Portfolio of Education.

The important policies of the Government were best explained in the ministerial speeches given at the 72nd and 73rd sessions of the Diet.

The 72nd Session of the Imperial Diet

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. At the opening ceremony of the session on September 4, His Majesty the Emperor granted the following Imperial Message to the Diet:

"We hereby open the Imperial Diet and address Ourselves to the members of the House of Peers and of the House of Representatives.

"It has been Our constant desire that Our Empire and the Republic of China should work in unison in order to ensure the stability of East Asia, and thus attain the common prosperity of Our respective nations. The Republic of China, however, falling utterly to understand the true intentions of Our Empire, indulged in wilful acts of provocation, giving rise at last to the present state of affairs. This is indeed a source of regret to Us.

"Now in the face of manifold difficulties, Our armed forces are discharging their duty with loyalty and valour, to no other end than that of urging the Republic of China

to reflect on its attitude, so that peace may be speedily restored in East Asia.

"It is Our wish, in view of the present extraordinary situation, that Our subjects, united in their faithful service to the State and in their devotion to the Throne, will seek to achieve the purpose of the Empire.

"We have instructed the Ministers of State to introduce to the Imperial Diet the urgent additional budgetary and legislative bills. We command you to strive, in conformity with Our wish, to perform to the fullest measure your appointed task of harmonious deliberation and collaboration."

On September 5, the Prime Minister and other ministers gave addresses to the Diet, explaining the policies and measures of the Government mostly in connection with the present China Affair.

Prime Minister Prince Konoé's Address In his opening address before the Diet, Prince Konoé, after referring to the Imperial message, went on to explain the Government's policy, as follows:

Since the outbreak of the affair in North China on July 7, the fundamental policy of the Japanese Government toward China has been simply and purely to seek the reconsideration of the Chinese Government and the abandonment of its erroneous anti-Japanese policies, with the view of making a basic readjustment in relations between Japan and China. This policy has never undergone a change; even today it remains the same. The Japanese Government has endeavoured to save the situation by preventing aggravation of the incident and by limiting its scope. This has been repeatedly enunciated.

The Chinese Government not only failed to understand the true motives of the Japanese Government, but have increasingly aroused a spirit of contempt and have offered resistance toward Japan, taking advantage of the patience of our Government. Thus, by the outburst of uncontrolled national sentiment, the situation has fast been aggravated, spreading in scope to Central and South China. And now, our Government, which has been patient to the utmost, has acknowledged the impossibility of settling the incident passively and locally, and has been forced to deal a firm and decisive blow against the Chinese Government in an active and comprehensive manner.

In point of fact, for one country to adopt as its national policy the antagonizing of and the showing of contempt for some particular country, and to make these the underlying principle of national education by implanting such ideas in the minds of the young, is unprecedented in the history of the world. When we consider the outcome of such policies on the part of China, we feel grave concern not only for the future of Sino-Japanese relations, but for the peace of the Orient and consequently for the peace of the entire world. The Japanese Government has repeatedly requested the Chinese Government to reconsider and to change its attitude, but all in vain. This failure of the Chinese Government has finally caused the present affair. We firmly believe that it is in accordance with the right of self-defence as well as with the cause of righteousness and humanity that our country has determined to give a decisive blow to such a Government, so that it may reflect upon the errors of its ways. For the peoples of East Asia, there can be no happiness without a just peace in this part of the world. The Chinese people themselves by no means form the objective of our actions, which objective is directed against the Chinese Government and its army who are carrying out such erroneous, anti-foreign policies. If, therefore, the Chinese Government truly and fully re-examines its attitude and in real sincerity makes endeavours for the establishment of peace and for the development of culture in the Orient in collaboration with our country, our Empire intends to press no further.

At the present moment the sole measure for the Japanese Empire to adopt is to administer a thoroughgoing blow to the Chinese Army so that it may lose completely its will to fight. And if, at the same time, China fails to realize its mistakes and persists in its stubborn resistance, our Empire is fully prepared for protracted hostilities. Until we accomplish our great mission of establishing peace in the Orient, we must face many serious difficulties, and, in order to overcome them, we must proceed steadily with our task, adhering to the spirit of perseverance and fortitude in one united body.

Now that our Imperial Army and Navy, with their loyal officers and men, are advancing with all dignity in the cause of righteousness, exalting its might far and wide, we are filled with grateful emotion. Simultaneously, we feel highly encouraged to witness the

sincere support displayed throughout the length and breadth of the Empire.

The Government is hereby introducing to the Imperial Diet urgent budgetary and legislative measures. In these measures the Government seeks to adopt a financial and economic structure for coping with the present extraordinary situation.

The 73rd Session of the Imperial Diet

The 73rd session of the Imperial Diet was convened on December 24, 1937 and closed on March 27, 1938. The strength or representation of different organizations and parties in the Diet on the day of its opening was as follows:

House of Peers :	
Body Represented	Membership
Imperial Princes	17
Kenkyukai	162
Koseikai	66
Doseikai	23
Dowakai	33
Kayokai	43
Koyukai	34
Others	31
Total	409

Note : Vacancies 5.

House of Representatives :	
Party	Membership
Minseitō	178
Seiyūkai	173
The First Room Club	49
Social Mass	36
The Second Room Group	13
Tohokai	11
Others	3
Total	463

Note : Vacancies 3.

During the session discussions were centred round the National Mobilization Bill, the Electric Power Control Bill, and the bills for the increase of taxes. After lively debates and keen deliberations all of these epochmaking 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 Labour Exchange Law, for the establishment of the central funds for pensioned and salaried men.

Premier Prince Konoé's Address The gist of the address delivered on January 22, 1938, by Prince Konoé, Premier, was as follows:

Japan's immutable national policy aims at building the edifice of permanent peace for East Asia on the unshakable foundation of close co-operation between Japan, Manchoukuo and China, and to contribute thereby to the cause of world peace. The adoption some time ago of our determined policy not to deal with the obdurate Kuomintang Government of China, and the exertion of ceaseless efforts towards the cultivation of friendly relations with the Powers, have been both dictated by this policy of the Government. We all rejoice for the sake of world peace that the tripartite Anti-Comintern Agreement between Japan, Germany, and Italy was completed through the participation of Italy last fall.

It is now more than half a year since the commencement of the present conflict. The fields of hostilities have been extended from North China to Central and South China. The valorous and daring operations of the Imperial forces have brought us victory after victory. Nanking, the Chinese Capital, quickly fell into our hands. The situation is developing most favourably for Japan. While this is, of course, due to the August Virtue of our Sovereign, I am profoundly grateful for the loyalty and courage of the officers and men of the Imperial forces at the front and for the ardour and enthusiasm of all our people at home.

Now the Government look forward to the emergence of a new Chinese régime which may really be counted upon to co-operate with Japan, and with such a régime they intend to adjust the Sino-Japanese relations and lend their hands in the rehabilitation of China, and in laying firmly thereby the foundation for a permanent peace of East Asia. There will be no change in Japan's policy to respect the sovereignty and territorial integrity of China and the legitimate rights and interests of third Powers in China.

The mission of Japan as the stabilizing force of East Asia is greater and her obligations have grown heavier than ever. In order to fulfil this mis-

sion, and to discharge these obligations of ours, we must certainly be prepared to make hereafter still greater sacrifices than we have made heretofore. But unless we resolve to do this, we only lay in store misfortunes for the future. I believe that to bear such sacrifices is a noble duty that we of the present generation owe to posterity.

It is under a conviction such as this that our Government are striving with all their might to deal with the China Affair and to achieve the end they have in view. And for that they are working for the completion of the plans for the national mobilization both material and spiritual, and the execution of the various necessary measures. The Government realize the first necessity of replenishing armaments and filling the national treasury, and accordingly, emphasis has been placed on this point in regulating our country's economy and finances. As regards the budget for the coming fiscal year, it has been so compiled as to devote as much money and material as possible to the fulfilment of military requirements, and to curtail as far as possible the general consumption of the goods and funds having to do with military supplies.

In the field of industry, the basic principle of the Government will be laid in the increase of our nation's productive power under the one comprehensive scheme covering Japan, Manchoukuo and China, and efforts are to be exerted toward supplying the articles needed for national defence, promoting all the important industries, and expanding our export trade.

As for our work at the home front, not only will everything be done to keep our officers and men at the front free from all anxieties for those at home, but suitable and effective measures will be taken to provide for the relief of the families of those killed, wounded, or taken ill.

Far distant still is the end of the conflict. We should expect that it will be a long time before a settlement is reached. Ours is indeed a momentous task unparalleled in history. We shall never succeed in accomplishing the task unless all of us show the dauntless spirit of gladly and courageously offering ourselves to our country. Let me assure you that the Government, with patience and perseverance and a resolute will, expect to reach a settlement of the affair.

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Political Affairs in 1938 and 1939

League of Nations and Japan The Council of the League of Nations adopted China's appeal for the invocation of Article XVII of the League Covenant and sent an invitation to Japan on September 19, 1938, but the latter declined to accept the invitation on September 22.

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. The portfolio was concurrently assumed by Premier Konoé.

Capture of Canton and Hankow Japanese forces succeeded in landing at Bias Bay, in South China, in face of the enemy, on October 12, 1938, and entered the city of Canton, on October 21, 1938. The Japanese attack of South China effectively surprised the Kuomintang Government and Chinese armies in Hankow, and Japanese troops captured a part of Hankow on October 25, 1938, without receiving material resistance, and the three cities of Wuchang, Hankow and Hanyang were completely occupied by Japanese army and navy on October 27, 1938.

New Ministers Installed Mr. Hachiro Arita who had been the Foreign Minister in the Hirota Cabinet in 1936, was appointed again Foreign Minister, and Mr. Yoshiaki Hata was installed as Overseas Minister on October 29, 1938.

War-time Financial and Economic Measures During the months after September, the Government was fully occupied with the war-time 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 con-

trol 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 labour 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 present 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.

Statement of the Government On November 3, 1938, the Government made a statement concerning the future of East Asia. The gist of the statement follows:

What Japan seeks is the establishment of a new order which will insure the permanent stability of East Asia. In this lies the ultimate purpose of our present military campaign.

This new order has for its foundation a tripartite relationship of mutual aid and co-ordination between Japan, Manchoukuo and China in political, economic, cultural and other fields. Its object is to secure international justice, to perfect the joint defence against Communism, and to create a new culture and realize a close economic cohesion throughout East Asia.

What Japan desires of China is that that country will share in the task of bringing about this new order in East Asia. She confidently expects that the people of China will fully comprehend her true intentions and that they will respond to the call of Japan for their cooperation. Even the participation of the Kuomintang Government would not be rejected, if, repudiating the policy which has guided it in the past and remoulding its personnel, so as to translate its re-birth into fact, it were to come forward to join in the establishment of the new order.

Japan is confident that other Powers will on their part correctly appreciate her aims and policy and adapt their attitude to the new conditions prevailing in East Asia. For the cordiality hitherto manifested by the nations which are in sympathy with us, Japan wishes to express her profound gratitude.

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 destruc-

tion 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. Allow me to state that no country is better aware than Japan of the ardent national aspirations of the Chinese, nor feels more keenly the need that China shall vindicate her position as a completely independent state.

It is an historical necessity that the three great neighbour 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 fulfilment 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, re-

mould its personnel and offer to join in the work as a thoroughly regenerated régime.

The nations of the world must surely be able to comprehend these new developments in East Asia. It is undisputed history that China heretofore has been a victim of the rivalry between Powers whose imperialistic ambitions have constantly imperilled her tranquillity and independence. Japan realizes the need of fundamentally rectifying such a state of affairs and she is eager to see a new order established in East Asia—a new structure of peace based on true justice.

Japan is in no way opposed to collaboration with foreign Powers, nor does she desire to impair their legitimate rights and interests. If the Powers, understanding her true motives, will formulate policies adapted to the new conditions, Japan will be glad to cooperate with them. Japan's zeal for stamping out Communism is well known. The aim of the Comintern is to sovietize the Orient and to overturn the world. Japan is firmly determined to eradicate the communistic influence which is behind the so-called "long-term resistance" of the Chiang régime. Germany and Italy, our allies against Communism, have manifested their sympathies with Japan's aims in East Asia and we are profoundly grateful for the great encouragement that their moral support has given our nation during this crisis. In the present emergency, it is necessary for Japan not only to strengthen still further her ties with those countries but also to collaborate with them on the basis of a common world outlook in the reconstruction of world order.

December Statement 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 follows:

The Japanese Government is resolved, as has been clearly set forth in its two previous statements issued this year, to carry on the military operations for the complete extermination of the anti-Japanese Kuomintang Government, and at the same time to proceed with the work of establishing a new order in East Asia together with those far-sighted Chinese who share in our ideas and aspirations.

The spirit of renaissance is now

sweeping over all parts of China and enthusiasm for reconstruction is mounting ever higher. The Japanese Government desires to make public its basic policy for adjusting relations between Japan and China, in order that its intentions may be thoroughly understood both at home and abroad.

Japan, China and Manchoukuo will be united by the common aim of establishing the new order in East Asia and of realizing a relationship of neighbourly amity, common defence against Communism, and economic cooperation. For that purpose it is necessary first of all that China should cast aside all narrow and prejudiced views belonging to the past and do away with the folly of anti-Japanism, and resentment regarding Manchoukuo. In other words, Japan frankly desires China to enter of her own will into complete diplomatic relations with Manchoukuo.

The existence of the Comintern influence in East Asia can not be tolerated. Japan therefore considers it an essential condition of the adjustment of the Sino-Japanese relations that there should be concluded an anti-Comintern agreement between the two countries in consonance with the spirit of the anti-Comintern Agreement between Japan, Germany and Italy. And in order to ensure the full accomplishment of her purpose, Japan demands, in view of the actual circumstances prevailing in China, that Japanese troops be stationed, as an anti-Communist measure, at specified points during the time the said agreement is in force, and also that the Inner Mongolian region be designated as a special anti-Communist area.

As regards economic relations between the two countries, Japan does not intend to exercise economic monopoly in China, nor does she intend to demand of China to limit the interests of those third Powers, who grasp the meaning of the new East Asia and are willing to act accordingly. Japan only seeks to render effective the cooperation and collaboration between the two countries. That is to say, Japan demands that China, in accordance with the principle of equality between the two countries, should recognize the freedom of residence and trade on the part of Japanese subjects in the interior of China, with a view to promoting the economic interests of both peoples; and that, in the light of the historical and economic relations between the two nations, China should extend to Japan facilities for the development of China's

natural resources, especially in the regions of North China and Inner Mongolia.

The above gives the general lines of what Japan demands of China. If the true object of Japan in conducting the present vast military campaign be fully understood, it will be plain that what she seeks is neither territory nor indemnity for the cost of military operations. Japan demands only the minimum guarantee needed for the execution by China of her function as a participant in the establishment of the new order.

Japan not only respects the sovereignty of China, but she is prepared to give positive consideration to the questions of the abolition of extra-territoriality and of the rendition of concessions and settlements—matters which are necessary for the full independence of China.

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 are 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.

On January 16, 1939, the Foreign Office spokesman made a statement on the participation of Manchoukuo and Hungary, in which he said, "It is a significant development in the international situation that at the beginning of the year Manchoukuo and Hungary, complying to the joint invitation made by

Japan, Germany and Italy, the three original signatories, have expressed their intention of participating in the Anti-Comintern Agreement. The Comintern is the common enemy of mankind, scheming as it does for the obliteration of the history and culture and the destruction of the order of every nation. It is quite natural, therefore, that the existence of this subversive organization cannot be tolerated in any region of the world, and that all Powers, acting in cooperation, are determined to bring about its extinction. The Comintern previously attempted to bolshevize Spain and Central Europe, but it was expelled by Germany and Italy. In Great Britain and France also it camouflaged itself under the guise of democracy and agitating the left wing elements, schemed to bring about the bolshevization of those countries. As a result, it incurred the strong animosity of these Powers; and Anti-Comintern sentiment throughout Europe is gaining strength. Hungary has now come forward to join the Anti-Comintern pact.

In East Asia Japan was the first to undertake the task of safeguarding against the Communist menace. Now, with Manchoukuo about to join in the agreement, the anti-Comintern front extending over Europe and Asia has been given new strength. Japan, which has assumed the great task of establishing a new order in East Asia, warmly welcomes the addition of two strong links in the East and West in the pact to exterminate the Comintern menace. We firmly believe that the participation of Hungary and Manchoukuo will lead to the adherence by other Powers, who share our views, in the anti-Comintern agreement."

The participation of Spain in the Agreement was announced on April 8, 1939, and the statement of the Foreign Office spokesman was as follows:

"Spain, reborn under the leadership of General Francisco Franco, has formally participated in the Anti-Comintern Agreement of which Japan, Germany and Italy are original signatories. At a time when the political situation in Europe is in confusion, it is indeed significant that Spain has joined the front against Comintern. The Comintern, which failed utterly in its efforts to bolshevize Germany and Italy in previous years, laid the front line in Spain for the bolshevization of all of Europe. As a result, Spain was divided into two opposing factions, with bitter tragedies enacted as Spaniard fought Spaniard and brother fought brother. Although