

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

(4) Industrial Art. The ceramic industry made rapid advancement after the arrival of Wagner from Germany with a new technique; and with the help of Kozan Miyagawa, Yohei Kiyokazé, Dohachi Takahashi, Rokubei Shimizu and Sobei Kinkozan. In recent years Hazan Itaya, Rokubei Shimizu and Ichiga Numata have won distinction in this sphere of art. During the Meiji era, fine cloisonné was manufactured and exported in abundance. Metal work also developed to a remarkable extent, producing a number of skilled artists. In the domain of lacquer and dying industries no less improvement brought Japanese indus-

trial art to the verge of its golden age.

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

(5) Sculpture. Upon opening the Tokyo Fine Art Academy, Kyuichi Takeuchi and Koun Takamura gave lessons in traditional Japanese wood sculpture. Western style sculpture was also taught, by an Italian instructor in the academy, side by side with lessons from Shukei Naganuma who had returned from Italy, followed by Fumio Asakura, Taimu Tatehata, Seibo Kitamura. From Koun Takamura and Kyuichi Takeuchi we come down to Choun Yamasaki, Unkai Yonehara, Denchu Hirakushi, Shin Naito. In the Meiji era the rise of ivory carving was also conspicuous, producing engravers like Gyokuzan Asahi and Komyo Ishikawa.

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

#### Present Day Art

The period since the close of the Meiji era has been no less remarkable in the art history of Japan than the previous period, evincing brilliant activity in every direction. Since 1919, when the Imperial Art Academy was established, a systematic movement in the art world of Japan has been promoted. During the Taisho and Showa eras many

institutions and organizations have been created, and new schools successively introduced from Western countries, especially from France, Germany, and Italy. Western-style painting, coming first under the sway of French impressionism, and later passing through many stages of European influence, has produced vigorous and progressive artists who are thinking hard and exploring the furthest reaches of European pictorial thought. They have already reached the level of their Occidental benefactors, in technique. At a time when all the visual arts, if not all others as well, seem to be aspiring towards Occidental ideals of art, it must yet be noticed that our native art traditions are still retained, and characterize all works of purely Japanese fine art, with its classical rhythm and beauty.

**Japanese-style Painting** There are now in this country various exhibitions of Japanese-style paintings held by many institutes, wherein members are always seeking to achieve a more perfect expression of their ideals through traditional form and long-fostered technique. In the earliest stages of modern Japanese art, Kakuzo Okakura and other leaders, entertained this ideal, along with a number of artists and art societies, as well as such pioneers in our art-world as Hogaï Kano or Gyokusho Kawabata; and they joined efforts in the development of this school. Recently the art produced by their efforts has, in other hands, begun to degenerate into merely lifeless, mechanical work; and Western realism, instead of the old traditional method, is gaining gradual influence among painters. But in spite of the struggle between Orientalism and Occidentalism in technique, the art workers in Japanese style are still vigorous.

The "Teiten" or Imperial Fine

Art Academy Exhibition, which includes various Sections of Fine Art, in 1931 celebrated the 25th anniversary of its establishment. As the only art exhibition under management of the Government, it has, since its foundation, been exerting a profound effect upon this sphere of art, along with the Institute of Japanese Art (Nihon Bijutsuin), which is a private institution established specially for Japanese-style paintings. This was organized in 1898 under direction of Kakuzo Okakura and Gaho Hashimoto. These two institutes have continued to hold an exhibition every year. They have given birth to works of admirable achievement and merit, under such masters as Seiho Takeuchi, Taikan Yokoyama, Eikyu Matsuoka, and Hyakusui Hirafuku, all of whom are contributors to the native school.

On the other hand, there are other painters who also produce extremely creditable work, bringing out the profundity of the Oriental spirit and rising high above the conflict between Japanese traditionalism and Western realism. They are all grouped in organizations. Seison Maeda, Yukihiro Yasuda, Usen Ogawa, Sofu Nagano and Reimei Mamichi belong to the Nihon Bijutsuin; and Somei Yuki, Eikyu Matsuoka, Tsusen Ogiu, Ren Yamada, Shokin Katsuta, Nanyo Inui, Katsuji Koizumi, Ryuko Tsutaya, Gengetsu Yazawa and Saiten Tamura comprise the Japanese Painting Society (Nihon Gakai).

In the Kansai district, the Free Painting Society of Japan (Nihon-Jiyugadan) was organized by certain artists grouped in Kyoto, which has in itself special significance for lovers of genuine Japanese art. The members are Keisen Ikeda, Bunto Hayashi, Keigaku Nishi, Kokan Watanabé, Shunki Tamaya, Manshu Ueda and other painters. The num-

ber of talented painters is too numerous to mention, but the following are well known: Buzan Kimura, Yukihiko Yasuda, Kokei Kobayashi, Insho Domoto, Kwansetsu Hashimoto, Heihachiro Fukuda, Seison Mayeda, Shokan Taichi, Keisen Tomita, Gakuryo Nakamura, Kampo Arai, Koka Yamamura, Tokan Fudeya, Sofu Nagano, Seisui Hashimoto, Usen Ogawa, Tsunetomi Kitano, Gyoshu Hayamizu, Koichiro Kondo, Seiju Komoda, Eiho Hashimoto, Kahaku Kobayashi, Chiyuki Sakikura, Nampu Katayama, Sanryo Sakai, Fudo Tomitori, Taigetsu Koyama, Taigyū Okuma, Kiyokata Kaburagi, Fumio Tanaka, Ryushi Kawabata, Toyoshiro Fukuda, Issō Sakaguchi, Rofu Ochiai, Shampa Kawaguchi, and Keimei Anzai.

**Western-style Painting** It is not too much to say that the striking progress of Western-style painting is chiefly owing to the efforts of the Nikakai members, who, dissatisfied with the purely academic tendency of the Imperial Fine Art Academy, freed themselves from its restraint, and organized a society of their own. The Nikakai was organized in 1913 by an active group of rising painters of fresh and advanced ideas, the members being Ikuma Arishima, Yuzo Fujikawa, Hakutei Ishii, Moriichi Kumagai, Jutarō Kuroda, Tokusaburo Masamuné, Katsuyuki Nabei, Kigen Nakagawa, Hanjiro Sakamoto, Shintaro Yamashita, Sotaro Yasui, Haruyé Koga, Seifu Tsuda, Seiji Togo, and foreign painters, André L'Hôte and Zadikine. In 1922 was founded the Shunyokai by Misei Kosugi and other artists who had formerly been associated with the Western-style painting Section of the Institute of Japanese Art, but who had seceded from it, together with Ryuzaburo Umehara. The other members are Hakuyo Kurata, Noboru Hasegawa, Kanaé Yama-

moto, Gen-ichiro Adachi, Shohachi Kimura, Tsuruzo Ishii and Ippei Okamoto. The Pacific Art Society, the oldest Western-art organization of the Meiji era, was established in 1905, and with them instruction in Western-style painting was first begun. Toraji Ishikawa, Banka Maruyama, and Kunishiro Mitsutani were conspicuous collaborators.

The Kaijusha was formed in 1924, supported by such able painters as Juji Kanazawa, Itaru Tanabé, So-shichi Takama, Sakujiro Okubo, Yoshihiko Kumaoka, Yori Saito and other artists.

In 1930 the Independent Art Association was founded by certain extremists in the art-world, like Katsuzo Satomi, Zenzaburo Kojima, and nine other members of the Nikakai, who had been dissatisfied with the mannerism of that society and left it. The new body consisted of 13 congenial artists, who aimed at working for a new art movement, by opening up a fresh course for students of Western-style. The painters of note in this group are Moriichi Kumagai, Kinzo Kuniyeda, Haruyé Koga, Tokusaburo Masamuné, Katsuyuki Nabei, Kigen Nakagawa, Hanjiro Sakamoto, Seifu Tsuda, Reichi Yokoi, Giken Kinoshita, Kanemitsu Hamada, Shogo Taguchi, Genichiro Adachi, Noboru Hasegawa, Shohachi Kimura, Misei Kosugi, Hakuyo Kurata, Issei Nakagawa, Ippei Okamoto, Zennosuké Tanaka, Shozo Yamazaki, Kanayé Yamamoto, Kotaro Takamura, Sadao Tsubaki and Tsusei Kono.

In addition to these societies, there are some minor organizations such as the Hakujitsu-Kai, the Japanese Painting Society (Nihongakai), the Creative Print Association of Japan, and the National Art Association, all of them no less remarkable than the Societies previously mentioned.

**Sculpture** For the promotion of plastic art, there are many organizations which contain, each of them, sculptors of distinction. Besides the "Teiten" and the "Nikakai" which have also Sculpture Sections, there is the "Kozosha", organized in 1926, for study in the various branches of plastic art. It is supported by Sogan Saito, Jitsuzo Hinako, Saburo Hamada, Miézo Shimizu, Kanji Yo, Taménari Hirai, Minato Kozu, Takézo Sato and other artists. It can hardly be denied that this sphere of art, on the whole, does not show such brilliant activity as other similar organizations.

Other sculptors of note are Denchu Hirakushi, Hakurēi Yoshida, Chozan Sato, Koyu Fujii, Tsuruzo Ishii, Ryumon Yasuda, Takéshiro Kita and Takézo Shinkai.

**Applied Art** Our applied arts have developed in their own way, giving birth to many works of really admirable craftsmanship, some being of more artistic merit than those of Europe. At every exhibition, various branches of applied art are represented. Many artists, some using all their traditional technique, or others creating wholly new forms, are striving to satisfy the demands of present-day life. The Fine Art Association of Japan is a leading organization, having Hozuma Katori, Kéigi Nakata, Choun Yamazaki, Shunzan Yagioka, Hiromi Minakami, as directors.

Other prominent artists in this sphere are: Nobuo Tsuda, Kamézo Shimizu, Shisui Musumi, Eiichi Ishida, Kiyoshi Unno, Séizan Kawamura, Kanémi Uyématsu, Sozan Sawada, Tozan Ito, Shuetsu Sakita, Senroku Kitahara, Shodo Sasaki, Hēizo Tatumura, Andon Yamamoto, Séika Yamaga, Kozan Miyakawa, Ichiga Numata, Kanjiro Kawai, Yoséi Tsuchiaki, Joun Oshima, Hankichi

Kiuchi, Hoshu Takamura, Kado Sugita, Hakusai Okuni, Shumin Funabashi, Koshun Katsura, Gonroku Matsuda, Ryushin Umézawa, Séimi Yotsuya, Mia Isozaki, Ryuzan Ishino and Chibun Onojima.

**Architecture** After the earthquake and fire of 1923, Tokyo and other cities witnessed the erection of many new buildings; and almost all these structures reveal a lively modernism under the influence of European styles, though some are more or less marked by national-classical characteristics. At present, Japan has acquired the modern mentality for steel and reinforced concrete; and many buildings in Japanese cities are as large and expensive as those in America. On the other hand a dozen or more able architects are thinking out greater possibilities in the adoption of newer European styles of architecture. Already in the new Mitsui Bank and the Mitsubishi Bank, as well as in many other new buildings, Japan can show imposing examples of architecture unsurpassed for art and utility by any other country.

#### The 1934 Exhibitions

The 9th exhibition of the National Painters' Society was opened on April 22, 1934, in the Tokyo-fu Art Gallery. The number of paintings sent in for examination reached 1,738 (Western painting 1,064; block colour-print 223; industrial art 298; and sculpture 153). The accepted works were 232 or Western painting 64, block colour-print 26, industrial art 115, and sculpture 27. There were found 34 new persons among the accepted.

The submitted works to the Shunyo-kai Art Exhibition which was opened on April 21, 1934, in the Tokyo-fu Art Gallery in Ueno Park numbered 1,800, of which 230 were accepted. Among the 31 new paint-

ers the name of Mr. Salvatolle Melzeh was found.

The 21st Nika-kai exhibition was opened on September 3, in the Tokyo-fu Art Gallery at Ueno. The number of works submitted was 4,033 (3,868 Western paintings and 165 sculptures). The number of Western paintings accepted was 376 and that of sculptures 39. Among new admissions there were two Chinese young painters, Li and Kwan who were born in Shanghai.

The 21st Nihon Bijutsuin Exhibition (Inten) was opened on the same day and in the same building with the Nika-kai, the number of works submitted was 812, of which 51 (23 new) Japanese paintings and 54 (8 new) sculptures were accepted.

Inten and Nika both closed their exhibitions on October 4. The continuous rain, quite unusual for the season of the year, held back visitors.

The total number of visitors to the former was 45,000, decreasing 7,000 as compared with the previous year, while that of the latter was 30,000, decreasing 6,000. The number of works sold was correspondingly small, i. e. 16 in the Inten Exhibition and 6 in the Nika.

The 15th Teiten (Imperial Academy of Fine Arts) Exhibition was opened on October 16 and closed on November 20, the résumé was as follows:

	Works submitted	Works accepted
Japanese painting	1,845	264 (48 new)
Western painting	3,398	225 (50 ..)
Sculpture	455	152 (22 ..)
Industrial art	1,097	214 (53 ..)
(Japanese sword)	(118)	(14)

#### Art Museums

A list of the more important art museums follows:

1. Tokyo Imperial Household Museum: Ueno Park, Tokyo; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m. Departments: Art and History. Officials. President: Eisaburo Sugi; Manager: Masaaki Yajima.
2. Imperial Household Museum at Nara: In Nara Park; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.; closed from Dec. 25 to Jan. 5. Departments: History and Art. Director: Gunichi Wada.
3. Kyoto Onshi Museum: In Shichijo, Kyoto; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.; closed from Dec. 25 to Jan. 5. Departments: Art and History. Officials. Director: Fujio Wada; Advisors: Torajiro Naito and Yasunosuké Seki.
4. Chokokan: In Uji Yamada, Mié. Director: Kotaro Sakamoto.
5. Reihokan: At Koya-san, Wakayama. Director: Chito Izumi.
6. Treasure house, Kanshin-ji: In Kanshin-ji-mura, Minami-Kawachi-gun, Osaka.
7. Treasure house, Koryuji: At Usumasa-mura, Kadono-gun, Kyoto.
8. Reihokan, Ninnaji: At Omoro, Kadono-gun, Kyoto.
9. Museum of the Faculty of Letters, Imperial University, in Kyoto.
10. Kankokan: in Hiroshima.
11. Treasure house of the Itsukushima Shrine: At Miyajima, Hiroshima.
12. Kokuhoan: at Kamakura.
13. Sanda Museum: at Sanda, Arima-gun, Hyogo.
14. Governmental Museum: at Seoul, Chosen. Manager: Ryosaku Fujita.
15. Keishu Museum: in Keishu-gun, Keisho-hokudo, Chosen. Manager: Hideo Moroshika.
16. Prince Li's Museum: in Seoul, Chosen.
17. Kanto-cho Museum: at Port Arthur, Kwantung Province. Director: Naomiki Hirose.

#### Music

##### The First Period

**Primitive Music** The development of Japanese music may be divided into four periods. The first period originates in prehistoric times and ends about the reign of the Empress Suiko (592-627 A. D.). This is the music of the ancient Japanese (Yamato), and is here named, for convenience, primitive music. To regard the music of this stage as primitive may seem inappropriate, because towards the close of the 6th century Yamato civilization had advanced quite beyond primitive culture. The word primitive is applied here because, although music should show some development of artistic form, no such form was known in the music of this period. Compared with the music of the period that followed, a striking difference is noticed.

##### The Second Period

**Introduction of Foreign Music** The second period started about the end of the Suiko régime in the 7th century, and continued till about the end of the Heian period, at the close of the 12th century. The characteristic feature of this period lies in the building up of Japanese music upon a foundation of Chinese, Korean and Indian music, which possessed a markedly advanced form and was then being freely introduced into our country.

(1) **The First Half.** In the first half of this period imported music was imitated. Music was first introduced from Korea (Chosen), then from India and lastly from China. Of the three, only that from China continued to come freely thereafter. The Chosen music then imported was widely different from the music introduced from China and India, especially in the degree of its evo-

lution. But even such undeveloped music as that of Chosen (then called Sankan), was far more advanced than Japanese music. It is, therefore, but natural that there was an abysmal difference of standard between the Japanese music of the early period and that later imported from China and India. Moreover the early models were monopolized by the nobles; the masses could not share the privilege of enjoying the advanced art but had to be content with the same old primitive music. For two to three hundred years this state of things continued, until the reigns of Emperors Saga and Nimmei when genuine Japanese Court music, called gagaku, came into vogue. But even this home-made gagaku was of foreign origin too.

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

(a) One group was modelled after foreign music but set to the key of Japanese music of the primitive age; and hence the reconstruction thus effected in ancient Japanese music was only in form. The most conspicuous examples are the kagura, azuma-asobi, Kumé-uta and yamato-uta. No doubt the kagura existed in the prehistoric age, as may be inferred from Japanese history, but not until past the middle of the Heian period did it appear in the regular form of music. The kagura is a sacred dance with music,

practised on the stage of a shrine at village festivals. The kagura now observed, however, is fundamentally different from that staged in those days; it saw marked development in the Heian period. In the early days of the sacred kagura dance it adopted so primitive a form of vulgar indecency that it could not be performed today.

During this latter part of the second period all the other three branches of music, namely, azumaso-bi, Kumé-uta and yamato-uta, were also practised at shrine festivals. Originally they had no relation with shrines, the first two having developed from folk-songs, and the third from a war-song sung during the triumphant expedition into Yamato under the Emperor Jimmu. The adoption of those folk-songs in the rites of sacred festivals was made possible by the advanced music of foreign origin employed at Buddhist temples; better music also became indispensable at Shinto shrines in order to rival the advanced Buddhist music. Unlike Buddhist temples, the Shinto shrines hesitated to make use of imported material; and so they had no alternative in those days but to improve their music on the ancient models of the country. The principal instruments employed for this purpose were the six-stringed Japanese koto and the six-holed kagura flute, remodelled.

(b) Those modes that come under the category of the other group are the saibara, roei and imayo, which were combinations of imported and Japanese music then in vogue. As regards saibara, it is believed that it was a sort of folk-song that prevailed in the Nara period, but the saibara, a folk melody of the Nara period, can not be compared with the saibara which was an artistic vocal song of the Heian period; in form they are widely apart. The

saibara in the Heian period was in fact an artistic product. These branches of music served for the amusement and diversion of nobles, and had nothing to do with religious services. They were exclusively of foreign origin in form.

### The Third Period

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

(1) **Music and Literature.** As a natural result of the interruption of intercourse with continental civilization, the influence of the Japanese language made itself felt on music, so much so that in form music seemed to belong to language, both evolving together; in fact, story and song became the essential requirements of music.

(2) **The Range of Influence.** Next, the range of influence of each school was narrowed, until such forms as kiyomoto, joruri, shinnai and itchubushi became representative during the third period, but each of them was cultivated in a limited locality and time. In this connection joruri

was most conspicuous, because, based entirely on the national literature, it appealed only to the people who understand the language used. Kiyomoto music thrived in Yedo, joruri prospered in Osaka, and itchubushi flourished in Kyoto. Thus in the third period none of the music born and popularized was of national to say nothing of international character but was limited to a certain locality. This, however, is by no means a proof of retrogressive tendency in music; for the harmony thus realized between Japanese literature and music was no meagre advantage. It was natural too, for in the evolution of art song is older than speech, poetry than prose.

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

Although civil strife is a great

deterrent to the art of music, this was not so true in Japan as in China, for in Japan the Imperial household, whose existence and dignity suffered practically no change on account of the new military government, music was encouraged in Court circles. Then again it was protected and cultivated by priests; new music was fostered especially by Kamakura priests. The Heiké Biwa originated and developed under priestly auspices; and the shakuhachi music was introduced from China and popularized in the Buddhist domain, also through their efforts. The shakuhachi music now in vogue had its origin in this period.

**The Muromachi Era** The Muromachi era, sandwiched in between the Kamakura and Tokugawa eras, corresponds to a middle third period in the history of music. Between the Kamakura and Muromachi Shogunates a striking difference is noticeable in that, while a military administration was possible under the former, it was denied to the latter. Beginning with the Muromachi era the Ashikagas removed the Shogunate from Kamakura to Kyoto. Since Kyoto was the seat of the Imperial household, the officials who were military men could not do without etiquette in their association with Court officials of the Imperial household. They had to be familiar with the art of flower arrangement, the tea ceremony and the yokyoku music of the lyrical drama, or No dance. Thus from the necessity of studying these arts of social etiquette, military men had to approve and promote them. The introducers of the No dance were priests who returned from China, and used this sort of drama for moral or religious purposes, like the miracle and morality plays in England. The No dance was probably derived from something similar in China.

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

The samisen was not only a representative musical instrument throughout the Yedo era but also occupies a most important position in Japanese music today. This three-stringed Japanese guitar has now come to enjoy worldwide recognition as an advanced musical instrument. Nearly 400 years ago, toward the end of the Maromachi period, it arrived in the country through the Ryukyu islands and is supposed to be of Spanish or Chinese origin. Compared with the sho and biwa, imported in the 5th or 6th century, the samisen is a thing of but yesterday. Yet it is found everywhere in Japan as an accompaniment to vocal music.

#### The Fourth Period

**Internationalization of Japanese Music** The fourth period covers the Meiji and Taisho eras (1868-1926) when domestic music rose to join the world current of music. The people awoke from their long slumber throughout the isolated Yedo era, and exchanged anti-foreignism for free intercourse with the outside world. With this epochal open-door movement came the Meiji Restoration which eliminated the Shogunate and restored the old Imperial régime. In obedience to the august wish of the Emperor Meiji all welcomed the introduction of the supposedly more advanced European civilization. Music was no exception. European music then imported was enthusias-

tically imitated all through the period. Production of imitative art was not the only task assigned to that age, for side by side with the movement the reconstruction of native music occupied the serious attention of musicians. A similar tendency is noticeable in and about the Nara period in the 8th century, when advanced ideas, imported from the continent, afforded models on which the ancient music of the country was reconstructed. Yet, a great difference is evident between that and the movement now under review; because, whereas in that day home music still lingered in the primitive stage and imitation of alien models was effected only with extreme difficulty, improvement in the native music of the Meiji era was so easy a matter that reconstruction could be carried out by mere importation of new staves. This fourth period, which corresponds to the Meiji and Taisho eras, can be studied from three points of view, with reference to the development of the art.

(1) **Innovations in Traditional Music and Revival of Ancient Music.** In the Yedo period the development of music in form was insignificant, because importance was placed on expression of sentiment. People who realized this defect in the traditional Japanese music, agreed on the necessity of introducing radical innovations in this direction. This new movement was responsible for the stimulus given by the extensive introduction of European music, which in form was far superior to Japanese. Up to about the 16th year of Meiji considerable effort was expended towards eliminating this defect. As a practical attempt to attain this object, a movement was created for reconstruction work on the form of sho music which had deplorably degenerated in the Yedo

era, due to the influence of samisen music then at the height of popularity. The rise of the Yamada school in Tokyo is an example. Shakuhachi music likewise could not escape being influenced by the reconstruction current of the times.

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

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

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

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

(b) **European War and Visiting Musicians.** At the outbreak of the European War many well-known musicians of the West went to America and Oriental countries in order to avoid being involved in the turmoil, and to find appreciation of their music in more peaceful environment. These world-famous musicians gave a number of concerts in Japan, and thus afforded us an opportunity to hear the best music the world can produce. So fortunate an event contributed much toward cultivating a taste for music in this country. Not long afterwards came radio, also from the West; and, like

the gramophone, radio also greatly helped the public towards a more intelligent appreciation of European music. This musical instrument, however, should be regarded as more properly belonging to the present era of Showa.

(3) Internationalization of Japanese Music. The diffusion of the knowledge of European music demonstrated to us its international qualities, systematized form and aesthetic structure. The vast difference between this international music of the West and Japanese music which is but national, served to spur on the reconstruction movement among the Japanese interested in music. The movement originally started in the middle of the Meiji era, but at that time it had no fixed goal at which to aim. Now, however, renewed ambition moved in three definite directions:

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

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

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

#### Latest Developments

European Music (1) Schools. The Tokyo Academy of Music, established in the early Meiji era, still flourishes as the only government institution of the kind. Most of the teachers are

now Japanese. Leo Sirota is an instructor of piano, and Maria Toll is in charge of vocal music. The school has an orchestra and mixed chorus, organized by students, graduates and teachers, and conducted by Mr. C. Pringsheim. They give public concerts several times a year. Generally speaking, the Tokyo Academy of Music attaches much importance to German classical music, and the orchestra plays, among other masterpieces, symphonies and overtures by Beethoven, Bach and Mozart, although modern French works, such as the *Nocturne* by Debussy, have occasionally been attempted. The latest performances were the Fifth Symphony by G. Mahler, 1932, and the Ninth Symphony by Beethoven in the spring of 1933. In addition to this government academy, there are several private music schools, among which the most outstanding is the Tokyo Higher School of Music (Tokyo Koto Ongakuin), at Kunitachi-mura, Tokyo, each with its own orchestra and mixed chorus.

(2) Orchestras. Outside the schools there were also several orchestral groups, but all, except the New Symphony Orchestra conducted by Viscount Hidemaro Konoé, have dissolved for want of support in an age of economic depression. The surviving symphony orchestra holds concerts twice a month regularly, and has already given over a hundred entertainments, rendering pieces by various German composers, like Beethoven, Schumann, Schubert and Brahms, as well as the works of Tchaikovsky, Rimsky-Korsakoff and Moussorgsky. Several modern French productions have also been rendered. Besides, the orchestra takes advantage of the visits of Western musicians to give the orchestral accompaniment to their rendering. The Nippon Symphony Orchestra, conducted by Mr. Kosaku Yamada, has

now almost merged into the New Symphony Orchestra, on whose platform its conductor is occasionally seen. A mandolin orchestra, known as the Sinfonia Mandolini Orchestra, was created in the early Taisho era, the conductor of which is Mr. Morishigé Takei of the Bureau of Court Music of the Imperial Household Department; it gives concerts twice a year, in spring and autumn. Among foreign musicians of note who have visited Japan are Mischa Elman, Efrem Zimbalist, Fritz Kreisler, Jascha Heifetz, Jacques Thibaud, John McCormack, Ernestine Schumann-Heink, Amelita Galli-Curci, Toti Dal Monte, Mischa Levitzki, Benno Moiseivitch and Leopold Godowsky. Several Italian and Russian opera companies and Russian orchestras have also performed.

(3) Choruses. Besides those attached to schools there are several amateur chorus companies under the leadership of professional musicians. As there are no good chorus pieces in the Japanese language, no appreciable success has yet been attained. In most ordinary educational institutions, such as universities and colleges, there are music clubs, each with its male chorus.

(4) Opera. In the early Taisho era there was created in the Imperial Theatre an opera company under the leadership of Professor Rossi. Miss Tamaki Miura, who was regarded a prima donna at this nascent stage of Japanese opera, became a member of the company and finally won world-wide notice as an opera singer. The company later dissolved and the members organized an operetta troupe, which, after a brief period of obscure existence, met the same fate. In more recent years, stimulated by the visit of Russian and Italian opera companies a movement to revive opera was started, but no tangible success has been

attained. Opera scenes have been sometimes broadcast by the radio broadcasting stations, but no native opera company has yet reappeared. Inasmuch, however, as the Tokyo Academy of Music is directing some of its talent towards this line of music, genuine Japanese opera may be expected to materialize in the near future.

(5) Religious Music. The music of the churches does not show the development that one might expect. This is, perhaps, because the members are not favoured with much musical endowment. However, recently there came into existence, outside the Church, groups which investigate religious music. At the Tokyo Academy of Music choral and cantata pieces have often been rendered by chorus and orchestra, giving Mozart's "Requiem" and the "Missa Solemnis" by Beethoven.

(6) Exhibitions. It is but recently that musical competitions have come to be held. The first trial of the kind was attempted by mandolin orchestras at the close of the Taisho era, while chorus exhibitions were not given until the Showa era. In 1932, under the auspices of the Jiji Shimpo, a contest of piano, violin and vocal music was arranged to be held annually, the judges to award the prizes being leading musicians of the capital. Furthermore, it was so arranged that the three most talented among those taking prizes were to be sent to Europe. A young pianist, Miss Miwako Kai, won the highest honour at the first exhibition.

(7) Composers. In the realm of musical composition Japan still lingers in the stage of research.

Messrs. K. Yamada and Kosuké Komatsu—all leading Japanese composers—have almost entirely ceased to wield influence, but seeing that there are a number of young musicians who are devoted to the study

of the wake left by German music, or the harmonies of French music, it is hoped that the basis of a new Japanese music will be laid. As regards the general public, they have grown somewhat tired of German classical music and turned their attention to the lighter airs of southern Europe, of even the jazz now in vogue in the United States. In urban centres social dances prevail to such an extent that folk-songs are set mostly to dance music. In the field of genuine Japanese music, songs akin to kouta are now in vogue, the leading vocalists being Miss Katsutaro and Miss Ichimaru, both of whom are geisha. Not only folk-songs but war songs have revived, since the Manchuria emergency. The old war ditties sung at the time of the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese Wars have come again into vogue, together with a new and thrilling ballad with the "Three Heroic Warriors" who made bombs of themselves at Shanghai, as its theme.

(8) Vocal Soloists. The most noted vocal soloists are Tamaki Miura, Yoshié Fujiwara, Toshiko Sekiya and Yoshiko Miyagawa. But among instrumental musicians there is no name specially worthy of notice; Mrs. Koko Ando, formerly professor at the Tokyo Academy of Music, has won distinction as a violinist under the tuition of Joseph Joachim, but she has seen her best days, and is now settled down as a successful teacher. At the Bureau of Court Music in the Imperial Household Office each musician performs on his own favourite European instrument; and there is an orchestra which at one time was quite influential. In the orchestra there are some good violinists and cellists but few who have been on the stage as soloists. There is, however, a string quartet, organized by some of the members of the orchestra, called the Haydn

Quartet. Long established, it is now regarded as the only superior quartet in Japan, though occasional changes occur in its membership. As a violinist, Miss Nejiko Suwa is regarded as having the brightest future. Though only a lass of thirteen, trained under Professor Moguilewsky, she has yet sufficient understanding of classical music to leave no doubt of her exceptional musical talent.

(9) The Piano. The piano is the most popular musical instrument in the Japanese home at present. Even among amateur girl pianists there are many who display fair attainment. In singular contrast to this, few male pianists show skill in the art of music. This can be explained by the fact that formerly Japanese girls used to start their musical education with the koto (Japanese harp), which, having proved too primitive and monotonous, has gradually fallen into decline, being replaced by the piano. In this way the younger daughters of the upper middle class in towns have begun to receive training on the piano. In these circumstances there is naturally a dearth of male musicians outside the domain of vocalists. In this connection too it is interesting to note that Lafcadio Hearn, the famous interpreter of Japan, once remarked that the Japanese had no faculty for music, referring to their apparent lack of appreciation of Western music at that time. His somewhat rash remark has happily proved unjustified. Western music in Japan is still in transition. The Japanese have become good listeners, but have not yet become good players. But there is really no good reason why in the future Japan will not turn out world-famous musicians. For this, training is of course the great essential. Encouraging signs are already evident among our young mu-

sicians, especially women. For instance, Miss Chieko Hara, a pianist only 17 years old, won the first prize in the 1932 concours in Paris.

1933-1934 Music In the early part of 1933 there were held a number of recitals, the important ones being a piano solo by Chiyeko Hara in February; a vocal solo by Maria Toll, and a piano solo by Leo Sirota in the same month; and vocal music by Yoshiko Nagasaka, Boku Kageyama, etc. Furthermore Sirota, Moguilewsky, and Pollack made important contributions towards Japanese appreciation of Western masterpieces all through the year, either in the ensemble or through radio. In March a recital in honour of the new graduates of musical schools was held at Hibiya. The second concours under the auspices of the Jiji Shimpo was held at Hibiya on May 13 and 14, and the first prizes were awarded Miss Masako Kanematsu (instrumental music, piano), Miss Kayoko Izaki (vocal music, soprano), and Mr. Setsu Imagawa (composition). The result in general showed a decided advance compared with the first concours.

May 7 of the year was the centenary of Johannes Brahms (1833-1897) and on April 22 the ceremonial concert in his honour was given in the Asahi Hall under the auspices of the Asahi, and the Sirota Trio, Maria Toll, and Nobu Suzuki took part in it. The New Symphony Orchestra also celebrated the occasion in the Hibiya Auditorium accompanied with Leo Sirota's piano solo.

Friedmann of Poland visited Japan in September and his piano recital lasted for five evenings, October 2-6, in the Hibiya Auditorium. He left an enduring impression in the heart of Japanese lovers of music. A critic on music said, "one may talk about the genuine beauty of piano music and the poetic value of Chopin after

he has listened to Friedmann play Chopin."

The Tokyo Academy of Music held a special concert in the presence of the Empress on March 17, 1934 in celebration of the birth of the Crown Prince. The programme consisted of the No "Takasago", by Umewaka, Kanzé and Hosho; the nagauta "Tsuru-kamé", by Yoshizumi; the koto music, by Michio Miyagi; Mozart's Coronation Symphony, conducted by Pringsheim; Wagner's Imperial March and Bach's Prelude in E Major, by Sueko Ogura. It was one of the best performances ever given by the Academy.

Leo Sirota gave a piano recital in the Nippon Young Men's Hall at Aoyama on April 23. The pieces chosen were rather for specialists than for the mass, including Busoni's piece, Chopin's Ballade, Dvorák's Humoresque, Smetana's Polka and Stravinsky's third movement of Petrouchka. His simple rendering and easy representation of these difficult pieces carried his audience completely.

Sydney Kreutzer and Nicolai Tche-repnin visited Japan in 1934 and the former gave concerts on the works of Schumann and Chopin while the latter introduced his own compositions.

From October to December, 1934, the New Symphony Orchestra gave excellent representations of Beethoven for nights.

Native Music (1) The Koto. The koto has long been popular in Japan as a domestic musical instrument. It still retains friends among all classes, although it has lost some of its former popularity. Improvements have been attempted by specialists in recent years. An authority on koto music, Michio Miyagi, attempted to organize an orchestra with koto, shakuhachi (Japanese bamboo clarinet) and samisen. Like most koto

musicians, he showed more talent than insight, by attempting, on traditional Japanese musical instruments pieces he composed in European style, but has already attained a fair success. The "Spring Sea", a duet for koto and violin was composed by him and rendered by Madame Renée Chemet, a violinist who visited Japan in 1932.

(2) Nagauta. This is samisen music, developed in the Yedo period, and still serves widely as an accompaniment to dances at theatres; and social entertainment, in homes. But it has never been able to rise superior to its early development in the gay quarters; the text remains too vulgar for domestic occasions. Through the efforts of a singer, Kosaburo Yoshizumi, and a samisen player, Rokushiro Kineya, the nagauta texts are now being revised to suit family taste, new compositions for children being produced and new rhythms introduced. Another pioneer in this field is Sakichi Kineya, himself a noted samisen player. He once attempted the composition of a concerto for the samisen as a solo instrument with a view to cultivating a new sphere for the samisen. The success or failure of the new attempt remains to be seen. Other noted musicians of nagauta are Ijuro

Yoshimura, Wafu Matsunaga; and samisenists, Kangyoku Kineya, Eizo Kineya, Isaburo Kashiwa.

(3) Joruri. The joruri music is made up of tokiwazu and kiyomoto, besides gidayu. Kiyomoto is mostly a lyric melody for a tenor voice; while tokiwazu demands a high baritone and is therefore rich in dramatic element. The joruri music is now employed merely as an accompaniment to stage dance and ballets; it scarcely goes beyond preserving the old tradition. It is interesting to note in this respect that Enju-dayu, a descendant of the Kiyomoto family, by which the school was founded, is a splendid lyric tenor whose art overshadows even Japanese vocalists of the Western style. The gidayu music is indispensable to the kabuki (Japanese classical play) and ningyo shibai (puppet-theatre) in their stage performances, but this music contains not only ordinary airs but it also has plenty of musical recitation.

Noted joruri musicians are: kiyomoto—Enju-dayu, Kiku-tayu, Ume-kichi (samisenist); tokiwazu—Matsuo-dayu, Mojibeë (samisenist); gidayu—Shikoro-dayu Takemoto, Tsu-dayu Takemoto, Tosa-tayu Takemoto, Koutsubo-dayu Toyotaké and Iwao-dayu Toyotaké.

## CHAPTER XXXVI

### SPORTS

#### Japan in the World Olympics

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

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

**At Amsterdam** The year 1928 found 63 Japanese competing in the North Olympic Games at Amsterdam. The late Miss Kinué Hitomi was the only girl in the Japanese delegation and the first Japanese woman to take part in the Olympics, made impressive performances. She won a 100-metre heat in 12.8 seconds and took second place in the 800-metre finals by negotiating the distance in 2 minutes 17.7 seconds. Mikio Oda

not only scored for the first time but won Japan's first Olympic championship by taking the hop, step and jump event. In the swimming competition, an equally bright success was attained by Yoshiyuki Tsuruta, who took first place and the championship in the 200-metre breaststroke. Kazuo Kimura placed sixth in the running high jump; Yoné-taro Nakazawa placed sixth in the pole vault; Kanésaku Yamada placed fourth and Séiichiro Tsuda placed sixth, respectively, in the marathon; Katsuo Takaishi won third place in the 100-metre free style swim; Toshio Iriyé came in fourth in the 100-metre backstroke; the 800-metre relay team placed second. The swimmers won second place in competition with the United States, the championship winner. Japanese took part in the boxing, regatta and equestrian contests for the first time but lost.

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

(1) Aquatic Meet Japan dominated the 1932 aquatic meet as no other nation had done in the past. Of 150 official points scored in the six races, 86 went to Japan and only 46 to all other nations together. The result is Japan 86 and America 33, with the rest outdistanced. Only one race was by a non-Japanese champion, the 400-metre free style, in which Clarence Crabbe, of the United States, and Jean Taris, of France, upset expectations and finished ahead of the Japanese trio in



new record time. The only team race, the 800-metre relay, went to Japan by a wide margin in almost incredible time, 8 min. 58.4 sec.

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

(2) Track and Field Events In the track and field events, the Japanese did not show up so brilliantly as did their team mates in the aquatic events. Thanks to Chuhei Nambu, however, Japan was able to defend the hop, step and jump championship which Mikio Oda had won at Amsterdam in 1924. With a mark of 15.72 metres, Nambu not only won the championship but established a new world record. Another outstanding performance was turned by Baron Takéichi Nishi, of the Japanese Army, who won the difficult equestrian contest, the Prix des Nations. By winning this steeplechase, Baron Nishi put Japan's horsemanship on a high plane in the eyes of the world.

The principal performances of the Japanese athletes of both sexes and their records are given below:

#### TRACK AND FIELD

100-metre run—Ryutoku Yoshioka won sixth place in the finals. Time, 10.8s.  
400-metre relay—Japan's team placed fifth.  
1,600-metre relay—Japan's team placed fifth.  
Marathon—Seiichiro Tada placed fifth and

Onbai Kin sixth. Time, 2h.35m.42s. and 2h. 37m.28s. respectively.

Running high jump—Kazuo Kimura placed sixth with 1.90 metres and Misao Ono seventh.

Running broad jump—Chuhei Nambu placed third with 7.45 metres, and Naoto Tajima sixth with 7.15 metres.

Pole vault—Shuhei Nishida barely missed the championship by losing to Bill Miller, of the United States, placing second with 2.28 metres.

Hop, step and jump—Chuhei Nambu won and defended successfully the title which Mikio Oda had captured at the Amsterdam meet. Nambu's record, 15.72 metres, set a new world mark.

#### SWIMMING

100-metre free style—Yasuji Miyazaki won. Time, 53.2 seconds, breaking the Olympic record set by Johnnie Weismuller but Miyazaki had turned in a better record, 53 seconds, in the semi-finals.

400-metre free style—Tsutomu Oyokota placed third with 4 minutes 52.3 seconds.

1,500-metre free style—Katsuo Kitamura won. Time, 19 minutes 12.4 seconds, which broke the Olympic record set by Arne Borg.

100-metre back stroke—Masaji Kiyokawa won. Time, 1 minute 8.6 seconds.

200-metre breast stroke—Yoshiyuki Tsuruta won. Time, 2 minutes 45.4 seconds, which broke the Olympic record.

800-metre relay—Japan's team won. Time 8 minutes 58.4 seconds, which set a new world record.

#### WOMEN'S TRACK AND FIELD

400-metre relay—Japan's team placed fifth. Time, 59.2 seconds, which broke Japan's record.

Javelin—Miss Masako Jimbo placed fourth with 39.06 metres.

#### WOMEN'S SWIMMING

100-metre back stroke—Miss Misao Yokota placed fifth in the semi-finals.

200-metre breast stroke—Miss Hideko Maehata placed second, only four-fifths of a second behind the winner. Time, 3 minutes 6.4 seconds, which broke the existing Olympic and world records.

400-metre relay—Japan's team (Kojima, Yokota, Morioka and Arata) placed fifth. Time, 5 minutes 6.7 seconds.

#### HOCKEY

Japan's team placed second.

#### EQUESTRIAN COMPETITION

Lieutenant Baron Takeichi Nishi won the Prix des Nations.

Japan will send a delegation of 337 athletes and officials to the World Olympic Games to be held in Berlin next year, it was decided in May, 1935, by the Olympic Preparatory Committee of the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation. This will be nearly twice the number Japan sent to the last Olympic Games in Los Angeles. The increase will be a part of Japan's campaign to bring the 12th Olympic Games to Tokyo in 1940.

The Japanese contingent will participate in the 14 events, skiing, skating, track and field, swimming, boxing, soccer, basketball, rowing, field hockey, wrestling, gymnastics, riding, yachting and art. Japan will enter the soccer games and yacht races for the first time, while basketball is a new sports adopted by the coming Olympiad. The sum of ¥1,250,000 has been provided for the athletes' expenses.

#### The Tenth Far Eastern Olympiad

The Tenth Far Eastern Championship Games were held in Manila between May 12 and 21, 1934. Much trouble was created in Japan before the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation finally decided to participate in the event. The Japanese side proposed to the headquarters of the Championship Games that Manchoukuo, represented by the Manchoukuo Amateur Athletic Federation, should be allowed to participate in the event. A protest was raised by both China and the Philippines that the matter had to be submitted to a general conference of the participating countries and the Constitution of the Games be revised for admittance of Manchoukuo. This attitude angered those supporting the Manchoukuo side and caused them to advise the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation to withdraw from the event, unless the matter was accepted. The

matter was telegraphed to the Manila headquarters, but the reply was that it had to be submitted to a general meeting for approval. In the midst of a vigorous opposition, the Japanese Federation submitted to its general meeting a plan whether it had to attend the games in Manila or renounce its right to participate, leaving the Manchoukuo Federation, and finally it was decided the Federation would attend it with a determination to discuss matters regarding the Manchoukuo participation in the next event and to withdraw from the Games, if the Constitution could not be revised so as to let the Manchoukuo participation possible. In course of the games in Manila, the matter was discussed, but failed to be adopted by unanimous consent. In consequence, the Japanese Federation made up its mind to depart from the Games and to organize a new athletic federation with the object of promoting physical culture. Japan, however, participated in the Tenth Games throughout. On June 12, after the return of the Japanese sports delegation to Japan, it was resolved by the delegation that the Japanese Amateur Athletic Federation withdraw from the Far Eastern Championship Games and organize the Amateur Athletic Association of the Orient. Japan, Manchoukuo and the Philippines have decided to join the new Federation, but China will not join it. Thus the Far Eastern Championship Games have been forced to break up.

Results of the Tenth Far Eastern Championship Games follow:

BASEBALL				
Philippines	25	to	China	1
Japan	20	to	China	1
Philippines	7	to	Japan	0
Philippines	14	to	China	0
Japan	8	to	China	0
Japan	2	to	Philippines	2

Note: Philippines 1st; Japan 2nd; China 3rd.

## BASKETBALL

China	42	to	Japan	26
Philippines	51	to	Japan	35
China	48	to	Japan	47
Philippines	37	to	China	27
Japan	40	to	Philippines	37
Philippines	44	to	China	33

Note: Philippines 1st; China 2nd; Japan 3rd.

## VOLLEYBALL

Philippines	3	to	Japan	2
China	3	to	Japan	2
Philippines	3	to	China	0
Philippines	3	to	Japan	1
China	3	to	Philippines	2

Note: Philippines 1st; China 2nd; Japan 3rd.

## FOOTBALL

China	2	to	Philippines	0
Dutch East Indies	7	to	Japan	1
China	2	to	D.E.I.	0
China	4	to	Japan	3
Japan	4	to	Philippines	3
Philippines	3	to	D.E.I.	2

Note: China 1st; Japan, Philippines and D.E.I. 2nd.

## LAWN TENNIS

Japan	4	to	China	1
Philippines	4	to	D.E.I.	1
Philippines	2	to	Japan	1

Note: Due to Japan-Philippine finals being called off, no championship was decided.

## TRACK

Japan	50
Philippines	38
China	0
D.E.I.	0

Note: Japan 1st; Philippines 2nd; China 3rd.

## FIELD

Japan	51
Philippines	19
China	7
D.E.I.	0

Note: Japan 1st; Philippines 2nd; China 3rd and D.E.I. 4th.

## PENTATHLON &amp; DECATHLON

Japan	18
Philippines	13
China	7
D.E.I.	2

Note: Japan 1st; Philippines 2nd; China 3rd; D.E.I. 4th.

## SWIMMING

Japan	68
Philippines	15
China	0
D.E.I.	0

Note: Japan 1st; Philippines 2nd; China 3rd; D.E.I. 4th. Boxing is not mentioned, as it was not included in championship games.

To commemorate the establishment of the Amateur Athletic Association of the Orient among the Philippines, Japan and Manchoukuo, after the break of the Far Eastern Championship Games in the summer of 1934, Japan invited 20 athletes, five boxers and 15 baseball players from the Philippines for a series of games in June, 1935.

Results of the games follow:

## TRACK AND FIELD

Japan	98-50	Philippines (Tokyo)
Japanese Student Stars	68-47	" "

## Baseball

Philippines 12-6 Moji Railway Bureau (Fukuoka); Yahata Iron Works 5-1 Philippines (Yahata); Philippines 2-1 Yahata Iron Works (Yahata); Philippines 11-1 Yahata Iron Works (Fukuoka); Kwansai University 4-3 Philippines (Osaka); Philippines 2-1 Kwansai University (Osaka); All Osaka 3-2 Philippines (Osaka); Philippines 12-5 Keio University (Tokyo); Philippines 5-3 Rikkyo (Tokyo); Hosei University 3-2 Philippines (Tokyo); Waseda 12-3 Philippines (Tokyo); and Tokyo Club 6-1 Philippines.

## Boxing

Philippines 3-2 All Kwansai (Osaka); Philippines 4-1 All Kwanto (Tokyo); Kwanto Student Champions 4-1 Philippines (Tokyo); Philippines 3-2 Middle Japan (Nagoya).

## Development of Western Sports

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

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

**The Far Eastern Olympiad** It should be added in this connection that, one year after Japan's first participation in the World Olympics, the Far

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

**Traditional Sports** Of Japan's traditional sports, those which have remained from ancient times and which still hold the interest of the people include jujitsu (judo), known as the art of self-defence; kenjutsu (kendo), or fencing; sumo, or wrestling, and swimming (native styles). All these major sports are still being practised throughout the country. Probably the most popular is wrestling. At the Kokugikan amphitheatre at Ryogoku, on the bank of the Sumida River, which flows

through Tokyo, a professional wrestling tournament is held twice a year, in January and May. H.I.M. the Emperor invites almost each year not only professional wrestlers but jujitsu and fencing masters of the land to the palace for matches in His Majesty's presence. In addition to these Japanese sports, there are others, such as archery and horsemanship of ancient origin, but they have suffered more or less decadence since the overthrow of feudalism.

**Under Education Minister** All sports in Japan are controlled either by the Ministry of Education or the Home Office. All students' sports are under the jurisdiction of the Education Ministry, and such non-student affairs as Japanese professional wres-

ling and professional boxing are under the control of the Home Office. Matters such as the maintenance of peace and order in and around the wrestling amphitheatre or boxing ring are in the hands of the local police.

The leading athletic organization in Japan is the Amateur Athletic Association, with Ryozo Hiranuma as acting president. This is the organization which controls track and field games in Japan and selects athletes for international meets. There are other similar organizations, such as the Japan Amateur Swimming Federation and the Japan Lawn Tennis Association.

**Records** Various statistics of records made by Japanese athletes follow:

#### JAPAN'S AND WORLD'S TRACK AND FIELD RECORDS

##### Running

Event	Japan's Record	World's Record
100 metres	10.4s. Ryutoku Yoshioka (1933)	10.3s. Ralph Metcalfe, U.S.A. (1933)
200 "	21.2s. Ryutoku Yoshioka (1933)	20.6s. Ralph Metcalfe, U.S.A. (1933)
400 "	49.0s. Keiji Imai (1934)	46.2s. Bill Carr, U.S.A. (1932)
800 "	1m. 54.0s. Kumao Aoji (1934)	1m. 49.8s. Ben Eastman, U.S.A. (1934)
1,500 "	4m. 0.4s. Hideo Tanaka (1934)	3m. 48.8s. William Bonthron, U.S.A. (1934)
5,000 "	15m. 8.0s. Shoji Kitamoto (1933)	14m. 17s. Lauri Lehtinen, Finland (1932)
10,000 "	31m. 20.2s. Ryu Choshun (1934)	30m. 6.2s. Paavo Nurmi, Finland (1924)
Marathon	2h. 31m. 10s. Kozo Kusunoki (1933)	2h. 31m. 10s. Kozo Kusunoki, Japan (1933)

##### Hurdles

110-metre high hurdles	14.6s. Tadashi Murakami (1934)	14.2s. Percy Beard, U.S.A. (1934)
400-metre low hurdles	54.6s. Yukio Fukui (1933)	50.6s. G. Hardin, Sweden (1934)
200-metre low hurdles	24.3s. Iwao Anno (1930)	23s. N. Paul, U.S.A. (1933)

##### Relay Races

400 metres	41.5s. Sasaki, Suzuki, Taniguchi, Yoshio (1934)	40s. Kiesel, Toppins, Dyer, Wykoff, U.S.A. (1932)
800 "	1m. 28s. Kono, Kondo, Taniguchi, Suzuki (1934)	1m. 25.8s. Lewis, Smith, House, Borah, U.S.A. (1927)
1,600 "	3m. 16.8s. Nakajima, Masuda, Oki, Nishi (1933)	3m. 8.2s. Fuqua, Alowich, Warner, Carr, U.S.A. (1932)

##### Walking

3,000 metres	15m. 24.8s. Kanshiro Narita (1934)	12m. 53.8s. G. Rasmussen, Denmark (1918)
5,000 "	25m. 51.6s. Eiji Wada (1933)	21m. 59s. A. Schwab, Switzerland (1931)
10,000 "	62m. 47s. Hatsutaro Akiyama (1923)	44m. 42.4s. A. H. G. Pope, Great Britain (1932)

##### Jumping

Event	Japan's Record	World's Record
Running high jump	2 mtrs. Yoshiro Asakuma (1934)	2.06 mtrs. W. Marty, U.S.A. (1934)
Running broad jump	7.98 mtrs. Chuhei Nambu (1931)	7.98 mtrs. Chuhei Nambu, Japan (1931)
Hop, step and jump	15.82 mtrs. Kenkichi Oshima (1934)	15.82 mtrs. Kenkichi Oshima, Japan (1934)
Pole vault	4.30 mtrs. Shuhei Nishida (1932)	4.37 mtrs. W. Graber, U.S.A. (1932)

##### Weight Events

Putting 16-lb. shot	14.13 mtrs. Shizuo Takada (1934)	17.40 mtrs. J. Torrance, U.S.A. (1934)
Hammer throw	49.10 mtrs. Isao Abe (1934)	57.77 mtrs. P. J. Ryan, U.S.A. (1913)

##### Discus Throw

44.54 mtrs. Masajiro Itabashi (1931)	52.42 mtrs. H. Andersson, Sweden (1934)
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##### Javelin Throw

68.59 mtrs. Saburo Nagao (1934)	76.10 mtrs. M. Jarvinen, Finland (1933)
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##### Decathlon

7,469.595 pts. Tatsuo Toki (1932)	8,790.46 pts. H. Sievert, Germany (1934)
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#### WOMEN'S JAPAN AND WORLD TRACK AND FIELD RECORDS

Event	Japan's Record	World's Record
50 mtrs. run	6.4s. Kinuyé Hitomi (1927)	6.4s. Mejslikova II, Czechoslovakia (1922)
100 "	12.2s. Sumiko Watanabé (1932)	11.8s. Stanislaw Walasiewicz, Poland (1933)
200 "	24.7s. Kinuyé Hitomi (1929)	24.1s. Stanislaw Walasiewicz, Poland (1932)
800 "	2m. 28.6s. Kiyoko Itoda (1934)	2m. 12.4s. Koubkova, Czechoslovakia (1934)
80 mtrs. hurdles	12.2s. Michi Nakanishi (1932)	11.6s. Engelhardt, Germany (1933)
400 mtrs. relay	50.2s. Muraoka, Shibata, Tsuchikura, Watanabé (1932)	46.9s. Olympic Team, U.S.A. (1932)
800 "	1m. 52.9s. Mayeda, Kondo, Suzuki, Sato (1934)	1m. 45.8s. National Team, Germany (1932)
Running high jump	1.50 mtrs. Yuriko Hirohashi (1934)	1.65 mtrs. Shiley, U.S.A. (1932)
Running broad jump	5.98 mtrs. Kinuyé Hitomi (1928)	5.98 mtrs. Kinuyé Hitomi, Japan (1928)
Shot put	11.05 mtrs. Fumi Kojima (1934)	14.38 mtrs. Mauermeier, Germany (1934)
Discus throw	26.81 mtrs. Mitsuyé Ishizu (1933)	43.79 mtrs. Walsowna, Poland (1934)
Javelin throw	41.28 mtrs. Sadako Yamamoto (1934)	46.74 mtrs. Gindele, U.S.A. (1932)

#### JAPAN'S AND WORLD'S BEST SWIMMING RECORDS

##### Men's Free Style

Distance	Japan's Record	World's Record
50 metres	25.8s. Shigeo Takahashi (1934)	56.8s. Peter Fick, U.S.A. (1934)
100 "	58s. Masanori Yusa (1933)	2m. 8s. John Weissmuller, U.S.A. (1927)
200 "	2m. 13s. Masanori Yusa (1933)	3m. 24.4s. James Gilhula, U.S.A. (1933)
300 "	3m. 32.2s. Shozo Makino (1933)	4m. 46.4s. Shozo Makino, Japan (1933)
400 "	4m. 46.4s. Shozo Makino (1933)	5m. 57.8s. Jack Medica, U.S.A. (1933)
500 "	6m. 13s. Shozo Makino (1934)	10m. 1.2s. Shozo Makino, Japan (1934)
800 "	10m. 1.2s. Shozo Makino (1934)	12m. 41.8s. Hiroshi Negami, Japan (1934)
1,000 "	12m. 41.8s. Hiroshi Negami (1934)	19m. 7.2s. Arne Borg, Sweden (1927)
1,500 "	19m. 8s. Kusuo Kitamura (1933)	

## Men's Breast Stroke

Distance	Japan's Record	World's Record
50 metres	34.6s. Yoshiyuki Tsuruta (1930)	
100 ..	1m. 13.8s. Reizo Koiké (1934)	1m. 12.4s. J. Cartonnet, France (1923)
200 ..	2m. 42.8s. Reizo Koiké (1933)	2m. 42.6s. J. Cartonnet, France (1923)
400 ..	5m. 56.8s. Reizo Koiké (1933)	5m. 50.2s. Erich Rademacher, Germany (1926)
500 ..	7m. 50.4s. Reizo Koiké (1932)	7m. 33.1s. Paul Schwarz, Germany (1933)

## Men's Back Stroke

50 metres	30.8s. Shoji Kiyokawa (1933)	
100 ..	1m. 8.6s. Shoji Kiyokawa (1932)	1m. 8.2s. George Kojac, U.S.A. (1928)
200 ..	2m. 35.2s. Shoji Kiyokawa (1932)	2m. 32.2s. George Kojac, U.S.A. (1930)
400 ..	5m. 30.4s. Shoji Kiyokawa (1933)	5m. 30.4s. Shoji Kiyokawa, Japan (1933)

## Men's Relay

800 metres	8m. 58.4s. Miyazaki, Yusa, Toyoda, Yokoyama (1932)	8m. 58.4s. Miyazaki, Yusa, Toyoda, Yokoyama, Japan (1932)
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## Women's Free Style

50 metres	31.6s. Hatsuyé Matsuzawa (1933)	
100 ..	1m. 13.4s. Kazuyé Kojima (1933)	1m. 4.8s. W. den Ouden, Holland (1934)
200 ..	2m. 42.8s. Kazuyé Kojima (1933)	2m. 28.6s. W. den Ouden, Holland (1933)
300 ..	4m. 19.6s. Kazuyé Kojima (1933)	3m. 58s. W. den Ouden, Holland (1933)
400 ..	5m. 49.6s. Kazuyé Kojima (1933)	5m. 16s. W. den Ouden, Holland (1934)
500 ..	7m. 35.6s. Hatsuko Morioka (1933)	7m. 12s. Helen Madison, U.S.A. (1931)
800 ..	12m. 39s. Hatsuko Morioka (1933)	11m. 44.3s. Lenore Kight, U.S.A. (1931)
1,000 ..	15m. 57s. Hatsuko Morioka (1933)	14m. 44.8s. Helen Madison, U.S.A. (1931)
1,500 ..	24m. 8.6s. Hatsuko Morioka (1933)	23m. 17.2s. Helen Madison, U.S.A. (1931)

## Women's Breast Stroke

50 metres	43s. Hideko Mayehata (1932)	
100 metres	1m. 26.8s. Hideko Mayehata (1934)	1m. 24.6s. Clare Dennis, Australia (1933)
200 ..	3m. 0.4s. Hideko Mayehata (1933)	3m. 0.4s. Hideko Mayehata, Japan (1933)
400 ..	6m. 24.8s. Hideko Mayehata (1933)	6m. 24.8s. Hideko Mayehata, Japan (1933)
500 ..	8m. 3s. Hideko Mayehata (1933)	8m. 3s. Hideko Mayehata, Japan (1933)

## Women's Back Stroke

50 metres	39.4s. Misao Yokota (1933)	
100 ..	1m. 25.1s. Misao Yokota (1932)	1m. 18.2s. Eleanor Holm, U.S.A. (1932)
200 ..	3m. 10.4s. Misao Yokota (1931)	2m. 50.4s. Phyllis Harding, Great Britain (1932)

## Women's Relay

400 metres	5m. 6.7s. Kojima, Yokota, Morioka, Arata (1932)	4m. 33.3s. Selbach, Timmermanns, Mastenbroek, den Ouden, Holland (1934)
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## Baseball

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

and caught popular fancy. The American pastime is now recognized as the de facto national game of this country. The Japanese are agile by nature and gifted with quick headwork and therefore are fitted to play baseball, although their weakness in batting is admit-

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

**No Professionals** Despite the great popularity of the game, there is no professional baseball in Japan. All the games that excite public interest are those of university teams. From time to time there has been talk of organizing professional baseball with players recruited from among graduating university ball players, but so far the talk has not materialized. Opinion is divided as to the advisability of such a scheme. One section of opinion holds that unless professional baseball is organized the game will never attain the degree of perfection in technique which characterizes American professional baseball, for college players' careers as ball players end with graduation, minimizing further chance for improvement of ability; the other emphasizes the spiritual side of the game and opposes the move on the ground that professional baseball would degenerate the fair and clean game now played in Japan.

**Its Inception** Like track and field sports, baseball was brought to Japan in the early years of Meiji. It is recorded that baseball was introduced by two American teachers in 1872. Not much progress was made until after 1890. The First High School is known as the first school which organized a strong team. Keio University and Waseda University also organized teams. Games began to be played between those schools with much zeal. In 1905, Waseda University sent its team to the United States. It played 27 games and won seven, but the team brought to Japan new tricks, such as winding and bunting,

which had been unknown here until that time. Organized cheering was begun about the same time. From then on, American university teams, such as those of St. Louis, Wisconsin, Washington and Chicago Universities, came to Japan. At first, the American invaders were sure to win. As years went by, baseball in Japan developed greatly, however, and now it is admitted that Japanese university teams are on a par with American varsity nines. Hence the almost semi-annual exchange of university baseball teams between Japan and the United States.

**Its Development** The development of baseball in Japan owes much to the visits of American professional players. In 1913, Japan invited the leading players of the New York Giants and the Chicago White Sox to play with the Japanese and coach them. In 1931, a picked American professional team came under the management of Mr. Herb Hunter. Those Big League players not only impressed the Japanese with spectacular playing but also opened their eyes to the possibilities of further improvement in technique. In 1932, Mr. Hunter brought here Frank (Lefty) O'Doul and a few other Big League players for the purpose of coaching Japanese university players.

**The University League** The game was laid on a firm foundation in 1925 when the present Six-University Baseball League of Tokyo was organized among Waseda, Keio, Meiji, Hosei, Rikkyo and Imperial Universities. Of the semi-annual league series, the most popular is the Waseda-Keio series, the interest in which is high, as in the Cambridge-Oxford regatta, because of the historical background. Before the present league was formed, Waseda and Keio had such keen rivalry that bloodshed was caused at one of the games and the series had to be abandoned for

20 years. The creation of the league revived the series, and they are now the World Series of Japan. Each Waseda-Keio game is usually attended by a capacity crowd of 60,000 at the Meiji Jingu (Shrine) grounds, Tokyo.

In the semi-annual league seasons, each university plays a two-game series with the others. The championship winners are decided on the basis of the number of series

won, not the number of games won. In case two teams win an equal number of series, the one which comes out with the better percentage is declared the winner; but in case the two teams happen to have the same percentage record, a game is played to decide the title.

The following tables show the complete results of the games in both seasons of 1934, according to the new arrangement made in 1933:

	Hosei	Waseda	Meiji	Rikkyo	Keio	Imp.	Won	Draw	Percentage
Hosei	x	2	2	1	3	3	11	1	.786
Waseda	1	x	2	2	2	3	10	0	.667
Meiji	1	1	x	3	2	3	10	0	.667
Rikkyo	1	1	0	x	1	2	5	1	.357
Keio	0	1	1	2	x	1	5	0	.333
Imperial	0	0	0	1	2	x	3	0	.200
Lost	3	5	5	9	10	12			

Hosei won the pennant.

The two-season system was revived in 1935 and its spring season resulted as follows:

	Hosei	Waseda	Meiji	Rikkyo	Keio	Imperial	Won	Percentage
Hosei	x	2	2	2	2	2	10	.909
Waseda	1	x	2	2	2	2	9	.818
Meiji	0	0	x	2	2	2	6	.600
Rikkyo	0	0	0	x	2	2	4	.400
Keio	0	0	0	0	x	1	1	.100
Imperial	0	0	0	0	1	x	1	.100
Lost	1	2	4	6	9	9		

Hosei defended its title, by beating Waseda, 6 to 5, in the deciding game.

Thirteen baseball players of Harvard University, star nine of the Eastern Collegiate League of the United States, arrived in Tokyo on August 16, 1934, for a series of games against the members of the Tokyo University League and Tokyo Club.

Edward F. Loughlin (captain), pitcher; Chadwick Braggiotti, pitcher. Paul deGive, pitcher and catcher; Richard Maguire, catcher. Charles Nevin, first base; John Adzigian, second base. Craig Woodruff, third base; Thomas Bilodeau, shortstop. John Fitzpatrick, Frank Owen, Braman Gibbs. Gardner Prouty and John Ware, outfielders.

The collegians, under the leadership of Coach Henry Chauncey, came at the invitation of Keio University.

The Harvard nine played eight games in Tokyo and two in Osaka, and won only four games and lost six others.

The following was the line-up of the Harvard team:

The results of the games:

Harvard 4-2 Tokyo Imperial; Tokyo Club 8-6 Harvard; Hosei 12-3 Harvard; Rikkyo 9-3 Harvard; Meiji 10-8 Harvard; Harvard 9-7 Keio; Waseda 17-2 Harvard; Keio 6-5 Harvard; Harvard 3-2 Kwansai; and Harvard 13-7 Keio.

Marking as one of the biggest events in the history of the Japanese baseball, 15 star baseball players of the American major leagues, made a barnstorming tour to Japan in the fall of 1934 at the invitation of the Yomiuri Shimbun. They arrived in Yokohama on November 2 and stayed for a month during which they made a clean sweep of winning 18 games against the All Japan nine in leading cities of this country. Mr. Connie Mack, the veteran baseball coach and manager of the Philadelphia Athletics Club, was the leader of the team.

The American team, including such famous players as Babe Ruth, home-run King, Lou Gehrig, Jimmy Foxx and Charles Gehring, were given a tremendous welcome by the Japanese baseball fans in every city they visited. Every baseball grounds where they played, were filled more than its capacity with the enthusiastic fans, who were, in return, treated with amazing and excellent play by the visitors, both in batting and fielding. Especially Babe Ruth was centre of the attraction, his play being observed keenly by the Japanese. He also was chased around heavily by a large number of autograph hunters wherever he appeared, just same as in his home country.

The All Japan team which was specially formed to meet the American stars with the former star players in the Japanese college leagues, the strongest nine Japan could offer then, was beaten by a lopsided score by the visitors in almost every game they played. A total of 47 home runs was recorded by the American players during their so-

jour, with Ruth leading with 13. A name of "home run team," was given by the Japanese fans for their heavy and amazing batting works by Ruth, Gehrig, Foxx, Averill and Gehring, who all hit home run more than four each.

The American team was consisted of the following players:

Eric McNair (Philadelphia Athletics), shortstop.  
 Charles I. Gehring (Tigers), second base.  
 Babe Ruth (Yankees), left field and first base.  
 Lou Gehrig (Yankees), first base.  
 James Foxx (Athletics), third base.  
 Earl Averill (Cleveland), centre field.  
 E. J. Miller (Athletics), right field.  
 Morris Berg (Cleveland), catcher.  
 Frank Hayes (Athletics), catcher.  
 Vernon Gomez (Yankees), pitcher.  
 Earl Whitehill (Washington), pitcher.  
 Clinton H. Brown (Cleveland), pitcher.  
 Edward Cascarella (Athletics), pitcher.  
 Hal Warstler (Athletics), substitute for infielder.  
 Frank O'Doul (Giants), outfielder.  
 Mr. John A. Quinn, the noted Southern League umpire, acted as chief umpire.

Results of the games follow:

Americans 17-1 Tokyo Club (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 4)  
 Americans 5-1 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 5)  
 Americans 5-2 All Japan (Yunokawa Grounds, Hakodate, November 8)  
 Americans 7-0 All Japan (Yagiyama Grounds Sendai, November 9)  
 Americans 10-0 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 10)  
 Ruth team 13-2 Miller team, exhibition (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 11)  
 Americans 14-0 All Japan (Jintsu Grounds, Toyama, November 13)  
 Americans 15-6 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 17)  
 Americans 21-4 All Japan (Yokohama Park Grounds, Yokohama, November 18)  
 Americans 1-0 All Japan (Shizuoka City Grounds, Shizuoka, November 20)  
 Americans 6-5 All Japan (Narumi Grounds, Nagoya, November 22)  
 Americans 6-2 All Japan (Narumi Grounds, Nagoya, November 23)  
 Americans 15-3 All Japan (Koshien Grounds, Hyogo, November 24)  
 Miller team 5-1 Ruth team, exhibition (Koshien Grounds, Hyogo, November 25)

Americans 8-1 All Japan (Itatau Grounds, Kokura, November 26)  
 Americans 14-1 All Japan (Kyoto City Grounds, Kyoto, November 28)  
 Americans 23-5 All Japan (Omiya Grounds, Saitama, November 29)  
 Americans 14-5 All Japan (Utsunomiya Grounds, Tochigi, December 1)

### Track and Field

The birth of track and field sports in Japan dates back to the Meiji Restoration in 1868. In the following year, a physical training course was added to the curriculum of middle schools, which consisted of gymnastics introduced by the Dutch. In the meantime, those who returned home to Japan from abroad, much impressed by athletics in foreign countries advocated the introduction of Western athletics. Several foreign teachers were invited to teach athletics as well as English. Running and jumping were taught, but progress was slow. The first Japanese track and field meet was held in Tokyo in 1884, but the first really systematic athletic meet was not held until 1886. At the latter meet, programmes were printed. It was an epoch-making event. Track and field events about 1889 and 1890 were almost the same as they are now. There were the 100, 220, 400, 880 yards, the 100 yard hurdles, cricket ball throw, the three-legged race and so on. As for records, the best was 10.8 seconds for the 100-yard dash and 18 seconds for the 100-yard hurdles. From that time on, progress was gradual until 1912, when Japan took part in the World Olympic Games for the first time. An outline of the progress of Western sports in Japan in subsequent years is given in the first section titled "Japan in the World Olympics."

At the invitation of the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation, the American track and field stars, captained by Glenn Cunningham, the

world famous distance runner, visited Japan in September, 1934, for a series of contests against the leading Japanese athletes. They were the first and strongest athletic force ever came to Japan from the United States, and staged one of the biggest track and field events in this country.

The Americans with 14 members, engaged in two dual meets with the selected Japanese team in Tokyo and Osaka, and appeared in five exhibition contests, visiting Nagoya, Dairen, Seoul and Fukuoka. Their visit was successful, contributing much to Japan's athletic circle and also toward the international friendship between the two countries. The Americans won the first dual contest, held on September 8 and 9 in Tokyo, by a score of 84 points to 75, but lost the second meet to Japan by a close 77½ points to 75½ in Osaka a week later, which was an unexpected victory for the local side. Three world and 13 Japanese records were shattered in these dual contests.

Ralph Metcalfe, the ranking dusky American sprinter, covered the 200-metre course in 20.2 seconds, clipping four tenth of a second from his own world mark, both in Tokyo and later in the Dairen meet. Another world record was bettered by a Japanese, Kenkichi Oshima, former Kwansai University ace, who won the hop, step and jump event with a leap of 15.82 metres in the second dual meet in Osaka. The former world record for this event was 15.72 metres held by Chuhei Nambu of Japan, a sensation in the last Olympic Games in Los Angeles.

Members of the American team were:

Glenn Cunningham (Kansas University); John Anderson (Cornell University); Robert Clark (Olympic Club); Frank Crowley (Manhattan College); Gordon Dunn (Stanford University); Donald Favor (University of Maine); Phil Good (Bordoin University); Howard

Greene (Abilen Christian College); Charles Hornbostel (Indiana University); Walter Marty (Fresno State University); Ralph Metcalfe (Marquette University); Charles Parsons (University of Southern California); Wirt Thompson (Yale University); and Dudley Wilkins (Louisiana State University). Coach—Mr. John Magee, vice-president of the American Athletic Union.

Winners of the first dual meet were:

#### Track Events

100-metre dash, Ralph Metcalfe (United States), 10.5 seconds; 200-metre dash, Metcalfe (United States), 20.2 seconds (new world record); 400-metre run, Charles Hornbostel (United States), 49.2 seconds; 800-metre run, Hornbostel (United States), 1:54.0 minute; 1,500-metre run, Glenn Cunningham (United States), 4:58.6 minutes; 5,000-metre run, Ryu Choshun (Japan), 15:41.8 minutes; 110-metre high hurdles, Phil Good (United States), 14.6 seconds; 400-metre relay, American team (Clark, Greene, Parsons and Metcalfe), 41.3 seconds; and Swedish relay, American team (Metcalfe, Parsons, Greene and Hornbostel), 1:57.6 minute.

#### Field Events

High jump, Yoshiro Asakuma (Japan), 1.95 metre; broad jump, Naondo Harada (Japan), 7.59 metres; hop, step and jump, Kenkichi Oshima (Japan), 15.82 metres; pole vault, Suyeo Oyé (Japan), 4 metres; Shot put, Gordon Dunn (United States), 15.25 metres; discus throw, Dunn (United States), 47.42 metres; hammer throw, Isao Abé (Japan), 48.98 metres; and javelin throw, Saburo Nagao (Japan), 62.97 metres.

#### Points scored:

United States		Japan
6	800-metre run	4
4	Broad jump	6
7	Discus throw	3
7	100-metre dash	3
3	High jump	7
4	5,000-metre run	6
3	Javelin throw	7
4	400-metre relay	1
7	400-metre run	3
6	Shot put	4
4	Pole vault	6
6	High hurdles	3
4	Hammer throw	6
7	200-metre dash	3
3	Hop, step and jump	7
5	1,500-metre run	5
4	Swedish relay	1
84		75

Winners in the second dual meet were:

#### Track Events

100-metre dash, Ralph Metcalfe (United States), 10.3 seconds (tied the world record); 200-metre dash, Metcalfe (United States), 21.4 seconds; 400-metre run, Charles Hornbostel (United States), 49.2 seconds; 800-metre run, Glenn Cunningham (United States), 3:58.4 minutes; 5,000-metre run, Frank Crowley (United States), 16:58.5 minutes; 110-metre high hurdles, Tadashi Murakami (Japan), 14.6 seconds; and Swedish relay, Japanese team (Yoshioka, Taniguchi, Miyagi, and Imai), 1:57.5 minute.

#### Field Events

High jump, Yoshiro Asakuma (Japan), 2 metres; broad jump, Masao Harada (Japan), 7.59 metres; hop, step and jump, Kenkichi Oshima (Japan), 15.82 metres (new world record); pole vault, Suyeo Oyé (Japan), 4.20 metres; shot put, Gordon Dunn (United States), 15.25 metres; discus throw, Dunn (United States), 46.43 metres; hammer throw, Donald Favor (United States), 51.16 metres; and javelin throw, Saburo Nagao (Japan), 62.98 metres.

#### Points scored:

United States		Japan
7	100-metre dash	3
6	200-metre dash	4
7	400-metre run	3
7	800-metre run	3
5	1,500-metre run	5
5	5,000-metre run	5
4	High hurdles	6
1	Swedish relay	4
3	High jump	6
4	Broad jump	6
2	Hop, step and jump	7
3½	Pole vault	6
6	Shot put	4
7	Discus throw	3
5	Hammer throw	5
3	Javelin throw	7
75½		77½

#### Tennis

Lawn tennis is the Western sport through which the Japanese nation won international recognition for the first time. The game was introduced into this country more than half a century ago, but real tennis, by which is meant the game as played in the West, began only 20 years or so ago.

Until then the Japanese played the game with the "soft ball." Even now the Japanese have two sorts of tennis, the hard ball and soft ball. Japan distinguished herself in tennis for the first time in 1915, when Ichiya Kumagai and Seichiro Kashio represented her in the Far Eastern Games held in Shanghai. Kashio dropped one singles match, but the rest were won by Japan.

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

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

1921 (Challenge Round)  
U.S.A. 5, Japan 0

In the singles matches, Johnston beat Kumagai 6-2, 6-4, 6-2; Tilden beat Shimizu 5-7, 4-6, 7-5, 6-2, 6-1; Tilden beat Kumagai 2-7, 6-4, 6-1; Johnston beat Shimizu 6-3, 5-7, 6-2, 6-4. In the doubles, Williams and Washburn beat Kumagai and Shimizu 6-2, 7-5, 4-6, 7-5.

1923 (Finals, American Zone)  
Australia 4, Japan 1

In the singles matches, Anderson beat Shimizu 6-0, 6-3, 6-3; Hawks beat Fukuda 6-3, 6-4, 6-3; Shimizu beat Hawks 6-4, 3-6, 2-6, 6-1, 6-4; Anderson beat Fukuda 5-1, 3-6, 6-2, 6-1. In the doubles, Anderson and Hawks beat Shimizu and Kashio 6-1, 6-2, 6-2.

1924 (Finals, American Zone)  
Australia 5, Japan 0

In the singles matches Patterson beat Shimizu 7-5, 11-9, 6-4; Wood beat Okamoto 6-4, 2-6, 6-4, 2-6, 6-1; Patterson beat Okamoto 7-5, 6-1, 6-4; Wood beat Shimizu 6-4, 6-2. In the doubles, Patterson and Wood beat Okamoto and Harada 7-5, 6-2, 6-4.

1925 (Finals, American Zone)  
Australia 4, Japan 1

In the singles matches, Patterson beat Shimizu 6-1, 5-4, 6-2; Anderson beat Harada 6-4, 3-6, 6-3, 6-1; Harada beat Patterson 6-2, 3-6, 6-1, 7-5; Hawks beat Fukuda 6-1, 6-3, 6-0. In the doubles, Patterson and Hawks beat Shimizu and Harada 6-1, 6-2, 9-7.

1926 (Finals, European Zone)  
France 3, Japan 2

In the singles matches, Cochet beat Tawara 1-6, 4-6, 7-5, 6-3, 6-2; Harada beat Lacoste 6-4, 4-6, 6-3, 9-7; Lacoste beat Tawara 6-1, 6-3, 6-2; Harada beat Cochet 6-1, 6-3, 0-6, 6-4. In the doubles, Cochet and Brugnon beat Harada and Tawara 6-0, 6-0, 6-2.

1927 (Finals, European Zone)  
France 5, Japan 0

In the singles, Cochet beat Ohta 6-0, 6-3, 6-2; Lacoste beat Harada 6-1, 6-1, 6-2; Harada and Ohta scratched the other two matches. In the doubles, Cochet and Brugnon beat Toba and Harada 9-7, 6-1, 6-2.

1928 (Finals, American Zone)  
U.S.A. 5, Japan 0

In the singles, Tilden beat Abé 6-2, 6-3, 6-0; Hennessey beat Ohta 8-6, 6-3, 6-3; Cohen beat Abé 7-9, 6-2, 6-4, 7-5; Tilden beat Ohta 6-8, 6-3, 6-1, 6-0. In the doubles, Tilden and Lott beat Toba and Abé 6-1, 10-8, 6-2.

1929 (Second Round, American Zone)  
U.S.A. 4, Japan 1

In the singles matches, Hennessey beat Abé 8-6, 6-1, 3-6, 6-1; Ohta beat Van Ryn 6-4, 5-7, 2-6, 6-4, 7-5; Van Ryn beat Abé 6-2, 4-6, 6-3, 6-2; Hennessey beat Ohta 6-2, 6-2, 6-2. In the doubles, Hennessey and Van Ryn beat Abé and Ohta 6-3, 6-4, 6-2.

1930 (Finals, European Zone)  
Italy 3, Japan 2

In the singles matches, de Stefani beat Ohta 6-3, 6-4, 4-6, 6-4; Harada beat Morpurgo

6-4, 6-3, 7-5; Harada beat de Stefani 6-2, 7-5, 7-5; Morpurgo beat Ohta 6-0, 6-0, 6-1. In the doubles, Morpurgo and Gaslini beat Harada and Abé 8-6, 9-7, 6-3, 2-6, 6-1.

1931 (Second Round, European Zone)  
Great Britain 5, Japan 0

In the singles matches, Perry beat Jiro Sato 6-1, 4-6, 7-5, 7-5; Austin beat Hyotaro Sato 0-6, 6-2, 6-4, 6-1; Austin beat Kawaji 6-1, 0-6, 8-6, 6-2; Perry beat Hyotaro Sato 6-2, 6-3, 4-6, 6-2. In the doubles, Hughes and Perry beat Jiro Sato and Kawaji 6-4, 6-4, 8-6.

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

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

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

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

1934

1. Hideo Nishimura (Keio U.)
2. Jiro Yamagishi (Keio U.)
3. Jiro Fujikura (Meiji U.)
4. Hyotaro Sato (Asahi Shimbun)
5. Hajimé Ebisu (Kajimaya Club)
6. Yoshio Miyagi (Tokyo Imperial U.)
7. Shogoro Yamaoka (Waseda U.)
8. Keigo Yamada (Keio U.)
9. Shunsuké Hirai (Keio U.)
10. Yasuo Murakami (Keio U.)
11. Chuji Kusumoto (Tokyo Imperial U.)
12. Akimasa Miura (Waseda U.)
13. Toshiji Yoshioka (Kyoto Club)
14. Masatomo Tsukada (Meiji U.)
15. Junzo Kinoshita (Kwansei Gakuin)
16. Tatsuro Goto (Tokyo Commercial U.)
17. Shizuo Fujii (Kwansai U.)
18. Masayoshi Takahashi (Keio U.)
19. Ainosuké Kuwazawa (Waseda U.)
20. Taunaji Watanabé (Waseda U.)

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

Jack Crawford beat Jiro Fujikura, 6-3, 6-3, 11-9. Vivian McGrath beat Jiro Yamagishi, 2-6, 7-5, 6-2, 6-4. Fujikura beat McGrath, 6-4, 5-7, 6-2, 8-6. Oswald Turnbull beat Yamagishi, 6-4, 7-5, 9-7. In the doubles, Crawford and Adrian Quist beat Yamagishi and Hideo Nishimura, 6-1, 6-0, 4-6, 9-7.

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

In the singles matches, Roderick Menzel beat Hideo Nishimura, 6-3, 6-2, 8-6; Josef Zaska beat Jiro Yamagishi, 6-1, 8-6, 6-3; Zaska beat Nishimura, 6-2, 6-3, 6-8, 6-2; and Yamagishi beat Ladislau Hecht, 6-4, 6-1, 6-3. In the doubles, Menzel and Josef Malacek beat Nishimura and Yamagishi, 2-6, 6-2, 6-1, 6-1. All matches were played at Prague on June 6, 7 and 8.

Tennis Ranking in Japan

Rankings are decided by a committee of the Japan Lawn Tennis Association on the basis of the results of matches played in Japan. It happens, therefore, that Davis Cup players, who have had no chance to play in Japan, are barred from the ranking list. A new list is announced usually each January.

The ranking list for 1934 and 1935 follows:

Singles

1935

- Jiro Yamagishi (Keio U.)  
Hideo Nishimura (Keio U.)  
Shunsuké Hirai (Keio U.)  
Chuji Kusumoto (Tokyo Imperial U.)  
Shigeo Akimoto (Koshien Club)  
Hyotaro Sato (Asahi Shimbun)  
Keigo Yamada (Keio U.)  
Junzo Kinoshita (Kwansei Gakuin)  
Shinroku Hayashi (Tokyo Imperial U.)  
Masataro Tsukada (Meiji U.)  
Sakuzo Hasegawa (Senshu U.)  
Asao Takada (Tokyo Commercial U.)  
Jiro Fujikura (Meiji U.)  
Akimasa Miura (Waseda U.)  
Tatsuro Goto (Tokyo Commercial U.)  
Ainosuké Kuwazawa (Waseda U.)  
Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)  
Masayoshi Takahashi (Keio U.)  
Shizuo Fujii (Kwansai U.)  
Nobuo Ozaki (Kwansei Gakuin)

## Doubles

- |  |                                   |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Nishimura-Yamagishi (Keio U.)       | Nishimura-Yamagishi (Keio U.)     |
| 2. Fujikura brothers (Meiji U.)        | Takahashi-Murakami (Keio U.)      |
| 3. Yamaoka-Yoshikawa (Waseda U.)       | Fujii-Kuramitsu (Kwansai U.)      |
| 4. Miyagi-Saito (Tokyo Imperial U.)    | Kuwazawa-Hattori (Waseda U.)      |
| 5. Yasuda-Watanabe (Waseda U.)         | Kinoshita-Ozaki (Kwansai Gakuin)  |
| 6. Ueyehara-Murakami (Koshien Club)    | Fujikura-Tsukada (Meiji U.)       |
| 7. Kuwabara-Ueyehara (Osawa Shokai)    | Goto-Takada (Tokyo Commercial U.) |
| 8. R. Murakami-Takahashi (Keio U.)     | Akimoto-Horigoshi (Koshien Club)  |
| 9. Kajima-Kusumoto (Tokyo Imperial U.) | Kawamura-Kiyosu (Kwansai Gakuin)  |
| 10. Kawasaki-Kinoshita (Kansai Gakuin) | Hasegawa-Isobe (Senshu U.)        |

The following list shows the winners in the annual National Tennis Championship tournament which

## Singles

- |      |                   |
|------|-------------------|
| 1922 | Masanosuke Fukuda |
| 1923 | Takeichi Harada   |
| 1924 | Tsumio Tawara     |
| 1925 | Tsumio Tawara     |
| 1926 | Yoshio Ota        |
| 1927 | Tamio Abe         |
| 1928 | Hajime Makino     |
| 1929 | Takeichi Harada   |
| 1930 | Jiro Sato         |
| 1931 | Takao Kuwabara    |
| 1932 | Ryosuke Nunoi     |
| 1933 | Hideo Nishimura   |
| 1934 | Jiro Yamagishi    |

In the 1934 tournament, Yamagishi won the singles title by defeating Hideo Nishimura in the final by a score of 6-0, 6-3, 6-1. The doubles championship was successfully defended by Yamagishi and Nishimura who beat Reizo Murakami and Masayoshi Takahashi of Keio University in an easy three-set match, the score being 6-0, 6-2, 6-2.

## Swimming

Swimming is one of Japan's major sports that has been handed down from time immemorial. Surrounded on all sides by the sea, the people of the Island Empire had easy access to water. It was but natural that the people became adept in swimming, and swimming masters turned out several distinct styles of swimming, some of which more or less resembled the Western crawl of

takes place in Tokyo in November every year:

## Doubles

- |   |
|---|
| Tamio Abe and Ryuzo Kawazuma            |
| Tamio Abe and Ryuzo Kawazuma            |
| Iwao Aoki and Taku Ukegawa              |
| Tamio Abe and Kyo Kawajiri              |
| Hisataka Aizawa and Kengo Asoo          |
| Tamio Abe and Masanosuke Fukuda         |
| Seichi Yamagishi and Hikoshichi Shimura |
| Ichiya Kumagai and Takeichi Harada      |
| Seichi Yamagishi and Hikoshichi Shimura |
| Seichi Yamagishi and Yasuo Murakami     |
| Jiro Sato and Minoru Kawaji             |
| Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi      |
| Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi      |

the present day. Swimming in ancient Japan was a serious subject of study, especially for the fishermen and warriors, to whom swimming was more a practical necessity than a healthful diversion.

The Western crawl was introduced into Japan about 1910. Since then the Japanese have not only copied but developed it into a more perfect stroke. The result was the remarkable showing made by the Japanese mermen at the Tenth Olympiad in Los Angeles in 1932.

As a partial explanation of the swimming ability of the Japanese, it is said that the race is particularly fitted for prowess in swimming. A modern physician once said that the Japanese show better development than other peoples in the muscles in the upper part of the lower limbs that bind them with the lower part

of the trunk. It is noted in this connection that clever use of the lower limbs, which depend on the muscles in the upper limbs, plays an important part in swimming.

The 1934 national swimming championship meet, held on August 11, 12 and 13 at the Meiji Shrine pool, Tokyo, was featured by the participation of the three American crack mermen, Jack Medica, Arthur Highland and Albert Vande Weghe, who won three out of six events they took part. Two world records were broken in the meet, one by Vande Weghe, and the other by Negami.

The full results follow:

## Men's Events

100-metre free style—Won by Masanori Yusa (Nihon); 2nd, Highland (United States); 3rd, Sakagami (Waseda). Time, 59 seconds.

200-metre free style—Won by Masanori Yusa (Nihon); 2nd, Taguchi (Kyoto); 3rd, Sugiura (Mitsuké). Time, 2:17.4 minutes.

400-metre free style—Won by Jack Medica (United States); 2nd, Makino (Waseda); 3rd, Negami (Rikkyo). Time, 4:47.8 minutes.

1,500-metre free style—Won by Hiroshi Negami (Rikkyo); 2nd, Makino (Waseda); 3rd, Medica (United States). Time, 19:16.0 minutes. Negami's lap time in the 1,000-metre, 12:41.8 minutes was a new world record.

100-metre back stroke—Won by Albert Vande Weghe (United States); 2nd, Yoshida (Saeki); 3rd, Katsuhisa (Waseda). Time, 1:8.8 minute.

200-metre back stroke—Won by Albert Vande Weghe (United States); 2nd, Yoshida (Saeki Middle); 3rd, Kawazu (Meiji). Time, 2:33.2 minutes (new world record).

100-metre breast stroke—Won by Reizo Koike (Keio); 2nd, Hamuro (Nihon); 3rd, Okada (Nihon). Time, 1:15.0 minute.

200-metre breast stroke—Won by Reizo Koike (Keio); 2nd, Hamuro (Nihon); 3rd, Nakagawa (Nagoya). Time, 2:45.0 minutes.

500-metre relay—Won by Waseda team (Nagami, Shimura, Sakagami and Makino); 2nd, Meiji; 3rd, Kyoto Butokukai. Time, 9:15.0 minutes.

## Women's Events

100-metre free style—Won by Umeko Shiomii (Sugiyama); 2nd, Koizumi (Sugiyama); 3rd, Watanabe (Aichi Shukutoku). Time, 1:16.4 minute.

200-metre free style—Won by Kazuyé Kojima (Sugiyama); 2nd, Shiomii (Sugiyama); 3rd, Kokan (Chukyo). Time, 2:51.0 minutes.

400-metre free style—Won by Tsuneko Furuta (Nakaizui); 2nd, Kawamura (Yokohama); 3rd, Kitajima (Sugiyama). Time, 6:36.6 minutes.

100-metre back stroke—Won by Haruko Kogiso (Aichi Shukutoku); 2nd, Oda (Tsukushi); 3rd, Izumi (Kyoto). Time, 1:30.0 minute.

200-metre breast stroke—Won by Hideko Mayehata (Sugiyama); 2nd, Tsuboi (Kyoto); 3rd, Mashita (Kyoto Nijo). Time, 3:5.8 minutes.

400-metre relay—Won by Sugiyama team (Shiomii, Mayehata, Hattori and Kojima); 2nd, Kyoto Nijo; 3rd, Aichi Shukutoku. Time, 5:22.4 minutes.

## Wrestling (Sumo)

Japan's traditional wrestling, known in Japanese as sumo, is another ancient sport of Japan. It is recorded in ancient history that Nomi-no Sukuné and Taéma-no Kehaya wrestled before the Emperor Suinin. In feudal times each lord had under him the strongest wrestler of the province, and he made it a custom to arrange a match with the wrestler of another lord. Such being the case, the wrestler who was strong and won for his lord many laurels enjoyed warm patronage. Public estimation of wrestlers in those days was unusually high. During the Tokugawa era, which extended for nearly 300 years before the Meiji Restoration (1868), a wrestling tournament was organized, and in January and May of each year the best wrestlers of the Kwanto district (Eastern Japan) gathered for it at Ryogoku, Yédo (present Tokyo). Rankings were decided on the basis of the showing made at the tournaments, and the wrestlers exhibited great enthusiasm in their matches. This custom remains even to this day.

Until late in the Meiji era (1868-1912), Japan had two major wrestling organizations, one in Tokyo and the other in Osaka, but later they merged into one organization. At



the end of 1931, however, the Japan Wrestling Association had internal trouble. To be more precise, many wrestlers became dissatisfied with the traditional system of distribution of profits because the retired wrestlers, who acted as officials of the association, took the major part, virtually disregarding the wrestlers on the active list. The trouble divided the wrestlers into three separate groups. In addition to the one which remains in the association, there are the Shinko and Kakushin groups. The latter two groups adopted new rules for wrestling, and the group which remains in the association is the only one which retains the traditional wrestling.

The semi-annual tournaments of the Japan Wrestling Association are held at the Kokugi-kan amphitheatre at Ryogoku, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 11 days. The wrestlers are all professional, and the majority of them have unusually well-developed bodies. Victory in a typical Japanese wrestling match is a matter of a minute or two. Very often it is a matter of a few seconds. The wrestler who forces his opponent to fall or even let any part of the body above the knee touch the ground or to jump out of the ring is declared by the umpire to be the winner. It is said that there are 48 different ways of defeating an opponent. Wrestling is also practised widely in schools, as are jujitsu and fencing.

The list of the principal sumo wrestlers, in May, 1935, follows:

In the order of seniority in the East Camp, Tamanishiki (Yokozuna, or Grand Champion); Musashiyama (Ozeki, or Champion); Shinkai (Sekiwake, or champion No. 2); Hatasegawa (Komusubi, or champion No. 3).

In the order of seniority in the West Camp, Minanogawa (Ozeki, or Champion); Shimizugawa (Haridashi-Ozeki, or Junior champion); Takanobori (Sekiwake, or champion No. 2); Tomoyegata (Komusubi, or champion No. 3).

### Jujitsu (Judo)

Jujitsu, more popularly known as judo, is more a military art than a sport. In olden times, this art of self-defence was widely practised among the warriors, to whom it came next to kenjutsu, or fencing, in importance. One essential difference between wrestling and jujitsu is in the use of strength. The wrestler as a rule throws down his opponent by his own strength, but the jujitsu expert uses little of his own strength, rather taking advantage of the weight and strength of his opponent in hurling him to the floor. Action is unusually swift, and a good expert of jujitsu can easily dispose of a dozen non-jujitsu men in a fight.

This manly art of self-defence was developed to its present popularity and prosperity chiefly by Prof. Jigoro Kano, promoter of the Kodokan style of jujitsu and head of the Kodokan, the leading jujitsu training quarters in Japan. Since he established the Kodokan in 1886, he has turned out thousands of experts, and these experts in turn have popularized the art throughout the length and breadth of the land. After the Russo-Japanese War, jujitsu became popular in foreign countries, where Japanese instructors were invited to teach it. Some foreign writers became enthusiastic over the art, which they said embodied the spirit of the Japanese race, and even went the length of declaring that to it the Japanese owed in large measure their brilliant victory in the Russo-Japanese War, the first war in which an Oriental nation defeated a major Western Power.

At present jujitsu is practised in all middle schools and other higher schools in Japan for its value in physical and mental culture. Many schools have teams, and as with baseball and tennis these teams have seasonal clashes. Private clubs and

training halls are found in all cities of Japan. Experts receive degrees from the Kodokan.

The list of Japan's outstanding jujitsu experts of the Kodokan includes Nagaoka and Isogai, both holders of kudan, the strongest, Iizuka, Samura, Tabata and Mifuné, all holders of hachidan, the next strongest.

### Boxing

Boxing is a Western sport which has earned phenomenal popularity in Japan during the past few years. Earlier, interest was quite negligible. The rapidity with which boxing has become popular in this country owes much to American motion pictures, which introduced it. The hero who gives the villain a black eye and finally knocks him down caught the fancy of the Japanese people, and films recording the major bouts of the past decade, including the famous Dempsey-Tunney fight, also went a long way toward creating interest in boxing here.

Boxing clubs are to be found in all leading cities of Japan. In Tokyo there are about 20 professional clubs which from time to time arrange bouts for the public. There are, of course, champions, both professional and amateur. Foreign boxers are invited to fight Japanese pugilists. Intercollegiate boxing bouts are as popular as professional bouts and draw a heavy attendance, often several thousand men and women. It is only during the past few years, however, that boxing has paid its way.

Records show that boxing was first introduced to Japan by foreign sailors in the early years of the Meiji era (1868-1912) at Yokohama, where they landed and held a few bouts among themselves. It is also recorded that a foreign sailor had

a dispute with a Japanese samurai on the street and knocked him down in the clash which followed. The first boxing club in Japan was organized in 1910 by Mr. Kenji Kano. In about 1920, American motion pictures introduced to Japan many scenes in which boxing was employed. In the meantime, Mr. Yujiro Watanabé, trained by the noted negro fighter, Turner, returned to Japan and established a club of his own to train many youths in the pugilistic game.

Japanese boxers participated in the World Olympic Games for the first time in 1928 at Amsterdam. Of the two entrants, one lost the first tussle, but Kintaro Usuda, a welterweight, won two bouts before losing in the quarter-finals. In the Tenth Olympiad, held at Los Angeles, the Japanese boxers made an insignificant showing, not one winning a single bout. In 1931, the All-Japan Professional Boxing Association was organized to control professional boxing.

The first national boxing championship tournament was held for eight days, beginning November 5, 1934, under the joint auspices of the Japan Professional Boxing Federation and the Tokyo Nichi-Nichi Shimbun. The bouts on first five days (November 5, 12, 19, 30 and December 9) were held at the Hibiya Public Hall in Tokyo, mostly elimination matches, and the remaining three cards (December 16, 24 and 25) were held at the wrestling bowl of the Kokugikan, Ryogoku.

More than 150 boxers, mostly from Tokyo, Nagoya, Kobe, Osaka and Seoul, took part. The championships were contested in five different divisions—flyweight, bantamweight, lightweight and welterweight. The participants were divided into two classes, A and B. 30 leading fighters who appeared as favourites for

championship honours were seeded in A class, and all others were included in B class. The New York Commission rules were applied to the tournament.

Results of the final round, a 10-round match each, were as follows:

Flyweight, Yoichiro Hanada (Imperial Club), 110 pounds, defeated Isamu Ito (Imperial Club), 104 pounds, on point.

Bantamweight, Shoichi Otsu (Kyokuto Club), 113 pounds, defeated Takeshi Makino (Toho Club), 117 pounds, on point.

Featherweight, Tsuneo ("Piston") Horiguchi (Nihon Club), 126 pounds, defeated Sanekatsu Koike (Dai-Nihon Club), 126 pounds, on point.

Lightweight, Kotaro Suzuki (Imperial Club), 132 pounds, defeated Koichi Takada (Nitto Club), 131 pounds, on point.

Welterweight, Yoshio Natori (Tokyo Club), 133 pounds, won over Riichi Sato (Toho Club), 143 pounds, by a foul in the seventh round.

	Meiji	Waseda	Keio	Hosei	Imperial	Shodai	Rikkyo	Won
Meiji	x	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
Waseda	0	x	1	1	1	1	1	5
Keio	0	0	x	1	1	1	1	4
Hosei	0	0	0	x	1	1	1	3
Imperial	0	0	0	0	x	1	1	2
Shodai	0	0	0	0	0	x	1	1
Rikkyo	0	0	0	0	0	0	x	0
Lost	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	

The Meiji fifteen captured the championship by winning all matches.

The deciding match for the national collegiate title between Meiji, the Kwanto champion, and the Kyoto Imperial, winner of the Kwansai league, ended in a victory of the latter by a score of 16 points to 13. The winners scored two goals, one try and one penalty goal, while Meiji

### Football

Rugby Imported from England, this winter sport has gained much popularity during the past decade. The leading universities in Tokyo have a league, and their matches draw large crowds. Japan and Canada have exchanged teams during the last few years. The all-Japan team which invaded Canada left a very impressive record, winning several matches and losing none.

Soccer Soccer is also fast gaining popularity here. The Football Association was organized in September, 1921, in Tokyo, and since then an annual national championship game has been held.

Results of the Kwanto Inter-Varsity Rugby League, 1934.

made two goals and one penalty goal. The match was played at the Hanzono stadium in Kyoto on January 7, 1935.

After winning the Kwanto league matches, the Meiji University team invaded Shanghai in December, 1934, and won all three matches they played there. The following is the results:

December 16, Meiji defeated the American Marine team, 42 to 6.

December 22, Meiji defeated the Shanghai Club 19 to 11.

December 25, Meiji defeated the All Shanghai team, 11 to 5.

The Tokyo Collegiate Soccer League, formed in 1923, now boasts of 33 members which are divided into six divisions. Keio and Waseda were tied in the first place of the first division matches in 1934. The two

teams met in the deciding game for the Tokyo title twice, but fought to draw each time. The first game resulted in a 3-3 tie and the second, 7-7. The championship, therefore, is kept by the League.

Waseda, representing the Tokyo League, shut out the Kyoto Imperial eleven, winner of the Kwansai League, by 6 goals to 0 to win the national Collegiate championship. The match was played at the Koshien stadium, near Osaka, December 16, 1934.

### Rowing

This is one of the Western sports introduced to Japan early in the Meiji era. The Tokyo Imperial University took it up first. Japan's rowing team did not fare well at the Tenth Olympic Games at Los Angeles. Lack of training and poor physical power were blamed for the defeat. The leading universities have races on the Sumida River each year.

The final tryout to select the crew that will represent Japan in the Olympic Games at Berlin in 1936, was held on the River Ara on June 1, 2 and 3, with twelve of the leading college crews of the country taking part. The crews competed were the Tokyo Imperial University, the Tokyo University of Commerce, Keio,

Waseda, Meiji, Nihon, Takudai, Japan Medical, the Tokyo School of Foreign Languages, Okura Higher Commercial, the Kyoto Imperial and Doshisha.

Several upsets featured the tryout through excellent performances by new comers such as Nihon and Takudai, resulting Waseda, the 1932 Olympic crew, being eliminated on the first-day race. Keio, the 1934 national and inter-college champion, was also defeated on the second day by Nihon. The Tokyo Imperial University eight, however, finally won a victory, by defeating Nihon by two lengths in the deciding race on the third day. The winner's time for the 2,000-metre course was 6 minutes flat and that of Nihon 6 minutes 7 seconds. The experts and officials of the Japan Rowing Association predict that the Imperial crew will be placed in the next Olympic races after a year of training, as it finished the race with the excellent time.

Members of the Imperial crew are:

Position	Names	Age	Height	Weight
Cox	Tadashi Kirishima	23	5.1 feet	96 pounds
Stroke	Tadashi Negishi	23	5.6	129
7	Katsu Kashiwabara	21	5.6	137
6	Mondo Sekigawa	22	5.9	160
5	Isamu Mita	22	5.9	140
4	Osamu Kitamura	23	5.6	143
3	Haruyoshi Nakagawa	23	5.7	143
2	Takeo Hori	22	5.6	132
Bow	Yoshiteru Suzuki	24	5.5	130

Average Height  
Average Weight  
Coach

5.6 feet  
134 pounds  
Mr. Shuhei Seta.

### Horsemanship

Japan's horsemanship won international recognition at the Tenth Olympiad at Los Angeles when Lieutenant Baron Takeichi Nishi, of the Japanese Army, won the Prix des Nations and had the flag of the Rising Sun hoisted. Horsemanship was

widely practised by the warriors of the feudal period as a military art. The Japanese army attaches importance to horsemanship and takes great pains in training officers and men. Horsemanship is also gaining popularity among college students and even women. There are at present about 15 clubs in large cities,

and many universities and colleges have their own riding societies. Horse racing regained popularity with the use of pari-mutual tickets under strict restrictions in 1923. The Government encourages racing by granting aids. There are more than a score of race clubs throughout the country, most of the races being held semi-annually, that is in the spring and autumn.

Those qualified in the second try-out, selecting five members of the Japan's riding team to the Olympic Games in 1936, held at the Military Cavalry School, Chiba, in May, 1935, were:

Major Seishiro Otaki; Captains Hosaku Inamura, Asanosuké Matsui and Baron Takeichi Nishi; Lieutenants Manabu Iwabashi and Hiroji Inaba. Except Captain Baron Nishi who won the Prix des Nations at the 10th Olympic Games in Los Angeles, all other five are new comers. The final tryout is scheduled to take place in December, 1935.

Takeshigé Yoshida (Hosei University) won the 1934 championship of the national student horsemanship tournament.

### Golf

Once a pastime of the wealthy, golf is beginning to become popular with the opening of public courses. Clubs are to be found in practically all large cities and their environs. A group of Japanese golfers visited the United States in 1932 and participated in national and State tournaments. Although they failed to win any title, they made impressive records. The list of golf links follow:

Name	System	Number of courses	Prefecture
Tama	Club	18	Tokyo
Komazawa	Public	18	"
Akabané	Club	9	"
Fujigaya	"	18	Chiba
Mitsumi	"	18	"

Name	System	Number of courses	Prefecture
Abiko	Club	18	Chiba
Kashiwa	Public	9	"
Takanodai	Club	18	"
Sagami	"	18	Kanagawa
Fujisawa	Semi-public	18	"
Fujisawa Merry Golf	Club (ladies)	9	"
Hodogaya	Club	18	"
Sengoku-hara	Public	9	"
Asaka	Club	18	Saitama
Kasumigaseki	"	36	"
Kawaguchi	Public	9	"
Kawana Ohzima course	"	18	Shizuoka
Fuji course	Club	18	"
Karuzawa	"	18	Nagano
"	Public	9	"
Ibaragi	Club	18	Osaka
Inagawa	"	18	"
Hirono	Semi-public	18	Hyogo
Takarazuka	Club	18	"
Beppu	Semi-public	9	Oita
Unzen	"	18	Nagasaki
Nagoya	Club	18	Aichi
Zenibako	Club	9	Hokkaido
Hakodaté	"	6	"
Tsukisaypu	"	9	"
Doyako	Public	6	"
Asahigawa	Club	6	"
Muroran	"	6	"

### Skiing and Skating

Introduced here only a decade or so ago, skiing has become extremely popular. Japan abounds in good grounds in the northern districts, which accounts for the rapid strides skiing has made. Numerous women are taking to it of recent years. In 1929, Hannes Schneider, the prominent Austrian skier, visited Japan and exhibited his technique at various skiing slopes at Akakura, Myoko, etc., making a great impression among Japan's ski lovers.

Skating is an older game than skiing in this country. As a sport for the general public, an exhibition was first given about 1907 on Lake Suwa, in Nagano prefecture. The All-Japan Skating Championship Meet for speed skating, figure skating and ice hockey is held there yearly. At Nikko, a rink of tremendous size was laid in the winter

of 1932 to permit the public to enjoy the pastime. A list of important ski grounds follows:

Name	Prefecture
(Joetsu line)	
Akagiyama	Gumma
Iwano-hara	Gumma
Mizukami	"
Uzawa-onsen	Niigata
Ojiya	"
Doai	"
(Shin-etsu line)	
Kusatsu	Gumma
Kazawa	"
Sugadaira	Nagano
Kanbayashi	"
Hoppo	"
Kumanoyu	"
Iiyama	"
Nozawa	"
Akakura	"
Ikenodaira	"
Seki	Niigata
Tsubamé-onsen	"
(Chuo line)	
Kirigamine	Nagano
(Hokuriku line)	
Foot of Tateyama	Toyama
Unazuki	"
(Nikko line)	
Nikko	Tochigi
Senjoga-hara	"
(Ban-etsu line)	
Numajiri	Fukushima
(Oh-u line)	
Goshiki-onsen	Yamagata
Ohwaní-onsen	Aomori
(Tohoku line)	
Za-osan	Miyagi
(Rikuu line)	
Naruko-onsen	Miyagi
(Tokaido line)	
Foot of Mt. Fuji	Shizuoka
Ibukiyama	Shiga
Rokko	Hyogo
(Hokkaido line)	
Aoyama	Hokkaido
Ezofuji	"
Sankakuyama (Sapporo)	"
Teiné (Sapporo)	"
Midorigaoka (Otaru)	"
Foot of Tokachidake	"
(Karafuto line)	
Toyohara	Karafuto
Asahidake	Karafuto
Ohdomari	"
Ochiai	"
Maoka	"
(ALPINE SKI GROUND)	
Shirouma	Nagano
Norikura	"
Kamikochi	"

Most of skii grounds have shanze, and such grounds as have complete equipments are as follows:

Akagi, Sankakuyama, Nozawa, Iiyama, Numajiri and Toyohara

### Other Sports

**Basketball** Basketball is very popular not only among boys but girls in secondary and higher schools. The Meiji University basketball team invaded the United States in the winter of 1932 and 1933, but it made an insignificant showing.

At the joint invitation of the Japan Basketball Association and the Hochi Shimbun, an American all-star basketball squad of eight men headed by Mr. Clarence Anderson, assistant basketball coach of the University of Southern California, arrived in Yokohama May 5, 1935. The Americans stayed in this country for a month during which they played eight games and one exhibition match with the leading Japanese teams, winning all. Their visit benefited the basketball circle of Japan a great deal, mastering the American's excellent tactics in both defence and charge.

Results of the games were:

Americans 33-25 Tokyo Imperial University team (Tokyo); Americans 38-23 Japan's pick-up student team (Tokyo); Americans 34-14 All Japan (Tokyo); Americans 36-23 All Japan (Osaka); Americans 64-32 Kyoto Imperial University team (Kyoto); Americans 22-15 All Japan (Tokyo); Americans 52-24 All Japan (Tokyo); and Americans 74-29 All Niigata (Niigata).

Members of the American team were:

William Pierce (U. S. C.), Richard Linthicum (University of California), Donald Piper (U. C.), George Brotlemarkle (U. C.), Kenneth Fagan<sup>8</sup> (Oregon State College), George Curtner (University of Pittsburgh), Duane Swanson (University of Iowa) and Victor Larkin (U. C.)

**Volley-ball** This sport came to Japan with basketball and is now quite popular among school girls. National championship games are held annually.

**Hockey** Hockey is more or less a novelty in Japan. It was in November, 1920, that the first national tournament was held, when the Waseda University team captured the honours. At the Tenth Olympiad at Los Angeles, the Japanese team beat the United States squad and finished second behind the Indians.

**American Football** The American football game was introduced by the picked Japanese student team (formed mostly with the American-born Japanese boys, studying in Tokyo) and the Y. C. and A. C. eleven (foreigners' athletic club in Yokohama) on the Thanksgiving Day, November 29, 1934, at the Meiji Shrine stadium. The game ended in a victory of the Japanese students who shut out the foreigners 26 to 0.

In December, the Tokyo Collegiate

American Football League was formed among Meiji, Waseda and Rikkyo, and the league games were played in the same month, with Meiji capturing the first championship by two wins over Rikkyo and Waseda. Waseda finished second, winning over Rikkyo and losing to Meiji, and Rikkyo took third place, losing all games. Hosei and Keio joined the League later.

In March, 1935, the Asahi Shimbun invited 35 leading football players from the United States, selected from several universities in the Pacific Coast, who gave a series of exhibition games in Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya and Fukuoka. The American football players were led by Mr. Albert L. Maloney star quarter-back of the University of Southern California eleven.

## CHAPTER XXXVII

### AMUSEMENTS AND CALENDAR OF ANNUAL EVENTS

#### Amusements

##### The Drama

Japan has a drama all her own. The common stage is the "kabuki", essentially a product of past ages, which, with its enchanting beauty and gorgeous colour, often captivates the fancy of foreign visitors. The kabuki drama is not old as age goes in Japan. It sprang spontaneously from the people, the tradesmen, the artisans and others who were excluded from the pleasures enjoyed by the aristocrats and samurai in the old days, but, like all organic growth, its forbears may be recognized in the stage art of Japan prior to its birth.

**The Origin** The religious dance that was the precursor of drama goes back through centuries to the mythological age of the gods, when the great Sun Goddess, offended by her brother, retired to a deep cavern, casting the world into darkness. After trying in vain to entice her from her retreat, the other gods finally hit upon the scheme of flashing a metal mirror into the cave and of jumping and shrieking before its mouth, whereupon the curious Sun Goddess came forth, the mouth of the cave was sealed, light was restored to the world and the dance was added to civilization.

For centuries the dance remained, as in other countries, a religious rite performed in Shinto shrines by virgins. With the incoming of Chinese culture, Chinese music was taken over bodily and introduced into the Imperial Court. At the time of the

establishment of the first Shogunate, that at Kamakura in the 13th century, the Buddhist semi-dances and semi-drama made a great appeal to the warrior class, and from them was evolved the "no" drama, in which both actor and playwright are subservient to interpretation. The No is a combination of music, posturing and dialogue, severely bound by conventions, with but little action, appealing to the ear and intellect rather than to the eye. The No found warm patronage among the warriors and feudal lords, continuing to hold its own with them until the Meiji Restoration, when it was identified with the then unpopular Shogunate and suffered a decline which has only recently been mitigated.

But the common people had no part in either the religious or the No dances, not even appearing as spectators. These were the exclusive prerogative of the upper classes.

**Popular Stage Appears** It was during the early part of the long Tokugawa Shogunate that the democratic stage of Japan came to birth, flowered and bore fruit. An era of peace was ushered in, and the Empire began to prosper in a material way. Not only the kabuki, but the ukiyoyé, or woodblock colour print, and other genre arts date from this period. The people had leisure, money and the inclination for pleasure. It was but natural that forms for providing that pleasure should follow.

The germs of the popular drama

may be found in society prior to this period, but have not attained much development. About 370 years before, one of the Shinto shrine dancers, O-Kuni, performed on a public street in the capital city of Kyoto, after which she wandered from place to place for the entertainment of the people. Others followed her lead, until the government decreed that thereafter only men might give public entertainments, due to the moral laxity which had ensued. The name kabuki was first applied to this pioneer dancer. Although the Chinese ideographs forming the word mean literally "singing and dancing art," Japanese scholars say that its true derivation is from an obsolete Japanese verb meaning "to be playful."

**The Kabuki** The early kabuki actors were social outcasts, or *kawara-mono* (river bed folks), but as the aristocracy learned of the new art and its charms they secretly slipped away from their palaces and homes to enjoy it. Gradually, as in other nations, the moral and social level of the stage was raised, until today there is no more social prejudice against the actor in Japan than in America and Europe. The late Emperor Meiji's attendance of a troupe of kabuki actors at the home of the late Marquis K. Inouyé improved their status immeasurably.

The introduction of the three-stringed *samisen*, or guitar, into Japan from the Loochoo Islands constitutes another high-water mark for the drama, for in time the musical compositions for the *No* were adapted to this instrument of the streets, and there followed the puppet show, which has survived to this day. These marionette theatres called to their aid some of the best talent in the country, musicians, playwrights and puppet manipulators collaborating in the work.

From dolls to human beings was a natural step, and the kabuki emerged as a separate and distinct art of a high order.

Drawing extensively on both the *No* drama and the marionette performances, the kabuki is found to embrace four general classifications: historical dramas, plays of everyday life, fantastic, imaginative improvisations and music-posture plays, or dances. It is often difficult, however, to separate any particular drama into one of the four classifications, for the play with historical characters may also be a play dealing with their very human emotions.

**The Technique** To the Westerner, the technique of kabuki may seem at first extremely complicated. The drama is primarily a picture for the eye, although dialogue is carried on and an orchestra-chorus seated on the stage plays very much the same rôle as was played by the chorus in classical Greek drama, aiding the action with explanations to the audience. The life and thought, costumes and manners of all classes of feudal society are well illustrated on the kabuki stage, while skilful colour combinations in costumes, stage architecture and furniture tend to carry the spectators into a land of imagination and romance. According to Western visitors, the stage of Japan cannot be surpassed in sheer artistry. In dramatic ability it takes rank with that of any country. In stage settings and mechanics it has much to teach the rest of the world, and it still has something to learn therefrom. Its gorgeousness of costuming and pageantry finds no equal. One of the features of the Japanese theatre is the *hana michi*, or flowery way, which usually consists of two long narrow platforms on the same level which stretch through the audience from

the stage to the rear of the auditorium. They are chosen by the actors for their best entrances and exits and are extremely effective when processions are used.

**The Kabuki Actors** The profession of kabuki actors is in most cases hereditary. Boys of actors succeed their fathers in the profession, and actors without sons usually adopt the sons of other actors or their best disciples and give them the stage names of their families. Kikugoro Onoyé, one of the most accomplished actors, is the sixth Kikugoro Onoyé, while the late Danjuro Ichikawa represented the ninth generation of the Ichikawa family. Kabuki actors are trained from childhood and because of the difficult conventions to which they must conform few men can become actors after the age of 20.

In kabuki proper, all rôles are taken by men. The *onnagata*, or woman impersonators, devote years of study to femininity, and in most cases they are more feminine than women. In private life many of them act and speak like women, although married to women.

In comparison with screen actors, kabuki actors are paid much better. Though the matter of salaries is kept highly secret, it is well known that a high-class kabuki actor is given more than ¥10,000 a month, but in cinema circles very few actors obtain as much as ¥1,000. Stage actors are also held in much higher esteem by the general public than screen actors. They still live and work according to the family system. A high-class actor has a troupe, all the members of which are his disciples. Only the head of the troupe receives wages directly from the theatre, and he in turn divides the money among his disciples. Other feudal customs also survive among them.

Tokyo is the dramatic centre in the country. Practically all first-class kabuki actors live here, though there are a few in Osaka. They travel all over the country from time to time. The more noted ones in Tokyo are Utayemon Nakamura, Uzayemon Ichimura, Kikugorô Onoyé, Sadanji Ichikawa, Koshirô Matsumoto, Kichiyemon Nakamura, Chusha Ichikawa, Sojuro Sawamura and Ennosuké Ichikawa. The noted Osaka actors include Enjaku Jitsukawa, Fukusuké Nakamura and Kaisha Nakamura.

On the business side, kabuki is controlled entirely by a single commercial organization, the Shochiku Theatrical Company. This company not only has all the first-class actors under contract but owns or leases all of the principal playhouses throughout the country. The largest and most famous theatre is the Kabuki Theatre, commonly known as the Kabuki-za, situated back of the Ginza, Tokyo. Other well-known theatres in the capital are the Tokyo Theatre, Meiji-za, Shin Kabuki-za and Shimbashi Embujo. The Imperial Theatre, which once earned fame as a modern playhouse, has been converted into a cinema house. Osaka has the Naka-za and Naniwa-za, where Kabuki programmes are given practically throughout the year. The theatres change programmes once a month, and very seldom, if ever, are long runs given, no matter how popular a particular programme may prove, although the pieces which prove popular are repeated from time to time as long as they hold public interest.

**The Typical Programme** A typical kabuki programme has three to five offerings of different types and lasts six hours, beginning at 4 o'clock in the afternoon and ending at 10 o'clock. The majority of the spectators take dinner in res-

restaurants in the theatre during intervals. Tickets cost from 50 sen to as much as ¥7 or ¥8 a seat. All the playhouses are of Western-style, at least inside, with chairs provided for seating. Seats may be reserved 10 days in advance.

It is wrong to assume that Japanese actors specialize in producing classics alone. From time to time they insert modern plays between those of bygone generations on the programmes. In the past they have even staged plays from Shakespeare with marked success. Some actors specialize in modern plays, such as Masao Inoué, Takeo Kawai, Roku-ro Kitamura and Sesshu Hayakawa (the last named is also a screen actor known both in Japan and abroad), and they appear with actresses, as the latter are essential for the realistic type of plays, plays which are true to life and without the incongruity and exaggeration which characterize the kabuki.

A little theatre movement in Japan was started about 10 years ago, led by the late Kaoru Osanai, prominent dramatist and stage director. The group which performed at the Tsukiji Little Theatre, Tokyo, produced hundreds of Western plays in Japanese translation, but their performances aroused the interest of only a limited section of the intellectuals. The unexpected death of Mr. Osanai and the business depression that followed dealt a crushing blow to the movement and the actors split into smaller groups of insignificance.

**The Revue** The revue, a product of the West, is quite in vogue at present in Japan. Imported only a few years ago, it appealed to modern-minded youth, and several revue organizations sprang up. The largest troupe is that of the Shochiku Theatrical Company, with several hundred girls. Another influential organization is the Takarazuka Girls'

Opera Troupe, with headquarters at Takarazuka, a hot-spring resort between Osaka and Kobé. It enjoys the distinction of being the oldest in Japan, having been organized nearly two decades ago. The performances of the latter group include operas and revues and are generally more refined than those of the Shochiku Troupe, and they find warm patronage among young girls in the homes of the better and wealthier classes. Costumes and scenery in the revues are both Japanese and foreign. The Shochiku group gives occasional performances in Tokyo and Osaka, and the Takarazuka organization set up a new Tokyo Takarazuka Theatre in 1933 at Hibiya.

**The Odori** Entirely opposed to this type of foreign-style performances is the "odori", or Japanese dance, as given by the geisha, the native dancing girls. Kyoto, the ancient capital, boasts the best organization, which gives the "miyako odori" each April, better known to foreigners as the cherry dance of Kyoto. In Tokyo, the "azuma odori" (dance of eastern capital) is given at cherry-blossom time by the geisha of the Shimbashi district of the city, who also perform in the autumn, always in their own theatre, the Shimbashi Embujo, which is of Western style. Geisha dances can be enjoyed at private parties at any time of the year.

#### No Drama

The No drama is as aristocratic as the kabuki drama is plebeian, and even now its performance and enjoyment are practically restricted to the upper classes. There are very few theatres or private houses, if any, where strangers are allowed to view No upon payment of admission. Most No enthusiasts form clubs, and only members and their friends see the productions. Foreigners desiring to attend a No per-

formance are admitted through the introduction of the Japan Tourist Bureau or some acquaintance. In feudal Japan, the No was the principal form of entertainment among the aristocrats and the warrior class. It was often given in the presence of the Emperor, and there prevailed a custom for a time of inviting the common people to performances given in commemoration of some happy event by the Tokugawa Shoguns, who used the No on all ceremonial occasions.

**The Origin and Stage** The origin of the No dates back to the early part of the 15th century. Two men, Kiyotsugu Kan-nami and his son, Motokiyo Séami, revolutionized the "saru-gaku", an ancient form of dance, consisting of juggling feats and comic remarks with actions to suit, with the result that the No in its present form was developed. Not only did these two men build on what was best in their own sarugaku, but they drew freely from the "den-gaku", ancient music, which had much in common with the sarugaku. What was graceful in them was ennobled to profundity in the No, while their comical elements developed into the "kyogen", comic performances, usually given on the same programme with No pieces.

Unlike any other form of drama, the No is performed on a wooden stage of the regular size, built above the ground, 18 feet square, open on three sides, with a narrow extension on one side for the singers and another on the back of the stage for the musicians and attendants. To that rear extension is attached aslant a passage called a bridge. The players appear from under the curtain at the one end of which the passage slightly slopes down. The stage, too, is very slightly tilted to the front.

The No pieces, numbering more

than 250, are repeated over and over again, but the interest of the spectators apparently never wanes. The pieces are classified into five groups for convenience: (1) "wakino", which generally deal with Shinto or Buddhist deities; (2) "shuramono", which commonly deal with ghosts of warriors; (3) "kazuramono", with noble ladies acting the main parts; (4) "genzaimono", or present-day pieces, dealing with various manifestations of human nature; (5) pieces dealing with demons or goblins as subjects, or those of congratulatory nature with gay and joyous elements.

For each programme of the No, which generally lasts a good part of a day, one from each of the above-mentioned five classes is given in the order mentioned, with a kyogen between each and generally a dance in an ordinary dress in addition. The whole programme is preceded by a piece called "okina", which is held in special reverence, the person acting its chief character is okina.

**The Construction** The construction of the No piece is by no means uniform, but very often it is as follows: A waki, the secondary rôle, generally a monk or a Minister of State, first appears and tells who he is. Then he walks a while, singing, suggesting that he is travelling. Coming to a standstill, he announces his arrival at a certain famous spot and takes his place by the post at the front righthand corner facing the stage. Then the mayé jité (shité), the principal character in the first appearance, comes in the form of a farmer, fisherman or priest, etc., describing the scenery of the place and of heroes connected with it, or relates the origin of the temple or shrine as the case may require, thus furnishing the audience with a necessary background to the play. The mayé jité then retires in a hurry. He was in reality no other than a Shinto or Bud-

dhist deity, or a ghost of a warrior, in disguise. While waki is startled by the sudden disappearance, there come to the stage common farmers or wood-choppers and give in plain language, spoken more or less in the ordinary way, all detailed information concerning the place, generally reiterating what was already given in intonation, and retire. This allows a necessary time for the principal character to change for re-appearance. While waiting, the waki sings, indicating a lapse of time. When it comes to an end, the nochi jité, the principal character in the latter appearance, in proper form and attire as a Shinto or Buddhist deity, or a spirit of a hero, comes to the stage and dances as if in a night stroll, revealing some spiritual attributes. In words and in action he recounts his bravery, his death struggle, or his suffering in the underworld, asking for the prayer of the waki for the peaceful repose of his soul. The shité tells his story as he performs, or he merely dances without any intonation. Generally there is a chorus who intonate either alone or with the performers. In the No drama, action is symbolic, stately and ennobling.

Generally several persons sitting on the side extension sing either in chorus, by themselves, or together with the performer. The musicians on the rear extension consist ordinarily of a player each on the transverse flute, the tsuzumi, which is a small drum struck with the tips of the fingers over the shoulder, the ohkawa, a slightly larger drum struck on the knee also with the tips of the fingers, and the drum beaten with two sticks.

The accessories used on the stage in connection with the play are very simple. A fan is much in evidence in the dance, the studied use of which is very effective with the

manipulation of big sleeves. Costumes used in the No are marvels of textile fabrics, refined taste being revealed in bold yet harmonious designs and colours. Above all, the mask to be worn by the principal character and the assistant is a very important part of the No performance. There have been great masters among carvers of No masks in the feudal Japan whose works still remain in a large number.

Six Schools Ever since the great reformation at the beginning of the 15th century, the No has had four main acknowledged schools or houses: Kwanzé, Komparu, Hosho and Kongo, all of which are still thriving. Later, another school, Kita, won official recognition, while still another, Umewaka, also has many followers, the variation upheld by each school being but slight. On the whole, the No performance may well be compared to a masterful Oriental picture in black monochrome, both being guided by highly idealistic aims and with artistic aspirations with many points in common possessing alike great impelling qualities that thrill the devotee and sometimes weary the uninitiated.

#### The Doll Theatre and Joruri

Japan's doll theatre, the precursor of the kabuki drama, has suffered so much decadence that now the Bunraku-za in Osaka is the only doll troupe of its kind in the country. The plays are kabuki in miniature. Each doll, slightly smaller than life-size, is held by a manipulator on the stage and made to act. The manipulators, who appear in ceremonial robes, put life and spirit into the wooden figures, and they have world fame for their dexterity.

The "joruri (Gidayu)", a dramatic recitation, is not only inseparable from the doll show, but enhances its effect. The joruri reciter usually sits

on a raised platform at the right corner of the stage and there sings and recites to the accompaniment of the samisen, whose player sits beside him. Not seldom several reciters and samisen players perform in unison. The dolls, of course, have no voice, and the reciters speak their lines. Both manipulators and singers are trained from childhood. The joruri recital often accompanies the kabuki performance. The joruri or Gidayu is also recited for its own sake entirely independently of the doll show or the kabuki.

#### Yosé, or Story-Telling

Professional story-telling is a distinct Japanese art, which, defying the onrush of the movies, still survives in Tokyo and elsewhere. When there were no movies, story-telling was one of the few common forms of amusement. The houses where the story-tellers perform are called yosé, a sort of variety hall, where singing, juggling, dancing and other entertainment are offered in addition to the story-telling.

Today a score of story-tellers' halls can still be found in Tokyo. Unlike theatres for the drama and the cinema, they are usually Japanese-style frame houses, with unattractive advertisements covering their fronts. Inside, a yosé forms a large matted room, with a small matted stage attached. All the guests sit on cushions spread on the matting, and the performers sit on the matting of the stage. Usually the house has a balcony with more expensive seats.

The majority of the story-tellers, who are called hanashika, specialize in comic talk. Those who specialize in stories of heroism and adventure, are called koshakushi, or romance readers, and regarded as of a different class. The hanashika use a lot of punning, irony and sarcasm,

and each story has a twist at the end. Translated into English, their talk loses almost all meaning, for it is the manner that is important.

A story-teller might talk of a stingy and greedy old fellow, beginning something like this:

"We've got a lot of such fellows. They're stingy and like to give nothing to others, not even a show of their tongues to friends. But when it comes to getting, they're so greedy they don't mind an invitation to a funeral on Christmas Day.

"The other day a man was repairing a broken door. He needed a hammer and called his son, 'Say, go to the neighbour and borrow a hammer.'

"All right, papa. I'll go."

"Will you kindly let my father borrow your hammer?"

"Well, I may. But what does he want to knock with it, a bamboo nail or an iron nail?"

"Iron nails, sir."

"Then, nothing doing. The hammer will wear off if he hits so hard a thing as iron."

"Did you get the hammer?"

"No, I didn't. The neighbour refused to let you have it because he said it would wear off when you hit iron nails with it."

"Oh, stingy fellow. I can't help it. Then, bring out our hammer."

Such a story may not be interesting when written, but the professional story-teller relates it with sufficient art to amuse and keep his audience chuckling until the story comes to a smart ending.

#### The Cinema

Cinema theatres are to be found in all parts of Japan, whether in cities or hamlets, accommodating from 400 to 3,000 persons. The total number is 1,718. In 1933 total attendance at these movie houses was 175,041,793, including 38,017,666

children. They are equipped and managed very much after the manner of theatres in the West, and in architecture, especially in the large cities, they follow the American style. The pictures shown in them are Japanese, American and European.

**Home and Imported Films** In 1934, 103 talkie and sound pictures were produced by Japanese producers, of which 72 were talkies. The number of silent pictures was 297, a decrease of 100 as compared with the previous year. Imported talkies numbered 295, a gain of 15 over 1933.

Of the imported films released in Japan during 1934, those from the United States constituted over 85 per cent. of the total number. Details follow:

Country of production	Number of films
U. S. A.	251
Germany	21
France	9
Great Britain	6
Soviet Union	6
Italy	2
Total	295

The following table shows how they were distributed among leading producers:

Producer	Number of films
Paramount Famous Lasky	41
Fox Film Corporation	28
Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer, Inc.	36
Warner Brothers Pictures, Inc.	25
Universal Pictures Corporation	27
United Artists Corporation	10
RKO Productions, Inc.	35
Columbia	29

The largest and most influential motion picture producing and distributing companies in Japan are Shochiku Cinematograph Company, Ltd., Shinko Eiga Company, Ltd., and Japan Motion Picture Company, Ltd., the last being better known as Nikkatsu for short. Shochiku manages or supplies with pictures about

600 theatres, or half of the total in Japan, and all the rest are either managed or supplied with pictures by the other two and by foreign, especially American, companies. Japanese pictures in general are produced by distributing companies.

**Characteristics of Japanese Pictures** The substance of Japanese pictures is varied. The recent tendency favours a serious view of life, and audiences are more impressed by what is implied than by what is expressed. Scenes may be imposing, but if the meaning is shallow, the film will be disregarded. If the story is full of meaning, the picture, whether foreign or native, will catch the spectator's fancy. The Japanese people are fond of tragedy. With few exceptions, pictures without tears cannot be expected to prove financial successes. Especially the women, who constitute 50 per cent. of the spectators, feel disappointed if they have not shed tears over a tragic scene. Influenced by American pictures, comedies have come to be appreciated, but to satisfy the audience they must have at least 30 per cent. of tragic elements.

**Talkies** In talking pictures, Japan is much behind Western countries. Shochiku produces two a month, but the other companies combined turn out only one or two a year.

Practically all imported films are talkies. Their introduction presented language difficulties, for few Japanese understand English when spoken. As a solution, most of the American pictures now exhibited are so-called super-imposed prints, which flash a Japanese translation of the English dialogue in a corner of each scene. This has proved highly satisfactory to native audiences and has dispensed with the benshi, or interpreters, who are required for silent films, in the theatres which specialize in foreign talking pictures.

### Radio

Introduced only 9 years ago, the radio has become one of the two most popular means of amusement in Japan, the other being the cinema. In March, 1934, more than 1,714,223 families in Japan proper have already become radio subscribers in Japan proper, which means that one home in every 8 has a receiving set. Programmes broadcasted by the 25 broadcasting stations scattered throughout the country are diverse, including weather reports, market reports, news and lectures. Entertainment is naturally the most popular.

**Complex Programmes** It is said that Japanese radio programmes are more complex than anywhere else in the world. Japan does not have a single and uniform culture; the old and the modern exist side by side, the indigenous and the foreign. Programmes, in consequence, must be arranged to meet divergent tastes, though ingenuity is sometimes taxed to satisfy everyone daily. The principal cleavage is in music. Japanese music, both instrumental and vocal, has developed in many varieties through many centuries. Just as in foreign countries listeners have preferences for classical songs, or violin solos, or orchestral music, or popular songs, or dance music, or chamber music, so in Japan there are preferences for particular kinds of Japanese music. On the other hand, the music introduced from Europe and America is fast becoming popular. Young people, who understand it, generally prefer Western music, and old people, who do not understand it, would rather hear the music they have known since childhood. The ideal programme, therefore, must combine them. If 30 minutes are given to music by the New Symphony Orchestra of Tokyo,

30 minutes must also be given to music that is purely Japanese. Statistics show that station JOAK in Tokyo broadcast a total of 227 items from April to December, 1933. Details follow: orchestral music, 56; vocal solos and chorus, 50; brass music, 30; chamber music, 13; violin solos, 9; piano solos, 20; jazz music, 9; foreign and Japanese music combined, 15; 'cello music, 3; flute solos, 3; pipe organ music, 2; guitar solos, 1; trumpet solo, 1; trombone solo, 1; xylophone solo, 1; and opera, 5.

**Japanese Entertainment** Purely Japanese entertainment is very varied. It includes singing of all kinds, from the nagauta, kiyomoto, naniwa-bushi and tokiwazu to all sorts of folk-songs, radio drama, story-telling, romance reading and descriptive accounts of athletic events.

Very little amusement is given in the daytime. The first radio entertainment of the day starts at 12:05 o'clock in the afternoon. It is usually of a lighter vein and may be Japanese or foreign music or a drama. If there is a major athletic event in the afternoon, a descriptive account usually goes on the air. After this, there will be no entertainment of any kind, except on Sundays, until 8 o'clock, when the principal amusement programme begins. Frequently, however, the children's programme, given at 6 o'clock for 30 minutes, has fairly good entertainment. From 8 to 9:30 o'clock, entertainment of all sorts is offered. Very rarely does the programme extend beyond 10 o'clock.

**Programme and Listener** The Japan Radio Broadcasting Association distributed 1,233,908 sheets of enquiries to its subscribers all over Japan in 1932, out of which 358,039 answers came, and the résumé of the investigation was given out in April, 1934. In the questionnaire there was a



column in which the listeners were requested to state what item or items of the programme they most liked and the answers given in percentage were as follows :

Item of programme	Percentage of listeners
News and reports	
General news	91.2
Time signal	77.5
Weather forecast	75.8
Radio gymnastics	48.0
Public announcements	42.3
Daily menus	31.0
Industrial news	30.8
Commodity prices	27.8
Stocks-market news	23.2
Employment agency	11.0
New cocoon price	8.2
Exposition of current topics	29.4
General and moral	28.1
Literature, arts, etc.	22.3
Physical education and hygiene	22.0
The home and women	20.7
Science	18.0
Foreign languages	9.9
Amusements	
Comic stories	57.6
The naniwa-bushi (mostly tragic stories)	57.5
Radio dramas	51.2
Movie picture dramas and stories	49.3
Samurai stories	48.0
The kabuki	43.4
The biwa (Story chanted with the biwa music)	39.6
The Gidayu	33.4
Foreign and Japanese music combined	33.4
Japanese harp, bamboo flute, the samisen	30.0
The nagauta (long chanting)	28.3
Modern Japanese music	24.4
Opera	24.2
Brass music	22.6
Orchestra	22.6
Vocal solos	22.0
Short songs (utazawa and kouta)	22.0
The Shinnai (a kind of joruri)	20.2
The Kiyomoto	19.0
Piano, violin solos and duets	18.7
The Tokiwazu (a branch of joruri)	18.6

Chorus	17.6
Jazz	17.3
The yokyoku, kyogen (the No)	14.6
Old Yedo music	8.5
Young folk's hours	
Nursery rhymes	60.1
Short songs	57.0
Dramas for the young folks	52.5
Music	51.5
Stories	49.0

### Horse Racing

It was after the Russo-Japanese War that the import of thoroughbred stud-horses and horse racing became encouraged for the improvement of horses in Japan. As the result the fever for the horse racing suddenly rose. At that time, a pari mutuel ticket was sold at ¥5, and unlimited dividends and sweep were allowed. The result was that many people fell into bankruptcy and abuses were too apparent, so that in 1909 horse racings which sold pari mutuel tickets were prohibited. But it soon became evident again that the decline of horse racings had an effect on the improvement and propagation of horses in the country. Ten years after, the Horse Race Bill passed the Parliament and became a law in 1923. The law fixed the price of pari mutuel ticket at ¥20 a sheet, and the race was ordered to be operated on the basis of "win". The number of pari mutuel tickets a person may buy was limited to one sheet. The dividend was also limited to ten times the cost of the ticket. The race courses provided under the law are eleven in all, the names and locations of which follow :

Name	Race Club	Location
Sapporo		Sapporo, Hokkaido
Hakodate	" "	Suburb of Hakodate, Hokkaido
Fukushima	" "	Fukushima City, Fukushima Prefecture
Niigata	" "	Niigata City, Niigata Prefecture
Nakayama	" "	Kataushika-machi, Chiba Prefecture
Tokyo	" "	Fuchu-machi, Tokyo Prefecture

Name	Race Club	Location
Nippon		Yokohama City, Kanagawa Prefecture
Hanshin	" "	Naruo-mura, Hyogo Prefecture
Kyoto	" "	Yodo-machi, Kyoto Prefecture
Kokura	" "	Suburb of Kokura City, Fukuoka Prefecture
Miyazaki	" "	Miyazaki City, Miyazaki Prefecture

All of these clubs are corporate judicial persons. These eleven race clubs hold horse racings twice a year, in spring and fall, each of which covers from six to eight days. The money paid to the Government, the commission on sales, and the surplus of money are all used for the improvement and propagation of horses in the country as well as for the importation of the thoroughbred, Anglonorman and Arab horses. Since the losses of voters are large with "win" alone, "place" was added to the Horse Race Law and the horse race is carried on now on that basis since 1931. In all horse races in Japan, clubs themselves undertake the sales of pari mutuel tickets by the totalizator and do not recognize the bookmaker. It is being operated under the complete control of the Department of Agriculture and Forestry.

The above are the so-called officially recognized horse races, or horse races operated under the Horse Race Law. In addition to these, there are local horse races operated under the local horse race regulations.

There are 113 local horse races permitted in the country. A pari mutuel ticket costs ¥1. per sheet. Some of these are being operated on the combined basis of "win" and "place". Each person is permitted to purchase one each of "win" and "place" tickets.

The number of horses appeared in the officially recognized horse racings in 1934 was 1,733.

Derby in Japan The Great Tokyo Derby, which was established in 1932

by the Tokyo Race Club is modeled after Derby in Great Britain. The time set for it is the latter part of April. The race course covers 2,400 metres, the horses put up being both males and females of four years old. The prizes set up are the highest in Japan. The regular prizes are ¥10,000 for the first winner, ¥3,500 for the second, and ¥2,000 for the third. In addition to this there are given about ¥10,000 for the first, ¥4,000 for the second, and ¥2,500 for the third winner as stakes.

In the horse racing in Japan, canter, steeplechase, and trotting (trotting race driven to sulkies) are performed in a meeting. There is a distinction between a comer or non-subscription horse and a subscription horse. Subscription horses are those horses which are distributed to those members of the clubs by lot, each member paying comparatively a small fixed sum for it. This is a system established in Japan at the time when the interest of the people in the horse racing was not as keen as it is now with a view to increasing the number of the people who own horses.

As to the weight, the system is to fix it according to the amount of the prize. One kilogramme is added to a comer for canter race for every ¥3,000, while for a subscription horse one kilogramme is added for every ¥2,000. In each instance, the horse is withdrawn from the meeting if the weight exceeds 77 kilogrammes.

For a trotter a handicap of from 30 to 40 metres is placed for every ¥1,500.

## Amusements Other Pastimes

**Flower Cards** The Japanese divert themselves by composing verses in their own language and in Chinese, and by playing chess, checkers, and various games of the "Mother Goose" description, of which *sugoroku* is the chief. Ever since the early days of foreign intercourse they have likewise had certain kinds of cards, of which the *hana-garuta*, or "flower cards", are the most popular kind, so popular, indeed, and seductive that there is an official veto on playing the game for money. The cards are forty-eight in number, four for each month of the year, the months being distinguished by the flowers proper to them, and extra value being attached to one out of each set of four, which is further distinguished by a bird or butterfly, and to a second which is inscribed with a line of poetry. Three people taken part in the game, and there is a pool. The system of counting is rather complicated, but the ideas involved are graceful.

**Hyakunin Isshu** There is another game of cards, in which stanzas from what are known as the "hundred poems", or *hyakunin isshu*, take the place of flowers. At this game no gambling is ever indulged in. It is rather an amusement for family parties, who at New Year time often sit up over it all night. Some of these diversions are shared in by the ladies.

**Children's Sports** The sports of Japanese children include kite-flying, top-spinning, battledoor and shuttlecock, making snow-men, playing with dolls, etc. The large, grotesquely coloured papier-mâché dogs given to babies owe their origin to some idea of the dog as a faithful protector, especially against onslaughts by evil spirits.

**Shogi** Japanese chess (*shogi*) was

introduced from China centuries ago; and though it has diverged to some extent from its prototype, the two games still have a feature in common distinguishing them from all other varieties. It is this. The rank on which the pawns are usually posted is occupied by only two pieces, *hisha* and *kaku* by the Japanese. Also, on either side of the king are two pieces, called *kin* in Japanese. These perform the duty imposed on the *ferz* or *visir* of the Persian *Shatranj*, which was the equivalent of the modern queen. Therefore, no queen or piece of similar attributes appears either in Japanese or Chinese chess. There are eighty-one squares on the Japanese board, and the game is played with twenty pieces on each side, distinguished, not by shape or colour, but by the ideographs upon them. Though the movements of the pieces resemble in most respects those followed in the European game, there are certain ramifications unknown to the latter. The most important of these are the employment of the pieces captured from the adversary to strengthen one's own game, and the comparative facility with which the minor pieces can attain to higher ranks.

Chess is understood by all classes in Japan. The very coolies at the corners of the streets improvise out of almost anything around them materials with which to play, and thus away the tedium of waiting for employment. But it is comparatively little patronized by the educated classes, who hold its rival "go" in much higher esteem. *O* is the king, *keima* the knight, *hisha* the rook, and *kaku* the bishop—or pieces having movements like them. *Fu* is the pawn. The movements of the *yari* also resemble those of the rook, but are confined to the single rank on which it stands. *Gin* (silver) and *kin* (gold) are not found in Western

chess. *Gin* moves one square diagonally only. The *kin*, besides having similar movements, has also the power of moving one square on each side of itself, but it cannot return diagonally. The *fu* advances one square forward, and captures as it moves. When any piece moves into the adversary's third row, it may become a *kin*. This is indicated by turning the piece over. Every piece so promoted loses its original character, except the *hisha* and *kaku* to which the movements of the *kin* are added. As already indicated, a captured piece may be employed at any time for either attack or defence. To checkmate with the *fu* is a thing vetoed—or at least considered "bad form"—in this non-democratic game, neither is stale-mate permissible in Japanese chess. You wait until the adversary makes a move which admits of a free action on your part. The object of the game is to checkmate the king.

**Go** *Go*, often with appropriateness termed "checkers" by European writers, is the most popular of the indoor pastimes of the Japanese,—a very different affair from the simple game known to Europeans as *Goban* or *Gobang*, properly the name of the board on which the *go* is played. Clubs and professors of the art are found in all the larger cities, where, too, blind players may occasionally met with. *Go* may with justice be considered more difficult than chess, its wider field affording more numerous ramifications. The game was introduced into Japan from China by *Kibino-Mabi*, commonly known as *Kibi Daijin*, who flourished during the reign of the Emperor *Shomu* (A.D. 724-756). In the middle of the seventeenth century, a noted player, called *Hon-in-bo*, was summoned from *Kyoto* to entertain the Chinese ambassador then at the court of the *Shogun*, from which

time forward special *go* players were always retained by the *Shoguns*.

*Go* is played on a square wooden board. Nineteen straight lines lengthwise and the same number of lines cross ways, crossing each other at right angles, make three hundred and sixty-one *mé*, or crosses, at the point of intersection. These may be occupied by a hundred and eighty white and a hundred and eighty-one black *ishi* or stones. The object of the game is to obtain possession of the largest number of *mé*. This is done by securing such positions as can be most easily defended from the adversary's onslaughts. There are nine spots on the board, called *sei-moku* supposed to represent the chief celestial bodies, while the white and black stones represent day and night, and the number of crosses the three hundred and sixty degrees of latitude, exclusive of the central one, which is called *taikyoku*, that is, the primordial principle of the universe. There are nine degrees—or classes as we should term them—of proficiency in the game, beginning with number one degree as the lowest, and ending with number nine as the highest point of excellence attainable. In playing, if the combatants are equally matched, they take the white stones alternately; if unequal, the weaker always takes the black, and odds are also given by allowing him to occupy several or all of the nine spots or vantage points on the board,—that is, to place stones upon them at the outset. A description of how the game proceeds would be of little utility here, it being so complicated as to make the personal instruction of a teacher indispensable. Very few foreigners have succeeded in getting beyond a rudimentary knowledge of the game. The easy Japanese game, called *gomoku-narabé*, which was introduced into foreign countries, is played on the *go*

board and with the go-ishi. The object of this game is to be the first in getting five stones in a row in any direction.

**Landscape Gardening** Japanese landscape-gardening is one of the fine arts. Ever since the middle of the fifteenth century, generations of artists have been busy perfecting it, elaborating and refining over and over again the principles handed down by their predecessors, until it has come to be a mystery as well as an art, and is furnished—not to say encumbered—with a vocabulary more complicated and recondite than any one who has not perused some of the native treatises on the subject can well imagine. What the Japanese call *hakoniwa* or *bonkei* is a whole landscape-garden compressed into the microscopic limits of a single dish or flower-pot,—paths, bridges, mountains, stone lanterns, etc., all complete,—a fanciful little toy.

**Cormorant Fishing** Cormorant-fishing always takes place at night and by torch-light. The method pursued is as follows: There are four men in each of several boats, one of whom, at the stern, has no duty but that of managing his craft. In the bow stands the master called *ujo*, distinguished by the peculiar hat of his rank, and handling no fewer than twelve trained birds with the surpassing skill and coolness that have earned for the sportsmen of the Nagara River in Gifu prefecture their unrivalled pre-eminence. Amidships is another fisher, of the second grade, who handles four birds only. Between them is the fourth man, called *kako*, from the bamboo striking instrument of that name, with which he makes the clatter necessary for keeping the birds up to their work; he also encourages them shouts and cries, looks after square apparatus, etc., and is ready to give

aid if required. Each cormorant wears at the base of its neck a metal ring, drawn tight enough to marketable fish from passing below it, but at the same time loose enough—for it is never removed—to admit the smaller prey, which serves as food. Round the body is a cord, having attached to it at the middle of the back a short strip of stiffish whalebone, by which the great awkward bird may be conveniently lowered into the water or lifted out when at work; and to this whalebone is looped a thin rein of spruce fibre, twelve feet long, and so far wanting in pliancy as to minimize the chance of entanglement. When the fishing-ground is reached, the master lowers his twelve birds one by one into the stream and gathers their reins into his left hand, manipulating the latter thereafter with his right as occasion requires. No. 2 does the same with his four birds; the *kako* starts in with his volleys of noise; and forthwith the cormorants set to at their work in the heartiest and jolliest way, diving and ducking with wonderful swiftness as the astonished fish come flocking towards the blaze of the light. The master must handle his twelve strings so deftly that, let the birds dash hither and thither as they will, there shall be no impediment or fouling. He must have his eyes everywhere and his hands following his eyes. Specially must he watch for the moment when any of his flock is gorged,—a fact generally made known by the bird itself, which then swims about in a foolish, helpless way, with its head and swollen neck erect. Thereupon, the master, shortening in on that bird, lifts it aboard, forces its bill open with his left hand, which still holds the rest of the line, squeezes out the fish with his right, and starts the creature off on a fresh foray,—all this with such admirable dexterity

and quickness that the eleven birds still bustling about have scarce time to get things into a tangle, and in

another moment the whole team is again perfectly in hand."

#### Calendar of Annual Events

Few countries, if any, possess more ceremonies and more festivities than Japan. Some of these ceremonies at first sight may look absurd to the foreign eye, but familiarity with them and especially their origin will reveal most of them to be delightful. Rural people are more conservative than city folk in adhering to observance of ancient customs. Indeed, modern life has robbed the busy citizens of that quiet and poetical mood in which people of bygone days observed ancient customs, such, for instance, as moon viewing. But none the less it is true that despite the modern garb Japan wears today, the life of the present-day Japan is still associated with many picturesque customs and poetical sentiments of Old Japan, which afford a glimpse into the days of feudalism and the people continue to observe many of the customs handed down from time immemorial.

Below is given in chronological order a list of annual events in Japan, including ceremonies, festivals and other national customary observances.

#### January

**January 1st New Year's Day**—New Year's Day means as much to the Japanese as Christmas means to Western peoples, or probably more. It marks the beginning of new life in an atmosphere of quiet and gaiety, leisure and pleasure. It is a time to forget the cares of the past year and enjoy feasts and indulge in all sorts of amusement in celebration of the coming good and lucky year. The homes are decorated, both in-

side and outside; the people are clad in their best clothes, and they all look very happy.

The Imperial Household observes a religious ceremony called *Shihohai* (worshipping in four directions) at the Imperial Sanctuary according to Shinto rites. The Emperor usually officiates in person, offering prayers to the gods for the peace and prosperity of the Empire. New Year's Day is one of the three most important National Holidays of Japan, the others being the Imperial Birthday celebration and the celebration commemorating the anniversary of the accession of the Emperor Jimmu, the first Emperor of Japan, in 660 B. C.

The time-honoured custom of worshipping the sun-rise at shrine compounds situated in the "lucky direction" of the year is widely observed from the traditional belief that so doing will bring luck. Many, of course, observe this custom without showing the belief. The compound of the Meiji Shrine in Tokyo, for instance, is always filled with worshippers at dawn on New Year's Day. Ceremonies celebrating the New Year are also observed at all Shinto shrines throughout the country. On this day and the following two days people call on their relatives and friends and exchange New Year greetings.

**2nd Beginning of Work**—This day is known as *shigoto hajimé*, or beginning of work and is marked with ceremonies for the beginning of all sorts of activities which are to be executed properly and well in the right spirit, in the hope that

everything will go on in the same happy way for the rest of the year. Young school children study calligraphy for the first time in the year. Carpenters begin the day by using their professional tools. Geisha tune up their samisen and practise a piece or two of music. The first delivery of goods is undertaken by all wholesale stores in a spirit of celebration. The last named is called *hatsu-ni*, or first merchandise. Cars on which goods are to be delivered on this day are fully decorated, and the carriers and delivery men, usually drunk, enter into the spirit of the thing, although this custom is observed in recent years with less ostentation than formerly.

On the night of the second day, the people were supposed, in ancient times, to dream the first lucky dream of the year. To inspire such a dream, pictures representing the Seven Gods of Fortune were sold in the streets, to be placed under the pillow so that the sleeper might dream a desired dream. This custom has gone almost completely out of fashion.

3rd *Genshi-sai*, a national holiday, celebrating the auspicious origin of the Imperial Throne at the beginning of the year, is observed on the third day before the Imperial Sanctuary in the Imperial Palace. The ceremony is attended by the Emperor, members of the Imperial family, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, high officials of the Government and members of the peerage. In the morning the front of the *Nijubashi*, the bridge at the main entrance to the Imperial Palace, presents a glittering scene as the dignitaries of the nation arrive at the palace in their State uniforms to participate in the court function. The New Year holidays come to an end on this day.

4th *Beginning of Politics*—All normal functions of the State are

resumed on this day and government and private offices re-open. The Ministers of State make various important reports to the Emperor, and the Minister of the Imperial Household also gives an account of the ceremonies performed at the Grand Shrine of *Isé* and the other government-protected shrines on the occasion of the New Year.

5th The *Shinnen Enkai*, or New Year Party, is held at the Homei Hall of the Imperial Palace, where the Emperor and Empress give a banquet to the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Ministers of State, foreign diplomatic representatives and a large number of other dignitaries. The people in general also hold New Year parties and many persons are seen till a late hour on their way home from celebrations in a hilarious mood.

One of the most interesting features of Tokyo life on this day is the festival of the *Suitengu* shrine at *Ningyo-cho*. Here, right in the heart of the modern capital, a glimpse of old Japan reveals itself.

6th Tokyo fire-brigades assemble in an open space in front of the *Nijubashi* for the New Year parade and give acrobatic performances on fire-ladders to show their agility. There was a time in the old days when fires were so frequent in *Yedo* (Tokyo) as to be called "the flowers of *Yedo*." The life of the fireman was envied by many as inspiring. The performance of acrobatics was initiated in those days to reassure the public by demonstrating the efficiency of firemen when confronted with danger.

Cold season begins—The so-called *kan*, or cold season, begins its conventional period of four weeks. The cold season is divided into two stages, the period of *shokan*, or lesser cold, and the period of *dai-kan*, or greater cold. During the period many male apprentices and

artisans devoted to their work go out thinly clad in the evening to worship at their favourite temples, having the traditional belief that divine power invoked by their enthusiasm will make them proficient in their callings. They go to the well in the temple compounds and pour cold water over their bodies to purify themselves before worshipping at the temples. The rite is practised for the whole period every evening without a break, irrespective of weather conditions. Such enthusiasts, dressed in white clothes and usually with tinkling bells hanging over their loins, can be seen in the streets during the cold season, running from temple to temple.

Decorations removed—All New Year decorations should be removed from the house fronts before night-fall, as the main New Year celebrations come to an end.

7th The Seven Herbs—On this day, known as *nanakusa* (seven herbs), people eat rice gruel mixed with seven kinds of herb. This custom originated in the days of the threatened Mongolian invasions under *Kublai Khan*. The herbs were deemed to give strength to the Japanese soldiers, and they are now supposed to give strength to all consumers against the nation's enemies.

8th Military Review—The Emperor reviews the troops of the Imperial Bodyguard at the *Yoyogi* parade ground. The public can witness the review.

10th The *Kompira* shrine holds its festival on this day. The shrine is located at *Toranomon* in *Shiba*, Tokyo. A feature of the festival is a fair at which many talismans are sold.

11th The *Kodokwan*, the celebrated judo training institution in *Koishikawa*, observes the ceremony of beginning judo practice for the year. The greatest experts in the art of

self-defence participate in the ceremony, at which the finest matches of the year are seen.

12th *Sumo* (Japanese wrestling)—The semi-annual tournaments of the Japan Wrestling Association are held at the *Kokugi-kwan* amphitheatre at *Ryogoku*, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 11 days. (See Chapter XXXVI.)

15th and 16th Extra holidays for apprentices and servants—in old days apprentices and servants were given only two days' holiday a year, January 15 or 16 and July 15 or 16. Nowadays they are given at least one holiday a month in many cases, but the old custom is still adhered to especially in country districts.

### February

February 1st Country people, adhering to the lunar calendar, celebrate the New Year on this day.

3rd or 4th The Bean-throwing ceremony—This day is called *setsubun*, or change of the season, on which winter comes to an official end and spring begins according to the lunar calendar. *Mamemaki*, or the bean-throwing ceremony, is widely practised throughout the country. People scatter beans in an attempt to drive out all the evil spirits in the house and call in good luck. The priests of leading shrines and temples observe this custom in the presence of thousands of worshippers. Usually popular actors and wrestlers are employed as bean-throwers.

11th Commemoration of the Accession of the Emperor *Jimmu*—This national holiday, *Kigensetsu*, commemorating the accession in 660 B. C. of the first Emperor of Japan to the Throne, is one of the most important in the Japanese calendar. The Emperor observes elaborate ceremonies in front of the Imperial

Sanctuary, attended by the Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, court functionaries and high officials of the government, and peers. An Imperial luncheon is given at the Homei Hall of the Palace, to which are invited the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, State Ministers, members of the foreign diplomatic corps, etc.

### March

**March 3rd Girls' Doll Festival**—This is sometimes known as the peach festival, because it is associated with the peach blossoms which begin to open about this time. This day is a great day for the girls of Japan. All families, except the poorest, place decorated doll shelves in the guest rooms or alcoves with a set of dolls and accessories on them. Very often the dolls are taken out from the closets and displayed for the enjoyment of the young girls of the family. The set of dolls is supposed to represent a miniature court of ancient days with the Emperor, Empress, and their retainers. Some of the sets in wealthy families are valuable, costing several hundred yen each. Dolls are displayed for sale at department stores and stalls about a month before the arrival of this festival. Considerable religious significance was originally attached to the doll festival, but later it became a mere pastime for children. It is said by some that the custom encourages happy family life, and by others that it encourages the spirit of filial piety and loyalty. Scholars declare that the custom originated during the reign of the Emperor Tsuchimikado (1199-1207).

**6th The Empress's Birthday**—This day is known in Japanese as Chikyu-setsu, and is a holiday for girls' schools.

**18th Higan, the Week of the Equinox**, is a busy time for Buddhist fam-

ilies. Usually, all members of the family visit the family graveyard during the week, attend to the tomba and offer prayers to the spirits of their ancestors. Higan, literally translated, means "yonder shore," or Nirvana. Various eatables of vegetable substance, specially prepared for the purpose, are offered to the dead and sent as presents to friends and relatives. All Buddhist temples in the country hold special services during the period. Tokyo old-fashioned Buddhist believers make special pilgrimages to the images of the six-faced Amida Buddha at 18 temples situated in the hilly sections of the city and suburbs.

**21st Vernal Equinox Festival**—On this national holiday, which is called Shunki Korei-sai, all schools and public buildings are closed. A Shinto festival in memory of the Imperial ancestors and ancestresses is performed at the Imperial Sanctuary.

### April

**April 3rd Anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Jimmu**, national holiday—This day is the anniversary of the demise of the first Emperor Jimmu, who reigned over the country for 76 years. The Emperor performs an appropriate ceremony in front of the Imperial Sanctuary.

**8th Birthday of Gautama Buddha**—This day, marking the birth of Gautama Buddha, is celebrated by all Buddhist temples throughout Japan. Leading temples hold parades of young girls who are daughters of Buddhist believers, and hold memorial services in honour of the founder of their religion. Amacha, sweet tea, is freely given at the temples to all visitors.

**18th Festival of the Tokugawa Shogunate Shrine**—A festival is held at the Toshogu shrines at Ueno park

and Shiba park, which are dedicated to the Tokugawa Shoguns.

**29th Emperor's Birthday**—One of the three greatest national holidays, commemorating the birthday of the Emperor Hirohito, the 124th ruler of Japan. A service is held at all elementary and second grade schools in Japan. At the Imperial Court the Emperor and Empress hold special ceremonies in front of the Imperial Sanctuary, offering prayers to the spirits of the Imperial ancestors for the peace and prosperity of the Empire. After the function, the Emperor reviews the army at the Yoyogi parade-ground. An Imperial banquet is held, to which high officials of the government and foreign diplomats are invited.

**30th Semi-Annual Festival of the Yasukuni Shrine**—The semi-annual festival of the Yasukuni shrine, on Kudan hill, Tokyo, dedicated to the spirits of the officers and men of the army and navy and others who died fighting for their country in the wars since the Meiji Restoration, lasts for 3 days beginning on April 30.

### May

**May 1st May Day**—This imported festival for labourers is observed usually with a labour mass meeting at Shiba park, followed by a huge parade throughout Tokyo. Similar celebrations are held in other leading cities.

**5th Boys' Doll Festival**—Just as March 3 is for girls to celebrate their doll festival, so this day is dedicated to the boys of Japan. All Japanese families having sons observe this classic festival. Dolls for the festival are on display in the alcoves of the guest rooms of the families to wish health, success and prosperity to the boys. The sets of dolls displayed represent popular heroes of the Empire. The custom is of sev-

eral centuries' standing and was originated to encourage a martial spirit in boys. In former days, and even now in some of the rural districts, large paper or cloth carps, often several yards long, are hoisted above the houses, symbolizing the idea that the sons of the families will be as strong as the spirited carp trying to swim up a waterfall.

### June

**June 1st Ayu fishing season**—The seasonal ban on Ayu fishing is formally lifted on this day and anglers in Tokyo flock to the Tama and Sagami rivers to fish ayu, or sweet trout, a fish noted for its fragrance and delicious taste. A feature of the season is the picturesque cormorant fishing on the Nagara near Nagoya.

**14th and 15th Annual Festival at Hiyé Shrine, Tokyo**—Representative of many shrine festivals which take place in Tokyo and elsewhere in Japan is the annual festival of the Hiyé shrine, known as Sanno-sama, which takes place on top of the Sanno Hill in Akasaka ward. The mikoshi, or portable shrine, is carried on the shoulders of shrine hands through Kyobashi, Shiba, Kojimachi and other wards over which the deity "reigns."

**17th Annual Festival of the Great Shrine at Isé and the Itsukushima Shrine at Miyajima.**

**21st Annual Festival of the Atsuta Shrine at Atsuta, Owari province.**

### July

**July 1st Season for climbing Mount Fuji**—The season for climbing Mount Fuji opens. A service is held at the Sengen shrine on top of the sacred peak.

**7th Feast of Tanabata**—This evening the Weaver or the Star Vega meets her lover the Cow-herd or the Star Altair on the other side of the Heavenly River (Milky Way)

on the only occasion in the whole year, according to tradition. This festival of the seventh eve of the seventh month is celebrated by some although this custom has of recent years been more or less neglected in Tokyo and other cities.

**13th—15th O-Bon Festival**—During the o-bon, or feast of lanterns, tradition says that the spirits of the family ancestors and other dead members of the family visit the family and due welcome is given them according to Buddhist rites. The family tombs are visited and vegetable sacrifices are offered. People make small bonfires of stripped hemp stalks and light lanterns to guide the spirits of their ancestors into their homes.

**Bon odori**, or dance of the bon season, is a simple folk dance which is given in the compounds of temples or elsewhere by common people, especially in the rural districts, under the light of lanterns.

**15th and 16th Extra holidays for apprentices and servants**—Semi-annual holidays are given apprentices and servants on either of these two days, as on January 15 and 16.

**17th Annual fête of Gion Shrine in Kyoto**—This picturesque shrine festival in the ancient capital of Japan lasts for a week.

**21st Hottest season**—The doyo, the hottest period of summer, begins today or thereabouts, to last for about three weeks.

### August

**August 4th Annual festival of the Kitano Shrine in Kyoto.**

**6th Annual festival of the Sumiyoshi shrine in Tsukudashima, Kyobashi.**

**16th Annual Bon-fire Fête on Mount Nyoï in Kyoto.**

**19th Lantern Fête on Mount Atago in Kyoto.**

### September

**September 1st Memorial Service for the Earthquake Dead**—to comfort the spirits of those who were killed in the great earthquake and fire of 1923 services are offered at the Earthquake Memorial Hall at Honjo on the banks of the Sumida River.

**5th Suitengu Shrine Festival in Tokyo.**

**13th Festivals of Kanda Myojin and Hikawa shrines in Tokyo.**

**17th and 18th Festival of the Great Shrine at Isé and the Hokoku Shrine in Kyoto.**

**20th Week of the equinox begins**—the autumn higan begins on September 20. As during the spring equinoctial week Buddhist temples present busy scenes.

**23rd Festival of the autumnal equinox**—A Shinto festival in memory of the Imperial ancestors is performed at the Imperial Palace, the day being a national holiday.

**26th Moon-viewing Festival**—The custom of moon-viewing is no longer observed so generally as in the past, but it still delights the poetically minded in the cities, and people in general in the rural districts. Before twilight sets in, the house-wife will bring a table to the veranda where it can catch the moon beams and spread upon it a feast in honour of the moon. A vase containing autumnal flowers will be placed on the left side of the table. As the moon rises, the members of the family sit around the table in the moonlight and spend the evening in merry-making.

### October

**October 10th Annual fête of the Kotohira Shrine in Sanuki province and also of similar shrines in Tokyo and elsewhere.**

**18th Anniversary of the death of St. Nichiren**—One of the most elaborate Buddhist demonstrations in Japan is held in the evening (at the Hommonji temple at Ikegami, Tokyo) to commemorate the anniversary of the death of St. Nichiren, founder of the Nichiren sect of Buddhism. Thousands of believers and non-believers march in groups to the temple, each beating a drum so as to keep time, shouting all the time the Buddhist sutra, "Namu-Myoho Renge-kyo." Large paper lanterns, all lighted, are carried at the head of those processions.

**15th Hunting season**—The ban on hunting in all districts is lifted today.

**17th On this national holiday**, which is Kannamé-sai (first harvest festival) the Emperor makes an offering of the new grain harvested this fall to the Sun Goddess enshrined in the Grand Shrine at Isé and to other Imperial ancestors. A special service is held at the Imperial Sanctuary, while the Emperor dispatches a messenger to the Grand Shrine to offer prayers on his behalf.

**22nd Festival of Yasukuni Shrine**—The Yasukuni shrine begins its second semi-annual celebration, lasting for three days.

### November

**November 2nd Festival of Oh-tori shrines**—the annual shrine festival known as tori-no-ichi, is observed at various shrines of Oh-tori, a winged god of fortune and wealth in Tokyo and elsewhere.

**3rd Celebration of the Emperor Meiji's Birthday**—This is a national holiday and all schools and public buildings are closed in honour of the great Emperor during whose reign Japan became a world Power, and the week is kept as a national

athletic week.

**8th Festival of Bellows**—This is celebrated in the household of every metal-smith, silver-smith, iron-smith, and the like. On this day also takes place the annual bonfire fête of the Fushimi Inari shrine in Kyoto and elsewhere.

**15th Celebration for children of 3, 5 and 7 years of age**—This is known as "shichigosan (7, 5, 3) festival". On this day boys who have attained the age of 5 years and girls who attained that of 3 or 7 years of age are taken to the shrines of their tutelary deities, in their best clothes, and worship at the shrines by way of expressing their gratitude for the protection of the guardian deities and their safe growth throughout the period of early childhood, at the same time beseeching future protection and happiness.

**23rd Festival of Niinamé-sai**—The Emperor observes Niinamé-sai, a national holiday, with the ancient court ceremony of offering new grain to the Sun Goddess and other Imperial ancestors, and partaking of it himself. The occasion is one of thanksgiving, when the Emperor and his subjects return thanks for the harvest.

**28th Anniversary of the death of St. Shinran**—A religious fete in commemoration of the death of St. Shinran, founder of the Shin sect of Buddhism, is celebrated at the Hongwanji temples in Kyoto and Tokyo.

### December

**December 22nd Winter Solstice**—On this day people take baths in hot water in which sour oranges have been placed, according to the time-honoured custom.

**25th Anniversary of the death of Emperor Taisho**, father of the present Emperor, a national holiday.

**25th Christmas**—Christmas has become an important affair for the Japanese living in cities. Although at first it was regarded by the general public as an event entirely foreign to Japan, it has now become a season of rejoicing for children in large cities, and the day is a regular annual feature, included in the Japanese calendar as such.

**29th Close of official business**—

All government and public offices close for the year-end and New Year holidays.

**31st Eating of noodles** on the last day of the year—It being the last day of December, many businessmen eat noodles at their evening meal to bring the year to a happy conclusion. The noodle is regarded as a symbol of long life and continued prosperity.

## CHAPTER XXXVIII

### TOKYO

#### Historical Sketch

In 1192 Yoritomo Minamoto (See Chapter III, Kamakura Age) established a military régime at Kamakura, 56.33 kilometres south-west of the present Tokyo, and it was at this period that the name of Yedo was recorded in the report of a local war in which a son of Lord Shiro Kanetsugu Yedo took part, and the name seems to have been given before he became the lord of the district. Yedo literally means "entrance to the gulf."

After the fall of the Yedo family the district was occupied by a feudal lord called Sadamasa Uyesugi; and Dokan Ohta, one of his retainers, discovering the strategic importance of Yedo constructed the Yedo castle which was completed in 1457. After changing hands a few times, it fell, in 1590, into the possession of Iyeyasu Tokugawa, who settled down there to be the over-lord of the eight provinces of Kanto. From that time it gradually expanded until it became not only the capital of Kanto but the seat of the Tokugawa Shogunate during 15 generations. During the 268 years of the Tokugawa Shogunate the obscure village of Yedo became a thriving town and it is said that 2 million people lived there in the height of its prosperity in the Bunsei (1818-1830) and Tempo (1830-1844) eras.

In 1869 the Emperor Meiji transferred the Imperial capital to Yedo and renamed it Tokyo, or Eastern Capital. Then came still further growth and prosperity. Contact had just been made with Western countries and as Tokyo was serving as

the gateway for Western civilization much attention was given to building the city on modern lines.

The fifty years of Tokyo culture met with a terrible catastrophe in September, 1923, when earthquake and fire, unprecedented in history, dealt the city an almost fatal blow. Nearly one-half of the entire city was completely reduced to ashes. But with hard work and the enthusiastic support of the whole country and the citizens of Tokyo, as well as the sympathy of the world, a new and better Tokyo has arisen from the ashes in but a decade.

#### Location and Climate

Tokyo is situated at the south-east corner of Kanto plain in 35° 31' 59"-48' 50" N. latitude, 139° 33' 56"-55' 22" E. longitude. The climate of the city is generally mild; the annual mean temperature is 13° 9' C (57° F); the mean temperature in July is 24° 2' C (75° 5' F), in January 3° 1' C (37° 5' F); the annual average precipitation is 1,574 mm.

#### Population and Area

**Growth of Population** The growth of the population of the city will be seen from the following:

Year	Population	Household
1878	813,400	235,943
1888	1,298,661	287,833
1898	1,425,366	316,527
1908	1,626,103	376,423
1920 (census)	2,173,200	456,816
1923 <sup>1</sup>	1,527,489	340,278
1924	1,926,310	417,833
1925 (census)	1,995,567	429,852
1930 (census)	2,070,913	414,710
1931	2,085,560	417,950
1932	5,311,930	1,188,220
1933	5,486,200	1,176,810
1934	5,662,900	—

<sup>1</sup> Earthquake year.

**Population** On October 1, 1934, the estimated number of population in the city of Tokyo was 5,662,900, or 10,222 per a square kilometre. Of the total, 2,983,400 were men and 2,679,500 women.

**Natural Increase in 1933** The number of births in 1933 was 134,850 or 24.48 per 1,000 of population, while that of deaths in the same year was 82,405 or 15.02 per 1,000 of population, and the natural increase was 52,445.

**Buildings and Dwelling Houses** At the end of 1933 there were 917,147 buildings and dwelling houses in Tokyo, of which 42,951 were built in the year. Of these new ones, 4 were of stones, 550 of steel or reinforced concrete, and buildings higher than 4 stories numbered 66.

**Area** The total area of Tokyo on January 1, 1933, was 553.967 square kilometres. Classified according to ownership, figures follow:

Ownership	Area in sq. kilometre	Percentage
Imperial Household	6.380	1.13
State	67.614	12.07
Municipality	12.287	2.50
Private persons	392.427	70.70
Rivers, etc.	75.358	13.60
Total	553.967	100.00

### Tokyo Enlarged

The development of modern Tokyo is best endorsed by the giant growth of the adjoining towns and villages.

Socially and economically the towns outside the city area have been closely connected with the city itself. The position regarding Tokyo during the 10 years ending 1930 was that the 82 adjoining towns and villages increased in population by 1,720,000, while the city of Tokyo lost 100,000 within the same period. In road construction, extension of communication facilities and in the execution of various municipal regulations the city experienced enor-

mous difficulties due to the existence of over 80 different self-governing bodies surrounding the city area.

As is generally the case with great cities, a large number of people living in adjoining towns enter the city to earn their living. They are placed on exactly the same footing with the citizens in so far as the utilization of metropolitan facilities is concerned. Besides, as most of them are salaried men belonging to middle or intelligent class, to let them stand aloof from city government means an enormous loss to both.

It was after taking into careful consideration all these practical phases of administration that on October 1, 1932, new Tokyo was founded by amalgamating 20 more wards. The newly annexed suburban towns have 3,211,580 inhabitants and 469,029 sq. km., a density of 9,034 persons to the square kilometre.

The enlarged Tokyo now covers 553.967 square kilometres divided into 35 wards.

### Commerce and Industry

**Retail Business** In 1931-32 the number of retail dealers in Tokyo was 156,208; of the total the dealers who carried on their business with a capital under ¥1,000 comprised 22.1 per cent., under ¥5,000 40.1 per cent. and above ¥5,000 37.8 per cent. the position of various classes of dealers in the retail market in the city is shown below:

#### AMOUNT OF SALES BY RETAIL DEALERS IN TOKYO (1931-32)

Class of dealers	Number of Shops	Sales Amount (in ¥1,000)	Per-centage
Department stores	35	235,678	24.5
Corporations	2,526	103,368	10.8
Individuals	132,922	561,575	58.5
Retail markets			
Municipal	11	1,768	0.2
Prefectural	34	6,526	0.7
Private	538	37,445	3.8

Class of	Number of Shops	Sales Amount	Per-centage
Consumption associations	50	7,707	0.8
Stalls and vendors (estimate)	14,000	6,000	0.6
Total	156,208	937,867	100.0

**Public Wholesale Markets** The city owns and controls the Central Wholesale Market the construction of which has just been completed on 196,741 sq. metres of land at a cost of ¥15,000,000 and opened its business in September 1934. The market is for fish, poultry, meat, vegetables and fruits. Estimated quantity and value of the commodities to be handled in a year in this market are as follows:

Fish	207,000 tons
Dried fish	65,000 "
Meat	3,000 "
Poultry	1,700 "
Eggs	11,000 "

Vegetables	88,000 tons
Fruits	52,000 "
Total	428,700 "
Value	¥106,700,000

There are two branch wholesale markets under municipal control. They are the Kanda and Koto markets, and both handle only vegetables and fruits.

In the newly annexed city area 4 new branch markets are to be constructed.

**Industry** A thorough investigation was carried out by the municipality as regards the conditions for one year of all the factories, including small ones which employ less than 5 persons, as they stood in July, 1933. According to the investigation the total number of factories in Tokyo was 84,298; details follow:

#### Factories in Tokyo Classified According to the Number of Operatives and their Production

Number of Operatives	Number of Factories	Amount of Production (in ¥1,000)	Income from Subcontracted works (in ¥1,000)	Percentage of Production	Subcontracted Works
1	14,105	11,255.5	6,027.4	16.7	1.1
2-4	50,468	117,147.0	32,551.5	59.9	11.0
5-10	15,040	104,322.9	26,807.8	17.9	9.8
11-15	1,891	41,769.8	7,449.5	2.3	3.9
16-30	1,425	73,889.3	12,008.1	1.7	6.9
31-50	626	93,770.7	9,129.4	0.7	8.8
51-100	398	172,752.0	7,775.0	0.5	16.2
101-200	168	97,501.9	8,857.2	0.2	9.1
201-500	116	158,315.8	8,775.2	0.1	14.8
501-1,000	21	55,776.5	675.1	0.0	5.2
1,001 and above	20	141,195.4	8,226.8	0.0	13.2
Total	84,278	1,067,696.8	128,283.8	100.0	100.0

#### Factories in Tokyo Classified According to the Amount of Capital

Amount of Capital	Number of Factories	Number of Operatives	Amount of Capital (in ¥1,000)	Percentage of Factories	Percentage of Operatives	Percentage of Capital
Under ¥100	1,580	2,557	87.7	1.9	0.6	0.0
" 500	16,872	34,733	4,847.2	20.0	7.6	0.4
" 1,000	18,680	50,078	12,800.3	22.2	1.0	1.0
Under 2,000	20,278	65,658	27,687.9	24.1	14.5	2.2
" 5,000	16,619	72,840	48,806.0	19.7	16.0	3.8



Amount of Capital	Number of Factories	Number of Operatives (in ¥ 1,000)	Amount of Capital	Percentage		
				Factories	Production	Capital
Under 10,000	4,955	33,410	31,971.9	5.9	7.4	2.6
" 50,000	3,700	48,758	73,713.9	4.4	10.7	5.9
" 100,000	644	17,687	42,186.0	0.8	3.9	3.4
" 500,000	666	46,043	136,781.5	0.8	10.1	10.9
" 1,000,000	126	16,971	84,679.0	0.1	3.7	6.3
" 5,000,000	119	33,539	239,443.6	0.1	7.4	19.1
Above 5,000,000	39	32,047	549,671.1	0.0	7.1	43.9

### Transportation

In 1932-1933 the number of daily passengers carried by all the transportation facilities in and around the

city of Tokyo was estimated at 3,146,000, aggregating to an enormous number of 1,148,424,000 in the year.

### CONVEYANCE OF PASSENGERS BY DIFFERENT TRANSPORTATIONS

	Municipal Electric Car	Governmental Electric Railways	Subway	Private Electric Railways	Buses	Taxicabs (Estimate)	Total (Estimate)
1928-29	445,085,238	334,156,565	8,192,524	231,322,109	92,100,103	55,047,000	1,165,912,539
1929-30	421,190,264	335,543,611	7,676,447	244,603,742	118,778,292	89,966,000	1,230,758,356
1930-31	369,737,708	322,461,593	10,041,945	235,250,177	106,640,640	95,112,000	1,139,244,063
1931-32	335,439,922	333,336,156	10,673,308	224,560,483	136,858,162	100,533,000	1,141,401,101
1932-33	300,777,666	327,768,000 (estimate)	14,438,676	227,218,397	661,954,398	106,267,000	1,148,424,137

**Electric Railways** The results of the operation of municipal electric railways in 1933 show that passengers carried were 295,667,416 and the revenue therefrom ¥18,853,506. Compared with the previous year,

the number of passengers decreased by 5,110,250 and the fares by ¥344,619. This decrease is due to the continued depression and to the development of other advanced transportation facilities.

### REPORT ON ELECTRIC RAILWAYS

(1928-1933)

Year	No. of passengers	Fares collected (Yen)	Year	No. of passengers	Fares collected (Yen)
1928	445,085,238	29,078,051.90	1931	335,439,922	21,562,315.78
1929	421,190,264	27,201,754.01	1932	300,777,666	19,198,125.00
1930	365,236,868	23,573,915.31	1933	295,687,416	18,853,506.00

**Motor Bus** It was in January, 1924, the year following the great earthquake, that the motor bus service was started as a temporary measure

to meet the transport emergency, but its development was so healthy that it was decided to put it into permanent operation.

### MUNICIPAL MOTOR BUS

At the end of	Mileage in Operation	Number of Cars	Number of Passengers	Passengers per Day	Fare (yen)	Fare per Day (yen)
1928	102.6	592	41,571,352	164,008	4,013,547	10,996
1929	112.1	592	43,532,279	164,777	4,038,891	11,065
1930	122.8	652	39,621,498	141,005	3,476,065	9,417
1931	135.5	658	39,081,124	106,779	3,276,967	8,953
1932	144.5	662	41,233,326	112,968	3,095,701	8,481
1933	148.5	800	45,588,514	133,119	3,526,547	9,662

**Underground Railways** The urgent need of a high speed underground communications to relieve the congestion and pressure of surface traffic has long been felt necessary. A private company opened its first section of an underground railway, from Asakusa to Ueno, in the latter part of 1927, and is pushing forward its line under the very centre of the city to Shinagawa. It completed the construction of the line to Shimbashi in June, 1934, and the distance in operation now is 8 kilometres. In 1933 it carried 17,795,433 passengers. The municipal authorities have under contemplation the construction of other lines totalling 65 kilometres and by the end of 1930 had completed geological survey borings in 367 places.

**Streets** The ten years' effort after the earthquake of 1923 transformed the roads in Tokyo to a great extent and 89.4 per cent. of the total area of roads in the old city section is paved, although in the new city section the percentage of the paved roads is only 29.3. Within the coming ten years 180 lines of roads will be constructed or paved according to the city construction plan.

**Bridges** The city of Tokyo has a network of rivers and canals and the beauty of the city is greatly enhanced by the bridges of manifold designs which traverse them. Before the earthquake the bridges under municipal management numbered 668, of which 426 were of wood. At the earthquake 289 bridges collapsed or were reduced to ashes. By the co-operation of the Reconstruction Bureau of the Government and the Municipality new bridges were built in their place. At the end of 1933 there were 4,588 bridges in Tokyo, 1,264 of which were of stone, 107 concrete, 958 reinforced concrete, 533 iron, 66 iron and wood, and 1,660 wood.

**Rivers and Canals** The city is served with a veritable network of canals and rivers many of which are used for transportation purposes. Dredging has to be carried out continuously to keep them navigable. In 1933 there were 5,505 canals and rivers with the total length of 2,280,603 kilometres.

**Harbour** At the time of the great earthquake in 1923 the city of Tokyo keenly felt the necessity of better facilities for maritime transportation, and when rebuilding of the city took place it was decided to construct a pier, sheds and warehouses at Shibaura, Tokyo. A sum of ¥18,000,000 was appropriated for the work and construction was completed in April, 1935. The length of the reinforced concrete Hinode-cho pier is 564 metres and six steamers of 1,000 to 3,000 tons can be moored alongside at a time. Another pier of Shibaura has a length of 910 metres and can moor 7 steamers of 6,000 tons. Furthermore, there are 12 mooring buoys and 8 sheds. The total area of the harbour is 8,591 square kilometres. During 1933, the total number of steamers entered was 2,904 with an aggregate tonnage of 6,587,307 tons. The harbour handled 4,469,245 tons of import cargo, and 596,382 tons of export cargo.

### Waterworks

The construction of modern water reservoirs was first commenced in 1890 and it was twenty years before the Yodobashi water reservoir was completed. But this proved inadequate to meet the ever growing water consumption and the Murayama water reservoir was constructed in 1916. It consists of two reservoirs, upper and lower, and the upper reservoir has a capacity of 3,576,000 cubic metres while the capacity of the lower one is 12,148,000 cubic metres.

In 1934 another reservoir at Yamaguchi-mura was completed and it has a capacity of 18,824,000 cubic metres. The total volume of water which can actually be maintained by these reservoirs at any given moment reaches 30,056,000 cubic metres. The total volume supplied during 1933-34 was 120,354,969 cubic metres. Another reservoir, six times as large as the combined Murayama and Yamaguchi reservoirs, is to be constructed in the neighbourhood of Ogōchi-mura in Tokyo prefecture. In March, 1935, the city bought all rights of the Tamagawa Waterworks which had been supplying water to the six southern wards.

### Sewerage Works

**General Conditions** Until half a century ago waste water used to be discharged into moats, navigable canals and rivers. In 1876, there

was a violent outbreak of cholera which impressed upon the Government the urgent need of a general water and sewerage system, but it was not until between 1883 and 1885 that Tokyo prefecture laid the first sewers, with a government subsidy. The subject of sewage disposal was not undertaken in earnest until 1911, and it was not until ten years later that the modern Mikawajima Disposal Works were opened. Extensions and modernization are still going on. At present there are 7 sewage siphons at Sunamachi and Mikawajima.

Within the old city limits there are no longer any open street drains visible, the same, unfortunately, cannot be said of the new city area, though further development of the sewerage system is being planned.

Sewage siphon and disposing capacities for 1933-34 follow:

### SEWERAGE WORKS IN TOKYO

	(1933-1934)			
	Area covered (in are)	Length of sewers (in metre)	Sewage siphons	Sewage farm
<b>Proposed</b>				
Old City Section	699,206	1,720,997	7	3
New City Section	1,761,466	816,633	6	2
<b>Completed (1933)</b>				
Old City Section	—	774,507	7	2
New City Section	—	200,944	—	—
<b>Under Construction (1934)</b>				
Old City Section	—	91,077	3	1
New City Section	—	66,754	(Additional) 4	—

### Parks

**Parks** The absolute necessity of parks is more keenly felt in Tokyo than in other cities in Japan, not only because they are like oases in a large city, but because many lives were saved through the existence of parks on the occasion of the terrible earthquake of September, 1923.

At the end of 1934 Tokyo had 105 parks with an area of 2,747 square

kilometres.

In the old city area there are three large parks: Sumida, Kinshi and Hamacho and 89 others of about 2,682,136 sq. m., whereas before the earthquake the city had only Ueno, Hibiya and 32 other parks. Within the newly annexed quarters of the city there are two at Shinagawa covering an area of 3,900 tsubo.

Sumida park has an area of 174,400 sq. m., Hamacho park 36,000

sq. m. and Kinshi park 56,000 sq. m. All of the numerous small parks are laid out adjoining the elementary schools. They serve as local parks, the largest being 4,700 sq. m. and the smallest 1,700 sq. m. in area.

### Education

Most kindergarten work is undertaken by private persons, only 47 of the 278 kindergartens were being under municipal management in 1933. Elementary education, with the exception of a very few schools, is undertaken by the municipality. In July, 1934, there were 544 municipal elementary schools with 705,020 pupils. In addition to the elementary schools there are evening elementary schools, with courses extending over three years for poor children who are unable to attend day school.

They are all municipally established and pupils who complete the course are recognized as having finished their compulsory education. In July, 1934, the number of evening elementary schools and their pupils was 69 and 5,613 respectively.

For secondary education the municipality have 2 middle schools, 4 girls' schools, 10 commercial schools, and 4 industrial and business schools. (For the municipal educational expenditure see "Finance".) Education of a supplementary nature, industrial, commercial or technical is well looked after, as the following statistics will show.

All the higher education in the city is carried out by the Government, Tokyo Prefecture and private educational bodies.

### ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

March 1, 1934

	No.	Instructors	Students	Graduates
Kindergartens	275	621	15,205	9,124
Elementary schools	555	13,684	683,343	115,052
Elementary evening schools	67	113	5,694	1,797
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	7	184	1,005	223
Middle schools	51	1,341	34,794	6,219
Girls' high schools	74	1,683	41,175	7,648
Schools which resemble middle or girls' schools	26	517	12,787	2,067
Technical schools	103	1,971	45,474	10,169
Business continuation schools	184	256	19,789	8,450
Normal schools	3	107	1,621	537
Private miscellaneous schools	277	3,480	51,850	34,806
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,622</b>	<b>23,957</b>	<b>912,737</b>	<b>196,094</b>

### HIGHER GRADE SCHOOLS

March 1, 1933

	No.	Instructors	Students	Graduates
Higher normal schools	2	181	1,519	375
Training institutes for business school teachers	3	70	199	93
Colleges	71	3,858	50,964	14,038
High schools	4	244	2,896	902
Universities	22	3,592	46,644	14,201
<b>Total</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>7,945</b>	<b>102,222</b>	<b>29,609</b>

**Social Education** The Social Education Bureau of Tokyo municipality,

established in 1921, looks after the social education of the capital.

Adult education is effected through the medium of Commercial and Industrial Young Men's Cultural Schools and citizens' lecture courses, both of which give lectures to citizens for a term of half a year, at night or on Sundays and holidays. At other times short time lecture or training courses are arranged for citizens in general. Free use is made of music and the cinema.

The Tokyo Self-Government Hall, Hibiya park, is a permanent organ for social education with the object of fostering an autonomous spirit among the citizens, as its principal raison d'être.

**Training of Young Men** In July, 1934, there were 26 Young Men's Training Institutes with 15,599 students.

The Tokyo Municipal Federated Young Men's Association represents the Young Men's Associations of the different wards. Besides being subjected to physical and mental training the members are expected to render assistance in all public welfare services. In 1934, there were 1,012 such associations in the federation, the total number of members being 106,963.

In September, 1934, the Tokyo Municipal Federated Young Women's Association had 464 groups with a membership of 41,518.

The Tokyo Federated Boy Scouts

movement was established in 1922. It made rapid growth and in August, 1934, the number of groups was 161 with 9,397 members.

**Public Libraries** There are 26 libraries owned by the municipality, 8 of which are open day and night, but the rest, being attached to elementary school buildings, are open after school hours. In 1934, the number of books kept in these libraries totalled 425,724 and that of visitors was 2,690,216. The Hibiya Library is the oldest and largest, being established in 1906 and keeping 164,464 books. There are also some noted libraries in the city such as the Ueno Library (State), Tokyo Imperial University Library, libraries attached to universities, as well as many private libraries, of which the noted one is Ohashi library. Statistics of the number of all the libraries in Tokyo, books kept, the number of visitors, etc. follow:

#### STATISTICS OF LIBRARIES IN TOKYO

March 1, 1934

No. of new books	131,445
No of total books	3,156,583
Visitors	6,709,423
Total no. of libraries,	54

#### Religion

The number of shrines, temples, churches and missions, and that of preachers and adherents of each religion follows:

#### NUMBER OF SHRINES, TEMPLES, CHURCHES

(December 31, 1933)

	No. of shrines, temples, churches, and missions	No. of preachers	No. of adherents
Shintoism	861	346	—
Missions for Shintoism	1,007	6,032	657,709
Buddhism	1,863	4,300	258,706*
Missions for Buddhism	224	341	78,226
Christianity	223	447	54,435

(Includes 81 foreigners)

\* Refers to the number of Buddhist households.

#### Social Work

**Child Welfare** There are 4 maternity and 3 infants' hospitals within the old city quarters. In 1933 the former took care of 4,358 expectant mothers and the latter 7,351 infants.

There are 18 municipal nurseries where labourers can leave their children when going to their daily work. Those taken care of are babies from 6 months old to school age. In 1933 they took daily care of 1,135 children.

The city has 16 Infant Welfare Centres which give advice on the rearing of babies, arrange mothers' meetings and exhibitions on infant hygiene and assist in supplying

fresh milk for babies of the poor at a reduced price or gratis. In 1933 these centres handled 4,947 cases.

The city established the Tokyo Juvenile Shelter Office in 1921 to give social protection to those youths who are in need of public care, such as those who are unmanageable at home. The number of boys protected in 1933 was 459.

The city has a few juvenile recreation grounds laid out in slum districts where children have no gardens and almost no opportunity to enjoy landscapes, flowers and trees.

**Labour Exchanges** There are 47 labour exchanges in the city. Conditions of their activity are as follows:

#### RESULTS OF THE ACTIVITIES OF THE MUNICIPAL LABOUR EXCHANGE OFFICES (1933)

	Number of jobs	Persons wanting jobs	Jobs secured
General employees	271,999	303,327	77,925
Juveniles	32,031	32,555	5,717
Salarymen	9,652	34,782	7,460
Day-labourers (working days)	4,133,611	4,884,463	3,099,884

**Women's Workhouses** There are 6 women's workhouses in the city, where domestic manual work is given to women of the lower middle class. This enterprise of the municipality was started in 1925 as a part of the capital reconstruction work. Less than 10 years have passed since its initiation, but the development which it has made deserves attention. In 1933 the number of working days of women was 185,769 and ¥91,878.14 was paid to them.

**Unemployment Relief Works** The city has been undertaking relief works for daily labourers since 1925, with good results. The works carried out in 1933 are roughly repairing of water works, sewers, streets and dredging of rivers and the harbour: total expenditure ¥15,075,584; total wages to labourers ¥4,888,215 for 2,774,583

working days.

Besides having labour exchanges for daily labourers, the city arranges to give jobs for the unemployed among the educated and lower salaried classes. In 1933 the amount expended for the work reached ¥1,070,915, of which ¥975,310 was paid for 768,047 working days.

**Economic Protection** In 1933 the city had 20 public pawnshops and loaned ¥1,199,093

In 1933 there were 16 municipal dining halls serving cheap nutritious meals, the number of meals served being 4,272,689.

The city established lodging-houses attached to labour exchanges in 1911.

In 1933 there were 14 such houses giving shelter to 3,024 labourers in daily average.

In addition to all these various

kinds of undertakings Tokyo municipality runs 3 public bath-houses, has a house exchange agency and controls House Building Associations.

**The Tokyo Poor Asylum** The Tokyo Asylum was founded in 1872. It takes care of the poor, those taken sick in the street, lost children and depraved boys. In connection with this work mention should be made of Viscount Shibusawa who devoted 60 years of his life to it as its director. The admission report shows that during 1933 men taken in numbered 77,459, leaving 2,398 in the asylum at the end of the year.

#### Administration and Government

**History** In July, 1868, the Emperor Meiji granted an Imperial message on the proposed removal of the capital to Tokyo. It was the beginning of the regeneration of Tokyo. At the same time the downfall of the Shogunate régime was announced and new Japan was born.

The Tokyo prefectural office was established soon after the issuing of the Imperial Rescript. In 1871, the city was divided into 6 large wards, but seven years later the large wards were abolished and 15 smaller wards established. In 1879, as the governor of the prefecture saw that these 15 wards were firmly established, he issued a decree concerning the formation and functions of ward assemblies, and thus instituted the first representative government system in this country.

**Legislative Body** To control municipal business the city has a city council and board of aldermen with

a mayor as the head. Further, there are several departments, bureaux, sections, etc., for the execution of municipal affairs and office work.

Membership of the city council is an honorary position, the term of service being 4 years. The membership at present is 144, but owing to resignation of and death of members, the actual membership at the end of 1934 was 139. The principal functions of the council are the enactment and reorganization of city regulations, decisions as to finance, approval of settled accounts, imposition and collection of city taxes; and the right of proposing any bill, except the budget for annual revenue and expenditure. The board of aldermen of Tokyo once was the executive body, but in 1911 it became a legislative body. It is composed of 15 honorary aldermen to whom the mayor is added as chairman. The functional powers include the right of proposing any bill or expressing opinions on other matters.

**Executive** From 1889 till 1898 the function of the mayor of Tokyo was entrusted to the governor of Tokyo prefecture, but on October 1, 1898 the city became self-governing. The mayor is elected by the city council. Under the mayor there are three deputy mayors, a city counsellor, a treasurer, directors of departments, chiefs of bureaux, ward heads and other numerous offices. There are various kinds of committees as consultative bodies. The organization of the municipality is as follows:

#### THE DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION OF THE TOKYO MUNICIPALITY

Sections	Functions
Private secretariat	Secret matters, keeping of seals, ceremonies and reward
Personnel	Personnel administration
General secretariat	General affairs, municipal research, elections, legal affairs, etc.
Bureaux	
Supervising	Supervision and inspection of municipal affairs

Bureaux	Functions
Finance	Budget, loans, public land, taxation, purchasing, etc.
Industrial	Industry, promotion of industry and commerce, agriculture, fisheries and stock raising
Education	Management of schools; education, libraries, museums, etc.
Social Work	Protection and correction. Management of lodging houses, housing, labour exchanges, commercial training, etc.
Public Health	Management of hospitals, social hygiene, refuse disposal, parks and playgrounds, auditoriums, cemeteries, zoological gardens, etc.
Water Works	Water supply and extension
Public Works	Roads, bridges, harbours and rivers, sewage disposal, buildings, etc.
Electric	Supply of light and power; electric cars, motor buses, subways, etc.
Divisions	
Harbour	Care of Tokyo harbour
Municipal Office Building	Building the City Hall at Tsukishima
Miscellaneous	
Central Wholesale Market	Wholesale of provisions
Poor Asylum	Protection of helpless persons aged or young
Hygiene Laboratory	Investigations on epidemics, bacteria, etc.
Electric Laboratory	Examination of meters and scientific research on electricity.

#### Finance

When Tokyo became an independent self-governing city in 1898, its net annual expenditure was only ¥3,355,340, but this has grown to an estimated amount of ¥195,829,850 for the fiscal year 1934-5.

**Expenditure and Revenue** The estimated expenditure and revenue for 1934-5 are as follows:

Category of account	Gross annual expenditure
Office expense	¥10,045,837
Education	25,045,584
Industries	737,716
Public health	8,193,247
Social work	7,538,150
Public work	33,421,973
Miscellaneous	4,177,449
Loan	62,151,976
Waterworks	14,582,100
Electric enterprises	29,935,818
Total	195,829,850

#### REVENUE

Items	Amount
Income from properties	¥2,757,206
Fees and charges	53,514,822
Government subsidy	16,491,248
Subsidy from Tokyo prefecture	1,656,123
Compensation	1,775,756
Sales of city property	2,510,767
Receipts from landowners	1,747,098
City tax	82,394,762
Loans and borrowing	52,621,100
Revenues from other sources	25,737,090
Total	191,205,972

**City Property** At the end of October, 1933, the property of the city of Tokyo was valued at ¥837,635,239, an increase of ¥23,371,839 as compared with the previous year.

**Loans** Loans of Tokyo City increased because of a great amount of loan floated due to the emergency of 1923, i.e. the great Kanto earthquake and fire, and the enlargement of the city in 1932. The total of loans which amounted to ¥193,158,000 rose to ¥745,627,945 on May 31, 1934; this means a burden of ¥647.82 per household in the city.

## CHAPTER XXXIX

## FIVE BIG CITIES

## Osaka

## General

**Geographical Position** The city of Osaka is situated nearly in the centre of Japan proper, near the eastern entrance of the Inland Sea with easy access to the Pacific Ocean, while on the other sides extend the fertile plains of the provinces of Settsu, Kawachi and Izumi. The city of Kyoto, the ancient capital of Japan, is situated 43 kilometres to the north-east, and the city of Kobé lies 32 kilometres to the west. The river Yodo runs through the city, and with the numerous canals that connect with it affords excellent transportation facilities by water. The Yodo rises in Lake Biwa, the largest fresh water lake in Japan, and branches off into the Shin Yodogawa, Okawa, Dojimogawa, Tosaborigawa, Ajikawa, Kizugawa and the Shirinashigawa, which in turn connect with numerous canals, the most famous being the Dotombori Canal.

**Area** The area of Osaka was 10 square kilometres in 1703; it was extended to 15 square kilometres in 1889, in which year it was made into a municipality; it was increased to 56 square kilometres in 1897, by the annexation of adjacent villages, and in April 1925, more annexations were made until today it covers 187.28 square kilometres. Osaka is the third greatest city in Japan so far as the area is concerned.

**Population** The population of Osaka on October 1, 1930, when the last national census was taken, was 2,453,573. The population over the

same area in 1920 was 1,768,295 and in 1925 it was 2,114,804. The population on October 1, 1933, as estimated by the Cabinet Bureau of Statistics, was 2,654,000, of which 1,408,900 were men and 1,245,100 were women, the same on October 1, 1934 was 2,722,700, of which 1,445,000 were men and 1,277,700 were women. The number of households, in the same year, was 602,600 and the average number of a family was 4.5.

The density of population in 1934 was 14,538 to a square kilometre, and was the first in Japan in that respect.

In 1933 births registered were 77,498, that is 212 a day, still births totalled 5,093, and deaths 45,552, or 125 a day. The natural increase, therefore, was 31,946, or a decrease of 8,214 as compared with the previous year.

Of the births registered 39,913 were men, 37,585 were women, the rate of birth being 29.20 to a thousand of population.

Of the deaths registered, 24,070 were men and 21,482 were women. The rate of mortality was 17.16 to a thousand, an increase of 1.16 as compared with the previous year.

The causes of deaths registered during 1933 show that pneumonia and broncho-pneumonia were accountable for 12.0 per cent. of the total deaths, pulmonary tuberculosis 12.0 per cent. also.

The number of foreigners was 2,470, Chinese heading the list with 2,283 (92%).

**Houses** At the end of 1933 the number of dwelling houses was

542,062, of which 28,088 were vacant, that is, 5.18 houses to every 100, which is far larger than the ratio of 3 to 100, for other large towns in the country.

	Dwelling houses		Percentage of vacant
	Vacant	Total	
1925	17,161	441,891	3.88
1926	19,139	459,938	4.16
1927	24,084	470,524	5.11
1928	24,760	484,446	5.11
1929	24,197	502,384	4.81
1930	25,963	509,874	5.28
1931	30,651	517,162	5.92
1932	29,655	529,637	5.41
1933	28,088	542,062	5.18

## Industries

The city of Osaka holds an important position as a centre of industry as well as of commerce. At the end of 1933 the number of factories, excluding government concerns and small ones employing less than five workmen, was 8,200 which comprises 12 per cent. of the number of factories throughout the country. The total amount of production in the same year reached ¥1,039,651,000 (exclusive of gas and electric production), an increase of ¥284,130,000 (38%) as compared with the previous year. The following table shows the distribution of various industries.

Principal industries	No. of factories	No. of workmen	Production in ¥1,000
Textile	1,082	38,878	206,182
Metallurgical	1,522	86,708	267,293
Machinery	1,662	38,718	150,359
Ceramics	282	10,623	34,592
Chemical	706	19,311	200,342
Milling and wood work	510	6,570	24,797
Printing and book binding	375	7,752	40,168
Foodstuffs	583	5,993	55,738
Gas and electric work	14	1,115	—
Miscellaneous	1,404	18,960	60,379
Total	8,200	185,626	1,039,651

At the end of 1932 the number of small factories employing less than five operatives was 25,329, the number of hired workmen was 25,803,

the family of factory owners engaged in the works 31,388.

The increase in the number of hired ones and a decrease in that of family members as compared with the preceding years may be an indication of inflation reaching these petty family industries. The total amount of their production in 1932 was ¥54,460,000 or ¥2,200 per house.

**Other Productions** Productions of various industries other than factories in 1933 were as follows:

Agricultural	¥ 2,162,000
Livestock	4,661,000
Fisheries	2,996,000

## Commerce

**Business Companies** At the end of 1933 the number of business companies in Osaka was 7,214, an increase of 386 as compared with the previous year. Their paid-up capital amounted to ¥2,440,830,000, increase of ¥24,000,000 as compared with the previous year.

**Banks** At the end of 1933 the number of banks in Osaka was 9 with 137 branches besides 93 branches of banks in other cities. Their deposits amounted to ¥1,953,000,000, loans to ¥1,721,000,000.

**Warehouses** In 1933 the 6 big warehouses in Osaka received commodities amounting to ¥510,769,000 and delivered ¥468,678,000, with ¥138,851,000 outstanding at the end of the year.

**Exchanges** There are four exchanges in Osaka—Osaka Stock Exchange, Dojima Rice Exchange, Osaka Sampin (raw cotton, cotton yarns and rayon yarn) Exchange and the Osaka Sugar Exchange. The three first mentioned are joint stock companies while the Sugar Exchange is organized on a membership system.

The turnover of the Osaka Stock Exchange during 1933 was 79,920,000

shares, which include both short and long term transactions, and the value of which reached ¥11,200,300,000 or an increase of 49 per cent. as compared with the previous year.

The Dojima Rice Exchange, which is the oldest established rice exchange in Japan dealt in 44,870,000 koku valued at ¥1,068,280,000. It was a decrease of 55 per cent. as compared with the previous year due to the effect of the enforcement of the Rice Control Law. Dealings in Sampin Exchange were 6,250,000 bales of cotton yarn, valued at ¥1,242,430,000, 2,360,000 bales of cotton, valued at ¥453,640,000, and 840,000 bales of rayon yarn, valued at ¥92,120,000. The Sugar Exchange

transacted 4,680,000 sacks of sugar, amounting to ¥87,640,000.

**Commodity Movements** The total amount of commodities handled during 1933 reached 29,320,000 tons, of which 11,110,000 tons valued at ¥3,192,000,000 were sent out of the city and 18,210,000 tons valued at ¥2,765,000,000 were received in; i. e. in tonnage imports exceeded exports by 7,110,000 tons while in value exports exceeded imports by ¥428,000,000. This is a normal condition because imports mainly consist of cheap raw materials and exports include valuable manufactured goods.

The itemized table of the same follows:

#### OUTWARD AND INWARD SHIPMENTS

Kinds	Sent out		Receiving	
	Quantity (in 1,000 tons)	Value (in ¥1,000,000)	Quantity (in 1,000 tons)	Value (in ¥1,000,000)
Foodstuffs	849	148	2,386	355
Raw materials	2,713	245	9,584	425
"    "    for manufacturing	2,310	442	3,155	573
Manufactured goods	5,171	2,354	2,871	1,357
Miscellaneous	68	3	218	21
Total	11,109	3,192	18,215	2,765

**Central Wholesale Market** The Osaka Central Wholesale Market handles under supervision of the city foodstuffs which are liable to deteriorate, such as fish, meat, eggs, vegetables and fruits. The amount handled during 1934 reached ¥63,011,000, an increase of ¥4,280,000 over the previous year.

**Municipal Retail Markets** The municipality of Osaka operates fifty-four retail markets which handle daily necessities. The sales by these municipal markets during 1934 amounted to ¥23,320,000, a decrease of ¥60,000, as compared with the previous year. Owing to the decline of prices and buying capacity and increase of private markets, the

value of necessities handled by these markets shows a declining tendency every year.

#### Foreign Trade

The Osaka Customs Office handled, during 1934, 1,586,000 tons of goods valued at ¥586,180,000 for export and 4,221,000 tons valued at ¥523,290,000 for import, which shows an excess of imports over exports by 2,635,000 tons and an excess in value of exports over imports by ¥62,890,000. Compared with the previous year, it showed an increase of ¥122,650,000 or 26 per cent. in exports, and a gain of ¥81,600,000 or 18 per cent. in imports.

#### Transportation

**Roads** On March 31, 1934, the total length of roads in the city of Osaka was 2,477.664 km., and the total area occupied by these roads was 12,135 sq. km. or 6.5 per cent. of the total city area. According to the city planning, narrow roads are gradually disappearing. On the same date the concrete roads comprised 31 per cent. of the total area of roads just mentioned.

**Rivers, Canals and Bridges** Osaka is the Venice of Japan and owed its development much to the network of waterways. At the end of 1934, the total length of 12 main rivers and canals in the city was 54.735 km., and the number of bridges was 1,274.

**Tramways and Bus Lines** The first electric tramway in Osaka was built in September, 1903, between Hana-zonobashi and the harbour, a distance of 4.828 kilometres. At the end of the same year it was decided that all electric railway lines within the city limits should be constructed and operated by the municipality. At the end of 1934 the length was 103.9 kilometres. In May, 1933 the underground railway opened its business between Umeda and Shinsaibashi, with the length of 3 km. In addition to the tramcar service the municipal authorities operate motor-bus lines. Private bus lines operate over certain districts of the city.

**Suburban Electric Railways** 9 private companies operate suburban electric lines—the Hanshin Electric Railway Company and the Hanshin Kyuko Electric Railway Company operate the service between Osaka and Kobé; the Keihan Electric Railway Company line connects Osaka with Kyoto; the Osaka Electric, Sangu Kyuko and Osaka lines bring Nara and vicinity to within easy reach of Osaka; the Nankai and the

Hanwa Electric Railway Companies operate between Osaka and Wakayama; and the Hankai Electric connects Osaka and Sakai. The total length of suburban electric lines reaches 874.4 kilometres. These electric lines, coupled with the railway lines operated by the Railway Ministry, make up the land transportation lines of Osaka.

**Sea Transportation** The Osaka harbour is one of the three largest ports in Japan and the number of steamships which entered the port in 1933 was 2,138, the aggregate tonnage of which amounting to 31,607,000 tons, while that of Japanese and foreign sailing vessels was 162,628 with 4,243,000 tons. Of the steamboats 12,089 were of the volume under 1,000 tons, 7,290 from 1,000 to 5,000 tons, and 1,659 above 5,000 tons.

**Airways** The Japan Air Transport Co., Ltd., operates a regular passenger and mail service with its airport at the mouth of the Kitsugawa. It takes 2.30 hours between Osaka and Tokyo, the distance being 425 kilometres. Fukuoka, Kyushu, may be reached in three hours, the distance being 500 kilometres. It is 1,684 kilometres to Dairen, via Fukuoka, Urusan, Seoul and Héijo. The planes leave and arrive twice a day both ways. The fare to Tokyo is ¥30 per passenger and that between Osaka and Fukuoka is ¥35. The number of passengers during 1934 was 4,120, and is annually increasing. The Japan Air Transport Institute operates similar service between Osaka and Matsuyama in Shikoku.

**Municipal Industrial Research Laboratory** The Osaka Municipal Industrial Research Laboratory was established in 1916, with an imperial bounty to cover part of the expenses, for the purpose of pursuing technical studies and giving guidance to manufacturers. The institution has since been

reconstructed and enlarged with an expenditure of some ¥500,000.

In 1925, the Institute for the Encouragement of Industry was established in the compounds of the Laboratory to ensure more competent activities. The new institute was built, at an expenditure of ¥200,000, in commemoration of the wedding of the Crown Prince. For the maintenance of these two institutes a sum of ¥150,000 is expended annually by the municipality. Besides taking the initiative in experimental work aiming at the improvement of production methods, they conduct scientific experiments at the request of private individuals and answer technical enquiries.

#### Education

In March, 1934, the number of kindergartens and schools in Osaka was 651, nurses, teachers and professors 12,256, and pupils and student totalled 423,708. As compared with the previous year the number of schools increased by 15, teaching forces by 533, and pupils and students by 23,429. Of the total number of kindergartens and schools the Government and prefectural numbered 29 (4.5 %), municipal 426 (65.4%).

Colleges and universities are Osaka School of Foreign Languages (governmental); Osaka Girls' College (prefectural); Osaka University of Commerce (municipal); Kwan-sai University (private); Naniwa Commercial College (private); Soai Girls' College (private); Otani Girls' College (private); Osaka High School (governmental); Osaka Imperial University (governmental). In 1933 the municipality paid ¥15,080,000, an annual sum of some ¥14,421,000 for the maintenance of educational institutions in the city.

**Public Libraries** There are one prefectural, six municipal and six pri-

vate public libraries in Osaka. At the end of March, 1934 the number of books kept in these libraries was 321,845. During 1933, the number of persons visiting these libraries was 813,705.

**Young Men's Training Institutes** The number of training institutes for young men was 122 on April 1, 1934, the number of students being 17,258.

**Temples and Shrines** At the end of 1933 814 Buddhist temples, 812 sectarian Shinto preaching places, and 91 Christian churches constituted the religious force of the city.

#### Social Welfare Works

**Relief of the Poor** Since the issuance by the Government in 1874 of the relief regulation, the municipality of Osaka has given financial assistance to bodies engaging in the relief of the poor, the aged and deserted children. More recently it has undertaken the maintenance of diverse social welfare institutions aiming at the prevention of poverty. In 1933 three municipal maternity homes received 5,710 expectant mothers and took care of 9,570 such mothers. There are 60 institutions (municipal 18 and private 42) engaging in child protection, and there were 4,408 children staying at those institutions at the end of 1933.

The municipality maintains 17 lodging-houses for the unemployed and labourers, while there are eight more similar establishments maintained privately.

The municipality also maintains dwelling houses, sells more by instalment payments and conducts public pawnshops. The last named loaned ¥471,628 during 1933.

**Employment Exchanges** The municipality maintains 13 employment exchanges, three of which deal exclusively with unskilled labourers, while another deals only with women. Besides numerous employment

agencies conducted as business enterprises there are 8 privately maintained employment exchanges.

These exchanges handled 213,504 cases for salary men and women and 20 per cent. of men and 24 per cent. of women got job. In day labour exchanges the number of cases reached 2,089,293 and 85 per cent. of which was successful.

**Charitable Medical Institutions** The municipality maintains 29 medical institutions where citizens of the lower classes may receive treatment, free of charge or with payment of the bare cost. There are 14 more such hospitals privately maintained.

#### City Planning

City planning was advocated as early as 1886 in Osaka, but nothing definite took shape until 1917 when the City Improvement Investigation Commission was organized to make investigations.

After many years of investigation, the city decided in April, 1922, to fix the area for the new city at 220 square kilometres, which includes the old city. The future city was to be divided into the dwelling district 33.3 per cent., the business district 11 per cent., and industrial district 30.2 per cent., leaving 25.5 per cent. for future division. Some of these districts were marked off as fire proof districts, where fire proof buildings alone were permitted to be constructed. Owing to the experiences gained by the great Kwanto earthquake of 1923, drastic changes were made in the above plan, which cost some ¥234,570,000.

In order to wash into the sea the polluted water in branch rivers and canals, the city intends to set up movable weirs.

#### Harbour Construction

Half a century ago the harbour facilities of Osaka were in such a

poor condition that it was feared they would fail to keep pace with the rapid growth of trade. Osaka Bay, which lies to the west, was constantly subject to huge waves and exposed to high winds, and the mouths of the rivers were always choked with sand. In 1897, the municipality started construction work on a carefully worked out plan with a subsidy from the national treasury. By 1915, the greater part of the plan had been completed at an expenditure of ¥25,000,000, and thereafter the work was temporarily suspended owing to the financial difficulties of the municipality. Work was resumed in 1917. As part of the second plan of construction, the municipality started the construction of the pier and extension of the moorings in 1929. The work is expected to be completed in 1935.

The water area inside the breakwater is 6.55 square kilometres and the maximum depth within this area is 10 metres at mean low water. This depth enables the harbour to accommodate steamers of 10,000 tons without difficulty.

#### Waterworks and Sewerage

The first waterworks in Osaka were completed in October, 1895, at a cost of ¥2,390,000. Water was then drawn from the Yodo River at Sakuranomiya and was conveyed to a reservoir in Osaka castle for distribution to a population of 610,000. Reconstructions and expansions have since been made and today the Osaka Waterworks supply the citizens with a daily 383,000 cubic metres of water. In 1933, 500,000 houses used 116,688,000 cubic metres.

From 1894 on, several minor additions and reconstructions to the sewerage system of the city were attempted, but it was not until 1911 that anything really big was undertaken. Then from 1911 to 1927,

three big schemes, the last to be completed in 1935, at an aggregate cost of ¥17,000,000, have been put into effect.

#### Municipal Finance

In the fiscal year 1933-34 the revenue of the Osaka municipality was ¥140,757,000, expenditure ¥141,693,000. As compared with the finance of the

city when she became an independent self-governing body in 1898 the amount of revenue is 44 times as large and that of expenditure 46 times. In 1933 city loan floatation amounted to ¥254,360,000, and the total amount of city loans on May 31, 1934 was ¥478,365,000 or ¥180 per capita of population.

#### Kyoto

Kyoto, known in antiquity by the name of "Heian" (the city of peace), was for about a thousand years the metropolis of Japan. At the Restoration, the Emperor Meiji moved his capital to Tokyo, but Kyoto retained its position as a cultural centre, and today it is looked upon as "the classic city" and the leader of culture in the western part of the country. The city, lying in what is called the Kyoto basin, is surrounded by many famous hills and mountains such as Arashiyama, Atagoyama, Kuramayama, Hiéizan and Higashiyama. The area of the city is about 289 square kilometres, the greatest length from N. to S. is a little over 26 kilometres and the greatest breadth is about 25 kilometres, the form being roughly rectangular. Osaka lies 43 kilometres to the south-west.

**Boundaries** The boundaries of the city have undergone considerable changes since 1888. At that date the first annexation of adjacent villages was made, a second extension was made in 1902 and a third in 1918. In 1929 three wards, Nakagyo-ku, Sakyo-ku, and Higashiyama-ku were newly added to the city. In 1931 the last annexation was made and two more wards, Ukyo-ku and Fushimi-ku, were constituted.

**Population** The population grew from 717,100 in 1927, to 736,000 in

1928, to 755,200 in 1929, and due to the above mentioned extensions in the boundaries, was found in 1930, to be 952,397. On October 1, 1934 the total number of population in Kyoto was estimated at 1,052,500, that of households was 224,129.

#### Industry and Commerce

In 1933 the conditions of factories which employed more than 5 persons in Kyoto were as follows:

	Factories	Operatives	Production (in yen)
Textile	784	15,390	34,675,341
Metallurgical	74	805	3,230,310
Machinery	104	1,376	2,410,354
Ceramics	53	670	1,457,834
Chemical	37	481	6,194,974
Saw milling & wood work	93	865	2,879,467
Printing & binding	57	753	2,176,968
Foodstuffs	253	3,391	21,505,747
Electric & gas	11	93	912,055
Miscellaneous	92	1,216	3,272,610
Total	1,588	25,540	78,775,160

#### TOTAL INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION OF KYOTO (1933)

Kind of Industry	Amount in yen
Agriculture	4,421,215
Livestock	3,980,744
Forestry	315,310
Mineral	135,302
Fisheries	53,200
Factories (including all petty shops)	224,828,928
Total	233,713,699
1932	208,592,249

**Foreign Trade** Not being a port Kyoto cannot carry on trade with foreign countries direct except by parcel post, but the goods consigned to and from foreign countries through other ports were (in ¥1,000),

	1930	1931	1932	1933
Exports	25,098	15,276	22,354	28,270
Imports	5,606	5,696	4,317	5,815

**Banking Statistics** Figures concerning the banks in the city are quoted below:

(in ¥1,000)			
At the end of	No. of banks	Deposits	Loans
1930	83	427,375	154,423
1931	99	434,831	150,631
1932	88	453,702	156,844
1933	85	474,504	178,553

**Commercial and Industrial Corporations** At the end of 1933 there were 2,676 companies in Kyoto. Their paid-up capital amounted to ¥254,119,000. The clearing house turned over 19,522,580 bills with the value of ¥2,608,655,000 and delivered 2,140,360 bills with the value of ¥210,675,000.

#### Transportation

**Vehicles** At the end of 1933 the number of vehicles was 173,104, including 253 rikisha, 2,462 automobiles and 133,214 bicycles.

**Municipal Tramways** In 1933-34 the total length of the lines was 59.9 km., and carried 95,112,075 passengers, while the bus ran 37.5 km. of the lines and carried 9,901,396.

**State Railways** In 1933-34 the number of passengers who moved through Kyoto and other seven stations in the city was 17,137,570.

**Suburban Electric Railways** On the north the Eizan Electric Railway extends from Demachi Bridge to Kurama and Mount Hiéi; on the north-west the Arashiyama line starts Shijomiya and goes to Arashiyama and connects with the Atago Electric line.

To the south Kyoto is connected with Osaka and Nara by three electric railways, i. e. Kei-han Electric, Shin (new) Keihan Electric and Nara Electric. The Kei-han line extends to the east from the terminal of Sanjō to the city of Otsu by Lake Biwa.

#### Rivers, Water-Power Works

**Rivers** Almost all the rivers that meet in the Kyoto Basin, rise in the Tamba tableland. The Hozu River, which later changes its name into the Katsura River, touches the western side of the city; the Kamo River and the Takano River, rise in the southern part of the tableland, join together and flow across the city to empty into the Katsura River. The Uji River, starting from Lake Biwa, and the Katsura River meet in the southern suburbs of the city to form the Yodo River which flows south-westwards, through Osaka, into Osaka Bay.

**Canal and Water-power Work** The first Biwa Canal, completed in 1895 at the cost of ¥1,838,317, was designed for the conveyance of passengers and goods and for the supply of water power, while the second canal, completed lately at the cost of ¥4,477,805, supplies water for drinking, fire-brigades and for producing electricity, etc.

The waterworks were started in 1908 and completed in March, 1912, at the cost of ¥3,000,000 of which ¥750,000 came from the State treasury. The water is drawn from Lake Biwa by means of the second canal mentioned above and supplies water to 500,000 people. Further work, to cater to the needs of 200,000 people, is on the way. The supply in 1933-34 was 36,451,004 cubic metres to 143,044 households.

#### Education

Governmental and Prefectural: Kyoto Imperial University, the Third



Higher School, Kyoto Higher Industrial Schools, Kyoto Higher Sericultural School, Kyoto Sangyo Koshujo (School of Sericulture).

Municipal schools: Kyoto Painting School.

Private schools: Ritsumeikan University, Doshisha University, Ryukoku University, Otani University, Shingon-shu University, Buddhist School, Military Arts School.

#### NUMBER OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTES (March 1, 1934)

	No.	Instructors	Students
Kindergartens	50	163	4,069
Elementary schools	135	2,735	119,839
Business continuation schools	41	259	2,729
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	2	46	343
Girls' high schools	17	469	9,721
Middle schools	15	403	7,465
Technical schools	10	356	7,166
Normal schools	2	96	1,054
High school	1	66	876

	No.	Instructors	Students
Colleges	15	655	5,783
Universities	7	550	10,356
Total	295	6,098	169,401

**Libraries and Museums** There are also in Kyoto other institutions for educational purposes as the Imperial Gift Museum, Kyoto Municipal Library, Kyoto Fine Arts Museum, etc. The libraries of the Kyoto Imperial University, of the Cabinet and of the Imperial Household Department are especially deserving of mention.

**Shrines and Temples** In 1933 the numbers of Buddhist temples and Shinto shrines with which Kyoto is famous were 403 shrines, 300 preaching places of sectarian Shinto sects, 1,417 Buddhist temples, while Christian churches numbered 52.

#### Social Work

Conditions of social undertakings under municipal management in 1933-34 were:

	No. of establishments		
Public markets	11	Sales account	¥2,268,806
Housing	5	Places	240
Public baths	4	houses	(in 1932) 1,024,214
Labour exchanges	3	{ Cases	46,821
Lodging houses	2	{ Employed	12,391
Lunch-rooms	2	Lodgers	11,391
		Meals	(in 1932) 156,867

#### Finance

The annual revenue and expenditure, both general and special, of Kyoto amounted to:

Fiscal year	Revenue (in ¥1,000)	Expenditure
1931-32	40,548	40,444

Fiscal year	Revenue	Expenditure
1932-33	37,517	37,002
1933-34	26,083	36,302
1934-35	27,453	37,884

Municipal debts outstanding on May 1, 1934 totalled ¥38,436,638 or ¥37.429 per capita of population.

#### Nagoya

Nagoya is situated in the very centre of the main island. Facing Isé Bay on the south and bordered by the fertile plain of No-Bi on the north, the climate is always mild.

Nagoya castle, with its famous golden dolphins, speaks of the glorious history of the city, but one cannot live on the past, and old and historically important as the city may

be, she fills today a more important rôle than that of an antique, for she is a distributing and industrial centre for the middle part of Honshu, a rôle that will grow in importance as time goes on.

#### Area and Population

The increases of population and area during the ten years 1924-33 are shown in the following table:

On October 1	Population	No. of Households	Area (sq. km.)
1924	670,800	142,723	148.142
1925 (census)	768,558	161,141	148.142
1926	801,900	168,466	148.142
1927	835,700	175,567	148.929
1928	869,900	182,752	148.929
1929	904,700	190,063	148.929
1930 (census)	907,404	190,379	150.783
1931	934,400	198,000	151.044
1932	961,800	203,700	151.044
1933	989,600	209,700	151.044

Buildings Number of buildings in 1933 was as follows:

Stone, brick, etc. buildings	26,962
Wooden buildings	248,784
Total	275,746

	Totals of home and foreign trades (in yen)	
1931	72,839,204	153,119,761
1932	100,469,385	171,323,906
1933	131,017,188	213,430,966

#### Commerce and Industry

**Companies and Banks** At the end of 1933 the number of business corporations in Nagoya was 3,775, and that of banks 7 with 59 branches besides 23 branches of banks in other cities. At the end of 1933 deposits amounted to ¥416,163,639, outstanding loans to ¥191,504,311.

**Warehouses** The receipts of goods by the warehouses owned by three big warehouse companies in 1933 amounted to ¥114,779,511, delivery to ¥108,958,232, leaving the outstanding stock valued at ¥27,276,645 at the end of the year.

**Domestic and Foreign Trade** Foreign and home trade values in recent three years were as follows:

	EXPORTS	IMPORTS
Home trade	(in yen)	
1931	34,328,640	88,120,608
1932	36,010,396	101,770,517
1933	41,596,340	122,252,842
Foreign trade		
1931	37,950,564	64,999,153
1932	64,458,989	69,553,389
1933	89,420,348	91,178,124

**Exchanges** Nagoya has three exchanges, i. e. the Stock Exchange, Rice Exchange and Cotton Yarn Exchange. In 1933, the turnover of the Stock Exchange was 247,831 shares long term transaction valued

at ¥18,079,199, 26,828,770 shares short term valued at ¥3,571,054,709. The Rice Exchange handled 5,895,800 koku while the Cotton Yarn Exchange handled 1,594,790 bales.

There are in Nagoya 11 wholesale markets, and 14 municipal and 93 private retail markets. In 1933 the 11 wholesale markets sold commodities valued at ¥25,271,361, and 107 retail markets ¥8,234,166.

**Industry** Commodities that are brought into the city are foodstuffs and raw materials such as rice, sugar, timber, coal, ginned cotton, iron, wool, etc., while those sent out are mainly lumber, coal, cotton piece-goods, porcelain and pottery, beer, cement and other manufactures.

Nagoya has been from olden times a famous place for porcelain and pottery and in 1933 the output totalled as much as ¥17,026,689. It is only since the growth of the cotton spinning industry in the city that the value of the annual output of pottery has been challenged. The total production of the cotton spinning industry reached ¥147,488,588 in 1933. An equally significant development is that of the machine and machinery. In 1933 the total output of machine industry reached ¥62,747,161.

**Number of Factories and Production** Number of factories employing more than 5 operatives and productions of various industries in 1933 follow:

Kind of industries	Factories		Operatives		Output (in ¥1,000)	
	1932	1933	1932	1933	1932	1933
Textile	520	517	29,537	29,696	115,341	147,488
Metallic	197	235	2,958	3,569	5,175	10,205
Mechanical	464	575	20,277	25,553	43,575	62,747
Pottery and porcelain	124	136	7,376	9,498	11,650	17,026
Chemical	102	123	2,552	3,464	9,967	14,402
Saw mills and wood works	316	354	5,258	5,708	13,406	17,571
Printing and bookbinding	126	131	2,308	2,457	7,280	7,899
Comestibles and beverages	216	226	3,171	3,184	30,382	35,221
Gas and electric	2	3	205	234	5,478	5,456
Others	487	460	3,788	4,090	9,111	13,370
Total	2,554	2,760	77,436	87,453	252,368	331,719

### Transportation

**Railways** Lying as it does between Kyoto, the old capital, and Tokyo, the present capital, Nagoya is known as Chukyo (middle capital). It is an important intermediate city on the Tokaido highway. The Kwansai line, which starts from Osaka, passes through Nara and Miyé prefectures and connects at Nagoya with the main Tokaido line to Tokyo. The Chuo line, which runs through Gifu, Nagano, Yamanashi and other prefectures to Tokyo, has Nagoya as its other terminus. Nagoya is thus one of the most important railway

centres of Japan. The railway station and the harbour are directly connected by rail and the importance of the city as a distributor of goods is thereby enhanced. There are 8 stations, viz., Nagoya, Nagoya Minato, Atsuta, Chikusa, Ozoné, Hatta, Shiratori, and Horikawaguchi. The annual passenger traffic passing through these 8 stations is estimated at about fifteen million persons, and goods traffic amounts to approximately three million tons. The city is provided with an extensive network of electric railway lines to connect with outlying districts. The principal ones are:

(1) Mei-Gi Railway extends to Gifu, Ichinomiya, Inuyama and Tsumishima.

(2) Seto Electric Railway runs to Seto.

(3) Aichi Electric Railway to Toyohashi and Tokonamé.

(4) Shimonoishiki Electric Railway to Shimonoishiki.

In 1933 the total length of roads in Nagoya extended to 2,848 kilometres, the number of bridges 473, that of vehicles 179,244

**Harbour Works** Nagoya has a splendid harbour well protected by Chita Peninsula from typhoons. Construction of the harbour was started in 1896 and the third stage of the entire plan was completed in 1928 after a total outlay of

¥15,490,000. The area of the wharves is 1.52 square kilometres, with anchoring space for thirty-eight steamers of ten thousand tons or so. The fourth stage of construction was undertaken at an estimated expenditure of ¥10,120,000. When the work is finished the area of the wharves will be increased to 2.23 square kilometres and there will be anchoring space for fifty-two steamers of ten thousand tons. At present direct trade is carried on with the American continent, Europe, China, the South Sea Islands, Australia and Africa.

### Education and Social Work

**Social Work** Social undertakings in 1933-34, were as follows:

	Establishments	Beneficiaries
Maternity hospitals	5	208
Municipal houses to let	259	227 households
Public lodging houses	4	182,544
Public pawnshops	4	(Loan ¥162,511 to 37,380 persons)
Intelligence offices	4	20,838
Labour exchanges	3	637,201
Hospitals: Ordinary	1	481,817
Special	2	2,066
Establishments for free medical treatments	4	128,546
Municipal "Tozanryo" for poor relief	1	757
Municipal retail markets	14	sold ¥2,678,492

**Educational Facilities** In March, 1933 the number of schools and pupils in Nagoya was 248 and 171,389 respectively classified as follows: 34 kindergartens with 3,135 children; 104 elementary schools with 135,958 pupils; 63 secondary schools with 25,359 pupils; 9 collegiate schools

with 3,311 students, 2 blind and deaf-mute schools with 289 pupils; and 36 miscellaneous schools with 3,337 students.

Among the above mentioned schools those belonging to the municipality were:

Kind of schools	No.	Classes	Instructors	Pupils
Elementary schools	99	2,411	2,675	134,277
Girls' high schools	3	—	85	2,624
Commercial schools	3	—	101	2,512
Technical school	1	—	29	433
Business continuation schools	29	—	395	8,397
Kindergartens	4	22	24	577

### Finance

**Revenue and Expenditure** The annual revenue and expenditure of

Nagoya city has shown a marked increase of late as it is clear by the following table:

Year	Revenue	Expenditure		Total
		Ordinary	Extraordinary	
1926-27	¥10,131,031	¥5,996,229	¥4,064,042	¥10,070,271
1927-28	10,415,166	6,566,132	3,788,203	10,354,335
1928-29	19,438,161	7,275,835	11,663,553	18,939,388
1929-30	25,390,085	7,034,796	18,219,390	25,254,186
1930-31	31,477,355	6,578,659	23,545,976	30,424,835
1931-32	37,963,011	7,126,598	28,946,961	36,073,539
1932-33	45,421,218	7,163,058	36,644,010	43,807,068
1933-34	84,689,082	7,578,021	76,511,764	84,059,785

**Municipal Loans** At the end of March, 1933, the total indebtedness of Nagoya city amounted to ¥83,602,977 or ¥84 per capita of population.

### Yokohama

#### General

**History** Yokohama, in the Bunroku Era, about 1587, was a hamlet of twelve families and by the time it became an open port, July 1, 1859, it was only a small fishing village of one hundred families or 350 people. The real growth began with the arrival of the foreigners. The commercial treaties Japan entered into with the United States of America, the Netherlands, Russia, Great Britain, and France stipulated that Kanagawa should be an open port, because it stood on the open harbour nearest Tokyo, then known as Yedo and the seat of the Shogunate Government, but as that village was already very crowded the Tokugawa Shogunate opened up the village of Yokohama instead.

In the beginning four streets were laid out, but as more and more Western, Chinese and Japanese merchants gathered there the area was quickly extended. The population in 1877 was 30,000, five years later it had grown to 52,000, and five years after that there were more than 94,000 in the town. At the end of September, 1932, the population was 661,500. Yokohama received the status of a municipality on April 1, 1889. In 1901, the once thriving

port of Kanagawa and other adjoining villages and towns were absorbed by the newly risen Yokohama, and in 1911 and 1927, further extensions took place.

**Quake and Rehabilitation** Yokohama and suburbs suffered severely in the great earthquake and fire which occurred on September 1, 1923. Practically the whole town was reduced to ruins and ashes, but with the untiring efforts of its citizens, together with generous support from outside, the reconstruction of the town was completed, as originally planned, within six years of the disaster. On April 22, 1929, His Majesty the Emperor honoured the city with a visit of inspection, and the following day the municipality celebrated the completion of its programme of reconstruction which, in truth, was the creation of a new city out of a pile of cinders.

On April 1, 1927, two adjoining towns and seven villages, with a population of 115,757, were annexed to the municipality, and on October 1 of the same year the whole city was re-divided into five wards; Tsurumi, Kanagawa, Naka, Hodogaya and Isogo. By that time the construction of the gigantic breakwaters, the reclamation at Namamugi and Koyasu and the extension

of the waterworks was completed, and the perpetual land leases were being bought back by the municipality one after another.

**Location** Yokohama is situated in the south-eastern part of Honshu, the main island of Japan, on the western shore of the Bay of Tokyo about 22 miles from the entrance to the bay, in latitude 35° 27' N., longitude 139° 38' E. It is the seat of government of Kanagawa prefecture, of which it is also the largest population centre. It is surrounded by hills on which the better class residential districts are located.

**Climate** Yokohama's location on the Bay of Tokyo serves to modify the heat of summer, the nights being generally cool and comfortable. In the summer months there is an absence of rainfall. Rain is most abundant in June and September, the two rainy seasons of the year, at which times the humidity is trying, but never so bad that the climate is unbearable. In winter the sky is clear and the atmosphere crisp and invigorating. In February there is a short season of damp cold during which there are occasional snowfalls. From March spring begins, with bright sunny days and frequent strong winds. During the

summer months typhoons are to be expected, but Yokohama harbour is protected from their violence.

**Area and Population** At the end of 1934 the area of Yokohama was 133.875 square kilometres. The total number of population in October, 1934, was estimated at 703,900.

#### INCREASE OF POPULATION OF YOKOHAMA

October 1 of	1930-1934			Households
	Men	Women	Total	
1930 (census)	317,084	297,624	614,708	134,320
1931 (estimate)	331,300	309,500	640,800	140,338
1932 ( " )	341,500	320,200	661,500	144,923
1933 ( " )	351,500	331,100	682,600	149,531
1934 ( " )	361,700	342,200	703,900	154,181

**Foreign Residents** The number of foreigners residing in Yokohama at the end of December, 1922, was 7,492. This figure was greatly reduced in consequence of the great earthquake and fire of September, 1923, in which all the foreign consulates were reduced to ashes and many of their staffs lost their lives. The number of foreigners at one time decreased to 376, but they gradually returned and by the end of December, 1933, the number had grown to 4,000.

The following table shows the nationalities of foreigners according to sex at the end of 1934:

#### FOREIGN RESIDENTS IN YOKOHAMA (1934)

	No. of houses	Men	Women	Total
British	257	298	293	591
American	140	179	133	312
German	85	103	78	181
French	40	53	51	103
Italian	12	11	17	28
Swiss	28	37	25	62
Chinese	809	1,967	1,069	3,036
Others	177	225	176	401
Total	1,548	2,872	1,842	4,714

#### Commerce

**Exchanges** During the one year from December, 1933, to November,

1934, sales of the Yokohama Raw Silk Exchange amounted to ¥258,994,806 while deliveries amounted to ¥5,266,300. Sales of the Yoko-

hama Stock Exchange amounted to ¥20,426,608 and deliveries, ¥1,979,090.

At the end of 1934 the stock in warehouses amounted to ¥139,683,902, gaining ¥15,000,000 over the previous year.

**Banks** At the end of 1933 the number of banks and branches was 50, i. e. 6 banks, 19 branches thereof, and 25 branches of banks in other cities. Their paid-up capital amounted to ¥108,547,500; deposits ¥360,091,000; advances and loans ¥219,277,000.

**Companies** At the end of 1934 the number of business companies was 374 with the paid-up capital of ¥301,045,000.

**Warehouses** At the end of 1934 the stock in the warehouses in Yokohama amounted to ¥139,683,902.

**Foreign Trade** In 1934 exports from Yokohama amounted to ¥490,201,000 and imports to ¥537,316,000, and for the first time in recent years imports exceeded exports as it is shown below.

## FOREIGN TRADE THROUGH YOKOHAMA

	(in ¥ 1,000)			Excess of ex. 57,000 .. 65,025 .. 45,031 .. 44,534 im. 47,115
	Exports	Imports	Total	
1930	449,838	392,838	842,676	
1931	370,662	305,637	676,299	
1932	400,659	355,358	756,017	
1933	500,888	456,354	957,242	
1934	490,201	537,316	1,027,517	

## VALUE OF PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES

Articles	EXPORTS (in ¥ 1,000)				
	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Wheat flour	12,205	6,557	11,011	22,701	19,805
Canned crab	12,872	1,772	10,877	17,726	13,945
Raw silk	290,794	250,694	262,252	274,691	204,640
Silk crêpe	9,455	7,335	7,671	13,935	20,582
Electric lamps	3,892	4,388	8,026	7,750	6,931
Toys	6,567	6,013	9,360	15,184	17,498

  

Articles	IMPORTS (in ¥ 1,000)				
	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Wheat	25,752	17,103	26,809	27,414	25,040
Crude oil and heavy oil	12,912	14,752	21,568	29,305	33,193
Rubber	3,205	2,411	3,267	5,705	12,571
Cotton	25,486	21,894	31,601	41,898	48,601
Wool	14,372	13,959	19,584	39,505	43,763
Coal	7,324	7,447	7,334	9,145	10,845
Automobiles and parts	9,227	10,389	9,226	8,988	19,073
Lumber	10,907	13,044	10,907	11,819	11,169
Oil cake	8,580	11,126	8,580	10,082	9,703

**Electric and Gas Supply** The gas supply is owned by the municipality. In 1933-34 the total volume of gas supply reached 18,839,661 cubic metres. The number of spouts at the end of November, 1934, was 102,480.

Electricity is supplied by the Tokyo Electric Company. In November, 1934, the number of electric lamps was 616,650, and the same on the streets was 72,647. The sum paid by the citizens to the company in 1933-34 was ¥4,533,720.

## Industry

Factories and Production The sta-

istics of factories and production for 1933 follow:

## FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION IN YOKOHAMA

Kind	(1933)		Production (in yen)
	Factories	Workers	
Spinning	408	6,654	18,454,019
Metallic	155	2,559	23,152,407
Machine and machinery	509	12,983	67,318,065
Ceramics	41	945	5,710,118
Chemical	129	3,451	48,061,332
Wood works	488	2,409	5,111,024
Printing and bookbinding	117	741	1,698,047
Comestibles	1,829	5,718	60,709,453
Gas and electric	4	378	11,144,054
Miscellaneous	901	3,714	6,378,788
<b>Total</b>	<b>4,572</b>	<b>39,552</b>	<b>242,737,879</b>
1932	4,240	33,906	169,745,432
1931	4,489	30,973	170,880,870
1930	4,730	29,809	189,102,463
1929	5,903	40,066	206,438,349

Note: The table includes smaller factories which have operatives less than 5.

## Transportation

Ships Entered Yokohama The total

tonnage of vessels which entered the port of Yokohama in 1933 reached 18,585,967 tons. Details follow:

## SHIPS ENTERED YOKOHAMA

	(1930-1933)		Foreign		Total Tonnage
	Japanese No.	Tonnage	No.	Tonnage	
1933	67,967	13,879,378	883	4,706,589	18,585,967
1932	58,506	12,904,753	924	4,565,959	17,470,712
1931	65,800	12,905,944	919	4,804,401	17,710,245
1930	73,932	12,803,753	961	4,854,489	17,658,242

**Railway Passengers** In 1933 the Government railway passenger who left and arrived at Yokohama, Sakuragicho, Tsurumi, Higashikanagawa and Hodogaya stations numbered 38,651,363.

**Electric Tramways** Tramways were first installed in July, 1904, by a private company and later were purchased by the municipality. There are now over 50 kilometres of lines and carried 39,589,471 persons in 1933. There are three private tramway companies attending to the suburban services, viz., the Kei-hin Electric Tramway, the Tokyo-Yoko-

hama Electric Ry., and the Jinchu Electric Ry. The number of passengers of these private tramways for 1933 was 15,482,871.

**Miscellaneous** In 1934 the length of roads in Yokohama was 2,066.769 km. and the number of bridges 529.

In March, 1934, the total number of vehicles was 92,920, of which automobiles numbered 1,359 while bicycles totalled 73,062.

## Education

**Schools and Colleges** On March 1, 1934, there were 70 elementary schools, of which 66 were maintained

by the municipality. The number of children at these schools was 94,133.

There were 21 kindergartens with 841 children.

The number of middle grade, higher, and special schools and their pupils follows:

	No.	Students or pupils
Middle schools	6	3,972
Girls' high schools	12	6,103
Technical schools	9	4,106
Business continuation schools	36	4,467
Blind, deaf and mute schools	3	241
Colleges:		
Governmental	2	985
Municipal	1	298
Private	2	1,246
Total	5	2,530
Prefectural normal School	1	244

**Young Men's Training Institutes** The number of these institutes follows:

Municipal	30	3,372
Private	2	90

**Libraries** In 1933-34 the library statistics were as follows:

	No.	Books	Visitors
Prefectural	1	9,774	2,712
Municipal	1	36,254	235,809
Private	1	16,686	6,758
Total	3	62,714	244,779

**Religion** In 1933 the number of Shinto shrines was 151, Buddhist temples 199, and Christian churches 30.

**Social Works** In 1933 the conditions of social works in Yokohama were as follows:

	Establishments	Beneficiaries
Child protection	5	815
Employment exchanges	8	{ cases 691,278 employed 662,450
Lunch halls	3	28,719
Pawnshops	21	Loans ¥ 642,638
Housing houses	2,055	households 1,619
Lodging house	1	12,031
Poof relief		2,416

### Finance

**Revenue and Expenditure** The ordinary revenue and expenditure of the city of Yokohama in 1929 to 1933, amounted respectively to:

1930-1931	¥16,671,428
1931-1932	15,182,861
1932-1933	16,540,066
1933-1934 (estimate)	15,260,789
1934-1935 ( .. )	14,179,844

In 1934-35 budget of Yokohama the total amount of ordinary and special expenditures was estimated at ¥26,392,406. Itemized details follow:

Items	Amount in yen	Percentage
Municipal office	989,184	3.85
Education	2,811,327	10.65
Industry	144,636	0.55
Hygiene	1,118,390	4.24
Social works	1,135,539	4.30
Public works	1,010,679	3.83
Loans	12,418,869	47.05
Miscellaneous	1,048,431	3.97
Water works	2,216,880	8.40
Gas	1,048,143	3.97
Electricity	2,500,328	9.47
Total	26,392,406	100.00

**Bonded Indebtedness** At the end of March, 1934, the total bonded indebtedness of Yokohama city amounted to ¥158,570,246.

### Kobé

#### General

**Geographical Position and Area** The city of Kobé lies on the south-west coast of Hyogo prefecture in the Kansai district of Honshu, situated at 135° 5'-15' E. long. and 34° 38'-45' N. lat. The greatest length

from west to east is 14.47 kilometres and the greatest breadth from north to south is 13.5 kilometres, the total area being 83.06 square kilometres, of which about 60 per cent. is occupied by mountains and hills, and the rest by farms and the city proper. The form of the city is like a long

band, and is divided into eight wards known at Nada, Fukiai, Kobé, Hyogo, Soto, Minato, Hayashida, and Suma.

**Climate** The city of Kobé has an exhilarating climate at all seasons of the year on account of the advantage of its geographical position. It is backed by the Rokko mountain-chain and faces the Chinu Sea in Osaka Bay. The average temperature is 15° C (59° F). During summer the temperature sometimes runs up to 37° 6' C (99.6° F), but the average temperature of August and September is 26° 2' C (79.2° F). In winter the thermometer sometimes ranges about 5° 8' C below zero (21.5° F), but snow is rarely seen. The highest temperature in 1932 was registered as 37.6° C (98° 6' F), and the lowest temperature 3.1 below zero (26° 4' F) the average of the year being 15° C (59° F). The precipitation in the same year was 1,497 mm.

**Population** The following are the results of the national census for the year 1930:

Families	178,325
Population	787,616
Males	406,348
Females	381,268

As compared with the results of the general census taken in 1925, the population has increased 143,404 (18.2%), and the families 26,820 (14.4%) during the interval of five years. The increase was mostly made up by the annexation of three adjacent villages on the eastern part of the city. The average number of members per family were 4.42, and the percentage of sexes was 100 females to 106.6 males. The estimated families and population on October 1, 1933 were as follows:

Families	193,740
Population	853,800
Males	438,100
Females	415,700
Per family	4.4

**Foreign Residents** According to the statistics taken by the police office of Kobé, at the end of 1933, the total number of foreign residents in Kobé was 5,711.

**Houses** With the exception of public and municipal buildings and the houses of foreign residents, the total number of houses in the city was registered as 86,615 at the end of 1927, among which one-storied houses numbered 44,473, two-storied ones 41,185, and three-storied ones 957. There were 84,507 buildings of wood, 98 per cent. of the total number; of brick 1,651; of concrete 402; and of stone 11.

**Waterworks** The waterworks were at first designed in 1909 to supply 3 cu. ft. per capita a day to 250,000 inhabitants, but the plan was later altered to provide for 100,000 families, 25 cu. ft. a day. The work lasted until 1923 and cost ¥12,858,720, of which state grants amounted to ¥3,403,000. In 1926, the municipality increased its water supply by laying pipes in the eastern suburbs to draw water from the Chikari pond behind Mt. Rokko. In 1932 the city supplied 36,113,679 cubic metres to 147,787 households and other uses.

**Police Stations** The total number of police stations in the city at the end of 1932 was 9. Police boxes numbered 181, and policemen 1,810.

#### Commerce and Industry

**Movement of Commodities** The movement of commodities through the Kobé harbour and railway stations in 1932 within Japan proper and Chosen was as follows:

	Tonnage (in 1,000 tons)	Value (in yen)	
		Japan proper	Chosen
Outgoing	4,198	357,077,942	20,135,409
Incoming	7,072	296,007,800	50,134,564
Total	11,870	653,085,242	50,270,973

**Foreign Trade** The grand total of exports and imports in 1933 was

¥1,291,661,000, showing an excess of ¥9,418,000 of exports over imports.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF KOBÉ IN 1929-1933

	(in 1,000 yen)		Grand total	Excess of
	Exports	Imports		
1929	701,898	882,331	1,584,206	im. 180,430
1930	523,172	563,649	1,086,821	" 40,476
1931	409,011	457,740	866,751	" 48,729
1932	499,303	535,647	1,034,950	" 36,344
1933	650,539	641,122	1,291,661	ex. 9,418

Imports and exports of important commodities the value of which reached over ¥10,000,000 follow:

EXPORTS (in ¥ 1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Raw silk	207,561	125,853	104,700	121,114	16,210
Habutaé	13,744	9,338	13,169	19,478	19,911
Silk crepe	18,183	13,632	12,311	15,088	28,169
Satin (Shusu)	4,092	3,479	4,885	8,063	11,759
Fuji silk	22,147	13,725	6,607	10,842	11,900
Striped cotton fabric	3,415	2,083	14,827	13,571	17,145
Figured cotton fabric	34,637	27,749	9,473	11,446	17,716
Calico	32,505	28,742	16,309	18,328	19,093
Bleached calico	2,710	4,462	5,177	10,886	14,840
Printed cotton	2,113	2,275	3,243	7,452	11,635
Knit underwares	18,985	14,212	10,653	10,652	15,655
Caps and hats	15,973	8,223	9,462	4,476	7,440
Foot wears	—	—	9,422	10,543	10,976

IMPORTS (in ¥ 1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Wheat	11,253	6,300	6,342	8,735	5,946
Sulphate of Ammonia	10,159	10,614	8,018	3,488	5,246
Rubber	23,618	12,486	8,748	9,826	18,403
Cotton	391,821	239,025	187,294	279,526	236,839
Hemp	16,011	8,955	6,917	7,885	10,522
Wool	31,832	24,015	33,899	22,975	28,331
Bean cake	10,547	8,777	5,928	4,574	6,432
Woollen yarn	16,685	12,986	11,287	4,095	2,174
Paper pulp	9,147	8,570	8,192	11,840	10,947
Spinning machines	12,821	6,037	3,041	5,516	1,888

**Warehousing** At the end of 1933 number of principal warehouse companies in Kobé was 8 and the area covered by the warehouses was 137,706 tsubo. In 1933, goods received by these warehouses were valued at ¥617,400,000, while ¥588,941,000 worth of goods were delivered. Goods stored at the year end were ¥143,309,000 which showed a gain of ¥28,803,000 over the previous year.

**Electricity and Gas** At the end of 1933 the number of electric lamps in the city was 823,393 and electric motors 6,275. In the same year the municipality which undertakes the electric business got ¥10,838,373 from it.

In 1933, gas was supplied to 96,970 families with 244,971 spouts.

**Banks and Business Firms** At the end of 1933 the total number of banks and branches was 68, i. e. 3

banks, 15 branches thereof, and 50 branches of banks in other cities including 7 branches of savings banks. The deposits of ordinary banks and branches amounted to ¥5,834,753,000 and advances and loans ¥3,511,112,000.

In 1932 the clearing house turned over 2,412,043 bills with the value of ¥3,520,509,000, gaining over the previous year 30,009 bills and ¥337,698,000 respectively.

At the end of 1933 the number of companies was 2,833 with the paid-up capital amounting to ¥602,743,000.

**Factories and their Workers** At the end of 1933 there were 858 factories. The total number of the staff was 4,914, that of workers 48,227, and the total production was valued at ¥245,292,369.

Transportation

**Roads** At the end of 1933 the total length of roads in the city reached

March 31 of	Rikisha	Carts	Automobiles	Autocycles	Bicycles
1931	1,046	15,336	1,549	684	65,379
1932	801	12,527	1,549	771	68,847
1933	654	12,151	1,584	862	71,609
1934	489	10,792	1,598	989	74,030

**Railways** In 1932 the total number of passengers who left from and arrived at 9 stations in Kobé was 21,070,516.

**Electric Tramways** The tramways within the city limits are operated by the municipality, the total open mileage being 30.798 km. at the end of 1932. Attending to the suburban service, there are private companies, the Sanyo Electric Tramway (Hyogo-Himeji), Han-Shin Electric Ry., (Kobé-Osaka), Han-Shin Express Electric Ry., (Kobé-Osaka), and the Shin-Yu Electric Railway (Kobé-Arima). Han-shin Kokudo

685.8 km. gaining 7.2 km. as compared with the previous year.

**Sea Transportation** In 1933 the number of ships entered the Kobé harbour was 25,687 with 44,093,884 gross tons, of which registered tonnage was 25,665,703 tons.

Of the total number 21,734 were vessels sailing home waters and 3,953 on international courses. The foreign vessels numbered 1,057, Great Britain heading the list with 490 (2,743,042 tons), followed by the U.S.A. with 216 (1,469,602 tons).

VESSELS ENTERED KOBÉ

	1930-1933	
	Number of vessels	Registered tonnage
1930	23,891	24,915,302
1931	24,300	24,967,856
1932	24,804	24,975,154
1933	25,687	25,665,703

**Vehicles** On March 31, 1934, the total number of vehicles of various kinds was 87,898. The itemized table follows:

Ry. was laid along the national road between Osaka and Kobé in 1927 and opened business in 1932, forming a parallel line to the state railway.

Education, Religion and Social Works

**Schools** In 1933-34 the number of elementary schools was 75, including 67 municipal schools, with 2,430 teachers and 105,554 pupils. Middle schools numbered 5, of which 3 were prefectural schools and 2 were private schools, with 176 teachers and 4,599 boys. The number of girls' high schools was 10, and pupils 7,491.

The number of business schools was 27, of which 9 were commercial, 3 were technical, 4 were business and 11 were business continuation. The total number of teachers was 633 and students 15,165. There is a government university of commerce and a technical college. In 1932-33 Kobé expended ¥4,678,373 for educational purposes.

**Shrines, Temples and Churches** At the end of 1933 there were 100 Shinto shrines, 152 Buddhist temples, 397 Tenrikyo and Shinto churches, 254 Buddhist halls, and 55 Christian churches.

**Social Welfare Work** At the end of 1933 municipal establishments for social welfare work were as follows:

Markets, 12; cheap eating-houses, 6; employment exchanges, 6; public nurseries, 2; lodging-houses, 5; boys' consultation offices, 1; municipal

dwelling-houses, 3 places; municipal pawnshops, 1; relief house, 1; peoples' hospitals, 4; sanatorium, 1.

#### Finance

In 1932-33 Kobé received ¥40,362,920 and expended ¥41,566,316. The ways and means of the municipality for past 5 years follow:

	Revenue	Expenditure
1930-31	¥44,818,597	¥44,991,844
1931-32	39,993,340	46,897,568
1932-33	40,362,920	41,566,316
1933-34 (estimate)	33,851,816	40,480,195
1934-35 (estimate)	49,306,906	50,161,680

The total amount of the city loans standing at the end of March, 1935, was ¥108,915,623. The loans and the sum borrowed in cash in the fiscal year 1934-35 was ¥113,041,600 while the sum refunded was ¥4,125,977.

## CHAPTER XL

### CHOSEN (KOREA)

#### General Description

Chosen, a peninsula extending southward from the north-eastern side of the continent of Asia, is washed on its eastern and western coasts by the Sea of Japan and the Yellow Sea respectively, and borders Manchoukuo and the Maritime Province of Siberia on the north, from which it is separated by the two rivers, the Yalu or Oryokko and the Tumen. Between the upper waters of these two rivers there is a mountain range which separates and turns them in opposite directions, the former flowing through Antung into the Yellow Sea. On the south the peninsula faces the Island of Kyushu and the western coast of Honshu, across the Korean Straits, with the islands of Tsushima and Iki about midway. It lies between the parallels of 33° 06' and 43° north and 124° 11' and 130° 56' east, having a total area of 220,740.72 square kilometres which is about one-third of the area of the whole empire.

Surrounded thus by sea on three sides, Chosen has a long coast line extending in all to 8,674 kilometres. It has many good harbours on the south and west coasts, such as Fusan, Reisui, Mokpo, Jinsen and Chinampo. The tides rise far higher on the west coast than on the east, the

difference between the highest and the lowest tide-mark on the former reaching over ten metres, while on the east coast near Gensan it is less than half a metre. The country is as a whole mountainous, the eastern side steep and rocky, but sloping down more gently on the western side toward fertile plains traversed by large rivers such as the Daido, Kan, Kin and Rakuto. The northern half of the peninsula is comparatively level and fit for agricultural work, whilst the southern half is rich in timber and minerals indicating good possibilities for future industrial development. The climate in Chosen is continental running to extremities of both heat and cold, the spring and autumn seasons being very short though highly delightful. One needs hardly add that the climate is decidedly rigorous in the north and milder in the south. Moreover, the eastern coast has on the whole a milder climate than the western, the average temperature being some 2° C. higher, except in the middle of summer.

#### Population

According to the report of the Ministry of Overseas Affairs, the population of Chosen in 1933 was as follows:

#### POPULATION OF CHOSEN (Dec. 31, 1933)

Province	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign (incl. Chinese)	Total	Density per sq. km.
Keiki	138,012	2,024,387	8,736	2,171,135	169.4
North Chusei	8,036	866,734	536	875,306	117.7
South Chusei	24,477	1,865,815	1,392	1,891,684	171.8
North Zenra	33,619	1,415,814	1,709	1,451,142	169.5
South Zenra	41,156	2,240,982	1,067	2,283,205	164.3

Province	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign (incl. Chinese)	Total	Density per sq. km.
North Keisho	49,303	2,296,943	1,252	2,347,498	123.6
South Keisho	59,884	2,033,104	871	2,123,859	172.0
Kokai	18,136	1,497,919	2,391	1,518,446	90.8
South Heian	34,228	1,306,129	3,573	1,343,930	90.0
North Heian	20,218	1,523,460	12,084	1,555,762	54.7
Kogen	12,180	1,430,556	587	1,443,323	55.0
South Kankyo	38,748	1,500,016	4,442	1,543,206	48.2
North Kankyo	35,607	703,732	3,986	743,325	36.5
Total	543,104	20,791,321	42,626	20,791,321	94.2
1932	528,452	20,037,273	39,151	19,599,876	93.3
1925	424,740	18,543,326	47,460	19,015,528	86.1
1920	347,850	16,916,078	25,031	17,288,959	78.3
1910	171,543	13,128,780	12,694	13,313,017	60.3

Keijo (Seoul), the old capital of Korea and now the seat of the Government-General, had at the end of 1933 a population of 382,491, of which the Japanese numbered 106,782

and the others 5,119.

The following is the classification of the population of Chosen according to occupation :

POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION (Dec. 31, 1933)

Occupation	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign	Total
Agriculture, forestry, stock-raising, fishery, etc.	49,239	16,341,220	8,923	16,399,382
Industry	68,888	431,413	8,056	508,357
Commerce and transportation	151,787	1,226,215	18,802	1,396,804
Public service and profession	230,135	600,360	1,862	832,357
Miscellaneous	21,746	1,256,112	4,612	1,282,470
Others	21,309	350,271	282	371,861
Total	453,104	20,205,591	42,626	20,791,321

### Origin of the Korean Race

Though no conclusive opinion has ever been given as to the origin of the Korean people, it is evident that they are of the Mongolian family, and it is generally admitted that their cradle was in the neighbourhood of Changchun, Manchoukuo, in and around the place now called Petna on the River Sungari. It seems, therefore, but natural that they should have a profound liking to emigrate and settle in those parts of Manchoukuo. From various historic relics it appears that they were of the same stock with the Manchurians and those Japanese dwelling in the western half of Japan. In course of time much intermingling of blood seems to have taken place among the Koreans and the Chinese ever since Chinese colo-

nies were first established along the north-western coast. But the latter did not supersede the native Korean race to any appreciable degree. This is clearly seen from the fact that the two races today have a distinctly different facial appearance, though both alike have black straight hair, dark oblique eyes and a tinge of bronze in the skin. The Korean language belongs to the Turanian group; it is poly-syllabic and possesses an alphabet of 11 vowels and 14 consonants, and a script known as Eunmonn. In grammatical construction it is almost identical with Japanese, though in sound and vocabulary it is quite dissimilar. From all these and other facts and evidences it is beyond any doubt that these two peoples were akin to one another from very remote times.

### Administrative Organization

Chosen is administered by the Government-General which was inaugurated on August 29, 1910, and has 8 main administrative offices, viz., (1) Governor-General's Secretariat, (2) Home Affairs Bureau, (3) Financial Affairs Bureau, (4) Industrial Bureau, (5) Judicial Bureau, (6) Educational Bureau, (7) Police Bureau, and (8) Forestry Bureau. There are also 5 affiliated offices which are (1) Communications Bureau, (2) Railway Bureau, (3) Monopoly Bureau, (4) Customs Bureau and (5) Tax Bureau.

**Position of Koreans** For a number of years since the establishment of the Government-General in Chosen all Koreans in government service were placed under different regulations from those applying to Japanese officials. Gradually, however, almost all discriminative features in treatment and salary have been wiped out and in October, 1919, Korean officials were finally placed on the same footing as the Japanese and came under the same regulations. Moreover, prior to March, 1920, in the courts Korean judges were allowed to try only those civil cases in which both parties were Koreans and the criminal cases where the accused were Koreans, but now they are allowed to try all cases in which people of any nationality may be involved. Moreover, prior to 1919 the freedom of the press had been rigidly restricted. No newspaper except the few already in existence was allowed to be issued. Now, however, more daily papers are issued, and the restrictions placed on the holding of public meetings have been partly removed.

**The Central Council** As the highest consultative body there is the Central Council which is convened by the Governor-General several times a

year to discuss such measures as may be presented by him. This Central Council consists of 5 advisors, 65 councillors, 1 chairman and 1 vice-chairman. One of the characteristic principles by which the Japanese administration in Chosen is guided is respect for the old Korean customs and manners, and the work of investigating these old customs so dear to the native people is entrusted to the Central Council. Koreans attach great importance to their ancestral tombs as a form of ancient worship, and the selection of a burial site is always made with great care. This, coupled with their age-old superstition that the fate of one's family would be greatly affected by the position of its grave, has resulted in the devastation of a large area of land; wherefore the Government-General in 1912 issued an order requiring all people to use the public cemeteries for the disposal of their dead. This order, however, was revised in 1919 so as to allow the people to follow their old customs with only slight limitations set.

### Finance

**Budgetary System Introduced** Under the old Korean régime there was no clear distinction between the court and the government in the use of money collected from the people in the form of various taxes. Moreover, most of the state revenue was from the ginseng monopoly, leasing of state lands, and granting of concessions of various sorts. Accordingly, therefore, there was no means of framing a yearly budget. This state of affairs, more than anything else, called for speedy remedies. When, therefore, a Japanese financial adviser, Baron Megata, took up his duties in August, 1904, his first task was to bring order out of this financial confusion and his work was quickly done during



the protectorate period. He drew up necessary plans for introducing the modern budgetary system, and the gold standard with a central bank to act as a state treasury and empowered with a right to issue convertible notes. A rigid taxation system was brought into existence, with the burdens of the people more equitably distributed. The former method of tax collection which gave rise to many serious abuses was quickly corrected. All the monopolies, such as that of ginseng, were turned over from the Imperial court to the government, and a clear distinction was marked between the finances of the court and of the state.

**Japan in Chosen** Upon the establishment of the Japanese hegemony in Chosen the Government-General took on its shoulders the heavy task of developing the country in every possible way so as to promote the welfare of the Korean people to the utmost extent. It necessitated starting new enterprises and increased expenditure, and the government outlay for the year 1911 reached over ¥48,740,000, an amount twice that of the preceding fiscal year. Since that time the tendency had always been upward, till it reached ¥246,852,843 in 1929, the highest mark ever seen in the budgetary history of Chosen. In 1930 a slight decrease was seen; the figures fell to ¥239,729,783, with a further slight reduction in each year until it reached ¥219,132,671 in 1932. Mention must be made of the fact that the determination of the Government-General to do its utmost for the economic development of the country and the promotion of the welfare of the people is shared by the Japanese government at home, for the latter is yearly advancing a subsidy of more than ¥15,000,000 from the national treasury to the Government-General.

The budget again took an upward turn in 1933, and in 1935 it reached the highest mark of ¥288,348,664. Below is given a budget table showing the trend of steady expansion of expenditure:

## BUDGETS 1911-1935

	Revenue		Expenditure	
	yen	yen	yen	yen
1911	43,741,282		48,741,782	
1920	124,798,469		114,316,860	
1921	162,474,208		162,474,208	
1922	158,124,617		158,124,617	
1923	146,007,225		146,007,225	
1924	142,700,159		142,780,159	
1925	178,082,382		178,082,382	
1926	194,487,914		194,487,914	
1927	210,910,111		210,910,111	
1928	222,746,979		222,746,979	
1929	246,852,843		246,852,843	
1930	239,729,783		239,729,783	
1931	238,923,617		238,923,617	
1932	219,132,671		219,132,671	
1933	231,938,384		231,938,384	
1934	262,978,776		262,978,776	
1935	288,348,664		288,348,664	

## BUDGET FOR 1935-1936

## REVENUE

	yen
Ordinary revenue	
Taxes	53,866,263
Stamp receipts	15,172,736
Receipts from government undertakings and properties	169,239,951
Miscellaneous	2,819,892
Total	240,463,427
Extraordinary revenue	
Proceeds from the sales of government properties	311,603
Contributions	6,000
Temporary profit tax	323,595
Grants from home national treasury, etc.	12,825,822
Loans (public or otherwise)	24,000,000
Part payment for the improvement of rivers and harbours	217,350
Brought forward	10,200,867
Total	47,885,237
Grand total	288,348,664

## EXPENDITURE

	yen
Ordinary expenditure	
Chosen Shrine	70,000
Prince Li's household	1,800,000
Government-General offices	4,247,582
Courts and Deposit bureau	3,702,971
Prisons	5,226,199
Provincial offices	26,736,923
Keijo Imperial University	1,808,212
Schools and museum	1,527,875
Police training school	2,117

	yen
Ordinary expenditure	
Agricultural experimental station	542,338
Cattle disease serum manufacturing plant	249,013
Central experimental institute	103,379
Breeding horse and sheep pastures	59,423
Cereals inspection office	1,694,621
Fisheries experimental station	175,308
Forestry	150,733
Monopoly office	28,471,532
Railways	69,334,543
Forestry bureau	5,755,525
Communication	14,823,730
Taxation superintendence and tax offices	3,968,395
Customs office	1,357,802
Social works	260,455
Lepor sanatorium	488,453
National debt readjustment fund	27,027,451
Pension	6,938,409
Miscellaneous	432,542
Reserve	2,500,000
Total	209,645,526
Extraordinary expenditure	
Pension for the old Korean soldiers	43,440
Forests and fields investigation committee	50,324
Investigation and experimentation	931,314
Subsidies	22,096,199
Buildings and repairs	4,427,054
Civil engineering works	12,059,152

	yen
Railways	24,000,000
Protection against shifting sands	600,000
Adjustment of the cadastre	87,145
Encouragement of Korean language	53,988
Improvement of land	5,139,251
Disposition of state property	170,276
Customs at the frontier	50,630
Temporary special allowance	326,289
Measures for the Koreans abroad	1,600,000
Compilation of the Korean history	80,243
Temporary supervision	664,491
Supervision of local public works	122,116
Construction of salt fields	1,180,000
Development of northern Korea	2,181,458
Improvements of farming districts	244,374
Manchurian affairs	836,284
For research work of students abroad	34,160
Supervision of foreign exchange	19,735
Control of cereals shipped to Japan proper	763,410
Purchase of land for military purpose	9,927
For reconstructions to damages done by calamity	932,095
Total	78,703,138
Grand total	288,348,664

Below is given the latest statement of receipts from domestic taxes and from leased state lands for the four years ending 1933:

	1930	1931	1932	1933
	yen	yen	yen	yen
Land tax	15,617,023	15,810,219	15,422,197	15,853,159
Income tax	1,185,199	763,154	1,006,874	1,325,502
Mining tax	603,477	624,468	744,949	1,009,771
Business tax	1,591,627	1,291,983	1,233,306	1,329,090
Capital interest tax	314,882	332,874	345,881	483,918
Exchange tax	147,637	195,371	518,605	367,128
Bank of Chosen note tax	—	145,556	7,326	—
Liquor tax	12,322,234	11,248,536	11,366,132	12,385,013
Sugar consumption tax	3,181,858	2,893,536	2,397,016	1,517,248
Clearing dues	54,307	145,746	125,694	119,864
Total	34,968,367	32,951,434	33,167,814	34,391,131
Customs duties	8,466,029	7,401,819	7,966,105	11,157,771
Tonnage dues	44,316	39,049	32,227	39,046
Grand total	43,478,712	40,392,312	41,166,313	45,587,948

## RECEIPTS FROM CUSTOMS DUTIES

	yen	yen
1910	3,606,000	10,781,000
1914	4,140,000	13,361,000
1918	16,870,000	10,946,000
1919	11,165,000	10,410,000
1920	16,309,000	10,716,000
1921	—	10,284,813
1922	15,620,000	7,401,819
1923	9,211,000	7,966,104
1924	9,311,000	11,157,771

## Government Monopolies

Several industries are being carried on as monopolies by the Government-General under direct control of the Financial Affairs Bureau; they are the manufacture or preparation of ginseng, tobacco, salt and opium.

**Ginseng** This medical herb is regarded as a wonderful cure for many diseases in China and Korea. The drug is obtained from the root of the plant carefully tended for six years. The principal customers for this plant are the Chinese, who are ready to pay a high price for it. Figures relating to its production follow:

Year	Area (tsubo)	Raw root (kin)	Prepared product (kin)	Receipts (yen)
1911	14,545	7,719	2,300	119,000
1919	195,620	103,989	26,002	2,082,000
1920	319,321	116,508	29,694	2,544,000
1921	371,328	136,066	36,266	2,102,000
1922	475,339	163,053	40,571	1,269,000
1923	419,788	166,282	46,022	2,225,000
1924	397,850	141,983	38,546	2,152,000
1925	303,713	112,988	31,629	2,658,000

#### AREA, PRODUCTION & SALES OF TOBACCO

Year	Area (cho)	Amount leaf tobacco (kwan)	Value in yen		Total
			Korean product	Imported	
1930	14,227	4,026,914	31,693,010	123,100	31,816,110
1931	15,232	4,384,183	31,149,374	99,751	31,249,125
1932	13,637	5,309,923	32,076,449	91,290	32,167,739
1933	13,558	4,414,268	35,227,033	87,148	35,313,186

**Salt** The salt consumption in Chosen amounted to 560,000,000 kin in 1932 which is a great increase as compared with the amount ten years ago. The consumption in 1921 was 114,000,000 kin valued at ¥1,120,000. As the native production is not sufficient to meet the entire demand of the people, a considerable amount is imported from Japan and foreign countries under the control of the Monopoly Bureau of the Government-General. The following shows production and the area of salt-fields in 1932:

#### PRODUCTION AND AREA OF SALT-FIELD IN 1933

	Area (cho)	Production (kin)
Koryowan	1,142	155,620,000
Shusan	1,115	154,196,000
Nanshi	217	26,725,000
Total	2,474	336,541,000

Year	Area (tsubo)	Raw root (kin)	Prepared product (kin)	Receipts (yen)
1926	230,368	109,759	29,369	2,768,000
1927	332,102	154,237	41,540	2,444,000
1928	327,491	197,340	50,901	3,067,000
1929	334,479	165,897	54,099	2,482,000
1930	336,918	170,709	62,097	2,449,463
1931	—	161,952	59,802	2,039,541
1932	—	165,172	58,789	2,099,819
1933	—	142,686	49,525	1,839,941

**Tobacco** As practically all Koreans smoke, the tobacco industry is a great source of income to the government. Three kinds are grown in Chosen, namely, Korean, Japanese and American. There are four tobacco manufacturing centres, these being Keijo, Heijo, Taikyu and Zenshu, the annual production reaching thirty million yen.

**Opium** Owing to the strict control of the Government-General the number of opium smokers has in recent years greatly decreased, but at the same time the number of those indulging in morphine-injection has increased. The use of morphine has of course been prohibited by the government, but owing to the activity of cunning dealers all the efforts of the government to put an end to it have been fruitless. The government thereupon has come to the decision to monopolize the manufacture and sale of morphine so as more effectively to control the spread of its use. Accordingly, in March, 1933, the government's manufacture of morphine was started at Keijo, its production being sold to certain designated pharmacies to be used for medical purposes only.

#### MORPHINE MANUFACTURE IN 1933

Raw opium	14,058 kilogrammes (less water)
Percentage of morphine	—
Manufacture { Morphine (salt)	267 kilogrammes
{ Diacetyl morphine (salt)	156 "
Sale { Morphine (salt)	263 "
{ Diacetyl morphine (salt)	124 kilogrammes
{ For medical purpose	8 "

#### Overseas Trade

Prior to its annexation by Japan the overseas trade of Korea amounted to about 50 millions of yen a

year. Now it is approximately valued at ¥368,627,000 as per figures for 1933. The following figures indicate its development:

#### OVERSEAS TRADE

Year	Exports (¥ 1,000)			Imports (¥ 1,000)		
	Foreign countries	Japan	Total	Foreign countries	Japan	Total
1912	5,616	15,369	20,985	26,359	40,753	67,112
1917	20,236	64,726	84,962	31,396	72,696	104,092
1918	18,697	137,205	155,902	43,151	117,273	160,424
1919	22,098	199,849	221,947	98,158	184,918	283,076
1920	27,639	169,881	197,520	106,174	143,112	249,286
1921	20,384	197,393	218,277	75,898	156,483	232,381
1922	17,489	197,915	215,404	95,798	160,247	256,045
1923	20,403	241,262	261,665	98,338	167,452	265,790
1924	22,379	306,660	329,039	97,776	211,817	309,593
1925	24,341	317,288	341,630	105,388	234,623	340,011
1926	24,779	338,175	362,954	123,933	248,235	372,169
1927	28,133	330,791	358,924	113,949	269,473	383,417
1928	32,147	333,829	365,974	118,181	295,839	414,020
1929	32,773	309,891	342,664	107,767	315,325	423,092
1930	25,852	240,694	266,546	88,854	278,194	367,048
1931	12,771	294,027	306,798	52,696	217,770	270,466
1932	29,210	282,144	311,354	61,686	258,670	320,356
1933	52,773	315,854	368,627	64,368	339,817	404,185
*1934	48,232	303,112	351,344	63,326	352,007	415,333

#### OVERSEAS TRADE BY COUNTRIES

Countries	Exports (¥ 1,000)			Import (¥ 1,000)		
	1932	1933	1934*	1932	1933	1934*
Japan proper	282,144	315,854	303,112	258,670	339,817	352,007
Kwantung Peninsula	4,337	4,975	4,383	2,479	3,689	3,328
Manchoukuo	22,867	40,588	40,463	39,723	40,765	37,889
China	947	1,598	1,669	3,772	5,857	6,155
The U. S. A.	406	2,746	261	5,079	2,195	4,173
Dutch Indies	—	—	—	616	2,137	1,074
Asiatic Russia	—	—	—	1,020	1,144	83
Great Britain	—	—	—	1,545	988	866
Germany	—	—	—	819	423	320
Others	753	2,866	1,456	6,653	7,170	9,438
Total	311,354	368,627	351,344	320,356	404,185	415,333

\*Figures for 1934 are for Jan.-Oct. only

## PRINCIPAL EXPORTS (¥ 1,000)

Commodities	1932	1933	1934*
Rice	145,337	154,706	158,000
Beans	20,539	19,275	14,430
Fish	10,950	12,153	10,212
Laver	2,114	3,452	3,481
Sugar	3,448	2,537	2,004
Hides	1,439	1,426	1,312
Fish-oil	1,207	1,177	778
Red ginseng	159	—	—
Timber	2,639	5,756	6,653
For'gn-style paper	—	4,062	3,754
Cotton	3,505	6,499	5,637
Cocoons	1,270	1,774	664
Raw silk	11,666	14,009	9,516
Graphite	693	1,046	1,026
Coal	3,850	4,602	4,642
Gold ore	1,504	1,882	2,007
Iron ore	1,082	1,907	810
Cattle	3,246	4,261	3,282
Fertilizers	18,485	22,607	21,177
Copper	—	5,732	8,770
Iron	—	8,756	11,750

## PRINCIPAL IMPORTS (¥ 1,000)

Commodities	1932	1933	1934*
Rice	1,771	1,839	2,272
Millet	16,026	12,787	12,849
Beans	1,814	2,736	2,948
Flour	3,774	3,989	4,303
Sugar	7,645	5,851	5,328
Saké	1,161	1,118	948
Beer	1,730	2,110	1,541
Salt	2,295	2,769	2,158
Woollen cloth	6,360	8,528	8,381
Silk tissue	13,323	18,445	18,640
Rubber shoes	1,332	606	798
Paper	6,878	8,615	8,244
Coal	7,873	10,735	9,692
Cement	2,307	3,343	4,555
Ceramics	2,343	2,912	3,024
Iron	12,734	20,477	22,460
Machines	8,959	12,512	14,505
Timber	4,097	6,135	7,324
Leaf tobacco	1,106	408	1,633
Petroleum	4,879	3,015	4,690
Matches	1,417	1,493	965
Ginned cotton	6,870	9,583	10,919
Cotton yarn	6,085	6,800	8,263
Wild silk	7,945	9,412	5,191
Cotton cloth	19,223	43,802	34,973
Hemp cloth	1,204	1,147	1,754
Fertilizers	7,794	11,453	19,748
Gasolene	—	5,464	5,449

\*Figures for 1934 are for Jan.-Oct. only

## Banking

Banking on a modern system was first introduced into Chosen in 1878

when the Dai Ichi Ginko of Tokyo established a branch office at Fusan. Later on, the Juhachi Ginko of Nagasaki opened branches at Jinsen and Gensan. After the China-Japan War these banks opened their branches in Keijo and other centres, while two native banks, the Chon-il (later renamed the Korean Commercial) and the Hansong, came into being in Keijo.

In 1902 the Dai Ichi Ginko was authorized to issue bank notes for circulation within Chosen. In 1906, to promote economic development in the provinces, agricultural and industrial banks were formed in several of the principal towns, the Government taking shares in them or granting them loans free of interest, and in the same year a third native bank called the Han-il was founded in Keijo.

In 1909 the Bank of Korea capitalized at ¥10,000,000 was founded in Keijo as a de jure central institution, and to it was transferred all the functions belonging to a central bank hitherto performed by the Dai Ichi Ginko. After the Annexation the bank was renamed the Bank of Chosen and branches were opened by it one after another in important places. Nor was its sphere of activity confined to the peninsula, for many branches were opened in Manchuria where it enjoyed free circulation of its notes, and its activity even penetrated North China and East Siberia. The Bank also made loans to China, and opened an agency in New York with a view to facilitating exchange operations and to utilizing the American money market for the development of Chosen and Manchuria. Stimulated by the steady expansion of its business, the Bank increased its capital to ¥40,000,000 in 1918, and to ¥80,000,000 in 1920, while authority was given to increase its maximum limit of note

issue as occasion demanded; but owing to continued business depression the Bank suffered severe losses and was compelled in 1925 to reduce its capital by one-half. (See Chapter IX, the Bank of Chosen.)

Since then, encouraged by the economic development in general, and especially influenced by the war-time boom, many local banks were established in the country. During this time, however, the agricultural and industrial banks in existence were found much too weak to cope with the increasing demand for funds, their capital all told being only ¥2,600,000, so in 1918 they were all merged into the Industrial Bank of Chosen under special government protection, with a capital of ¥10,000,000, which has since been trebled.

The first clearing house was opened in 1910, and banks in Keijo became its members. Later additional clearing houses were established in Jinsen (Chemulpo) and other large commercial centres—the total number being nine at the present time.

In 1911 there were in Chosen only 11 banks with 59 branches. The total aggregate capital was then ¥12,350,000, with total reserve funds amounting to ¥366,000 and the deposits totalling ¥18,335,000. In 1933 the number of banks was 11 and their branches 163. The total aggregate capital increased to ¥121,075,000 and the deposits to ¥458,159,000. The following gives a more detailed account:

	1910	1925	1926		
Banks	11	18	18		
Branches	59	136	133		
		(¥ 1,000)			
Capital subscribed	12,550	102,275	102,275		
Capital paid-in	7,080	58,850	59,375		
Government shares	438	1,963	1,963		
Loans by government	2,634	2,838	2,825		
Reserve funds	366	7,024	8,065		
Debentures issued	960	135,976	144,837		
Deposits	18,355	217,597	163,092		
Loans	37,912	429,361	372,195		
Net profit	—	4,592	5,687		
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Banks	17	16	15	15	11
Branches	151	154	162	172	163
			(¥ 1,000)		
Capital subscribed	103,425	101,425	101,425	101,425	121,075
Capital paid-in	61,471	60,901	60,971	60,971	61,871
Reserve	12,385	14,464	16,377	18,522	21,358
Deposits	241,408	226,563	239,458	262,321	458,159
Loans	420,460	457,557	598,671	635,540	730,614
Net profit	6,418	6,430	6,233	6,200	—

The banking institution which is utilized most by the Korean masses is the Post Office Savings Bank. In 1921 there were about one million and a half depositors at this bank, their aggregate deposits reaching

¥18,726,338. In 1933 the number of depositors increased to 2,840,656, with the aggregate deposit expanding to ¥48,807,154. The following figures show the annual expansion:

	Number of depositors	Amount (yen)
1921	1,416,325	18,726,838
1922	1,590,470	19,875,093
1923	1,694,087	21,040,342
1924	1,606,740	21,029,849
1925	1,711,590	21,531,122
1926	1,795,858	23,466,128
1927	1,910,289	26,961,217
1928	2,023,977	30,787,502
1929	2,078,602	36,286,417
1930	2,118,178	38,552,866
1931	2,283,871	41,482,670
1932	2,424,062	40,939,391
1933	2,840,656	44,807,154

### Agriculture

Chosen, though mountainous, is essentially an agricultural country. It is enough to point out that more than 83 per cent. of its entire population is engaged in agricultural pursuits. Though the soil is not very fertile, it is sufficiently so to produce enough foodstuffs to support its entire population.

In 1933 the total agricultural products amounted to ¥641,600,000, of which ¥204,400,000 worth was exported, mostly to Japan, forming 55 per cent. of the entire value of Korea's export trade. In 1910, the year of annexation, the value of production scarcely reached ¥250,000,000, but in 1930 it more than doubled the above figure. Of all agricultural produce rice is the most important.

**Ka-den-min** In Chosen there are quite a good number of so-called "ka-den-min" or fire-field-people, who use fire for making their land ready for cultivation in a most primitive way. In ancient times, people set forests or plains on fire and then sowed seeds and cultivated vegetables on the blackened land without manuring. When this land became sterile, they moved to another place to repeat the operation. Among the lowest class of Chosen peasants this primitive system of agriculture is still in practice. There are nearly 400,000 ha. of the fire-field on which

about 230,000 families or 1,160,000 people are living. They are mostly distributed over such northern mountainous districts as South Kankyo and North Heian. They plant the sweet potato, German millet, Indian-corn, soy-bean, red-bean, barley and buckwheat. Steep slopes or mountain tops, even above 1,200 m. in height, are burnt by these farmers. One of the causes of the bare hills noticed by visitors to Chosen is said to be this long practice of burning the forests. Most of these people are nomadic and cultivate about 2 ha., the average family with an income of about 60 yen a year. After the establishment of the new Japanese Forestry Bureau the forestry police have been taking measures to prevent the continuance of this destructive practice by teaching these peasants a better method of farming; but all their efforts seem in vain so far.

**Grains** In 1910 the rice fields covered a total area of 1,350,000 cho, yielding 10,400,000 koku, which rose in 1933 to 1,697,000 cho and 18,192,000 koku, its export during the same period increasing from 798,000 koku to 7,990,000 koku. This wonderful development has been achieved by the improvement made in cultivation, in the selection of seeds and manure, and in irrigation and reclamation. Next in importance come barley, wheat and rye, which are, however, mostly cultivated for home consumption. In almost every province these grains are raised in the paddy fields, after the rice crop is harvested, production of these in 1933 being 7,585,000, 1,762,000 and 1,023,000 koku respectively. Owing to the help in various ways given by the authorities to aid in the cultivation of these three cereals, their production has been on the increase year after year. Third in importance comes the soy bean. In

earlier times it was far from being an important produce owing to ignorance on the part of Korean farmers of the proper method of preparation, such as drying and assorting. It is now, however, in high esteem on the Japanese market where there is a demand for it not only as food, but for chemical industrial purposes, and thus the amount exported to Japan is yearly on the increase. In 1933 the total area under cultivation was 803,000 cho and the amount produced reached 4,555,000 koku, which was an increase of more than six times, compared with the year 1910. Millet is for most Koreans what rice is for the Japanese people. They depend more upon it than upon rice on account of its cheapness in price. The Korean farmers sell their rice, but use their millet crops for their daily diet, so that the supply of the grain hardly suffices to meet the entire demands of the Korean people. They, therefore, import much of it from Manchoukuo, its import from that region reaching about one million koku in 1933.

**Cotton** Cotton is another important agricultural produce in modern Chosen. The present scale of its growth is owing to the encouragement given by the Government-General. It was in 1906 that the first trial plantation of American cotton was carried out in the neighbourhood of Mokpo. As its superiority over the old native cotton was sufficiently demonstrated, soon its cultivation was vigorously encouraged in all parts of southern Korea, so that the cotton acreage was increased from 1,200 cho in 1910 to 117,000 cho in 1933, and the crop expanded from 660,000 kin in 1910 to 114,313,000 kin in 1933. If the production of the native plant is added, the total cotton production in 1933 amounted to 159,415,000 kin from the total area of 159,000 cho, as against

21,000,000 kin from 60,000 cho, in 1910.

**Sugar Beet** A trial plantation of sugar beet was also made first in 1906. As it proved quite satisfactory every governmental assistance was given to its cultivation. A subsidy was given to ensure a sufficient distribution of improved seeds. Further exhaustive experiments proved that Keijo and its vicinity is best suited for sugar beet cultivation and consequently the authorities encouraged and assisted its plantation in that part of Chosen, with very good results.

**Fruit Farming** Fruit farming has also become a thriving industry of the erstwhile hermit kingdom. Soil and climate alike are suitable, especially for the growing of apples, and the government authorities are extending their assistance in this direction likewise, with the object of improving the quality of the fruit and gaining for it a world-wide market.

Many new varieties of apple, superior to the old native ones, are now cultivated, the quality being in some cases better than that of the fruit grown in Japan, the recent annual production reaching as much as 12,447,000 kwan with money value estimated at ¥4,811,000.

**Sericulture** By 1910 the Government-General had done everything in its power to improve the native methods of cultivating the mulberry trees and raising silk-worms after the Japanese fashion. In 1919 a new system was instituted for carrying on a compulsory examination of egg-cards and for giving adequate care to the growing of good mulberry trees. All this paternal care and effort on the part of the Government-General for the advancement of the economic welfare of the Korean farmer was by no means thrown away. In 1910 the

cocoon production was 14,000 koku and the number of households engaged in the work was figured at 76,000. In 1931 the households increased to 747,084 and the output to 578,259 koku; in 1932 the number of households increased to 786,060 and the output to 593,054 koku and in 1933 the number of households increased to 810,000 and the output to 608,000 koku.

**Stock Farming** As Korean beef is very palatable, the demand for it is rapidly increasing in Japan and Manchoukuo as well as in Siberia. In 1910 the cattle in all Chosen numbered only 700,000 head, which in 1933 increased to 1,663,000. The export of cattle and hides totals from ¥5,000,000 to ¥8,000,000 a year. The raising of both pigs and poultry has been greatly encouraged by importing from Japan animals and birds of superior quality, with the result that at the end of 1932 the former totalled 1,339,000 and the latter 6,601,000, and in 1933 the former 1,430,000 and the latter 6,868,000, both more than doubling the numbers found in 1910. Sheep were unknown in the old days in Chosen. In 1919, however, efforts were made to encourage their rearing, but the number is still insignificant with less than 3,000 in all.

#### Forestry

The area of forests in Chosen covers 16,440,000 cho which corresponds with 73 per cent. of the entire area of the land. But there existed before 1910 nothing like a forestry policy in Korea, and except a few protected ones, all forests were allowed to be devastated by ignorant and superstitious people. Therefore before 1910 nearly all the mountains in Chosen were treeless. The forests existed only in name. As a matter of fact, only one-third of the so-called "forest" areas was covered with

standing trees, the remaining two-thirds being only thinly wooded. There was no system for safeguarding or protecting forests.

**Afforestation Work Undertaken** In 1908, however, the Korean government, by the advice of the Japanese, promulgated a forest law aiming at the protection of forests, and when the new régime was established the Government-General issued a new forest law providing, among other things, for the letting of forest lands to any interested party for the purpose of afforestation and, if the work were successfully carried out, the ultimate transference of them to the lessee. The total area thus leased now reaches 1,318,000 cho, of which more than 637,000 cho have been transferred to the successful planters. So far as the present situation is concerned, 5 million cho of the entire forest lands is owned by the state, and one hundred and twenty thousand cho is reserved for university research and as national parks, the rest being owned by private persons. The first public afforestation work was started in Kogen province in 1911, and this example was followed by almost all the other provinces, so that the total area afforested to the end of 1933 was 1,564,000 sq. m. There are at present 275 seeding plantations, where mostly pine, oak, chestnut, poplar, larch, etc. are being raised. In 1932 about 190,000,000 seedlings were grown by private undertaking, since the seedlings raised by the public plantations alone were not enough. Nor is this all. Schools are given suitable pieces of ground whereon to plant trees, and the Third of April, the anniversary of the death of Jimmu Tenno, the first ruler of Japan, is fixed as Arbour Day, a day on which universal plantation of trees is encouraged throughout Chosen. In short, in the past

twenty years more than a million cho have been planted with over 4,687,000,000 trees, and thus the mountain scenery in every part of Chosen is steadily undergoing a change with the accompanying effect of diminishing floods.

**The Forest Districts** There are, however, several forest districts which escaped the almost wholesale denudation by ignorant woodsmen and kadenmin before 1910, the most important of which is the forest along the upper reaches of the Yalu and Tumen Rivers on the frontier. In 1906 the first systematic exploitation of the region was conducted by a joint undertaking organized by Japanese and Koreans and assisted by both the Korean and the Japanese governments with a capital of ¥1,200,000. This, combined with a similar enterprise financed by a group of Japanese and Chinese industrialists, forms one of the largest timber-supplies in the world. Due, however, to further deforestation by kadenmin, the government considered it necessary to further educate these ignorant Koreans, and to utilize and develop the forests. Since 1932, the government started the work of developing these forests in northern Korea with an expenditure of ¥12,183,000 to be operative for 15 years. The work consists of (1) development and utilization of forests, (2) education of kadenmin, and (3) protection of the forests. The results of this work are proving satisfactory, the education of kadenmin giving especially good results.

#### Fisheries

Since 1910 all sorts of encouragement have been given to the Korean fishermen for the development of the fishery industry in Chosen, with the result that improvements in one way

or another have been introduced in the building of fishing-boats and in the method of catching. Thus, while before 1910 the total value of catches used to be about ¥8,000,000 a year, by 1933 it increased to ¥51,370,000, and other aquatic products in the meantime advanced from ¥2,650,000 to ¥38,490,000. The first fishery law in Chosen was issued in 1909, and this was replaced three years later by a new law providing for the definite establishment of fishing rights over a certain area of waters, the prohibition of certain actions harmful to fishing in specified areas and the prevention of individual monopolization of any fishing area. Trawling within special zones was also prohibited, and certain restrictions were made to the number of whaling-boats and to the diving apparatus carried. Mention should be made in this connection of the famous "hanyo" (woman divers) of Quelpart Island. There are 7,000 of these women and they are engaged in catching sea-ears and many kinds of shellfish and gathering laver and other sea-weeds by diving into the deep sea. The total earnings of these women amount to one million yen a year.

The following shows the marine products for two years, 1932 and 1933, the value of each of which exceeds ¥1,000,000:

Kind	1932	1933
	Value (in yen)	Value (in yen)
Mackerel	5,258,000	6,384,000
Sardine	6,178,000	8,789,000
Guchi	3,340,000	3,706,000
Laver	2,294,000	—
Herring	1,726,000	1,902,000
Sea-bream	1,763,000	1,537,000
Hair-tail	1,270,000	1,642,000
Plaice	1,368,000	1,223,000
Cod	1,784,000	1,537,000
Horse-mackerel	1,140,000	—

Kind	1932	1933
	Value (in yen)	Value (in yen)
Shrimps	1,348,000	1,544,000
Mintai (Alaska pollack)	1,969,000	3,549,000
Mackerel-like fish	1,659,000	1,404,000

Besides these, there are isinglass, yellow-tail, glue, shark, grey mullet, rays, oyster, sea-eel, conger-eel, etc., valued each at between ¥500,000 and ¥1,000,000.

### Mining

The present mining law, enacted in 1916, provides that mining rights can be granted only to Japanese citizens or to legal corporations under the Japanese law, and mining rights are treated as a form of real estate. As for mining rights secured by foreign citizens under the old régime, they are well respected. Of all minerals produced in Chosen gold occupies by far the most important position, the largest gold mine being the Unsan Mine operated by an American syndicate called the Oriental Consolidated Mining Company. Next in importance are the Shojo Mine worked by Frenchmen, the Suian Mine by Englishmen, and Sansei and Koyo Mines by Japanese. Formerly the mining industry in Chosen was carried on in a very primitive way except in those mines operated by foreign concerns. Soon after Chosen had been brought under Japanese protectorate rule in 1906 the Government tried hard to induce Japanese capitalists to invest capital in the mining industry of Chosen, but it was only in 1910 that Japa-

nese capitalists began to display their energies in that lucrative undertaking. As, however, most of the more promising gold fields were already under operation by foreign capitalists, Japanese capitalists turned their attention to the exploitation of other minerals such as iron and coal. Iron ores in Korea hitherto found were mostly of hematite and limonite, the former being found in South Kankyo and Kokai provinces and the mixture of the two in South Heian and Kokai provinces. The amount of these ores stored, the purity of which is about 50 per cent., is estimated at about 20,000,000 metric tons. In 1933 about 500,000 metric tons of these ores were mined, of which about 260,000 were sent to the Kenjiho Iron Works and the balance of 250,000 metric tons shipped to Japan proper. Fortunately a much greater store of magnesite ores is found in North Kankyo province. The purity of these magnesite ores is about 40 per cent, on average.

As regards coal, almost unlimited quantity of brown and anthracite coals are stored in Korea, the quantity of the latter stored being especially large. Anthracite is mostly produced in the Heijo coal-field, and in South Kankyo, North Keisho and South Zenra provinces.

It must be mentioned that in Chosen nearly all kinds of minerals except sulphur, petroleum and asphalt are found in more or less abundance, gold, coal, and iron preponderating. The following shows the value of the mineral products of Chosen, expressed in yen:

### MINERAL PRODUCTION

	(in 1,000 yen)					
	1911	1921	1929	1931	1932	1933
Gold	3,744	2,922	5,848	9,008	17,809	26,066
Pig Iron	—	4,819	6,796	4,588	4,114	5,605
Coal	388	3,192	613,6	1,190	5,970	7,205

	(in 1,000 yen)					
	1911	1921	1929	1931	1932	1933
Iron ore	421	1,716	3,153	820	749	1,287
Copper	—	17	1,348	224	307	417
Gold and silver ore	262	587	1,353	553	944	1,906
Concentrates	246	1,489	633	—	638	—
Graphite	153	208	511	281	255	465
Placer gold	821	359	25	375	1,823	3,327
Silver	6	4	59	206	552	721
Lead	—	—	129	5	64	120
Tungsten ore	—	—	8	7	29	117
Zinc ore	21	4	85	—	—	97
Others	21	374	318	318	487	961
Total	6,069	15,767	26,488	21,741	33,746	48,801

### Manufacturing Industry

It is only since 1916 that there has been any manufacturing industry worthy of the name in Chosen, and in 1933 the total value of manufactures reached ¥378,700,000, being over 12 times as large as that in 1911, in which year the total output was valued at ¥30,000,000. As the land has abundance of materials and a good labour supply, Chosen may be looked upon as a promising land for the future expansion of various industries. In 1911 there were in all the land only 251 manufacturing plants employing about 14,575 workers, but by 1933 this number of factories had increased to 4,836 and the total number of employees to 120,251. The most important manufactures are:

(1) Cotton, hemp, and silk tissues, the total output in these goods expanding from ¥5,000,000 in 1911 to ¥55,359,000 in 1933.

(2) Paper, which increased from ¥382,000 in 1911 to ¥3,816,000 in 1929. Of late years the demand for foreign-style papers has grown, the imports expanding from ¥800,000 in 1911 to ¥8,615,000 in 1933.

(3) Ceramics, which show a yearly output worth ¥9,034,000 to ¥13,000,000.

(4) Iron-wares, the annual production of which is now valued at ¥6,231,000.

(5) Fertilizers, which have an output of ¥5,292,000 a year.

(6) Tobacco, the total output being ¥32,451,000 in 1933.

(7) Marine products, the total product being ¥8,460,000 in 1933.

### Justice and Police

Chosen has now a judicial system similar to that of Japan. That is to say, in addition to the supreme court there are courts of appeal and local courts, the last-named having detached and sub-detached courts widely located. Both civil and criminal cases are first tried by local courts, while appeals against the decisions of local courts are made to the courts of appeal. The supreme court handles those appeals made against judgements rendered by the local courts or complaints against decisions or orders rendered in the second instance by the courts of appeal. Grave crimes of one sort or another have greatly diminished owing to the improvement in the work of maintenance of order and security. On the other hand, what might be called intellectual crimes such as fraud, forgery, and perjury have yearly increased. Prior to the establishment of the Japanese administration flogging was a common form of punishment. In 1912 its application to aged persons, women and children was prohibited,

and in 1920 it was finally abolished as it was unsuited to modern ideas of penology.

**Police** The police service in Chosen had been under Japan's direction for some years even prior to the establishment of Japan's protectorate in 1906. But the system which had been in force at that period proved unsatisfactory. Accordingly, in June, 1910, a new system was introduced by which the commander-in-chief of the military police was appointed chief of police, and gendarmes and civil policemen were separately stationed as local needs required. In 1919, however, that semi-militaristic police system was displaced by the one now in force. This new and present police system is modelled on that in Japan proper, with its headquarters entrusted with the entire administration of police and sanitary affairs. Numbers of administrative officials of police, police superintendents, police inspectors, police, etc. as of 1933 follow:

Class of officials	Japanese	Koreans
Administrative officials	18	—
Police superintendents	48	9
Police inspectors	338	86
Assistant police inspectors	604	154
Police	10,163	7,913
Total	11,166	8,162

### Education

In the olden days Korean children were taught in school nothing but Chinese writing and classics, but soon after the new régime was introduced they began to receive a more modern education, with such new subjects as arithmetic, geography and the Japanese language. The parents at first objected to the introduction of these revolutionary methods, and specially to the forcible teaching of the Japanese language, believing that this was a

deliberate attempt on the part of the government to deprive the Korean children of their national and inherited traditions. It was due to this misconception held widely among the Korean people that the educational authorities found much difficulty in enrolling pupils despite the fact that no tuition was charged and all textbooks were supplied to the pupils free of charge. In 1930 the Government-General, animated by a desire to respect the wishes of the native race and to foster oriental morals developed by Confucius, reopened the old Meiringaku-in (Confucian Institute) at the Keigaku-in (formerly known to Koreans as the "Songkyun Kwan."), the oldest and highest seat of learning in the country for the study of the Confucian classics.

**Important Reforms** But many more reforms of far-reaching importance were made in 1920, when the present educational system was introduced. By it not only was the standard of educational attainment raised, but the principle of equality was laid down firmly though no compulsory features were adopted with regard to elementary education, as in Japan. The following differences, however, were made and are maintained out of respect for Korean sentiment.

1. The Korean language is made an obligatory subject in schools for Korean children exclusively, while it is optional in schools for Japanese children in Chosen.

2. The teaching of Korean history and geography is to be particularly emphasized in schools for Korean children.

3. Different text-books, though of an equal standard, may be used in view of the difference of language and customs of the two races. That is to say, schools for Japanese children may use text-books compiled by the Education Department of

Japan, but schools for Korean children those compiled at the Education Bureau of the Government-General. Koreans are mostly educated in common schools, higher common schools and girls' common schools. The term of the common school is six years, while that of the higher and girls' higher common school is two years. Korean children who prefer to receive education at the Japanese

school may enter the elementary or the middle school as they chose. The system proved very efficacious in developing the education in Korea. While there was only 100 common schools before 1910, they number now 2,105 with 565,000 pupils. The table below shows clearly the development of educational work in Chosen since 1910:

	1911		1919		1933	
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students
Elementary schools	128	15,509	380	42,811	479	79,197
Common schools	172	20,121	482	89,288	2,105	561,920
Middle schools	1	205	5	2,010	11	6,347
Higher common schools	5	819	12	3,156	26	13,610
Girls' high schools	8	515	11	1,905	25	9,558
Girls' higher common schools	2	394	6	687	17	5,179
Normal schools	—	—	—	—	3	1,891
Industrial schools	20	961	25	2,843	58	14,823
Elementary industrial schools	8	93	71	1,650	97	4,335
Colleges	5	409	8	901	15	3,770
University preparatory schools	—	—	—	—	1	314
University	—	—	—	—	1	609
Non-classified schools	1667	71,763	749	89,247	457	58,714
Total	2,006	110,789	1,751	184,498	3,295	763,038

Christian mission and other private schools are included in this table.

**Korean Students in Japan** The Korean students in Japan now number about 4,087, most of them being in Tokyo. Those sent by the Government-General are comparatively few, numbering only nine at present. The students sent by the Government-General are not only supplied with necessary funds by the Government during the period they stay in the colleges to which they have been sent, but are on graduation given official or educational positions.

### Religion

**Buddhism** Buddhism first entered Korea about 370 A.D. It was introduced from China by a priest who brought with him a Buddhist image and the "sacred books", and it flourished greatly in the peninsula during the days of Silla and Koryu. Under the dynasty of Yi, however,

it met with persecution. The number of priests was limited and members of good families were forbidden to enter the priesthood, with the consequence that it soon lost its hold among the masses to a large extent. Things remained so until Japan extended her rule throughout the country. Then in September, 1911, an ordinance on religions was promulgated giving freedom of preaching and full protection to temples, and also raising the status of the priesthood. Since then Buddhism has been revived to a marked extent, so that at present there are 1,338 temples with 5,712 priests, 1,080 nuns and 128,000 adherents. There are several native religions not recognized by the Government-General, among which the most influential one is the Tendo-kyo, which in nature is a mixture of Confucian-

ism, Buddhism and Taoism. This religion has followers numbering 82,200. Apart from Korean Buddhism and allied sects, we find Japanese forms of Buddhism lately established in the peninsula, priests of the Shin sect being the pioneers. Later three others, Jodo, Soto, and Nichiren sects, entered the new religious field in competition with other sects and religions. At present nine sects of Japanese Buddhism are working among the resident Japanese as well as among the Korean masses, and at the end of 1933 there were 123 temples, 441 preaching houses, 597 priests, and 241,800 believers including 8,200 Koreans.

**Christianity** Christianity in Chosen was first brought by an official mission sent to Peking, China, by a Korean king in the latter half of the 18th century. This mission brought back with them a Bible and other Christian books. As its teaching, however, ran counter to the deep-rooted custom of ancient worship, King Seiso in 1784 issued an order prohibiting its preaching which was followed by a severe persecution. Though later occasionally the persecution was more or less relaxed, nothing for a time indicated a revival of Christianity. In 1833 a French missionary named Pierre

Maubant came to Chosen to preach the Gospel. He was the first foreign missionary to tread the soil of the hermit kingdom. His energetic and devoted evangelistic work was not fruitless, but it alarmed the government officials, who in 1839 issued a prohibition edict. But it failed to suppress the spread of Christianity, and in 1863 there were as many as 18,000 converts. In 1866 the persecution against Korean converts was renewed with vigour, which cost the lives of 30,000 people. In 1882, however, freedom of worship was fully recognized in the country as a result of diplomatic pressure brought upon its government, and in 1885 several American missionaries came to Korea. This was the first time for Protestantism to be preached there, and it gained influence among the masses as time went on. When in 1906 Prince Ito, the foremost Japanese statesman at that time, was appointed first Resident-General, he pursued a policy of friendliness toward these foreign missionaries, this policy being pursued up to the present day under various Governors-General. The following table gives an idea on the present situation of Christianity in Chosen:

	No. of missions	No. of missionaries	No. of members
Presbyterian	2,583	1,489	239,235
Roman catholic	327	154	95,520
Japan episcopal church	87	91	6,890
Japan christian church	12	15	1,802
Holiness	156	267	10,645
Methodist	16	21	1,655
Salvation army	74	77	6,523
Others	1,014	503	60,810
Total	4,269	2,647	422,580

### Communications and Transportation

**Railways** The construction of railways as a civilizing agency is being vigorously carried on in accord-

ance with the 12 year programme laid in 1927. The programme covers the construction of a Tumen River line and four other lines totalling 1,384 kilometres and the purchase of five lines including the Zenshu-Riri

Railway, totalling 339 kilometres. At the end of 1933 the total government-owned railway mileage reached 2,935 kilometres in active operation

with 413 stations. The following gives some idea of the development of railways in Chosen:

	Length (kilo)	Passengers	Freight (tons)	Receipts (yen)
1911	674 (miles)	2,024,000	888,000	4,095,000
1920	1,157 ( " )	12,421,000	3,186,000	28,816,000
1925	1,309 ( " )	18,241,000	4,297,000	30,708,000
1930	2,792	20,650,000	5,986,000	36,821,000
1931	3,009	19,673,704	6,025,150	36,300,512
1932	3,142	20,501,638	6,248,863	40,154,103
1933	2,935	22,238,335	7,254,859	43,611,142

As the through traffic between Tokyo and Europe is now established, the two main lines, Keijo-Fusan line and Keijo-Gishu line, form an important part of the railway system connecting Europe and Japan. Of all the lines now under construction the most important one is the line between Heijo and Gensan, 213 kilometres in length. When completed it will serve as an important traffic link between North China and Japan. As for the private railway enterprises in Chosen, regulations were issued in 1912 so as to provide adequately for effective supervision and protection. In 1921 new regulations were issued by which increased state aid was extended to private railway undertakings. These have in consequence made rapid progress, and at the end of 1933 their total mileage reached 1,163 kilometres operated by seven companies, though their earnings are far from being satisfactory. There are at present over 387 kilometres of additional lines either under actual construction or projected.

**Tramways** The following are the main tramway lines now in operation:

45.0 km.	in Keijo
9.8 "	in Fusan
12.9 "	in Heijo
6.1 "	in Kanpei
1.1 "	in other parts
Total	73.5 kilometres

**Navigation** There are now 235 steamships the total tonnage being 57,920 tons, their routes being interport, Korea-Japan and Korea-China-Russia. The following table shows the progress in this method of transportation in the last decade:

	Steamers		Sailing-boats	
	Number	Tonnage	Number	Tonnage
1919	87	35,682	483	16,432
1925	147	44,520	627	21,075
1929	185	47,161	694	23,083
1930	196	53,998	692	22,911
1931	202	52,302	745	24,778
1932	223	57,512	756	24,880
1933	235	57,920	796	26,673

**Navigable Rivers** The most important river in Chosen is perhaps the Yalu or Oryokko which, forming the boundary line between Chosen and Manchoukuo, rises in the Paktusan or "Ever-white" Mountains (2,744 m.) and empties into the Yellow Sea. Its length is about 800 km. of which about 700 km. is navigable by air-propeller boats under governmental subsidy. Timber felled on the mountain slopes is made into rafts and floated down until it reaches the lumber-yards at Shingishu or Antung. Another river of importance is the River Daido which flows through Heijo and empties into the Yellow Sea in the neighbourhood of Chinnampo. The river is 400 km. long, navigable for a distance of 245 km. There are also four other



rivers wide enough for navigation by sailing boats and motor boats. | These are:

Rakuto (flowing into Chosen Channel)	344 km. (Navigable course)
Kanko (flowing into Yellow Sea)	300 km.
Kinko .. .. .	180 ..
Tumen .. .. .	85 ..

**Airways** There are at present three airports established in Chosen. These ports are located at Urusan, Keijo and Heijo. Beside that in the following places ground marks are set up: Urusan, Kwokan, Taiden, Tenan, Shariin, Heijo, Teishu and Shingishu. Moreover, in Urusan and Keijo there are now built wireless stations for keeping in communication with the airways. At the airport of Urusan there is installed a meteorological observatory for forecasting weather conditions in the interests of air navigators. Most of the air traffic between Chosen and Japan is being done by planes belonging to the Japan Air Transport Company.

**Post, Telegraphs and Telephones** Prior to 1905 there were 516 postal offices in the peninsula. In March, 1934, they numbered 948, but in this are included 119 engaged for telegraph and telephone service exclusively. There is a Telegraphic Service Training School, which had turned out up to March, 1931, 3,252 graduates, 909 being Koreans. In November, 1926, a Radio Broadcasting Office was established in Keijo and opened to business in February, 1927.

#### Public Hygiene

Prior to 1906 Chosen was a land practically without access to any medical service worthy of the name and the sick were simply placed under the care of unqualified practitioners of the old Chinese school or of witches or magicians. The situation was made worse by an entire

lack of sanitary equipments and pure water, the consequence being frequent outbreaks of various infectious diseases. As soon as the protectorate was brought into existence in 1906 the first step taken by the government with a view to giving the nation the benefit of sanitation was the establishment of a modern hospital in Keijo. Since 1910 further steps have been taken to extend modern medical and sanitary benefits among the masses, even among those in very remote regions. The construction and extension of waterworks is another work pushed on by the government with vigour so as to provide the people with good drinking water. The Government-General has also taken efficient and energetic measures for the prevention of epidemics; in consequence, small-pox which was formerly so virulent in Chosen, has almost died out. Moreover, sanitary regulations relating to foodstuffs, drinks, and drugs are rigidly enforced. Medical and hospital equipments have been greatly improved. At the end of 1933 hospitals numbered 134 including 4 government institutions and 45 under local public authorities, and there were 2,100 licensed medical practitioners including 964 Japanese, 1,094 Koreans and 32 foreigners. Korean medical students numbered 4,267 in the same year.

#### Prohibition of Opium Smoking

Soon after its inauguration the Government-General made a serious effort to deal with opium-smoking. The habit of opium-smoking among

the Korean people had been quite strong, specially among those in the frontier regions, many deaths resulting therefrom. The Government-General's drive for the abolition of this vicious habit was a thorough one. Those who were found smoking opium were made liable for criminal punishment. It would be, however, an exaggeration to say that the land was entirely freed from the evil, as much opium is still being smuggled in from China. In 1919 poppy cultivation was absolutely prohibited except for the purpose of supplying the needs of the medical profession and a certain limitation was placed on the area of its cultivation, and the product so raised was not permitted to be sold on the general market, being all taken over by the government at a fixed price. In 1930, the Government-General granted a subsidy of ¥16,240, in addition to sufficient money to buy a necessary quantity of morphine to be divided among the provinces

to assist in the cure of addicts. As a result 2,837 addicts out of a total of 2,944 treated at the provincial morphine asylums were completely cured. The following is the policy now being pursued by the Government-General in its effort to conquer the evil of opium-smoking:

(1) To attempt to cure all morphine addicts within 10 years;  
 (2) To take into its own hands all the work of manufacturing and selling the morphine to be supplied to the registered addicts;\*

(3) To permit no person other than those registered to use morphine, and to punish heavily those who smuggled or secretly sold it;

(4) To educate the people so as to prevent any increase of addicts.

On March 3, 1930, the Government-General issued an order forcing all addicts to be registered and in the end of that year those who registered totalled 3,278 out of 5,094 persons known to be addicts.

\* The government manufacture began March, 1933.

## CHAPTER XLI

### TAIWAN (FORMOSA)

#### General Description

**Area and Topography** Taiwan (Formosa) forms the westernmost part of the Japanese Empire. It is washed by the Pacific on the east, and is separated from China on the west by the Formosan Straits and on the south from the Philippines by Bashi and Balintang Channels. It extends from 119° 18' to 122° 6' E. longitude, and from 21° 45' to 25° 38' N. latitude. The Tropic of Cancer bisects the island, which is about 394.28 km. long, its greatest width being 122.31 km. The Pescadores (Bokoto) and other outlying islands form a political division of the Taiwan Government-General. They cover 126.86 sq. km. The area of Taiwan, including the Pescadores, is 35,973.55 sq. km., being about 5.3 per cent. of the total area of Japan, a little smaller than Kyushu, and about one-sixth the size of Chosen (Korea). As regards its topography, Taiwan is an island which rises from the sea to a height of 3,950 metres, reached at the summit of Mount Niitaka (Mount Morrison). It consists of a mountain range with narrow valleys on both coasts which are the population cen-

tres. The valley on the west coast is the principal population centre. That on the east coast is little developed and is capable of but slight further development. The rivers are not long and their current is very swift; in the rainy season they flood the surrounding country, causing much damage. The climate is semi-tropical. In summer the north is visited by rains; in winter the south. The temperature rarely falls below the freezing point.

**The Inhabitants** The territorial system of Formosa was organized during five years, 1898 to 1902, by a large land-investigation enterprise made by the Government-General. The island is inhabited by Japanese, natives and foreigners. The Japanese went there after the occupation of the island by Japan, and the foreigners mostly are Chinese. The number of Western people is small. The native Chinese are mostly Mins from Fukien province and Cantonese from the China coasts across the Formosan Straits, composing 92 per cent. of the total population. The aborigines consist of savages and semi-civilized tribes. The following figures show the population at the end of 1933:

	Total number	Male	Female	Percentage
Japanese	256,327	135,836	120,491	5.1%
Koreans	1,191	417	774	0.0
Natives	4,759,197	2,421,881	2,337,316	94.0
Aboriginal savages (Included in natives)	146,923	73,755	73,168	(2.9)
Chinese	43,585	23,856	14,729	0.9
Foreigners	307	110	97	0.0
Total	5,060,507	2,587,100	2,473,407	100.0

Including the savages, the total population at the end of 1933 in Taiwan was 5,060,507, showing an increase of 130,545 over that at the

end of 1932 and 2,023,648 over the end of 1905, when the first census-taking results were announced. This means a yearly gain for the 28 years of 72,273.

The areas, population, number of counties and districts and number of towns and villages of five provinces, three districts and seven cities at the end of July, 1933 follow:

	Area sq. ri	Population	No. of counties or sub-districts	No. of towns and villages
Taihoku province	299	1,009,180	9	39
Shinchiku ..	291	720,605	8	42
Taichu ..	475	1,125,535	11	57
Tainan ..	354	1,278,925	10	66
Takao ..	371	694,401	7	43
Taito district	231	64,805	4	11
Karenko ..	298	101,300	4	10
Boko ..	8	65,754	2	5
Taihoku city	3	275,675	—	—
Keelung ..	3	81,713	—	—
Shinchiku, ..	2	51,920	—	—
Shoka ..	1	64,991	—	—
Taichu ..	4	49,790	—	—
Tainan ..	3	106,242	—	—
Kagi ..	3	66,853	—	—
Takao ..	2	76,380	—	—
Byoto ..	4	39,272	—	—

**The Climate** Being in the semi-tropical zone, the summer time is long and the winter is short. The highest temperature, however, is not very much higher than in Japan proper, but the weather is warmer during the winter time. Frost is very rare and water has been known to freeze over only twice since Taiwan came under Japanese rule. The island lies in the highway of typhoons, and is yearly visited by them, terrible damage being sometimes caused.

During a 37-year period ending in 1933, Formosa was hit by severe typhoons no less than 89 times; of these, several occurred in the year 1914.

Typhoons originate generally in the offing northeast or east of Luzon Island of the Philippines, and cross the island or enter the Chinese mainland, passing the southern or northern extremity of the island. Taiwan forms a part of an earthquake zone connecting Kyushu, Okinawa Islands and the Philippines and naturally it is very often visited by seismic shocks. The number of earthquakes

registered in the island or the neighbouring seas during 25 years ending 1933, was 8,118, which means 325 a year or nearly one every day.

#### Administrative System

When Taiwan came under Japan's rule in April, 1895, the Japanese Government established the Taiwan Affairs Bureau in June of that year and then in August of the same year the Taiwan Government-General Act was promulgated in connection with the introduction of military administration. This was replaced by the civil administration in March of the following year. The Taiwan Government-General came under the supervision of the Minister of Overseas Affairs with the establishment of the Ministry in June, 1929. The Governor-General is invested with authority to require military assistance from the commanders of the army and navy in the territory under his jurisdiction, when he deems it necessary to do so for the maintenance of peace and order in Taiwan. If the Governor-

General is either a soldier or a naval man, he is able simultaneously to assume the command of the Formosan Army. The Governor-General also is invested with authority to supervise officials under him, promote them in rank, retire them from service, or recommend them for honours through the Minister of Overseas Affairs and the Premier, and to suspend or cancel orders and administrative measures of provincial governors under him, when such are deemed damaging to public interest or overstepping the sphere of their authority. The Taiwan Government-General consists, besides the secretariat to the Governor-General, of five bureaux, that is, the Home Affairs Bureau, Educational Affairs Bureau, Financial Affairs Bureau, Colonial Development Bureau and Police Affairs Bureau. The chief of general affairs, or civil governor, directors of the five bureaux and many other officials are under the supervision of the Governor-General. There is an Advisory Council to the Governor-General, which serves as a very important organ for the administration of the island. Not only does it give advice to the Governor-General on laws or regulations but also on general important business. The members consist of Government-General officials and leading persons in private circles in the island. The provincial administration extends over 5 provinces, 3 districts, 7 cities and 45 counties. There are the same number of provincial governors, district superintendents, city administrators and county chiefs, all under the Government-General.

#### Aboriginal Administration

The Taiwan aborigines are the oldest inhabitants of the island and are classified into semi-civilized aborigines and savage head-hunters.

The former have now settled down as ordinary peaceful citizens and differ nothing in culture and general status from the natives who belong to the Han (Chinese) race. The head-hunters, on the other hand, live in mountainous districts and still adhere to their traditional habits and manners, their culture being very low. The Taiwan Government-General is concerned in its aboriginal administration mostly with these savage tribes. These savages lead a very primitive life, their dwelling-places being so difficult of access, and they still deter other tribes from settling near them by their traditional custom of head-hunting. Since Japan's occupation of Taiwan great efforts have been directed by the authorities to their subjugation and cultural improvement, and at the present time head-hunting is rapidly becoming extinct, and these savages are entering the first stage of civilized life. Some of them living along the mountain zone in west Taiwan, and those living on the sea coast in east Taiwan, pay taxes. These aborigines have a close resemblance to the Negritoes in the South Sea islands and are supposed by anthropologists to be of a Malay-origin. They may be classified into seven tribes: Taiyal, Saisset, Bunun, Tsuwo, Paiwan, Ami and Yami, and are entirely different in countenance, physical build, language and habits from the Han race who came over from continental China. These savages are distinguished by their extreme hatred of other tribes, and have a habit of combining together in an offensive and defensive alliance against any enemy. The number of these savages at the end of 1933 was 146,924, of whom 73,756 were male and 73,168 female. They lived in 24,480 houses in 595 villages. Their population in 1932 and 1933 was:

Tribes	1933	1932	Increase
Taiyal	34,333	34,005	328
Saisset	1,417	1,394	23
Tsuwo	2,367	2,161	206
Bunun	18,081	17,898	183
Paiwan	42,263	41,989	274
Ami	46,800	45,120	1,180
Yami	1,702	1,702	same
Others	461	34	427
Total	146,924	144,803	In. 2,621

The Four Tribes The savages of the Taiyal and Bunun tribes are known as the most ferocious of all. Occasionally they quarrel with and even kill their own comrades. The Tsuwo tribe abolished the custom of head-hunting many years ago. The Saisset tribesmen are the gentlest of all, and are quickly losing their savage proclivities. The Japanese authorities have cudgelled their brains how to bring these wild people under control. When Holland occupied the south of Taiwan and Spain the north, they tried to pacify them principally through the medium of religion and medicine. During the time when the Cheng family from south China ruled the island, force and conciliation were adopted in turn, but the results were not satisfactory. Conciliation has dominated Japan's policy toward these savages in the island since her occupation of Taiwan. When the campaigns against rebels came to an end in 1902, attention was given to the aboriginal control policy. Owing to the stubborn resistance offered by the savages, the Governor-General, General Viscount Samata Sakuma, drafted a five-year plan for dealing with the aborigines and established the campaign headquarters in the Government-General in 1909 to start the enterprise on an elaborate scale. The fundamental policy was based on conciliation, and training the savages to become law-abiding people on the one hand, and chastisement of the insubordinate on the other. The

confiscation of their arms was one of the important tasks. All arms were given up to the Japanese authorities by the northern aborigines in 1914. This completed the task of aboriginal pacification in January, 1915. Occasional raids on police stations and head-hunting of innocent people were committed after that, owing to the instigation of malcontents. The worst outbreak that took place was the Musha Incident in October, 1930, which culminated in the sending of troops. Many of them are engaged in farm work and pay taxes. Some of them receive special education. Policemen are stationed at various points of vantage in the savage districts and peace maintenance, job-finding, education, medical care, traffic, public works and sundry other affairs are being looked after by them. Since the occupation of Taiwan to the end of 1933 rifles confiscated numbered 29,772, of which 14,286 rifles were confiscated in 1914, when the five-year campaign plan came to an end. Spades replaced rifles. During the 38 years which ended in 1933, 7,081 people lost their lives at the hands of savages and the largest number of them in a single year was 761 in 1912. In 1930, 158 deaths were reported. This is due to the Musha Incident. Of the total of 7,081 victims during those 38 years, those of police, Japanese and native, numbered 2,667 and those of civilians 4,414. During the same period 4,099 were wounded in connection with the campaign against savages. A change, however, is beginning to be made in the lives of these people in recent years. They are emerging from their primitive condition into an economic existence. They are glad to work on paddy fields and take up other sorts of labour. They are now pretty well initiated into money-saving habits. Their postal savings deposits

at the end of 1933 amounted to ¥345,615, representing 19,016 depositors, the highest single deposit being ¥5,230 and the average deposit ¥18.17 per head. At present the aboriginal administration consists mainly in finding work for the aborigines and giving them education.

**Occupations of Aborigines** The work in which the aborigines are mainly engaged is cultivation of paddy fields, stock-raising, sericulture and other kinds of farming. They raised 23,857 koku of unhulled rice in 1933 (one koku being 5,1116 bushels), showing a gain of 1,990 koku over 1932. The authorities also encourage stock-raising. At the end of 1933 the natives had 32,871 pigs, 6,346 buffaloes, 3,373 cattle, and 3,601 sheep. The value of their cocoon crop for 1933 totalled ¥38,511. They also raised sundry other farm products valued at ¥57,860 for the same year. Education is gradually spreading among the aborigines. At the end of 1933 there were 7,414 aboriginal children attending 182 schools maintained at the expense of the Government-General specially for these tribes. In addition, the number of the people attending other kinds of school was 8,628 at the end of 1933. The Government-General authorities also are directing their energy to cultural enterprises for them. The aborigines have their own social organizations, such as the chiefs' societies, women's societies, young men's associations, school children's patron societies, and others. Members of these societies numbered 38,868. Also there were about 32,246 at the end of 1933, who were able to understand Japanese fairly well. Superstition is being gradually eradicated from among the aborigines, as medical attention is being increasingly given them. Free dispensaries provided exclusively for them numbered 224 at the end of 1933. The

Government-General established 101 "exchange" houses for them to sell their products. The sales at these houses at the end of 1933 totalled ¥475,144.

#### Police and Judicature

**The Police** The Taiwan police consist of men appointed from among Japanese, natives and semi-civilized aborigines. Their services are divided into the ordinary service and aboriginal police service. The police in aboriginal districts are reinforced by police assistants appointed mostly from among natives. These are features of the police services of Taiwan. What is known as the tithing system of Taiwan provides a feature of peace preservation in the island. This system is of Chinese origin and was first adopted as an auxiliary to the police system in 1898. Owing to the satisfactory results attained, it also was extended to the lower grades of the administration in 1909. One tithing group consists of 100 houses and it looks after the peace of the group. In case these groups organize an association, the matter has to be sanctioned by provincial governors or district superintendents. Each group has its chief, who is elected and sanctioned by governor or superintendent. His duty is to maintain peace and order in his tithing district. Members of groups consist of men ranging from 17 to 50 years old and must be of good character. They offer their services free. The number of groups involved in the tithing system of Taiwan was 5,360 at the end of 1933. Many pirates infest the coast of Taiwan, mostly coming from south China. They attack junks during the summer time. The police on duty against these sea raiders are attached to provincial or district governments.

**Judicature** The judicature of Taiwan consists of two grades of courts, viz., the supreme court and three district courts, the latter having four branches in all—all under control of the Governor-General. The functions of the various courts are practically the same as those of the courts in Japan proper.

#### Religion and Education

**Religion** There are 24 Shinto shrines in Taiwan. The Taiwan Shrine is a first-class Government shrine and is the central shrine of worship for the Japanese people in the island. It is located in a suburb of Taihoku, the capital of the island, and is dedicated to Okuninushi, Oanamuchi and Sukunahikona, all legendary leaders of the early Japanese race, and to His Imperial Highness General Prince Yoshihisa Kitashirakawa, who died in the island when commanding the Japanese expeditionary force in Taiwan during the Sino-Japanese War. Shintoism, Buddhism and Christianity have been

propagated by the Japanese since 1895. Confucianism is observed among the natives and Chinese people in the island.

**Education** The continuous efforts of the Government-General have been rewarded to such an extent that the natives have been receiving education since 1922 together with Japanese in the classes of middle-school grade and in higher institutions, although the elementary education is still given both in the vernacular and Japanese languages. Besides numerous elementary schools, Taiwan had at the end of April, 1934, 10 middle schools, 13 girls' schools, 5 special schools of middle school grade, 4 normal schools, 4 colleges and 1 Imperial University. The Taihoku Imperial University was founded in March, 1928. It consists of two departments, one literature and politics and the other physics and agriculture. The educational expenses for the last five years are:

	Total amount	State expenses	Provinces and districts (In ¥1,000)	Cities, towns and villages
1930	16,916	5,638	7,707	3,570
1931	17,074	5,428	7,709	3,936
1932	16,289	4,820	7,842	3,627
1933	16,723	4,895	7,842	3,985
1934	18,026	5,042	8,391	4,593
Average	17,006	5,164	7,898	3,942

#### Agriculture

Agriculture is the most important industry of Taiwan. Since the island came under Japan's control, it has made a rapid development and the total farm production in 1933 was worth ¥238,000,000, composing about 50 per cent. of all the industrial production of the island. The area under cultivation in 1900 was 363,290 ko (one ko being 2.377 acres or 2,934 tsubo). It increased to

845,479 ko at the end of March, 1933, more than double that of 31 years ago. The cultivated land is more than 20 per cent. of the island's total area. The area of cultivated land since 1900 has been as follows:

Year	Paddy fields (In 1,000 ko)	Dry land	Total
1900	211	151	363
1908	328	345	673
1912	346	364	710
1917	330	412	742
1922	376	397	773
1927	399	422	821

Year	Paddy fields (In 1,000 ko)	Dry land	Total
1928	408	425	833
1929	406	423	829
1930	408	428	836
1931	411	434	845
1932	439	400	839
1933	482	362	844

People engaged in agriculture are about 52 per cent. of the total population. At the end of 1933 their number was 2,638,142, of whom tenant-farmers were 998,917, landed farmers 839,181, and landed tenant-farmers 800,044.

**Rice Crops** The climate is very well suited to rice cultivation especially in the western district, where crops are harvested twice a year. The production in 1933 was about 8,300,000 koku with a value of over ¥120,000,000. Rice forms the chief of the three most important farm products of Taiwan, that is, rice, sugar cane and potatoes. Rice known as Hōrai rice is grown heavily in recent years. Its plantation area for 1933 totalled 240,000 ko and the crop amounted to 3,400,000 koku for two crops a year. The plantation areas and rice crops since 1900 follow:

	Plantation areas (In ko)	Crops (In koku)
1900	360,922	2,052,970
1908	486,274	4,512,143
1912	495,128	4,046,611
1917	480,642	4,833,813
1922	527,096	5,445,814
1927	603,153	6,898,672
1928	603,058	6,795,005
1929	570,274	6,480,762
1930	633,444	7,370,516
1931	663,380	7,479,346
1932	684,928	8,949,216
1933	696,423	8,361,839

**Sweet Potatoes** Sweet potatoes also are extensively produced almost everywhere and all through the year in the island. The chief producing centres are Tainan, Taichu and Takao provinces. Potatoes serve as fodder for cattle besides being used as ordinary foodstuff. Dried potatoes are shipped to Japan as

material for producing alcohol and starch. The export value of dried potatoes for 1931 totalled 48,571,775 kin (one kin being 1.3 pounds), worth ¥748,961. The crop of sweet potatoes for 1902 amounted to 501,160,292 kin and the amount has been increasing yearly since. The 1933 crop totalled 2,355,780,992 kin. The plantation area of 63,147 ko for 1902 increased to 138,060 for 1933.

**Tea** Tea is one of the principal exports of Taiwan. The export value totals about ¥9,000,000. The tea production amounted to 20,808,765 kin (in plantation area of 28,308 ko) for 1902 and that for 1933 amounted to 15,544,877 kin (in the area of 45,298 ko). Tea plantation was introduced there by immigrants from China. In 1868 some amount of tea roughly made in Taiwan was exported to Amoy, where it was refined, but later the Taiwan producers, bringing tea operators from Amoy and Foochow, began to export refined tea, and in 1869 as much as 280,000 pounds of refined tea were exported to New York. This was the first export of Taiwan tea to America. Then tea production developed considerably year after year. Export tea is classified into four varieties, viz., Oolong, Pouchong, green and black. Oolong and Pouchong teas are most abundantly produced; the former, appreciated by Americans, and the latter, preferred by the people of the South Sea Islands, is exported to Java and Siam. Black tea is extending its markets, and, although not as good as Ceylon tea, it is better in quality than Japanese black tea.

**Other Products** Other agricultural products are peanuts, beans, wheat, sesame, longan, (otherwise known as "dragon's eye") and vegetables. The yielding areas and production of these farm products for 1933, as compared with those for 1900, follow:

	Yielding area (In ko)		Production (In koku)	
	1900	1933	1900	1933
Peanuts	11,958	30,724	120,838	475,512
Beans	11,365	19,130	50,281	73,313
Barley	1,479	539	11,460	3,689
Wheat	1,857	667	11,282	5,283
Sesame seeds	6,889	3,900	36,279	11,550
Jute	1,155	3,005	1,481,548 (kin)	8,794,938 (kin)
Hemp	1,654	1,295	1,022,063 ..	1,424,787 ..
Tobacco	240	801	363,900 (kg)	1,535,688 (kg)
Oranges	317 (1905)	4,057	2,025,965 (kin) (1909)	49,280,291 (kin)
Pineapples	—	6,626	—	86,800,448
Longan	—	504,025 (trees)	—	8,282,393 (kin)
Vegetables	—	—	—	¥10,000,000

The export of pineapples for 1933 totalled ¥159,444 and that of canned pineapples ¥5,149,572.

Bananas are Taiwan's representative fruits. They are planted everywhere in the island, but are produced most heavily in Taichu province, where 52 per cent. of the total production is got. They occupy the third position in the export list of the island, the first being rice and the second sugar. Bananas exported during 1933 totalled 2,813,558 baskets, worth ¥11,894,123. In 1909 the plantation acreage was 560 ko with a crop of 10,536,062 kin, which increased to 19,228 ko with a crop of 292,555,667 kin.

**Live-stock** The live-stock raising industry in Taiwan is flourishing. The number of cattle at the end of 1933 was 366,270, of which buffaloes numbered 302,249. Buffaloes play the most important rôle in agriculture. Hog-raising industry is widely maintained and hogs are kept by almost all native farmers. Their number at the end of 1933 was 1,806,489, having increased three-and-half times since the cession of the island to Japan. Poultry consists of chickens and geese, their total number at the end of 1933 being 7,573,504. It was in 1912 that sericulture was started in the island. Before that year no sericulture existed there. It took nearly 10 years before native farm-

ers appreciated it as a side-line. This industry is becoming important among farmers. In the first year the cocoon crop amounted to only 84 koku and it increased to 1,990 koku in 1933. One of the unique features of sericulture in Taiwan is that silkworms can be raised at any time of the year, since even during the winter-time mulberry leaves are grown. Moreover, no insect ravage is experienced in the island. The cost of production is scarcely half of that in Japan.

**Agricultural Equipment** The Taiwan Government-General has taken every possible measure to encourage the rice cultivation and improve the quality of rice. "Hōrai rice" is a Japanese variety, and after many years' experiment the island succeeded in raising rice of good quality. The inspection of rice has been made under control of the Governor-General since July, 1926. Silkworms are raised and distributed by the Sericultural Experimental Station of the Colonial Development Bureau in the Government-General. The Government-General also is adopting all possible steps for improvement of tea cultivation and for this purpose is training tea-raising experts at its Tea Institute. The Pineapple Experimental Station is maintained under control of the Government-General for promotion of this indus-

try. Agricultural warehouses, numbering 36, are doing business upon Government subsidy. The immigration of Japanese into Taiwan so far has failed to realize satisfactory results. Farm settlers from Japan proper numbered 3,526 at the end of 1933. They maintain an area of paddy fields covering 1,148 ko and farms covering 1,582 ko. Fundamental farm investigation is being constantly carried on by the authorities. The investigation involves that of land management, tenancy, farm economy, farm production, demand and supply of products and fertilizers, land utilization, farm labour, market prices of farm products, etc. Irrigation work also is pursued on an approved plan. The Landlord and Tenant-Farmers Harmonization Society was established in 1927 under government aid for the improvement of relations between landlords and tenants.

#### Sugar Industry

Taiwan is the centre of the sugar industry of Japan. The industry has existed since the coming of the Han race to the island and, when the Dutch occupied the island in 1624, sugar had already become one of the staple products of the island. It has maintained the topmost position of Taiwan's industries. At the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan the annual output was only about 80,000,000 kin, one kin being 1.323 pounds. Japan proper consumed more than 300,000,000 kin of sugar, most of which had to be imported from abroad.

**Dr. Nitobé's Plan** Alive to this situation, the Taiwan Government-General concentrated its energy on the increased production of sugar by means of business improvement and expansion, and this has resulted in the present industrial prosperity. Not only has this prevented the im-

port of foreign sugar, but it has contributed a great deal to the exploitation of natural resources and the financial and industrial development of the island. The late Dr. Inazo Nitobé was engaged by the Government-General to work out a sugar-industry development plan. He proposed several measures for industrial development, namely, the improvement of kinds of sugar cane and their cultivation, improvement of pressing and manufacturing methods, the application of artificial irrigation, increased land cultivation and expansion of sugar plantations, the establishment of sugar experimental stations, and the organization of sugar production guilds, as well as other measures. These formed the basic policy of the Taiwan sugar industry. The sugar encouragement regulations were issued in June, 1902. According to these regulations, the Government-General would give a subsidy to sugar-cane planters or sugar manufacturers for cane plantation, fertilizers, cultivation, irrigation, and manufacturing machines, or, if necessary, implements will be lent or given. The subsidies given in this connection up to the end of the fiscal year of 1931-32 totalled ¥12,908,698. The Government-General is adopting a policy of reducing the subsidy with the progress of the sugar industry. With the establishment of sugar mills the competition for the acquisition of canes became severe.

**Upon Consolidated Basis** In order to prevent evils arising out of this competition, the authorities issued regulations restricting the spheres of cane plantations in 1905. This caused sugar-makers to work on a consolidated basis yearly. As it was impossible for sugar manufacturers to get material from districts other than those designated for them by

regulations, the makers took great care of the planters working on their fields. Planters also were placed on a definite basis of economy by the regulations, because the canes raised by them could be sold to the mills to which they belonged. When the sugar policy was established, the Extraordinary Taiwan Sugar Affairs Bureau was organized, but it was later replaced by the Sugar Refinery Section of the Colonial Development Bureau. The Government-General first established the Young Cane Seed Experimental Station in Taichu province in 1913. Seeds raised there were distributed to intermediate experimental yards, where they are further grown. Manufacturing companies are bound by duty to distribute these seeds free to farmers within their plantations. Thus the improvement of canes was realized. Young plants distributed till the end of March, 1933, totalled 548,936,040.

**The Sugar Experimental Station** The Taiwan Government-General Sugar Experimental Station was reorganized and was founded in Tainan city in March, 1932, as the central organization for the promotion of sugar plantation. At first, the Hawaiian "rose bamboo" canes were adopted for the Taiwan sugar cultivation and canes of this kind occupied 96 per cent. of all grown in 1913. Due to lack of adequate measures to keep the quality unchanged, and also to the fact that these canes had little power of resistance against storms they finally deteriorated. Then they were replaced by Java canes. Irrigation is the most important item in a sugar plantation. At the end of March, 1932, the land under irrigation totalled 112,416 ko. The following are figures showing the area of sugar plantations and crop per ko since 1902:

Fiscal year	Plantation area (In ko)	Cane crop (In kin)	Crop per ko (In kin)
1902-03	16,526	683,167,902	41,338
1905-06	33,158	1,000,206,794	48,078
1908-09	39,035	2,219,471,541	56,858
1910-11	75,329	3,159,598,569	41,944
1914-15	85,150	3,939,805,780	46,190
1917-18	150,450	6,817,535,709	45,314
1919-20	108,376	4,382,506,262	40,438
1920-21	142,032	6,752,838,826	47,544
1921-22	123,233	7,793,688,518	63,243
1923-24	130,480	8,825,841,621	67,641
1925-26	120,426	8,618,430,295	69,802
1926-27	101,531	7,411,962,535	73,002
1927-28	108,318	9,697,644,651	89,529
1928-29	129,046	12,291,944,205	102,394
1929-30	109,397	11,618,353,936	106,204
1930-31	99,094	10,944,669,505	110,447
1931-32	108,496	13,415,197,477	122,518
1932-33	83,620	8,782,001,849	104,835

#### The Refining Industry

The sugar industry at the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan was very primitive. Out of about 1,100 sugar mills, not a single mill had adopted the modern mechanical method of manufacturing, and all of them used animal power. Owing to insufficient pressing power, a large percentage of sugar-substance was wasted during the manufacturing process and, moreover, the product was inferior. By 1934 there were only 92 mills of this kind, as the majority of them were gradually eliminated. In these primitive mills two stone wheel cars or three metal wheel cars are employed for grinding by animal power. Improved mills use pressing machines and motors. Brown sugar is also manufactured. Such mills number only eight, with a total productive capacity of only 910 tons for 1934. The modernly-equipped mills have pressing capacity ranging from 300 to 3,000 tons a day and are able to produce in great quantity. The Taiwan Sugar Manufacturing Company founded in 1901 was the first of its kind. During the financial boom following the Russo-Japanese War many sugar-manufacturing concerns

were established, and Japan finally leaped into a prominent position among the world's sugar-producing countries. In 1933 there were 49 mills with the daily productive capacities of 28,150 British tons and 13,400 American tons. Most of them

produce crude sugar known as centrifugals. Some of them turn out white sugar by a change of milling operation. Sugar-cane pressing capacity and production of white sugar follow:

Companies	Cane pressing capacity (In tons)	Production of white sugar (In kin)		
		1929	1933	1934
Taiwan Sugar's Taihoku mill	Brit. 500	7,143,743	4,273,359	3,636,984
Taiwan Sugar's Sharokan mill	Amer. 1,200	50,319,350	28,410,043	22,807,603
Taiwan Sugar's Kibi mill	Brit. 1,200	18,973,300	23,210,074	22,063,274
Meiji Sugar's Shoryu mill	" 750			
Meiji Sugar's Nansei mill	" 1,000	6,124,800	18,015,650	15,467,001
Meiji Sugar's Ujurin mill	" 750	13,875,200	11,984,408	11,358,024
Dai Nippon Sugar's Toroku mill	" 500	10,000,000	16,258,400	16,000,000
Ensuiko Sugar's Shinei mill	" 1,000	38,383,450	26,193,100	29,090,444
Ensuiko Sugar's Kishinai No. 1 mill	" 550	25,473,700	27,812,400	37,679,436
Kishinai No. 2 mill	" 700			
Total	Amer. 6,950 1,200	150,284,543	156,157,425	158,102,766

No refined white sugar was produced from Taiwan crude sugar for 1934. Crystallized sugar is produced from the material of white sugar or refined sugar. It is manufactured at the Takao mill of the Ensuiko Sugar Manufacturing Company. The amount totalled 116,900 kin in 1926, but since 1927 the production has been suspended. Molasses is a by-product in making centrifugal sugar. This is used as material for making alcohol and also for fodder, fertilizer and other purposes. The 1934 output totalled 149,216,000 kin.

Summary Summarizing the status of the sugar industry, the cane-plantation area at the beginning of

1902 was 26,167 ko, and there was only one mechanically-operated mill with a daily capacity of 200 tons and capitalization of only ¥1,000,000. In 1927 such mills numbered 45 with a daily productive capacity of 39,414 American tons and total capitalization of ¥290,520,000, although this dropped to ¥245,776,600 in 1933, owing to mergers or readjustment of business. But the capacity increased to 44,928 American tons for 1934. The total production in 1902 was only 90,000,000 kin, but in 1927 it rose as high as 1,315,540,000 kin and further to 1,648,440,000 kin in 1932. It decreased to 1,078,310,000 in 1934 due to curtailment of production as agreed upon among sugar companies.

Companies	Head offices	Capital		No. of mills	Daily pressing capacity of canes (American tons)
		Subscribed (In ¥1,000)	Paid-up		
Taiwan Sugar	Heito, Takao province	63,000	43,080	13	11,814
Shinko Sugar	Taiyo, Takao province	1,200	1,200	1	952
Meiji Sugar	Mato, Tainan province	48,000	39,100	7	9,520
Dai Nippon	Sunamachi, Tokyo city	51,416	45,779	6	7,638
Ensuiko Sugar	Shinei, Tainan province	29,250	17,437	6	5,880
Niitaka Sugar	Wami, Taichu province	26,000	10,750	3	3,254
Teikoku Sugar	Taichu city	18,000	16,195	5	3,234
Showa Sugar	Goketsu, Taihoku province	7,000	7,000	3	1,758
Taito Sugar	Taito	1,750	1,750	2	560
Sango Sugar	Nirinsho, Taichu province	3,350	3,350	1	392
Total		250,966	185,742	49	44,928

Production of sugar for the 1933-34 fiscal year follows:

Companies	Materials used (In kin)	Sugar production	Production of molasses
Taiwan Sugar	1,902,242,800	286,499,873	36,239,049
Shinko Sugar	88,929,120	12,468,702	2,578,276
Meiji Sugar	1,216,881,480	170,642,359	24,322,798
Dai Nippon Sugar	1,698,987,580	236,367,346	33,104,476
Ensuiko Sugar	1,202,857,600	163,570,965	22,766,558
Niitaka Sugar	363,556,680	50,547,100	7,658,746
Teikoku Sugar	584,462,960	81,494,653	13,306,232
Showa Sugar	217,401,060	30,276,718	4,505,477
Taito Sugar	114,066,690	16,409,280	2,598,111
Sango Sugar	75,308,930	9,061,556	2,044,218
Total	7,463,694,900	1,057,338,552	149,123,941
Improved mills	53,529,571	7,869,235	—
Primitive mills	132,920,527	13,178,332	—
Grand total	7,650,144,998	1,078,386,119	149,123,941

Sugar production in Taiwan since 1905 has been as follows:

Year (Nov.-Oct.)	Mechanically-operated mills	Improved mills (In kin)	Primitive mills	Total
1905	7,558,418	641,533	74,432,707	82,632,658
1908	28,650,648	21,548,314	59,002,565	109,201,527
1911	323,746,074	67,923,183	58,895,441	450,564,698
1913	105,047,715	7,266,608	6,834,921	119,149,244
1915	313,064,988	18,609,895	15,771,514	347,446,398
1917	681,942,099	44,267,332	37,280,842	763,490,273
1919	435,905,228	17,226,885	33,224,850	486,356,963
1921	401,948,211	8,695,462	10,579,932	421,223,605
1923	531,460,227	3,766,752	7,093,274	592,320,253
1925	778,774,392	8,040,111	12,418,544	799,233,047
1927	671,018,437	5,571,867	8,643,715	685,234,019
1928	952,568,631	6,475,108	7,517,095	966,561,134
1929	1,296,552,378	9,627,009	9,368,152	1,315,547,539
1930	1,330,505,897	11,750,135	8,549,854	1,350,805,886
1931	1,311,805,429	9,534,794	7,458,389	1,328,798,612
1932	1,628,738,003	11,240,564	8,467,753	1,648,446,320
1933	1,028,051,034	16,784,410	11,356,898	1,056,192,332
1934	1,057,338,553	7,869,235	13,178,332	1,078,386,119

#### Forestry and Afforestation

The surface of Taiwan is covered by mountains to the extent of almost two-thirds of its entire area, and the island is rich in thick forests of immense depth. Forest protection and afforestation are done on an approved system by the Government-General. The great mountain ranges running north to south with numerous peaks provide vegetation peculiar to temperate as well as to tropical and sub-tropical regions. The most renowned of the natural forests of Taiwan are those on the

mountains in the central ranges, from Taibysan in the south to the peninsula of Koshun; those on famous Mt. Arisan; those on Mt. Rokujodaisan in the north; and those on Mt. Seiran. Besides these, there are also extensive forests in the valleys of the River Dakusui and in some districts of Karenko. The total forest area in Taiwan is estimated approximately at 2,960,822 acres, 76,669 acres of government forests, 266,963 acres of protected forests, and 299,427 acres under afforestation. Building-timber, sleepers and other forest products turn-

ed out from the government forests amount to the annual value of ¥250,000. When the Portuguese first discovered the island, they were impressed with the immense expanse of forests and cried "Formosa!" signifying "beautiful." Reckless cutting of trees was done by Chinese immigrants and this, combined with the lack of adequate forest administration of the Manchu Dynasty, resulted in the devastation of forest districts. The Forest Bureau was established in 1915 and since then forest protection has been carried on in an approved manner by the Government-General.

**Timber Industry** The timber industry of the Arisan group is controlled by the Government-General. This famous mountain group is located east of Kagi in Tainan province and is on the Tropic of Cancer. It stands 9,240 feet high. It is covered with red cypress, Mongolian oak and hemlock. The former two kinds of wood are highly valued. There are many trees aged more than 3,000 years. Even the Imperial forest at Kiso in Nagano prefecture has few oaks of such great age. Timber used for the building of important shrines such as the Kashiwabara Shrine, dedicated to the memory of Jimmu Tenno, the first Emperor of Japan, the Imperial Mausolea at Momoyama for the Emperor Meiji and Empress Shoken, and the Meiji Shrine was grown on these mountains. The two great pillars constituting the torii of the Meiji Shrine are estimated to be 1,900 and 1,090 years old respectively. Both came from these mountains. The number of these valuable trees at the end of 1933 was 1,112,186. The Government-General spent ¥4,898,212 as initial outlay for the five years ending in 1912. This included ¥2,643,015 for railway construction, ¥1,200,000 as subsidy for Fujita Gumi, Osaka,

which temporarily undertook the enterprise for the Government-General, ¥1,052,869 as general expenses, and ¥2,327 for other purposes. Lumbering work started in 1912. Sales of lumber amounted to ¥1,586,458 for 1929; ¥1,366,296 for 1930; ¥1,210,274 for 1931; ¥1,061,852 for 1932 and ¥1,139,310 for 1933. The total amount of timber on Mt. Arisan is estimated at 6,073,970 cubic metres which may be divided into 2,948,590 c. m. of coniferous trees and 3,125,380 c. m. of broad-leaved trees. The lumber industry of Mt. Arisan also is noteworthy. This mountain is not far from Toyohara in Taichu province. Pine and spruce as well as cypress, hemlock, oak and other trees are produced there. Due to its dangerous location in the so-called savage district, the lumber industry on the mountain was undeveloped before the campaign against the aborigines was completed. The lumber industry on Mt. Taihei near Rato town in Taihoku province is considered one of the most promising of all in the island. Until 1913 the mountain was not exploited, because it was a stronghold of the most savage aboriginal tribe. The quantity of timber on the mountain is estimated at 14,159,000 cubic metres, nearly four times that of Mt. Arisan. Work started in 1915 and has so far realized satisfactory results. Sales of lumber totalled ¥1,327,865 for 1929; ¥1,135,780 for 1930; ¥1,038,067 for 1931, ¥905,705 for 1932 and ¥1,024,507 for 1933.

**How Disposed** Taiwan wood is not only used for shrine and temple construction, but for building of warships and merchant-ships. Demand from naval arsenals and dockyards is yearly increasing. Taiwan wood is exported to Japan proper, Korea, China, British India, South Africa, Australia and other places. Sales to the market in the island, Japan

proper and foreign countries from 1916, when the sales began, to 1933, follow:

	Amount (In cubic metres)	Value (In yen)
1916		
Sales in island	42,296	835,098
Sales to Japan	17,723	385,900
Sales abroad	911	24,556
Total	60,935	1,245,554
1929		
Sales in island	67,934	2,435,373
Sales to Japan	22,582	1,125,117
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	90,516	3,560,490
1930		
Sales in island	67,414	2,140,650
Sales to Japan	19,653	955,681
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	87,067	3,096,331
1931		
Sales in island	75,549	1,928,817
Sales to Japan	21,101	1,002,895
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	96,641	2,931,712
1932		
Sales in island	78,130	1,833,316
Sales to Japan	18,269	699,575
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	96,399	2,532,891
1933		
Sales in island	86,408	2,002,383
Sales to Japan	21,560	769,037
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	107,968	2,771,420

#### Aquatic Products

The seas about Taiwan are rich in various kinds of fish and shellfish, and the catches are especially

abundant in spring and autumn. Fishing is to a great extent still conducted in a primitive manner. There are, however, now 25 fishing companies having their headquarters in the island with an aggregate capitalization of ¥5,217,000 and four having their headquarters in Japan proper with a total capitalization of ¥56,050,000. There were 88 fish markets in the island at the end of March, 1933, and the total fish sales there during the year ending March 31 amounted to ¥10,269,000 and showed an increase of ¥1,560,000. The Takao Fish Market led the list. The Taiwanese are a fish-eating people, but the annual catch is so great that a large quantity is exported to Japan proper and other countries. Taiwan's marine product trade for 1933 amounted to ¥12,196,568, exclusive of salt, showing an increase of ¥507,943 over the previous year. Trade figures include exports abroad totalling ¥1,303,368, imports from abroad totalling ¥339,292, exports to Japan proper totalling ¥2,588,266 and imports from these districts totalling ¥7,965,642. The making of dried bonito is the largest marine products industry. The annual output of dried and canned marine products is worth about ¥1,900,000, half of which goes to the dried bonito production. The marine production of Taiwan follows:

	Catches	Manufacturing (In yen)	Cultivated fish production	Total
1921	5,943,217	1,665,125	2,153,856	9,762,198
1922	9,030,651	3,303,756	1,943,565	14,277,972
1925	10,225,692	2,822,618	3,326,298	16,374,608
1927	10,822,119	2,505,311	3,920,591	17,248,021
1928	12,670,180	2,706,623	3,401,779	18,778,582
1929	14,446,265	2,775,420	3,734,684	20,956,369
1930	11,771,144	1,793,273	3,142,981	16,707,398
1931	8,482,776	1,524,869	3,047,254	13,054,899
1932	9,197,468	1,545,164	3,130,800	13,873,432
1933	10,806,670	1,908,982	3,223,832	15,939,484



## Mineral Products

The principal mineral products of Taiwan are gold, silver, placer-gold, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, zinc, coal, petroleum, sulphur and phosphorus. The mine-lots at the end of March, 1933, numbered 593 with a total area of 173,596,842 tsubo, one tsubo being six feet square. Mines in operation numbered 168

covering an area of 78,474,656 tsubo. Of these 168 mines, 2 were gold mines, one gold-copper mine, 10 placer-gold mines, 132 coal mines, 11 sulphur mines and 13 oil fields. The mineral production for 1932 totalled ¥13,950,889, showing an increase of ¥613,099 over 1931. The mineral production in 1897 and during the last five years follows:

	1897	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932
			(In yen)			
Gold	—	377,362	625,422	636,456	722,733	1,681,592
Gold-copper ores	—	1,489,899	3,136,877	3,457,187	3,027,792	3,709,157
Placer-gold	8,805	10,497	11,047	9,421	11,611	57,017
Silver	—	13,879	12,997	10,790	10,003	16,632
Copper	—	88,398	67,655	154,799	174,419	294,388
Gold ores	—	—	69,551	81,401	70,750	—
Quicksilver	—	—	7,572	—	2,488	—
Coal	103,078	13,547,784	10,064,568	9,613,416	7,164,598	6,571,195
Sulphur	—	54,221	33,670	33,217	51,290	37,148
Phosphorous ores	—	—	—	2,448	648	—
Petroleum	—	730,021	434,735	331,304	263,631	245,944
Gasolene	—	201,240	382,598	760,729	1,797,275	994,003
Carbon black	—	—	—	—	43,532	205,527
Total	111,583	16,513,301	15,090,613	15,141,198	13,337,790	13,950,888

The Government-General conducted a mineral and geological investigation for eight years over the island following the introduction of civil administration in 1896. As a result, oil distribution was found almost all over the island. Subsidies were granted to those who had proper equipment for boring for oil to a depth of more than 2,000 feet. The subsidy was given from 1901 to 1924. It was then suspended, owing to financial reasons, but was resumed in 1930. Metal ores are found exclusively in the extreme north and the eastern district, coal in the northern and central parts and oil all over the island, especially in the central and southern districts. The mineral production in 1897 was only ¥112,000, but in 1907 it increased to ¥2,255,000, and in 1933 to as much as ¥13,950,888. Of this more than 50 per cent. was coal, gold-copper ores 23 per cent.; gasolene 13

per cent.; gold 5 per cent.; other minerals in smaller amounts in the following order: petroleum; copper, gold ores, sulphur, silver, placer-gold and phosphorous ores.

**Gold and Silver** Placer-gold was first discovered by Japanese invaders in Taiwan over 400 years ago, when Japanese pirates infested the neighbouring coasts of China. It was then got at Takkiri Gorge in Karenko district. In later years placer-gold was found in several localities, but at present the mining is conducted along the Keelung and other rivers. When the mining was most prosperous in 1903, the annual output reached 161 kan, one kan being 8.267 lb., valued at ¥610,000, but since then the industry has been sinking. The 1931 output was only 3.165 kan. A gold vein was first discovered at Mt. Kubu in 1893. In the following year gold deposits were found at Kinkwaseki and in

1891 another vein was discovered at Butanko. The gold mining interests at Butanko and Kinkwaseki was merged in 1913. The mining operation is done at Zuiho and Kinkwaseki. The Kinkwaseki mine is located about 10 miles east of Keelung.

It is managed and operated by the Tanaka Mining Company, Ltd. The mining area at the end of 1931 was 4,053,000 tsubo. It has its own refinery.

Production at the mine for three years ending 1932 follows:

		1930	1931	1932
Gold:	Output	233,681 grammes	226,534	208,844
	Value	¥310,717	301,043	433,241
Silver:	Output	383,700 grammes	96,199	426,639
	Value	¥8,591	7,961	11,858
Gold-copper ores:	Output	132,200 metric tons	95,476	108,809
	Value	¥3,457,187	3,027,792	3,709,157
Gold ores:	Output	1,249 metric tons	1,345	1,157
	Value	¥81,401	70,750	78,982
Precipitated copper:	Output	721,680 kilogrammes	1,383,709	1,620,124
	Value	¥154,799	174,419	294,388
Total Value		¥4,013,107	¥3,582,945	¥4,527,626

Fujita Gumi, Osaka, first operated the Zuiho Mine in 1898, but the enterprise was transferred to the Taiyo Mining Company in 1920. Busi-

ness has failed to realize satisfactory results. Its gold and silver output for three years follows:

		1930	1931	1932
Gold:	Output	281,828 grammes	315,518	569,749
	Value	¥325,769	420,690	1,238,051
Silver:	Output	87,911 grammes	119,235	180,968
	Value	¥2,209	2,062	4,774
Total value		¥327,978	422,753	1,242,825

**Other Minerals** The output of sulphur in Taiwan for 1932 amounted to ¥37,148 and that of quicksilver for the first six months of 1931 amounted to ¥2,488, but since then the mining operation has been at a standstill. The coal output for 1932 amounted to 1,354,995 tons, worth ¥6,571,195, showing a drop of ¥593,403 from 1931.

**Oil** Oil in Taiwan was discovered by a Chinese about 80 years ago at Shukotan, near the Koryu valley, over an area covering 599,670 tsubo. Since 1905, 71 oil wells have been sunk. Well No. 18 is the best of all. From 1913 to 1925 the oil output from this well totalled 53,205 koku, by the Nippon Sekiyu Kaisha (Japan Oil Company, Ltd.). Owing, how-

ever, to the concentration of energy on the exploitation of the Kinsui Oil Field by the company, the output has gone off from the daily output of 300 koku. Lamp oil, gasoline, light oil and paraffin are manufactured from crude oil obtained here. The oil refinery is in Byoritsu.

The production from the crude oil is gasoline, 5 per cent., lamp oil 85 per cent., heavy oil 8 per cent. and wax.

The Kinsui oil field is the most important one in Taiwan. It is operated by the Japan Oil Company. A government subsidy was paid to exploit wells No. 1 to No. 5. It took eleven years for well No. 5 to realize satisfactory results. Well No. 10 produced an enormous out-

put of 30,000,000 cubic feet a day in March, 1930, and a gasolene plant was installed there in November of the same year. When the capacity of the gasolene plants is fully developed, the daily output of gasolene will be 1,000 koku.

#### Other Industries

Prior to the World War, industries other than sugar and tea developed very little in the island. Since the War, however, chemical, spinning, machinery and other miscellaneous industries have developed to a considerable extent. The more important of them for 1933 follow:

	Yen
<b>Metal Industry:</b>	
Tin plates	1,469,000
Gold and silver works	1,688,000
<b>Machinery Industry:</b>	
Sugar refining machinery	3,464,000
Agricultural implements	1,123,000
<b>Ceramics Industry:</b>	
Tiles	2,172,000
Cement	3,870,000
<b>Chemical Industry:</b>	
Alcohol	4,277,000
Mineral oil and wax	1,282,000
Vegetable oils	1,211,000
Refined camphor	1,296,000
Mixed fertilizers	3,689,000
<b>Food Stuff Industry:</b>	
Soy sauce	1,843,000
Flour	2,057,000
Sugar	127,119,000
Confectioneries	4,658,000
Canned pineapples	6,173,000
Macaroni	2,635,000
Ice	1,261,000
Polished rice	1,038,000
<b>Miscellaneous Industries:</b>	
Woodworking	4,000,000
Hats	4,552,000
Others and total	207,700,000

Of the total 1932 industrial production amounting to ¥207,700,000, the foodstuff industry totalled ¥154,000,000, or 74 per cent., the

chemical industry ¥18,000,000, or 9 per cent., other industries ¥15,000,000, or 7 per cent., the ceramic industry ¥8,000,000, the mechanical and tool industry ¥5,400,000, the metal industry ¥4,000,000, and the spinning industry ¥2,700,000.

**Overseas Trade** The overseas trade of Taiwan, although it has experienced temporary set-backs from time to time, has made remarkable progress in recent years. The bulk of overseas trade is, however, with Japan proper, the rest being chiefly done with China, the United States, the Straits Settlements, the Dutch East Indies, the United Kingdom, Germany, British India, the Kwangtung Leased Territory and Hongkong. The trade is carried on principally through the four large ports of Keelung, Tamsui, Anping and Takao. As Keelung is the most important port of trade in the north, so is Takao in the south. The trade volume for 1898 amounted to ¥30,000,000 which increased to ¥50,000,000 in 1906, and, owing to the phenomenal growth of the sugar industry and import of sugar milling machinery, the amount went up to more than ¥100,000,000 in 1910. In 1917 the amount recorded a further gain to ¥234,000,000, due to active trade in sugar, alcohol and rice and heavy transit trade with China. An all-time record of ¥476,803,950 was made in the trade volume for 1929, but the amount declined sharply the following year, because of the universal economic depression, and in 1931 it went off still more though it somewhat regained in 1932. Taiwan's overseas trade since 1897 has been as follows:

#### OVERSEAS TRADE VOLUME

	Exports abroad and exports to Japan proper and its colonies	Imports from abroad and imports from Japan proper and its colonies (In yen)	Total	Index
1897	14,856,848	16,383,020	31,239,868	100
1902	21,131,769	19,335,822	40,467,591	130
1906	28,038,612	28,371,801	56,410,413	181
1910	59,962,255	48,923,289	108,885,544	349
1913	62,791,679	62,632,416	125,424,095	401
1916	112,347,948	65,021,600	177,369,548	568
1921	152,438,500	133,954,458	286,392,958	916
1925	263,214,651	186,395,340	449,609,991	1,439
1926	251,425,070	183,412,450	434,837,520	1,392
1927	246,676,284	186,948,387	433,624,671	1,388
1928	248,417,285	190,653,933	439,071,218	1,406
1929	271,893,266	204,910,684	476,803,950	1,526
1930	241,441,304	168,258,310	409,699,614	1,311
1931	220,872,866	145,622,123	366,494,989	1,173
1932	240,727,988	164,497,770	405,225,758	1,298
1933	248,413,329	185,888,938	433,802,267	1,389

#### TAIWAN FOREIGN TRADE

	Exports	Imports (In yen)	Total	Excess of imports
1901	8,234,097	12,809,975	21,044,072	4,575,878
1905	10,629,607	10,963,877	21,593,484	334,270
1909	11,687,576	12,591,470	24,279,046	903,894
1911	14,960,228	19,307,126	34,267,354	4,346,898
				(export excess)
1916	31,652,474	15,430,037	47,082,511	16,222,437
1921	23,541,621	40,433,290	63,974,911	16,891,669
1925	47,965,844	56,489,060	104,454,904	8,523,216
1926	49,315,487	62,007,666	111,323,153	12,692,179
1927	44,597,707	65,840,396	110,438,103	21,242,689
1928	33,895,688	58,335,729	92,231,417	24,440,041
1929	33,187,977	64,541,012	97,728,989	31,353,035
1930	22,807,963	45,131,193	67,939,159	22,323,230
1931	19,448,759	30,858,816	50,307,575	11,410,057
1932	18,045,250	31,040,823	49,086,073	12,995,573
1933	17,666,418	35,142,961	53,142,961	17,810,125

#### LIST OF PRINCIPAL EXPORTS

	(In ¥1,000)						
	Oolong tea	Pouchong tea	Camphor	Coal	Sugar	Cotton textiles	Matches
1901	2,996	505	789	134	1,031	382	14
1905	5,341	892	2,051	112	25	502	37
1909	4,301	1,506	4,377	92	2	342	57
1912	4,057	2,563	4,409	117	1,719	379	117
1916	3,936	2,323	4,669	400	11,327	419	1,910
1921	3,534	4,386	280	6,582	2,068	435	545
1925	5,220	6,172	3,609	7,448	5,887	497	518
1926	5,407	6,771	1,949	8,437	3,177	499	176
1927	5,102	6,454	1,895	6,174	2,550	496	458
1928	4,315	5,493	3,215	3,964	1,252	314	383
1929	3,423	5,765	1,653	3,308	453	230	231
1930	2,608	5,785	1,085	2,872	67	111	34
1931	2,350	4,489	1,586	2,295	2,356	80	155
1932	2,802	1,836	1,547	1,315	3,174	1,054	188
1933	2,894	1,816	2,962	1,530	563	363	210

Of the above, tea deserves special mention. In 1931 production of unrefined tea amounted to 16,037,678 kin, worth ¥3,228,822, and that of refined tea 14,959,584 kin, worth ¥8,323,837. Refined tea included ¥2,845,069 of Oolong tea, ¥5,071,499 of Pouchong tea, ¥392,165 of black tea, and ¥15,104 of green tea. The

tea is almost exclusively produced in Taihoku and Shinchiku provinces. Oolong tea is appreciated by Britishers and Americans. The largest amount goes to the United States and the second largest amount to Great Britain. Pouchong tea is shipped to the South Sea islands. Tea exports for 1933 follow:

	Exports abroad		Exports to Japan proper and colonies		Total	
	Quantity (In kin)	Value (In yen)	Quantity (In kin)	Value (In yen)	Quantity (In kin)	Value (In yen)
Oolong	6,654,677	2,894,245	8,493	8,604	6,673,170	2,602,849
Pouchong	3,672,614	1,816,576	375,332	116,521	4,047,946	1,933,097
Black tea	845,409	557,963	526,388	623,347	1,371,797	1,181,310
Green tea	471,463	97,598	—	—	471,463	97,598
Total including others	12,214,569	5,446,499	1,651,691	942,961	13,866,260	6,389,460

## LIST OF PRINCIPAL IMPORTS

	(In ¥1,000)						
	Opium	Leaf tobacco	Lamp oil	Gunny bags	Lumber	Matches	Bean cake
1901	2,310	242	841	21	430	74	74
1905	2,027	522	670	213	410	166	84
1909	2,379	650	785	307	428	346	422
1912	3,093	800	756	100	608	496	1,962
1916	3,724	460	554	448	330	746	3,078
1921	1,504	821	1,947	395	2,119	574	6,352
1925	2,816	810	1,307	2,794	1,711	1,233	16,777
1926	987	754	1,107	2,485	2,332	897	13,744
1927	837	910	1,395	2,411	2,692	596	12,289
1928	451	345	1,130	2,050	2,978	524	12,326
1929	1,081	283	1,484	2,834	2,946	689	12,757
1930	1,122	343	1,014	2,407	1,499	511	10,252
1931	1,128	275	636	1,652	1,103	527	7,354
1932	707	318	669	1,327	556	488	10,342
1933	148	582	534	2,718	283	501	11,593

## TAIWAN'S TRADE WITH JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

	(In yen)			
	Exports	Imports	Total	Balance
1902	7,407,498	9,235,290	16,642,788	1,827,792
1906	18,259,528	15,634,341	33,893,869	2,625,187
1909	36,309,500	24,006,803	60,316,303	12,302,697
1912	47,831,451	43,325,290	91,156,741	4,506,161
1916	80,695,474	49,591,563	130,287,037	31,103,911
1920	181,091,635	112,070,364	293,161,999	69,021,271
1921	128,896,879	93,521,168	222,418,047	35,375,711
1925	215,248,807	129,906,280	345,155,087	85,342,527
1926	202,109,583	121,404,784	323,514,367	80,704,799
1927	202,078,577	121,107,991	323,186,568	80,970,586
1928	214,521,597	132,318,204	346,839,801	82,203,593
1929	238,705,289	140,369,672	379,074,961	98,335,617
1930	218,633,341	123,127,117	341,760,458	95,505,234
1931	201,424,107	114,763,307	316,187,414	86,660,800
1932	222,682,788	133,456,947	356,139,685	89,225,791
1933	230,746,911	149,912,395	380,659,306	80,834,516

## LEADING EXPORTS TO JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

	(In ¥1,000)						
	Rice	Sugar	Canned pineapples	Camphor	Camphor oil	Alcohol	Bananas
1902	1,608	3,172	—	869	921	—	—
1906	7,133	8,506	18	600	1,190	—	—
1909	8,779	33,001	—	—	1,610	111	155
1912	10,260	28,134	—	1,008	1,561	1,502	336
1916	6,960	51,685	—	1,602	2,313	7,686	1,054
1920	19,294	84,709	—	1,517	1,976	5,801	4,156
1925	72,110	105,651	—	2,087	2,468	3,854	9,096
1926	63,002	98,375	—	1,618	2,976	4,081	10,900
1927	67,885	96,430	3,145	1,078	1,887	3,616	8,616
1928	53,229	121,413	2,604	1,572	1,757	3,602	8,614
1929	49,320	142,601	4,407	2,612	3,040	3,505	8,419
1930	38,695	141,865	3,481	1,255	2,422	2,592	8,369
1931	41,097	120,475	4,157	766	1,824	3,054	8,329
1932	63,074	121,718	5,151	963	2,062	2,975	6,982
1933	64,627	118,614	4,791	1,174	1,554	5,455	7,899

## LEADING IMPORTS FROM JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

	(In ¥1,000)						
	Wheat flour	Dried and salt fish	Iron	Cotton and silk tissues	Paper	Lumber	Fertilizers
1902	57	98	235	1,065	223	705	8
1906	—	324	—	2,121	384	1,131	59
1909	—	1,567	—	2,586	492	1,692	1,060
1912	—	3,053	—	5,016	838	2,939	1,524
1916	—	3,667	—	5,775	1,157	1,158	3,990
1920	—	4,920	—	7,736	2,363	3,066	4,355
1925	—	5,905	—	15,708	3,422	2,194	6,691
1926	—	6,056	5,764	19,805	3,065	3,395	4,745
1927	2,983	6,135	8,126	14,942	2,989	4,044	4,138
1928	2,985	5,498	8,695	15,077	3,237	4,822	4,692
1929	3,128	6,547	9,087	16,873	3,567	5,807	5,170
1930	2,374	4,032	7,901	13,394	3,254	4,535	5,832
1931	2,011	3,412	7,343	13,596	3,233	4,216	4,319
1932	2,716	3,253	8,013	13,358	3,470	5,491	7,745
1933	2,710	3,535	10,458	15,105	3,970	6,276	11,225

## Finance

The Bank of Taiwan is invested with authority to issue notes. This bank was founded in September, 1899, replacing the Taiwan Agency of the Bank of Japan. The bank was capitalized at ¥5,000,000 when it was founded. After 1920 its capitalization was increased to ¥60,000,000, but in September, 1925, it was cut to ¥45,000,000 and further to ¥15,000,000 in November, 1927, due to its readjustment following the great financial panic of the spring of 1927. The head office is in Taihoku and it has 31 branches and one agency in Japan and abroad. The Japan Hypothec Bank maintains

its real estate business in Taiwan and the outstanding balance of its loan in the island at the end of 1933 amounted to ¥79,890,000. The aggregate capitalization of banks having their head offices in the island at the end of 1933 was ¥28,300,000, of which ¥20,670,000 was paid up. The balance of deposits at the end of 1933 was ¥132,260,000, of which savings deposits totalled ¥9,410,000, and the outstanding balance of loans totalled ¥246,690,000. Exchange deals for the 1933-34 fiscal year totalled ¥843,940,000 for income and ¥779,420,000 for payment. The balance of note issue of the Bank of Taiwan at the end of 1933 totalled

¥48,990,000, of which excess issue was ¥5,220,000.

**Government-General Finance** The finance of the Taiwan Government-General has become independent from subsidization by the general accounts of the Central Government since the 1905-06 fiscal year, owing to favourable income following the Russo-Japanese War. In 1897 the revenue was about 11 million yen. In 1907, 10 years after the establishment of special accounts in Taiwan, the revenue increased to three times that amount; in 1917, after 10 more years, to six times; in 1927, to 12 times; and in 1929 to 13 times the first figure. Revenue and expenditure follow:

	Revenue (in yen)	Expenditure
1897	11,283,265	10,487,610
1907	35,295,772	27,709,751
1917	65,425,496	46,166,558
1927	138,626,630	101,533,285
1929	150,420,607	122,295,326
1930	129,757,760	109,970,831
1931	115,972,147	99,060,019
1932	120,803,279	97,240,295
1933	180,812,152	102,220,615
1934 (budget)	110,821,261	110,821,261

**Bonds** Expenses required for enterprises such as the railway construction, land investigation, Keelung harbour construction, building of government offices, river work, Takao harbour construction, and purchase of private railways were raised by bonds. The outstanding balance of bonds in 1900 was ¥3,200,000, which increased to ¥34,465,399 in 1910, ¥94,213,038 in 1925, ¥106,946,733 in 1927 and ¥126,331,288 at the end of 1933.

#### Monopolies

The products of Taiwan, opium, salt, camphor, tobacco, and saké are placed under monopoly of the Taiwan Government-General.

**Opium** The Taiwan Chinese, mostly natives, were addicted to opium

smoking when Japan assumed ownership of the island. It was found impossible to eradicate the habit at once, and in order to limit the use of the drug a government monopoly, controlling the manufacture, sale and retail distribution of opium, was established. Smokers are registered and have to obtain a licence to buy the drug. In this way and also through education of the rising generation the vice is being gradually eliminated. The total names registered in September, 1900, reached 169,064, of those to whom the licences were granted. The number of licenced smokers at the end of 1932 had decreased to 19,532, of whom 16,532 were males and 3,254 females. The Chinese people who smoke opium on licence at the end of 1932 numbered 191, of whom 174 were males. Japan, in conformity with the spirit of the League of Nations' International Opium Treaty, has been endeavouring to stamp out the bad habit of opium smoking and has realized satisfactory results so far.

There are two forms of opium, viz., "treacle-opium" for smoking, and powder; the latter is sold only for medicinal purposes. Raw material obtained from poppies is imported from British India, Persia and Turkey. The Persian products are widely used now. Sales to licensed smokers are made by the Monopoly Bureau to specially designated wholesalers through provincial and district governments. The sales price to these wholesalers is ¥1.61 per 15 grammes, that from wholesalers to retailers is ¥1.63 and that from retailers to consumers is ¥1.77. 15 grammes is the maximum amount that one smoker is permitted to buy at one time: this must last him for three days.

Sales have been decreasing yearly as follows:

	Quantity	Total sales
1902	130,723,125 grammes	¥3,008,286
1906	87,090,750	4,359,497
1910	80,320,875	4,844,534
1913	85,325,500	5,259,495
1918	76,326,750	6,650,764
1922	51,558,000	5,449,345
1930	38,095,125	4,010,655
1931	31,536,625	3,820,071
1932	25,136,075	3,819,388
1933	21,553,200	2,350,363

**Salt** This was monopolized in 1899 by the Government-General. In former days the fields were only 197 ha. producing about 10,800,000 kg. a year, but in 1933 they were increased to 1,878 ha., producing 191,000,000 kg. Sales of salt in 1905 were only ¥557,876, which increased to ¥2,718,840 for 1933.

**Camphor** Taiwan maintains a monopoly on the cutting, distillation and selling of camphor. The island is rich in camphor trees, particularly in what are known as the "savage districts", and is the greatest camphor-producing country in the world. For many years after it came into Japan's possession, the production of camphor was a free industry, but the necessity of improving the quality compelled the Government-General to assume monopoly in 1899. The camphor production amounts to about 3,000,000 kilogrammes a year, which represents 70 per cent. of the world's production. The manufacturing of camphor and camphor oil used to be entrusted to the Taiwan Seino Kaisha, but in July, 1934, the Government-General purchased it and now places the production and sales of their articles under its direct control. The improved B-quality camphor is sold by the monopoly bureau as material for refined camphor or celluloid. Refined oil is directly sold by the bureau in Taiwan, but in Japan it is sold to industrialists through the Japanese Government Monopoly Bureau. It is exported

abroad on consignment mostly to the United States, Great Britain and other countries. The United States is the largest consumer. The sales price of improved B-quality for 1932 was ¥145.50 per kilogramme f.o.b. Taihoku and ¥148 f.o.b. Kobé. By-products are widely used for making insecticides. As the demand for camphor increases yearly, the Taiwan Monopoly Bureau is carrying out a camphor-tree plantation plan covering an area of 135,246 acres, for the production from natural-grown trees is expected shortly to become too small to meet the future demand. The annual proceeds from the camphor monopoly average nearly ¥12,000,000. The United States used to buy about ¥2,400,000 of camphor a year, but the export amount has decreased somewhat in recent years, owing to the invention of synthetic camphor.

**Tobacco** The tobacco monopoly in Taiwan dates from 1905. At the beginning of the monopoly the quality of tobacco grown in Taiwan was so poor that the leaves had to be imported from China. Efforts were made by the authorities for the improvement of native-grown leaves. Now tobacco cultivated in Taiwan is not inferior to Chinese tobacco. In addition to the Chinese variety, a successful experiment has been made in the cultivation of an American yellow variety for cigarettes, and another for cigars. The area of tobacco plantation in Taiwan was about 776 ha. in 1933 and the crop of leaves about 1,535,689 kg. The proceeds of tobacco monopoly for the fiscal year 1906-07 totalled ¥1,492,284, which increased to ¥11,531,850 for the year 1921-22, ¥16,275,916 for the year 1929-30, but declined to ¥14,465,962 for the year 1931-32, advancing to ¥15,247,299 for the 1932-33 year.

**Saké and other drinks** These have

been placed under monopoly since 1922. The sales of saké and other alcoholic drinks under the monopoly are not restricted to those made in Taiwan only, but include all drinks imported from Japan proper and other countries. Drinks now brewed in Taiwan are of 31 kinds besides saké. The saké monopoly furnishes a large source of revenue for the Government-General and brings in about ¥5,000,000 a year, of which the

tax on alcohol totals ¥2,000,000 and that on alcoholic drinks ¥3,000,000.

#### Railways

At the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan there was a 62-mile railway between Keelung and Shinchiku. Railway construction was undertaken by the Government-General subsequently and now the total mileage is 881 km. The railway receipts are as follows:

Fiscal year	Passenger fares	Freight receipts (In ¥1,000)	Others	Total	Indices
1900-01	214	127	1	342	100
1906-07	1,062	1,138	9	2,209	643
1916-17	2,575	3,544	44	6,163	1,455
1922-23	5,616	6,541	—	12,157	3,540
1926-27	7,488	9,711	—	17,199	5,008
1927-28	8,002	10,644	—	18,646	5,428
1928-29	8,277	11,420	—	19,697	5,735
1929-30	8,840	11,915	—	20,264	5,900
1930-31	7,720	11,391	—	19,111	5,564
1931-32	6,897	11,367	—	18,264	5,317
1932-33	7,109	11,742	—	18,851	5,488
1933-34	7,468	11,862	—	19,331	5,628

#### PRIVATE RAILWAY STATISTICS IN TAIWAN

##### Railways

	Mileage (in km.)	Passenger fares (in ¥ 1,000)	Freight receipts	Others & total	Indices for income
1707-08	120	50,120	34,900	85,194	100
1922-23	478	779,567	1,274,828	2,067,510	2,428
1926-27	525	986,557	2,060,641	3,089,685	3,627
1928-29	551	993,761	2,302,948	3,326,098	3,904
1929-30	554	929,023	2,345,612	3,308,648	3,884
1930-31	542	775,164	2,168,499	3,001,102	3,534
1931-32	530	544,704	1,752,781	2,332,097	3,737
1932-33	534	460,706	1,913,548	2,406,931	2,825
1933-34	502	453,595	1,499,054	1,998,246	2,346

##### Light Railways

	Mileage (in km.)	Passenger fares (In ¥1,000)	Freight receipts	Total	Indices for income
1907-08	267	—	—	—	100
1922-23	880	807	1,223	2,030	608
1926-27	1,022	962	1,543	2,505	751
1928-29	1,162	945	1,652	2,597	778
1929-30	1,329	867	1,551	2,418	727
1930-31	1,327	688	1,357	2,045	613
1931-32	1,367	562	1,096	1,658	497
1932-33	1,325	520	1,049	1,569	470
1933-34	1,247	521	1,129	1,650	494

#### Electricity

The Taiwan Electric Power Company, Ltd., was established in April, 1919, under ordinance of the Taiwan Government-General. The Government-General appraised all of its electric assets at ¥12,000,000 and offered them to the company. The Government-General owns the company's shares to that amount, being the largest shareholder. The company started a gigantic power-generating undertaking, utilizing the

water of Lake Jitsugetsutan, in August of the same year, but, owing to the subsequent financial depression, the work was suspended. In 1929 the resumption of work was decided on and the necessary amount, \$22,800,000 (¥45,737,211) was raised in America in July, 1931, on Government guarantee. Work was actually resumed in October of the same year on a three-year plan. Taiwan's electric enterprises at the end of 1933, are summarized as follows:

Companies	Capitalization	Lamps fitted	Powers supplied kw.	Fans fitted
Taiwan Electric Power	¥34,495,000	578,657	19,301	27,857
Taiwan Electric Light	1,500,000	67,418	1,903	1,823
Taiwan Godo Electric	2,000,000	26,297	564	369
Karenko Electric	1,240,000	11,125	445	209
Koshun Electric	100,000	1,241	—	—
Nansho Electric	8,500	154	—	—
Total	39,343,500	684,892	22,213	30,258

#### Principal Cities

Taihoku Taihoku is the capital city of Taiwan. It is situated on the Tamsui River, near the northern extremity of the island. Formerly it consisted of three districts, Jonai, Daitotei and Manka, but with the introduction of the municipal system in 1920, all the surrounding villages were included in the greater Taihoku, and at present the city covers an area of about 15 square miles, embracing a population of 196,000, including 54,000 Japanese, 128,000 natives and 13,000 foreigners, mostly Chinese residents. In Jonai are found the important public buildings, such as the official residence of the Governor-General, and many governmental buildings. Most of the Japanese residents live in this district. Daitotei is the commercial centre. It is inhabited by more than 63,000 people and is renowned for its tea trade. Manka

is situated close by the Tamsui River, west of Jonai. This district was formerly the most flourishing part of the city. During the Manchu Dynasty its commercial supremacy was transferred to Daitotei. This district is populated by 37,000 inhabitants. There are many places of interest in and around Taihoku, of which the more famous are:

**TAIWAN SHRINE** This shrine is situated at a point two miles east of Taihoku. The sanctuary is built in the old Japanese style. In the neighbourhood is the noted Maruyama park commanding a very fine view.

**THE RAPIDS OF SHINTEN KEI** Situated at a point about 8 miles from Taihoku and at the confluence of the two rivers of Shinten-Kei, the rapids are among the chief attractions for visitors to Taiwan. On both sides stand out precipices. Shooting the rapids by boat affords a favourite pastime.

**Tamsui** This is one of the four great ports of trade. It is located 13 miles north of Taihoku. About one mile west from Tamsui station lies the ruins of an old Khomoh castle, built by the Spaniards in 1626.

**Keelung** This is the starting-point of the railway which runs from north to south throughout the whole length of the island. The city with its 62,000 inhabitants extends as far as Taihoku covering a distance of 18 miles. Keelung is not only a port for liners from Japan proper, but is an important port for those sailing to and from south China and the South Seas. Keelung was once occupied by Spaniards and afterwards by the Dutch, and was under the control of the Manchu Dynasty. About 1.5 miles distant from Keelung is located the famous Courbet Beach, where the French Admiral Courbet, in command of the French Asiatic Squadron consisting of 15 warships, landed during the Franco-Chinese War in 1884. This admiral was one of the victims of infectious disease, which claimed a heavy toll among

his men. He died on Boko Island where his tomb still stands.

**Taichu** Located about 100 miles south of Taihoku in the centre of rice production. It is the seat of the provincial government of the same name, with a population of 42,000. Lake Jitsugetsutan is in this province.

**Kagi** Kagi has a population of 44,800 and is situated 163 miles south of Taihoku. Kagi is the starting point for climbers of Mt. Arisan.

**Tainan** Tainan has a population of 85,000, being the second largest port of Taiwan. Kaizan Shrine is dedicated to the spirit of Chen Cheng-kung, a loyal subject in the last days of the Ming Dynasty, who came over to this island, drove out the Dutch settlers, and opened war against the Manchu Dynasty, but failed.

**Takao** Takao has a population of 45,000. Terminus of the central railway line, situated at a distance of 229 miles from Taihoku, this port is as important in the south as Keelung is in the north.

## CHAPTER XLII

### KARAFUTO (SAGHALIEN)

#### General Survey

**Geography** Karafuto is a long island situated in the extreme north of the Empire of Japan along the Maritime Province of Siberia, and separated from it by the Mamiya Straits. The eastern coast is washed by the cold waters of the Sea of Okhotsk, which is bordered by the mainland of Siberia on the north, the Kamchatka Peninsula on the east, and the Chishima Islands (the Kuriles) on the south-east. Japanese Karafuto is the southern half of Saghalien Island, the dividing line being the 50th parallel of latitude; the northern half of the island is under the jurisdiction of Soviet Russia.

At the extreme southern end of the island lies Cape Nishi-Notoro. On the east or opposite side of it, across the Aniwa Gulf, is Cape Nakashirutoko, and embraced by these two capes is the port of Ohtomari at the northern extremity of the Gulf, which is an important port connecting with Wakkanai the extreme northern port of Hokkaido, across the Soya Straits. The traffic connection between Ohtomari and Wakkanai is maintained by freight boats run by the Imperial government railways.

Beyond Cape Nakashirutoko lies

Taraka Bay, on the farther side of which Cape Kitashirutoko runs out to the north-east. Thus, Karafuto is deeply indented by the two large gulfs, Aniwa and Taraka, the latter lying to the north-east of the former. The island has two mountain ranges running parallel from north to south with the plains hemmed in between. The total area of Karafuto is 36,090.3 sq. km., the length being 455.6 km. and the breadth from 27.5 at the narrowest to 157 km. at the widest.

**Climate** The months which enjoy an average temperature above the freezing point are the seven months from April to October. The coldest month is January and the warmest August. The temperature rises suddenly as the thawing season approaches and falls abruptly when the snows set in. The western coast is warmer than the eastern owing to the warm ocean current. The island is, as a whole, high in humidity on account of the frequency of sea fogs, except for the southern point of the western coast, but in both spring and autumn it decreases. Rainfall is most abundant in the summer and autumn seasons.

**Population** The great majority of the population of Karafuto is Japanese. The following table shows the racial distribution at the end of 1933:

POPULATION BY RACE OR NATIONALITY

Japanese	Korean	Ainu	Other Natives	Chinese	German	Polish	Russian	Total
233,168	5,043	1,354	483	59	2	16	173	300,298

POPULATION IN CHIEF TOWNS  
(Dec. 31, 1933)

Toyohara	33,474	Shirutoru	18,877	Hontocho	10,590	Tomarioru	10,459
Ohtomari	30,561	Eautoru	21,043	Maoka	16,161	Rutaka	10,168
Shikuka	17,567	Ochiai	17,567				

**Administration** The chief administrative office of Karafuto is the Karafuto government and the governor is under direct control of the Minister of Overseas Affairs, but the powers of the former are far wider than those of a governor in the home land, as it extends over mining, forestry, taxation, railways and the postal service. The governmental work of Karafuto is subdivided into four main offices, i. e., Secretariat, Interior Bureau, Forestry Bureau and Police Bureau. The revenue budget of 1934 amounted to ¥25,929,056, of which ¥21,392,488 was from taxes and others, and the rest from various government undertakings and loans to the extent of ¥3,500,000.

**Finance**

The revenue of the Karafuto government is derived from taxes

and other sources of income as well as an annual replenishment from the ordinary account of the national treasury. The principal taxes are:— the town homestead tax, income tax, business profit tax, liquor-brewing tax, liquor-export tax, consumption tax, mining business tax, and fishery tax. The revenue from all these taxes was, in the 1932-33 budget, estimated at ¥1,401,871. The revenue, other than from taxes, consists of receipts from the sales of stamps, railway traffic and freight charges, medical treatment charges at governmental hospitals, charges receivable at the Central Experiment Station, receipts from the sales of trees felled in the state forests, rents of homesteads and various Government buildings and loans. Below is given a brief fiscal history of the Karafuto government:

## REVENUES (Yen)

	Taxes and non-tax elements	Replenishment from national treasury	Sum brought forward	Loans	Total
1907	1,037,046	629,406	—	—	1,666,452
1908	763,542	629,406	454,464	—	1,847,412
1909	1,061,424	500,500	277,956	—	1,839,881
1910	1,229,705	544,714	260,524	—	2,034,943
1911	1,369,045	570,657	137,479	—	2,077,181
1912	1,534,991	591,819	169,949	—	2,296,759
1913	2,062,574	389,291	219,032	—	2,670,897
1914	1,548,743	323,575	392,901	—	2,265,219
1915	1,495,046	323,575	191,191	—	2,009,812
1916	2,058,576	293,575	329,255	—	2,681,406
1917	2,619,315	323,575	829,563	—	3,772,453
1918	2,936,793	—	1,663,970	1,091,000	5,692,763
1919	3,570,658	300,000	2,720,110	1,173,500	7,764,268
1920	5,221,674	770,000	2,022,404	3,381,209	11,395,291
1921	7,057,103	1,438,000	3,109,807	4,173,290	15,775,200
1922	8,386,012	1,100,000	3,707,623	7,607,920	20,801,555
1923	12,436,861	1,786,000	2,753,969	4,475,436	21,452,266
1924	15,772,056	1,000,000	2,168,245	416,218	19,357,520
1925	16,000,305	900,000	78,454	1,700,000	18,678,759
1926	18,339,308	1,577,343	618,814	1,786,562	22,322,027
1927	18,414,702	2,029,635	4,587,927	1,845,052	26,877,316

	Taxes and non-tax elements	Replenishment from national treasury	Sum brought forward	Loans	Total
1928	21,963,885	2,029,635	6,894,976	1,857,924	32,646,370
1929	22,280,159	3,100,000	6,955,100	4,569	32,339,827
1930	21,192,064	1,600,000	3,752,468	—	25,544,532
1931	22,944,655	1,600,000	79,231	1,500,000	26,123,936
1932	19,001,609	1,600,000	826,744	1,000,000	22,428,353
1933 (estimates)	17,579,022	1,600,000	787,646	3,500,000	23,566,668
1934 ..	21,392,488	1,000,000	36,568	3,500,000	25,929,056

## EXPENDITURES

1907	1,211,968
1908	1,569,455
1909	1,578,857
1910	1,897,465
1911	1,907,231
1912	2,077,577
1913	2,278,046
1914	2,073,933
1915	1,680,657
1916	1,851,843
1917	2,108,483
1918	2,972,651
1919	5,741,865
1920	8,285,484
1921	12,065,581
1922	18,047,589
1923	19,284,026
1924	19,279,065
1925	19,059,946
1926	17,784,099
1927	19,982,340
1928	25,601,270
1929	28,587,359
1930	24,629,293
1931	26,123,936
1932	22,428,353
1933	23,566,668
1934	25,929,056

## Monetary Organs

The principal monetary organs in the island are the Hokkaido Colonial Bank and the Karafuto Bank. The former is represented by its branches at Toyohara, Ohtomari, Maoka, Honto, Noda, Tomarioru, Ochiai, Shirutoru, Shisuka and Rutaka; its head office being located at Sapporo, Hokkaido. The business operation of the bank in the island at the end of June, 1933 showed deposits amounting to ¥16,585,702 and loans advanced to ¥15,390,225. The Karafuto Bank is the only one having its head office in the island, its deposits totalling ¥2,150,869 and loans advanced ¥3,496,138 on the same date. The bank came into existence in May, 1914, with a capital stock of ¥500,000 which was increased to ¥2,000,000 in March, 1919. The Karafuto Bank

has its head office at Ohtomari and a branch at Maoka. The two banks are doing good work for the development of the island. Beside these banks there is a special bank which has a branch at Toyohara, and that is the Hokumon Savings Bank. This savings bank branch was opened on April 1, 1922. Its local business operation showed at the end of June, 1933, advances figured at ¥183,221 and deposits at ¥677,578.

## Military Training Camps

The military training camps ordinance was promulgated in April, 1926, providing for the establishment of camps for the military drilling of youths below the conscription age. The ordinance, however, was not promulgated in the oversea territories, the only exception being Karafuto, where the local authorities in view of the almost complete lack of nationalistic social work in operation and of the smallness in the number of non-Japanese elements in the population, issued an order in May of the same year, making possible the growth of the military drilling work for the youths. Below is shown the present status of the work so far carried on:

## MILITARY TRAINING CAMPS

Town	Number of Camps	Attendants
Toyohara	8	238
Ohtomari	7	249
Honto	5	146
Maoka	7	351
Tomarioru	7	164
Motodomari	3	115
Shisuka	4	81
Total	41	1,344

## Overseas Trade

The history of the overseas trade of Karafuto since 1905 is a history of steady expansion, though it under-

went a frequent recession in the course of those 27 years. The table below illustrates the trend in a more graphic way:

Year	To Foreign Countries (Yen)	To Japan proper (Yen)	Total (Yen)
1927	755,135	90,193,622	90,948,757
1928	937,710	97,000,380	97,938,090
1929	2,042,652	103,034,631	105,077,283
1930	2,335,126	82,140,506	84,475,632
1931	841,655	80,233,395	81,075,050
1932	274,447	92,626,343	92,900,790

## SHIPMENTS TO AND FROM JAPAN PROPER

Year	Outward-bound (Yen)	Inward-bound (Yen)	Total (Yen)	Excess of Outward-bound (Yen)
1927	48,740,882	41,453,240	90,193,622	7,287,142
1928	50,915,329	46,085,051	97,000,380	4,830,278
1929	56,888,752	46,645,879	103,034,631	9,742,878
1930	46,812,144	35,328,362	82,140,506	11,483,782
1931	50,984,560	29,248,535	80,233,395	21,736,325
1932	63,510,076	29,116,267	92,626,343	34,393,809

Principal shipments to Japan proper in 1933 consisted of pulp, lumber, paper, marine fertilizer, salt-salmon, salt-codfish, dried herring, dried codfish, fish oil, edible seaweed and canned crabs. Principal shipments from Japan proper during the same year consisted of rice, cotton goods, oils, beer, saké, oats, peas and beans, salt, sugar, soy (Japanese sauce), miso (bean paste), tobacco, fish and shellfish, vegetables, fruits, and mineral products.

## Trade with Foreign Countries

The ports open to foreign trade in Karafuto are Ohtomari and Mooka. The countries with which Karafuto entered into trade relations first were Chosen, China, and Eastern Russia. In 1923 the Kwantung Province was brought into trade contact with the island. Two years later there grew up commercial intercourse with Britain, America and Germany, and then in 1926 Spain, Belgium, the Dutch Indies and Egypt became customers of Karafuto. In 1910 the total exports amounted to ¥106,809 and the total imports to

¥307,979. The exports, however, gradually diminished until in 1917 they very nearly ceased. That year saw the same shrinkage in imports also, so that the returns in that year for both the export and import trade showed only ¥68,059. From that point, however, the tide ceased to ebb. A gradual improvement set in after 1918 and the flowing tide recorded a sudden increase in 1919 which reached ¥879,828 in 1921. The imports in that year were only ¥44,725. For some years after, however, somewhat adverse results were recorded. In 1926 the imports were ¥986,914 and the exports ¥2,612, but this adverse tide was increasingly reversed and readjusted as the years went on and the turning point was reached when, in 1929, the exports made a big stride to ¥1,323,407 as against ¥719,245 for imports. In 1930 the exports were ¥1,987,608 and the imports ¥347,518 and in 1931 the exports amounted to ¥635,660, as against the imports which amounted to ¥205,994. The following table contains further detailed information.

## EXPORT TRADE OF KARAFUTO

	1928 (Yen)	1929 (Yen)	1930 (Yen)	1931 (Yen)	1932 (Yen)	1933 (Yen)
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	—	—	81,834
Soviet Russia	155	—	—	—	—	8,000
China	82,075	948,708	1,739,906	635,650	898	—
Kwantung Province	116,978	374,699	247,540	10	4,347	18,049
America and European Countries	—	—	162	—	212	—
Total	199,208	1,323,407	1,987,608	635,660	8,558	107,883

## IMPORT TRADE OF KARAFUTO

	1928 (Yen)	1929 (Yen)	1930 (Yen)	1931 (Yen)	1932 (Yen)	1933 (Yen)
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	—	—	1,340
Soviet Russia	1,599	5,961	54,553	2,851	192	5,413
China	27,278	32,318	1,781	—	76	—
Kwantung Province	259,135	208,748	91,176	97,121	76,679	126,069
America and European Countries	450,490	472,218	200,008	106,022	188,267	126,293
Total	738,502	719,245	347,518	205,994	265,889	259,205

## EXCESS OF IMPORTS OVER EXPORTS

1926 (Yen)	1927 (Yen)	1928 (Yen)	1929 (Yen)	1930 (Yen)	1931 (Yen)	1932 (Yen)	1933 (Yen)
984,303	702,431	539,294	—	—	—	257,331	—

## EXCESS OF EXPORTS OVER IMPORTS

1926 (Yen)	1927 (Yen)	1928 (Yen)	1929 (Yen)	1930 (Yen)	1931 (Yen)	1932 (Yen)	1933 (Yen)
—	—	—	604,162	1,640,090	429,666	—	—

## Agriculture

There was practically no agriculture in Karafuto prior to its cession to Japan in 1905. No sooner had it passed into Japan's possession than vigorous steps were taken for the reclamation work of all arable lands. Today the annual farm production reaches approximately ¥3,000,000, farm workers 46,364 and arable lands over 400,000 hectares. Yet the lands under actual cultivation cover only 30,000 hectares, which shows that there is still room to accommodate more farming inhabitants. The chief agricultural products are grains, peas and beans, potatoes and green vegetables, and of the grains oats and rye are most abundantly produced. Keeping live-stock goes hand in hand with agri-

culture in the island, for it is by pasturing that the livelihood of the agricultural settlers is made more stable. Every assistance is, therefore, being given by the Karafuto government to live-stock raising. Cattle, horses, swine and foxes are the principal animals kept, with some sheep, rabbits, chickens, ducks, etc. In 1931 the total live-stock product amounted in money value to ¥1,020,203, just one-half of the entire value of farm products.

## Mineral Products

**Coal** The most important mineral product in the island is coal and next to it comes petroleum. The coal producing centres are divided into the northern, southern and central districts. The coal bed is of the tertiary formation consisting of up-



per, middle and lower measures. Of the three coal districts the central is the largest and belongs to the lower measure. It runs for 100 kilometres from north to south and has a breadth of from 2 to 5 kilometres. A portion of the southern coal field along the western coast and the greater portion of the northern and eastern coal fields belong to the upper measure. On the north-western coast there are several im-

portant coal fields belonging to the middle measure. The upper measure belongs to the Pliocene and the middle and the lower to the Eocene Period.

At the end of 1933 there were 14 coal fields under operation of an aggregate area of 97,915,360 square metres as against 6 coal-fields of a total area of 23,562,593 sq. metres in 1921. The following table shows the general trend of the increase :

Year	Number of coalfields	Area (sq. m.)	Quantity	Value (Yen)
1921	6	23,562,593	115,255	1,323,512
1922	6	23,562,593	114,547	1,338,199
1923	6	23,562,593	167,304	1,809,422
1924	9	32,030,708	190,385	2,255,713
1925	7	34,413,720	250,615	2,737,970
1926	11	36,982,549	245,220	2,712,289
1927	12	37,470,086	357,046	3,553,731
1928	12	49,626,496	539,481	4,897,989
1929	11	46,923,352	635,515	5,743,322
1930	14	97,915,360	644,963	5,823,177
1931	—	—	637,962	5,349,915
1932	—	—	677,389	5,200,889

Of all the coal mines that of Kawakami used to be the most productive, though now superseded by O-hira mine. Its annual output coming up to 175,875 metric tons in 1932 and 190,210 tons in 1933. The O-hira mine had an annual production of 204,277 tons in 1932 and 290,901 tons in 1933. The Kawakami Mine extends over about 800 hectares located at a distance of 32 km. from Toyohara and is owned and operated by

the Mitsui Mining Company, Ltd. The O-hira Mine is operated by the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd. The mine is located at a point about 15 km. north-east of Esudori. Other large coal mines are the Shirutoru, Osakayé, Higashi-Shiraura, Kashiho, Amauchi, Naihoro, Estoru, Chitosé, Mita and Tokai. It is of interest to note from the figures below how the coal-mining work is gaining in importance in the island :

#### COAL PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION

(Metric tons)

	Production	Shipments from Japan proper	Imports	Exports to Japan proper and foreign countries	Local consumption
1926	275,819	79,327	20,000	6,200	368,946
1927	357,046	49,901	19,953	8,388	418,512
1928	539,481	28,389	8,000	1,530	574,340
1929	635,515	22,469	4,935	16,380	646,539
1930	644,947	12,687	—	12,646	644,988
1931	637,962	3,960	—	38,079	603,843
1932	677,389	241	—	51,833	625,797
1933	888,907	—	—	—	—

As shown above, so far as the supply of coal is concerned, Karafuto has now become practically self-supporting. Its entire coal reserves are said to be approximately 2,000 million metric tons. It must be remembered that the coal mining business in the homeland (Japan proper) is becoming increasingly difficult to run on a paying basis. The situation in Karafuto is different. There in the island most of the coal mines are worked out in unified and large-scale bases, and the reserves are so large that it insures the continuance of paying operation for many long years to come.

Petroleum was first discovered at a point on the southwestern coast of Karafuto in 1907 when an official investigation was conducted, after which oil strata were discovered in the neighbourhood of Hontocho, Konotoro, Karabutsu, Maruyama and several other places. In 1930 digging operations were conducted over a total area of 23,204,106 square metres as against 13,344,900 square metres in 1929 and 10,000,800 square metres in 1925. The following shows the annual production :

Year	Amount (Ton)
1920	154,293
1921	115,255
1922	114,549
1923	166,986
1924	190,385
1925	250,615
1926	275,823
1927	357,046
1928	539,481
1929	635,515

#### Fishery Products

The chief fishery products of Karafuto are herrings, salmon, codfish, trout, crabs, whales and fur-seals, the average yearly catches reaching as much as ¥10,000,000 to ¥20,000,000 in value. There are about 4,000 households dependent upon the fishery

industry in the island, the number of fishing-boats in use being about 10,000. Of these varieties the herring comes first in importance, the annual catch being figured at approximately ¥9,000,000. Most of these fishery products are canned in the distributing centres in the island, which did a business of ¥2,119,427 in 1930, ¥1,509,969 in 1929, ¥1,036,744 in 1927 and ¥687,577 in 1926. Of all the canning centres Maoka ranks first, with the total production valued at ¥1,069,265 in 1930. Next comes Shisuka with ¥402,100 and then Tomarioru with ¥340,088 in the same year. Edible seaweed is obtained along all parts of the coast, but principally along the western coast and Aniwa Gulf, the annual production reaching ¥689,600 in 1930. The Seal Island located on the north-eastern edge of Taraka Bay is the only breeding spot of fur-seals in Japan. When the southern half of Saghalien came into Japan's possession in 1905, seal hunting in this small island was prohibited, and every possible protection was given to their breeding. In 1911 the hunting ban was alleviated, the annual number to be killed being limited to 550. In 1913 it became apparent to the supervisors that the number of landing fur-seals was decreasing, so in 1915 the ban was again imposed and was maintained until 1917. It was then withdrawn, with an annual permit to kill up to 550 head. In 1924 the hunting of old, non-breeding fur-seals was started. This increased the production in the year to 824 head and that in the following year to 942. In 1930 the total reached 1,715, and 1,704 in 1931. In accordance with the Fur-Seal Treaty concluded by Japan with the United States and Russia in 1911, Japan is paying 10 per cent. annually of the profit from this fur-sealing to the governments of these two countries.

Whales are principally hunted by the ships of the Oriental Whale-Hunting Company which has a base for that purpose in Aniwa Gulf. The catches amounted to 39 head in

1927, 36 in 1928, 34 in 1929 and 36 in 1930. In 1931 none were hunted. The following shows the money value of the chief fishery products:

FISHERY PRODUCTS IN MONEY VALUE (Yen)

Kind	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Herrings	13,716,713	14,676,736	9,811,698	8,020,723	6,756,851	6,868,066
Trout	2,647,635	1,219,258	1,161,910	609,279	369,120	1,927,229
Salmon	334,397	232,904	328,340	194,625	115,885	210,498
Codfish	1,755,999	1,568,439	1,220,662	916,877	878,429	845,075
Sardines	—	129,532	96,481	19,278	136,945	215,234
Soles	153,652	161,235	98,770	52,634	65,296	153,940
Crabs	198,971	1,310,395	1,661,553	1,749,480	987,355	1,683,325
Seaweed	778,829	642,398	745,251	689,600	934,927	501,406
Whales	85,846	124,732	88,149	14	—	—
Sharks	13,105	14,352	4,263	1,990	6,004	4,216
Hypomesus japonicus	48,564	39,289	26,245	19,486	14,216	35,588
Shellfish	109,270	100,047	158,685	131,912	34,218	76,084
Others	694,280	661,293	507,067	344,526	388,542	674,039
Total	20,557,432	20,880,610	15,909,075	12,750,419	10,638,131	13,195,850

### Timber Production

The island is so thickly and extensively covered with primeval forests that, according to an authoritative estimate, about 2,976,491 hectares, i. e., about 83 per cent. of the entire area of the territory, is forest land. In this estimate is included 833,333 hectares reserved for future growth and 79,365 hectares in use for the field work of the Imperial Universities of Tokyo, Kyoto, Hokkaido and Kyushu. There are about 49 species of trees and 73 of shrubs growing on the island, but those that have any commercial value are the Ezo-matsu (*Picea ajanensis*, Fisch), todo-matsu (*Abies sachaliensis*, Mast), gui-matsu, ichii (the yew, *Taxus baccata*), shirakaba (the silver birch, *Betula alba*), doroyanagi (a willow), hannoki (the black alder) tamo, and a few others. Their distribution is regular, according to district. In the low coastwise districts we find the yanagi, hannoki, tamo, etc.; on the higher levels

grow the todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu, and as we climb the slopes forests of the graceful silver birch mix with and replace the pines (matsu), growing thicker and thicker as the mountain peaks are approached. The gui-matsu (a pine species) grows principally in the lower, damper land. But the todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu are the species which predominate in nearly all parts of the island, occupying as much as 80 per cent. of the total forest land. The revenue from the forestry amounted to ¥1,982,221 in 1933.

**Forest Administration** In ancient times the entire island of Karafuto was nothing but thick forest and the natives seem to have had no rules to prevent them from felling trees whenever or wherever they chose; but they apparently felt no need to fell any large amount of standing trees. The land was almost as primeval as could be imagined when it was ceded by Russia to Japan in 1905. Moreover, during the earlier period of the new régime, devasta-

tion by fire was not infrequent. On the other hand, the increased number of population in the island had the effect of increasing the demand for timber in various ways. The first task which confronted the Karafuto government in their forest administration was therefore how to protect the forests from devastation, how best to fell and how to re-stock. As a tentative re-stocking measure large amounts of seeds of todo-matsu, Ezo-matsu, Kara-matsu and silver birch were sown on a wide burnt patch of mountain-side in the neighbourhood of Ochiai in June, 1920. As the experiment was satisfactory, it was decided to make seeding the principal method to be applied for the re-stocking of lands with trees, and the decision was carried into effect on a tract of 15.47 hectares in 1921 and, further, on a tract of 50.01 hectares in 1922. This marks the first period in the re-foresting history of the island. The next period began when, in 1923, the seeding work was carried on over a total tract of 4,285.09 hectares and lasted for the following three years. In 1926 the third period dawned when the acreage was further extended to 11,272.60 hectares and at the same time supplementary sowings were made on 7,740.26 hectares. In 1927 seedings were carried on over a tract of 10,460.74 hectares and the supplementary sowings made on a tract of 2,569.68 hectares. Below more detailed figures are given:

Year	New Seeding (Hectares)	Supplementary Seeding (Hectares)
1921	15.47	—
1922	50.01	—
1923	4,285.09	—
1924	4,754.39	—
1925	7,259.07	—
1926	11,272.60	7,740.26
1927	10,460.74	2,569.68
1928	7,571.17	—
1929	3,442.45	—

Year	New Seeding (Hectares)	Supplementary Seeding (Hectares)
1930	445.00	—
1931	—	—
1932	407.03	—
1933	35.10	—
Total	49,998.12	10,309.94

**Seedling Work** With the increased need of constantly re-foresting mountains specially with saplings, the seedling work has become quite important. In 1912 the first sapling-plantation was established at Toyohara. But it was since 1920 that its number began to increase, and now there are 17 sapling-plantations established throughout Karafuto producing annually about 6 million saplings. On this subject we have the following figures:

Location	Acreage (Hectares)	Date of Establishment
Toyohara	15.2110	5/1912
Shimizu	4.9500	5/1920
Tokobo	13.0485	5/1920
Tominaigishi	7.9467	"
Tomarioru	4.6761	"
Takarazawa	4.9839	"
Kawakami	6.7287	"
Otomari	4.9893	5/1926
Tamagawa	19.4040	5/1927
Yamashitagawa	6.1684	5/1927
Minaminazuki	5.3328	5/1929
Obara	6.8878	5/1929
Kitakotami	13.8217	5/1929
Towada	0.1530	5/1920
Onotoro	1.2500	5/1930
Nayori	7.4250	4/1931
Kamishisuka	14.9100	4/1931
Total	137.8869	—

**Felling Work** The present Government's felling work was started in May, 1927, on the estimated basis of an annual production of 535,743 cubic metres of timber. But, in view of the difficulty felt in marketing, the annual aggregate felling was reduced to the basis of 196,370 cubic metres. The business result in the year 1933 was as follows:

	(Yen)
Receipts	1,982,221
Expenses	535,939

## TIMBER PRODUCTION FOR LAST 10 YEARS

Year	Felling (Koku)	Shipment (Koku)	Delivery (Koku)
1923	2,259,485.77	1,904,560.83	2,111,630.09
1924	2,366,545.98	2,502,820.31	2,547,288.54
1925	1,100,388.91	2,130,118.02	2,169,525.38
1926	744,982.00	1,274,633.17	1,319,501.38
		(cubic metres)	
1927	541,630.473	25,422.015	7,157.030
1928	459,340.777	494,156.669	509,218.133
1929	492,061.608	497,863.054	504,980.773
1930	198,742.706	455,250.462	455,250.462
1931	205,587.861	202,115.850	202,115.850
1932	201,020,000	196,532,000	196,532,000

**Forests for University Field Work** It was in April, 1914, that a forest tract of 20,000 hectares along the basins of the Ai-kawa (Ai River) and Odasamu-kawa (Odasamu River) was given to the Tokyo Imperial University for the field work of forestry students of its College of Agriculture. Prior to this forest grant the Hokkaido Imperial University was the recipient of a tract of 19,746 hectares of forest area along the basin of the Chinnai-kawa for the

same purpose in June, 1913. A tract of 20,345 hectares along the Hoyekawa also was granted to the Kyushu Imperial University in April, 1914. Lastly the Kyoto Imperial University was the recipient of a land-grant of 19,933 hectares along the Kotagishi-kawa and Ato-kawa. Thus, the total area of lands granted for the field work of university students totals 80,024 hectares. The following shows the working result of these university forests in 1930:

	Tokyo (Yen)	Kyoto (Yen)	Hokkaido (Yen)	Kyushu (Yen)
Receipts	76,178	161,852	14,605	91,928
Expenditures	64,760	28,854	18,780	81,066
Balance	11,418	132,998	4,175	10,862

As it became more and more evident that the re-forestation work with plant-seeds was less economical than had been expected, in 1928 the seeding area was considerably reduced as has been shown in the preceding table, and, instead, greater efforts were made in re-stocking work with saplings, with the result that the total area thus planted reached 900 hectares in that year and 6,124 hectares in 1931. The following shows the result of re-forestation work with saplings in the last 10 years ending 1931:

Year	Area Planted (Hectares)	Area Supple- mentarily Planted (Hectares)
1922	34.71	—
1923	19.53	—
1924	58.95	19.83
1925	95.75	—
1926	241.13	25.93
1927	576.16	69.36
1928	918.85	79.92
1929	831.49	567.47
1930	1,244.58	408.55
1931	2,088.44	457.37
Total	6,109.89	1,628.48

**Fire Prevention Work** The work of fire prevention was initiated in 1922

over a stretch of 13,495 metres of forest area, mostly of the area artificially re-planted. But in recent years the prevention work was extended over natural forests, it consisting in making openings or glades, so that in 1933 the total length of these openings for protection from fire reached 992,607 metres.

## FIRE-PREVENTION OPENINGS

Year	Extension (metres)
1922	13,495
1923	78,297
1924	87,973
1925	15,173
1926	237,973
1927	157,530
1928	119,129
1929	95,729
1930	22,062
1931	27,962
1932	82,840
1933	55,444
Total	992,607

**Re-forestation Work** The forest-re-stocking work has hitherto been concentrated on treating burnt patches of mountain side by means of either seeding or of planting saplings, but more recently all forest specialists have come to the conclusion that in Karafuto better re-stocking results would be attained by encouraging the natural recruiting process and this conclusion was put in practice first in 1929 over an area of 173.36 hectares and then in 1930 over an area of 47.90 hectares. In 1931 the same work was carried on over an area of 92.60 hectares, bringing the total area accorded this treatment to 313.86 hectares.

## Industrial Development

With the growth of railway facilities the population began to increase, and, with it, various trade and industrial opportunities became

more promising. Ohtomari and Maoka are the two ports with the best future outlook, being connected by railways at Toyohara, the seat of government of the island. Paper-pulp manufacturing, canning, brewing, starch manufacturing and butter-making are the leading industries in Karafuto. On December 31, 1932, there were 364 industrial companies incorporated in the island, their aggregate capital being figured at ¥130,330,114 with ¥81,419,808 paid up. The aggregate value of all products in the same year was ¥75,246,895, of which manufacturing products reached ¥48,485,505, (60 per cent.) as against ¥37,569,366, the aggregate sum of all products in 1920 and ¥17,987,842, the total of manufacturing products, in the same year. The comparison shows that there took place a 180 per cent. increase in the turnout of manufacturing products in the 10 years under review. But in view of the almost unlimited quantity of raw materials in the island the progress made so far might be taken as simply indicative of a greater industrial future yet to be fulfilled. Various experiments for industrial purposes were conducted and are being continued at the Industrial Experimental Laboratory at Toyohara.

**Pulp** In 1913 the first pulp factory was opened at Ohtomari by the Oji Paper Manufacturing Company, already then one of the leading paper manufacturing companies in Japan; then another was at Tomarioru by the Karafuto Kogyo Kabushiki Kaisha, both starting operations in 1915. Soon the World War, which stopped import of paper from foreign countries to Japan, gave an opportune stimulus to the speedy development of the industry and at present there are eight pulp factories in the island turning out an aggregate of 175,000 metric tons of pulp and

130,000,000 kilogrammes of paper valued at ¥43,900,000. This means that at present about one-half of the total pulp supplies are from Karafuto. Below is given further information in this respect:

Company	Location
Oji Paper Manufacturing Company <sup>1</sup>	Ohtomari
" " " "	Toyohara
" " " "	Noda
" " " "	Tomarioru
" " " "	Maoka
" " " "	Esutoru
" " " "	Ochiai
" " " "	Shirutoru

<sup>1</sup> The Oji, Karafuto Kogyo and Fuji were amalgamated in May, 1933, into one concern which retains the name of Oji Paper Manufacturing Co., with a capitalization of ¥150,000,000.

PRODUCTION AT EACH PULP FACTORY (AT THE END OF 1932)

Company	Factory	Manufactures	Productive Capacity (French ton)	Quantity Produced	Amount (Yen)
Oji	Otomari	Pulp	13,000	—	—
"	Toyohara	Pulp	71,000	21,925	2,042,141
		Paper		2,197	284,800
"	Noda	Pulp	15,000	8,947	1,035,626
		Paper		7,749	1,552,093
"	Maoka	Pulp	24,000	21,022	3,874,423
		Paper			
"	Tomarioru	Pulp	22,500	36,822	3,725,700
		Paper		3,141	485,200
"	Esutoru	Pulp	169,700	7,620	678,600
		Paper		25,825	6,570,589
"	Ochiai	Pulp	54,000	70,270	8,051,925
		Paper		31,439	6,570,539
"	Shirutoru	Pulp	72,500	16,507	1,855,971
		Paper		38,335	6,792,697
Total		Pulp		162,091	17,395,963
		Paper		129,710	24,587,313

**Brewing** Brewing of saké and other liquors was started in Karafuto soon after it became Japanese territory. But it was found that the original equipment was unsuited for working at the low temperatures encountered on the island, and the earlier attempts were unsuccessful. The local demand for saké was so

pressing, however, that the promoters felt it worth while endeavouring to improve all defects in equipment and to procure water of better quality. The result proved to be promising, and today the island-brewed saké is as good as any produced in Japan proper. There are at present about 50 breweries.

PRODUCTION AND SUPPLIES OF SAKÉ

	Production		Import from Japan Proper	
	Quantity (thousand deci-litre)	Value (Yen)	Quantity (thousand deci-litre)	Value (Yen)
1926	72,618	3,842,245	19,771	1,240,445
1927	69,467	3,636,155	19,567	1,222,755
1928	66,603	3,862,093	25,467	1,490,544
1929	65,181	3,043,598	22,147	1,367,567
1930	45,514	1,926,964	18,331	956,698
1931	41,316	1,839,171	19,053	953,183
1932	42,743	1,800,385	17,287	921,881

**Canning Industry** The canning industry in this island goes back to 1909, and in 1917 the canneries numbered 111, with a total production of ¥3,370,558. Crab-canning heads the list; but the reckless catching following that year caused a falling-off in the production, which was reduced to ¥1,458,000 in 1920. The canneries were also reduced in number, numbering only 38 in the same year. Two years later this number was further decreased to 14. In 1925 2 new factories were opened, but the aggregate turnout shrank to ¥663,400. In 1927, however, there took place a sharp revival in the industry. Canneries increased to 20 in number, and production rose to ¥1,029,768 in value. In 1929 the production increased further to a total amount of ¥1,479,969, and in 1930 to ¥1,624,955. In 1931 the number of canneries was 25, and their aggregate production reached ¥1,730,739, showing thus that the productive capacity of each unit of canneries has made a marked expansion. In 1933, the production was ¥1,660,643, with the number of canneries gaining to 29. Most of these canned fishes are exported to foreign markets. In recent years, the demand for this Saghalien canned product in European markets, specially in Great Britain has been on a rapid increase. The South Sea Islands are also increasingly proving to be a fine outlet for this product.

Legal System and Status

Karafuto is different from other dependencies of the country in that more laws of the land of Japan are applied there than in any of the others. But, in that the legal administration is different from that of Japan proper it resembles Taiwan, Chosen, Kwantung Province and the South Sea Islands. The chief point of difference is that all

the laws concerning the judicial system, such as the civil law, criminal law, the laws of civil and criminal procedures, and the law of the constitution of the courts of justice are equally enforced in Karafuto and Japan proper. All other laws are made applicable to Karafuto as to other possessions by means of an Imperial Ordinance providing therefor specially. There are some laws enforced in Karafuto which were originally enacted for that purpose. At present there are 169 laws of the land applied or made applicable in Karafuto, of which 13 laws are operative only partially. Imperial Ordinances are applicable or not in Karafuto according to the nature of the provisions contained therein. But cabinet and departmental orders have no operative power in Karafuto just as in other possessions.

There are one local court, 2 district courts, and 7 detached offices of the two district courts in Karafuto.

Education

In 1905 Japan found the island a vast, primitive desert with practically nothing done towards bringing the inhabitants to a civilized way of life. Following, however, the inauguration of Japanese administration, immigrants, including of course adventurers, rapidly increased in number. A number of towns sprang up one after another. These soon grew into centres of activity for the new comers from Japan. Toyohara, Ohtomari and Maoka soon became leading towns. As the immigrants settled down there arose the necessity for schooling their children. This need was directly felt by the government officials who came over to the island with their families and children. It was in August, 1906, that the first elementary school was opened at Toyohara, and in

October of the same year 2 other elementary schools were opened, one at Ohtomari and the other at Maoka. At the same time, private educationists started simpler elementary schools here and there in the remote rural districts. In 1920 all elementary schools were brought under the Karafuto government. A

middle school was opened at Ohtomari in 1912, a girls' high school at Toyohara in 1916, a middle school at Toyohara in 1925 and another middle school at Maoka in 1927. Meantime, girls' high schools were opened at Ohtomari, Maoka and Tomarigishi. The following tables give the main educational statistics of Karafuto:

TABLE I  
Compulsory Education

Year	Children of School Age	Children Attending Schools	Children Not Attending Schools	Percentage of Attendance
1926	28,280	23,247	33	99.88
1927	29,983	29,889	44	99.85
1928	33,461	33,406	55	99.86
1929	40,725	40,586	139	99.66
1930	46,053	45,967	86	99.81
1931	52,936	45,647	127	99.72
1932	54,100	47,103	114	99.76

TABLE II (Jan. 31 1934)

District	Number of Schools	Teachers	Pupils
Toyohara	44	242	10,331
Ohtomari	56	273	11,187
Honto	22	90	3,463
Maoka	19	175	7,630
Tomarioru	39	175	7,492
Motodomari	19	100	4,189
Shisuka	15	76	3,248
Total	221	1,131	47,535

**Education of the Natives** There are some 2,000 natives in Karafuto including Ainus, Gilyaks, Orochones and Tunguses. The Karafuto government is undertaking to educate the children of these backward na-

tives. At the end of April, 1931, there were 6 schools specially established for the education of these children, for which we have the following account:

School	Location	Number of Instructors	Number of Children attending
Shirahama Kyoikusho	Sakaehama	2	56
Ochiho	Tomiuchi	1	17
Tarandomari	Hirochi	2	38
Chiku	Nayori	1	25
Shinmon	Tomarigishi	1	16
Shisuka	Shisuka	1	37
Total		8	234

### Religion

The three principal religions, i. e., Shinto, Buddhism and Christianity, are competing with one another

in this promising field of labour. There are 42 propagating centres for Shintoism representing five sects, viz., Shinto proper, Kurosumi, Tenri, Konko and Taisha. There

are three governmental shrines and these are (1) Karafuto Shrine, (2) Toyohara Shrine and (3) Ani Shrine, all of which are dedicated to Imperial ancestors. August 23 is the day set for the annual festival of the Karafuto Shrine, which is also the Inauguration Day of Japanese administration in Karafuto. The shrine is located at Asahiga-oka in a quiet western hilly suburb of Toyohara, and strikes the chance visitor with a sense of admiration

for its grave beauty. The anniversary of the Toyohara Shrine falls on July 11. Buddhism is represented by the Shin, Nichiren, Soto, Shingon, Jodo and other sects. There are 59 temples and 112 preaching houses. Christianity is being preached by missionaries of six denominations, i. e., Episcopal Methodist, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic, the Salvation Army, and the Holiness Church. The number of Christian churches in Karafuto is 11.

## CHAPTER XLIII

## SOUTH SEA ISLANDS

(UNDER JAPAN'S MANDATE)

## Geographical Features

The South Sea Islands mandated to Japan, numbering 2,550, are the Mariana, Marshall and Caroline groups, between 131° 10' and 172° 10' of east longitude and between 1° 15' and 20° 32' of north latitude. They have a total area of 2,148.80 square kilometres. The Hawaiian Islands are to the east; the Philippines and Celebes to the west; the Bonin Islands to the north, and New Guinea to the south. Only one island among them, i. e. Guam belongs to the United States.

The Mariana archipelago starts close to the southern end of the Bonin Islands, stretching towards the equator, and the Marshall and Caroline groups extend to the east and west along the equator, forming an inverted letter "T" with the Marianas. About 740 miles south of the Bonin Islands lies Saipan, the largest of the Marianas, and about 180 miles farther south is Truk, one of the largest of the Carolines, which, marking the crossing point of the inverted "T," is the centre of the mandated territory. The line of 148° east longitude divides the Carolines into the West Carolines, with Palau and Yap, and the East Carolines, with Truk and Ponape. Because of the distances between the islands and the extensive area covered by them, communications are difficult. The fact that each group of isles uses different words peculiar to itself suf-

ficiently demonstrates the degree to which they are separated.

So small are the individual islands in area that the premier ones, such as Ponape and Babelthuap, cover barely 269 square kilometres. Their topography differs according to geological conditions. The Marshalls, which are made up of coral reefs, rise only 1.5 or 2 metres above sea level, but the Marianas and Carolines, which are composed largely of volcanic rocks, have peaks rising as high as 758 metres and little level land. There are no navigable rivers, and in several places good roads are still lacking.

With the exception of Yap, practically all of the islands are composed of volcanic rocks and coral reefs. There are three kinds of coral reefs, though no clear demarcation can be drawn; and the volcanic rocks are of two kinds, basalt and andesite, the former being found in Truk, Ponape and Kusaie, of the Carolines, and the latter in Palau and Saipan. Everywhere in the islands, sea-birds nest and deposit phosphate, but principally on Angaur, Peleliu, Togobei and Fais. The soil also contains some amount of phosphoric acid, which helps vegetables and trees to grow. The narrowness of each islet, the volcanic topography and the dearth of rainfall, however, are handicaps to agriculture.

## Groups of Islands

**The Marianas** The Marianas, the northernmost part of the territory,

consist of 14 islands covering 632 square kilometres. At the southern extremity is Saipan, the seat of the Saipan Branch Office, with jurisdiction over the whole of the Mariana archipelago. The Saipan group, 183.89 square kilometres in area, starts 64.36 km. to the northeast of Guam and stretches 104.59 km. to the southwest. Being nearest to Japan proper, the group forms the gateway to the South Sea Islands. It not only enjoys favourable communications with the mainland of Japan, but is endowed with fertile soil adapted to the cultivation of sugar cane, which has drawn no small number of immigrants. Here the South Sea Islands Development Company engages in the refining of sugar.

**The Carolines** The Carolines, lying along the equator, are divided into the four administrative groups of Palau, Yap, Truk and Ponape. On the island of Corrol in the Palau group are located both the South Sea government and its Palau branch office. The number of isles under the jurisdiction of this branch office is 109, covering an area of 80.29 square kilometres. Babelthuap, commonly called the Main Island of the Palaus, has 370.37 square kilometres. Angaur, about 64.36 km. southwest of Corrol, is called the treasure island of the archipelago, being buried under phosphate mounds. A regular steamship line connects it with Menado of Celebes and Davao of Mindanao, in the Philippine Islands. The Palaus are not only the administrative pivot, but are important geographically.

The Yap group lies 418.34 km. to the northeast of Palau and consists of 85 islets covering 228.91 square kilometres and extending 804.50 km. from north to east. The four main islands, with an area of 36.26 square kilometres, are widely known as a

junction of submarine cables. Here also is located the Yap branch office.

The Truk group lies 1,383.74 km. east of Yap, dotting the surface of the sea like a nebula. The Truk branch office, located on Natsu Island, controls 245 islets, which total in area only 124.16 square kilometres. As Natsu Island was formerly the seat of the German local government and later the headquarters of the Japanese defence corps for the entire mandated territory, it is fairly well known to the outside world.

The Ponape group is located 627.51 km. due east of Truk and consists of 138 islets covering more than 492.10 square kilometres. The island of Ponape, with 380.73 square kilometres in area, ranks first among all the islands of the territory. It is full of hills and is lacking in level land. Textile manufacturing and sugar refining were once started here by the Japanese, but later discontinued. Hope is still retained for some industrial undertakings, and a branch laboratory of the Industrial Experiment Station of the islands was established here in 1925 to make trial plantings of rice and medical herbs.

**The Marshalls** The Marshalls are located 1,222.84 km. east of Ponape. At the southern tip is Jaluit, on which is located the Jaluit branch office, which has control over the main portion of the archipelago, 32 islets, made up of more than 860 coral reefs comprising an area of 150.94 square kilometres. The soil being quite suited to the growth of coconut palms, they flourish everywhere. The copra industry of the islands is chiefly dependent on the material produced in this group.

## Atmospheric Conditions

All the islands being within the tropical zone, they have one season instead of the four of the temperate

zone. Cool sea breezes sweep over them day and night, contributing much toward balancing the temperature, and the inhabitants are favoured with a mild maritime climate rarely found in tropical countries and free from the danger of attack by venomous snakes, wild animals and miasma peculiar to the tropics.

There is an observatory established by the South Sea Government, where all sorts of atmospheric observations are conducted, and four hyetographical observatories. In addition, each branch office of the government has its own observation station. Thorough study of the insular climate is now being planned.

Atmospheric pressure in the neighbourhood of Truk and Ponape is generally low; in the vicinity of the Carolines and western Marianas, it is high in February and March and low from October till December; in the eastern islets of the Carolines, high from May to September and low in other months. The temperature is about the same all over the islands and shows little change through the year, the highest in the daytime ranging from 29° to 31° C. It seldom rises above 31°, and the difference during 24 hours is only 4 or 5 degrees. Humidity averages 82% and rarely falls lower than 60%.

From November to April, the wind generally comes from between the east and northeast. This is the trade wind. From May to October, the direction differs according to the position of the islands. The velocity averages 5 metres in the Marianas, weak in August and September and strong between October and February; in the western part of the Carolines, it is weak in April, May, June and September and strong in November, December, January, February and March.

The mean annual rainfall is more than 3,000 mm., and at Ponape it reaches even 4,000 mm. The rain comes in sudden torrents and passes away with the same suddenness. By this the unbearable tropic heat is greatly mitigated. The rainfall is greatest during July, August and September and least in January, February and March.

The Islands are, as it were, the hotbed of the typhoons that devastate Formosa and Japan proper, but locally the wind rarely gathers hurricane strength. If a typhoon does strike, it leaves the islands in a miserable condition, and the natives fear typhoons as they do their gods. When Ponape was struck in 1906, nearly all the cocoanut palms fell. Jaluit suffered in 1918 and Yap in 1920 and 1923.

A third tempest at Yap caused tidal waves to sweep over the coast, considerably damaging houses, woods and farms. A typhoon at Palau in May, 1927, swept away practically all dwellings in Peleliu and caused no small damage to other islets far and near.

#### History

The discovery of the islands dates back to the 16th century, when Spain and Portugal were vying with each other for discovery of untroubled soil in any corner of the world. As they are scattered and insignificant, not all of the groups were found at the same time. The Marianas were found first and the Carolines at about the same time, though exploration of the latter was neglected until about 40 years ago, when the Marshalls were discovered.

Found by the Portuguese, the Marianas came into the possession of Spain. Toward the close of the 19th century, Germany took possession of the Marshalls and threatened to encroach on the Carolines, then

under Spanish control. Spain protested, and arbitration by the Pope in 1886 terminated the dispute amicably, the whole of the Carolines remaining under Spanish rule. Assiduous efforts by the Spanish to exploit and govern the islands continued until 1899, when, financially straitened due to the war with the United States, they sold the Marianas and Carolines to Germany. The whole of the present South Sea Islands mandated by Japan was thus shifted to the possession of Germany. The German reign lasted until 1914, when a Japanese squadron occupied the islands, which were later juridically placed under Japanese mandate, following the conclusion of the Paris Peace Treaty and other relevant agreements.

**German Administration** It is generally agreed that the establishment of sovereignty over the Marianas and Carolines by Spain in 1886 and the complete domination by Germany of the Marshalls in 1885 should be made the starting point in historical study of the archipelagos. Until purchased by Germany, the Marianas and Carolines had no government worthy of mention, and nothing now remains to recall the Spanish administration except the defence works on Yap and Ponape and a few buildings standing here and there. After the transfer to Germany, a complete change was effected. In the manner of the British East India Company, Germany started the Jaluit Company shortly after acquiring the Marshalls. The Government took over the business in 1906, when the company's contract expired, and tried to put all the island industries under its monopoly. Thus Jaluit has naturally flourished as the business centre of the territory, reinforced by communications with Singapore, Hong-Kong, Australia and the United States.

In looking back upon the German programme in the South Sea Islands, we are struck above everything else with the largeness of its scale. A general government was first established in New Guinea, which sought to implant German authority in the Orient by embracing the numberless islets between New Guinea and Tsingtao. A step to this end was the laying in 1904 of a submarine cable connecting Yap with Shanghai, Guam and Menado, and in 1913 a radio telegraph station of gigantic size was erected on the same island. To make a scientific study of the South Sea Islands, the German Government dispatched a number of experts. One of their discoveries was phosphate, of which a deposit of 3,000,000 tons was found on Angaur. The German Phosphate Company, founded in Bremen in 1908, conducted mining operations until the Japanese occupation. Other deposits, though less valuable, were located at Peleliu, Togobei and Fais.

Germany exercised special efforts in diffusing culture among the natives, and to this end it dispatched no less than 100 missionaries, who opened churches in all the principal villages of the islands. The older natives still keep the German style of Roman letters to this day. Besides paying attention to educational advancement within the territory, the authorities sent men of talent to Tsingtao for further study.

**Relations with Japan** It is presumed that there must have been some early intercourse between Japan and the archipelagos because of their geographical position, but there is no reliable evidence of it. The Japanese training cruiser *Ryujo* in 1884 touched at Kusaie, an islet belonging to the Ponape group, where the chief of the natives enthusiastically welcomed the crew, declaring that his people were descendants of the

Japanese race. In the same year, the Japanese Government, informed of the massacre of a Japanese on Rye Island, of the Marshalls, dispatched Mr. Taketaro Goto, who succeeded in settling the matter with the local chieftain. Early commercial relations were initiated by the South Island Company (Nanto Shokai), established at Ponape with the capital of ¥44,000, but its business was soon transferred to the Ichiya Shokai, which failed in 1895. In the year following the appearance of the Nanto Shokai, two other trading firms, the Kaitsu Sha and Koshin Sha, came into existence; the former lasted only two years, but the latter carried on business until the Japanese occupation of the islands. The Hioki South Sea Trading Company was founded in 1893 with branches at Ponape, Truk, Saipan and Guam. Since amalgamation with the Murayama Shokai in 1906, it has been operating as the South Sea Trading Company and doing an extensive business.

### Population

According to the census taken on April 1, 1934, the total population of the mandated territory is 85,605, comprising 50,174 natives, 35,328 Japanese and 103 foreigners. Of the natives, there are 46,475 Kanaka and 3,699 Chamorro. The Chamorro enjoy high birth rate, but the Kanaka scarcely maintain the status quo. Those within the jurisdiction of the Yap branch office show yearly decrease.

### NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS (April 1, 1934)

	Saipan	Yap	Palau	Truk	Ponape	Jaluit	Total
Japanese	6,551	167	1,710	624	505	162	9,719
Native	692	1,686	1,202	2,702	1,485	1,806	9,573
Foreign	6	5	11	12	10	13	57
Total	7,249	1,858	2,923	3,338	2,000	1,981	19,349

Chosenese are included in the figures for Japanese.

When Japan took over the archipelagos, there were only a few scores of Japanese dwellers. Gradually increasing, there are now 21,006 males and 14,322 females, most of them dwell within the jurisdiction of the Saipan branch office and are engaged in agricultural enterprises.

When placed under Japanese control, the territory had a hundred Germans, mostly engaged in missionary work and commerce. After they left, there remained fewer than 20 foreigners, chiefly Americans and British. The census taken on April 1, 1934, shows that the 103 registered in 1933 are nearly all engaged in missionary service, coconut cultivation or the copra trade.

A census is taken every five years. The village officials and policemen also keep in constant touch with every change. As for Japanese settlers and foreigners, complete investigation is made in accordance with regulations. The first general census was taken in October, 1920, when the first national census was taken in Japan proper, attended with great difficulties and at enormous expense. Subsequent censuses came in 1925 and 1930.

### DENSITY OF POPULATION, April 1, 1934

District under Branch Office	Population	Area sq. km	Density per 1 sq. km
Saipan	31,029	689	45.8
Yap	6,587	226	29.1
Palau	10,632	478	22.2
Ponape	16,689	504	32.9
Jaluit	10,345	170	60.8
Truk	10,323	132	78.2
Total	85,605	2,149	39.8

### POPULATION BY GROUPS (April 1, 1934)

		Saipan	Yap	Palau	Truk	Ponape	Jaluit	Total
Japanese	men	15,504	276	2,881	908	1,145	292	21,006
	women	11,199	143	1,661	502	670	147	14,322
	total	26,703	419	4,542	1,410	1,815	437	35,328
Native	men	2,255	3,024	3,310	7,696	4,494	5,091	25,870
	women	2,057	3,133	2,763	7,558	4,013	4,780	24,304
	total	4,312	6,157	6,073	15,254	8,507	9,871	10,174
Foreign	men	7	7	14	18	11	12	69
	women	7	4	3	7	12	1	34
	total	14	11	17	25	23	13	103
Total	men	17,766	3,307	6,205	8,623	5,650	5,395	46,945
	women	13,263	3,280	4,427	8,067	4,695	4,928	38,660
	total	31,029	6,587	10,632	16,689	10,345	10,323	85,605

Chosenese and Taiwanese are included in the figures for Japanese.

### YEARLY INCREASE OF POPULATION

Period	Japanese	Native	Foreign	Total
1920	3,671	48,505	46	52,222
1925	7,480	48,789	66	56,294
1930	19,835	49,695	96	69,626
1932	25,766	50,045	98	75,909
1933	30,670	50,114	100	80,884
1934	35,328	50,174	103	85,605

### Tribes, Customs and Manners

Tribes Opinions differ as to the tribes residing in the mandated South Sea Islands. Some say that they immigrated from the Malay Peninsula, while others maintain that they are of the Polynesians. Though anthropologically named the Micronesian race, it is evident that they are a hybrid. Separate groups are clearly discernible, each with its own language and customs and manners. Roughly they are divided into the Kanaka and Chamorro. The former belong to the Micronesian race, and the latter are said to be of mixed White and Kanaka extraction, though other explanations are sometimes given.

The Chamorro are supposed to have settled first in Guam, later removing to neighbouring isles, and the fact that they now flourish largely in the Marianas, Yap and Palau seems to endorse the supposition. Though the tribe thrived fairly well under the Spanish régime, it has gradually dwindled, due mainly to massacres, until today it numbers only 3,400. The characteristic features are yellowish brown skin

and black hair. The Chamorro, unlike the Kanaka, are industrious and mild in nature. Their mode of living is advanced, and some even reside in foreign-style houses with modern improvements. Their present culture owes much to religious influences in the time of Spanish control.

Kanaka is the general term for the natives of the Pacific islands. Most of those dwelling in the mandated islands belong to this group. They have dark brown or yellowish brown skin, black hair, heavy eyebrows and a big mouth. They are not hairy, and are simple and mild in nature. Though generally of medium stature, some are fairly tall. The Kanaka are cheerful in disposition, but extremely lazy. Their cultural standards are very low, and the mode of living lingers in the primitive stage. Of the total of 50,000 natives in the islands, those belonging to the Kanaka number 46,600.

Customs and Manners Because of the warm climate, it was originally the custom of the natives to wear nothing except a piece of cloth around the waist. Contact with advanced people, however, has brought a change, and some now use foreign clothing. In Saipan and the Marshalls, the natives are clad after the fashion of Europeans, but those in Ponape, Truk, Palau and especially



Yap are almost stark naked. The natives are not indifferent to personal adornment. Tattooing is an outstanding example. The more complicated the tattoo marks and the larger the space they cover, the more respected is the owner. There is also the strange ornamentation of scars deliberately cut into the flesh, which has more influence in Ponape than in the other islands. The custom of driving a hole through the ear-lobe for an ear-ring or other dangling ornaments has been becoming less common of late years, due principally to the diffusion of education.

The staple foods of the natives are fruits, fish and meat. Nature bountifully supplies coconuts and tubers, which are mainly relied on, and tapioca, bananas, pineapples, mangoes, lemons and oranges, all of which are used as subsidiary food. Under such circumstances, it is but natural that little attention is given to agriculture. Fishing has made but little advance, but the supply of beef and pork is fairly sufficient. Wine and tobacco are greatly sought after, though the use of the former is almost completely prohibited. The habit of chewing areca still prevails.

The structure and appearance of dwellings vary in accordance with the cultural standard of each group of isles. In Saipan there is a street that looks like one in Europe, but in Yap one is reminded of how people lived in prehistoric ages. The dwellings in Truk and Jaluit are far inferior to those in Palau and Ponape, having not even floors. A general lack of windows leaves the interiors sombre and damp. "All-men-houses" are found everywhere in the archipelagos, which serve as a sort of rendezvous for the male villagers or inn for travellers. On Yap there are one or two houses to

every village where women live when ailing.

#### Social Conditions

As the natives are not yet far removed from the primitive stage, their knowledge is very limited. They adhere to the traditions handed down from their forefathers and seem incapable of assimilating with any rapidity the cultural attainments of the outside world with which they come in contact. Only a few can count correctly. Yet they have been progressing in acquiring knowledge since primary education has been introduced. Whatever their intellectual deficiencies, they are fit for manual work.

There are two main social classes, superior and common, and between them there are several transition levels. Every village has its own chief, at whose mercy formerly were the life and property of the villagers. Among the chiefs there used to be ceaseless fighting. Under the German administration, their powers were greatly diminished, and at present they collect taxes and transfer government orders besides attending to the welfare of the people.

As has already been said, their mode of living is very simple, requiring little clothing and no farming for food. They are content to live in any miserable structure which affords shelter from wind and rain. Save for a handful of the Chamorro and a very small number of wealthy people, they live from hand to mouth in perfect contentment and have no thought of providing for posterity. They see no need of taxing their otherwise simple existence by using money. Such as they obtain is invariably spent for such luxuries as soap, perfume, tobacco and canned food, for their daily necessities are freely provided by nature. Of late years, however, a desire to own co-

conut trees and land has become discernible. They have aversion to anything that requires systematic labour. This is because they are little accustomed to it, there being no need for hard work where food is plentiful without it. In former times they were absorbed in subduing neighbouring villages, but in recent years their barbaric temperament has greatly abated in consequence of appropriate measures taken toward this end by the Japanese Government.

Each group uses its own language or dialect, and there are many instances of different languages in a single group of islets. Between the main island of Yap and the islets within its orbit, there is no common language. Since Japan took charge of the educational work, Japanese has been taught, increasingly meeting the daily needs of the natives.

#### Administration

Following severance of diplomatic relations with Germany, the Japanese navy occupied in October, 1914, the German territory of the South Sea Islands and established a military government. In December, 1915, when military headquarters were instituted at Truk, the islands were divided into six administrative districts, each governed by a resident garrison commander. In June, 1918, subsequent to the issuance of an Imperial ordinance, a civil administration was created under the commander of the Provisional South Sea Defence Corps, and civil officials took over the functions formerly entrusted to the commanders.

By conclusion of the peace treaty in January, 1920, the islands were placed under Japanese mandate. Realizing the need of effecting fundamental renovation in the administration, the Japanese Government, upon withdrawing the troops, estab-

lished the present South Sea Government in April, 1922. This was in accordance with an Imperial Ordinance of March, 1922, parts of which were later revised in 1924, 1927 and 1930. The Governor, who presides over the entire administration, is under the control and supervision of the Overseas Minister. Communications affairs are supervised by the Communications Minister, and currency, banking and customs matters by the Finance Minister. In emergencies, however, the Governor is authorized to act upon his own discretion and if necessary to request the commander of the naval station or the nearest responsible naval commander to take military action. The Government Office is composed of six sections: Governor's Secretariat, General Affairs, Finance, Police, Colonial and Communications. The Provisional Saipan Harbour Repair Office, a products museum and an experimental fishery station also belong to it. Under the central government there are branch offices at Saipan, Yap, Palau, Truk, Ponape and Jaluit. All such general administrative business as census-taking, alms-giving, salvation, policing, hygiene, tax collection, education, religion, industry, engineering and harbour works are conducted by those local branches.

Besides the afore-mentioned, there are, under the control of the Governor, 15 elementary schools, 23 public schools, a woodwork training institute, a high court of justice, with a public procurator's office, 3 local courts of justice, each with a public procurator's office, 1 industrial experimentation station with its two sub-stations, 7 hospitals, a mine, 9 post offices and 1 meteorological observatory and its 3 branches.

The branch offices are assisted by so-soncho, kucho, son-cho and jo-yaku, who are mostly native chiefs.

Those in charge of the Kanaka are called so-soncho and son-cho, and those among the Chamorro are named kucho and joyaku. The so-soncho and kucho act under the control and instructions of the branch office to which they belong, and the son-cho and joyaku assist them. The duties

entrusted to these officials are (1) thorough diffusion of knowledge of the law and regulations, (2) the making of applications and reports to the branch office, and (3) the conveyance of official instructions and their fulfilment.

## OFFICIAL PERSONNEL, June 30, 1934

Office	Chokunin rank	Sonin rank	Hannin rank	Treated as Hannin rank	Non-regular	Em- ployees	Total
South Sea government	1	10	57	5	16	89	178
Branch office	—	3	53	87	2	82	227
Elementary schools	—	—	69	—	—	—	69
Public schools	—	—	60	—	—	24	84
Courts of justice	—	5	4	—	—	5	14
Industrial experimental stations	—	4	7	—	—	14	25
Mine	—	1	7	—	—	7	15
Hospitals	—	9	25	—	1	44	79
Post offices	—	—	54	—	—	71	125
Meteorological observatories	—	—	5	—	—	11	16
Industrial schools	—	—	3	—	2	—	5
Total	1	32	344	92	21	347	837

## LOCAL ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICIALS, September 1, 1934

Branch office	So-soncho	Kucho	Soncho	Joyaku	Total
Palau	2	—	13	—	15
Saipan	—	2	—	6	8
Yap	10	1	—	—	11
Truk	6	—	23	—	29
Ponape	13	—	14	—	27
Jaluit	1	—	16	—	17
Total	32	3	66	6	107

**Police Administration** Under the Police Affairs Section of the central government there is a branch section at each of the six branch offices of the government. In addition, there are a police officer's detached station at Tinian, another at Rota, assistant police inspector's detached stations at Kusaie and Angaur and policemen's offices at 23 less important vilages. The distribution of these stations was determined more by special local conditions than by the density of population, for each branch office of the government has its own peculiar geographical and cultural conditions. On August 1, 1934, the number of police officials at each branch office ranged from 7 to 46.

The regulations for control of the

islanders established in 1916 to guard against immigration of persons without property and criminals were amplified and revised in 1917 and 1925. Special consideration is given to firearms and gunpowder, the possession and use of which are strictly prohibited to the insular inhabitants. Beverages of more than 3 per cent. alcoholic content are forbidden except for medical use and religious rites. The possession and consumption of dangerous narcotics, save for medical purposes, are prohibited. Other regulations cover game hunting, publications, social gatherings and the formation of associations, collection of donations, fisheries and the employment of geisha and waitresses.

## Finance

The expenditure for insular administration had been met by the

military special account until an independent account of the South Sea Government was established in March, 1922.

## ANNUAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

Fiscal Year	Revenue		Total	Expenditure		Total
	Ordinary Revenue	Special Revenue		Ordinary Expenditure	Special Expenditure	
1926	¥2,399,369	4,608,958	7,008,327	2,310,110	1,638,464	3,948,574
1927	2,731,313	4,867,667	7,598,980	2,322,138	2,295,431	4,617,569
1928	2,834,212	4,794,969	7,628,881	2,444,201	2,089,909	4,534,110
1929	2,839,480	4,606,636	7,446,116	2,410,638	2,091,861	4,502,499
1930	3,402,321	3,965,091	7,367,412	2,364,391	2,294,463	4,658,854
1931	4,699,058	2,999,531	7,698,589	2,432,547	2,143,880	4,576,427
1932	4,819,299	3,134,657	7,953,956	2,500,544	2,233,198	4,733,742
1933	5,011,281	3,257,487	8,268,768	2,755,171	2,527,324	5,282,495
1934*	5,349,013	286,062	5,635,075	2,978,016	2,657,659	5,635,675
1935*	5,827,266	150,480	5,977,746	3,156,214	2,821,482	5,977,696

\* The figures for 1934 and 1935 are estimates.

The poll tax, customs duties and clearance charges on shipments constitute the premier taxes. A poll tax not exceeding ¥10 is levied on every male native aged 16 or more and from ¥2 to ¥50 on Japanese and foreigners, although there are quite a number of exceptions. All imports from foreign countries are subject to customs duty in accordance with regulations established in May, 1922. These regulations also provide that all shipments to Japan and dutiable at the destination are subject to a clearance duty at the same rate as levied at the destination.

## Land and Agriculture

All transactions in real estate owned by natives are subject to approval by the government, a practice initiated by the German administration to safeguard the interests of those whose concepts of property are rudimentary. Total acreage is put at 213,000 hectares, of which about 70,000 hectares are thought fit for cocoon plantation and general farming. The land already cultivated is calculated at 15,000 hectares for puddy field and dry land and 31,400 hectares for cocoon

plantation, leaving 25,000 hectares for future development. Engaged in agriculture are 40 per cent. of the entire native population, viz., 20,252 natives and 8,730 Japanese. There being little need of depending for their daily necessities upon farming, the agricultural technique of the natives is still in a primitive stage, but the rapid increase in the number of Japanese, who are setting good examples, will sooner or later bring about some improvement. Live-stock farming is also undeveloped, though the natives raise cows, pigs, goats, hens and ducks, the cows for transportation and farming purposes and the pigs and hens for food.

Sugar-cane cultivation dates as far back as the beginning of the 16th century, but until the arrival of the Japanese there was no sugar refinery and the inhabitants ate the cane raw. The island of Saipan being found fully qualified in both climate and soil, there was established there by the Japanese a sugar industry, which has made a healthy development. From 20 hectares in 1916 cultivation increased to 455 hectares in 1919 and to 6,140 hectares in 1933. There were two companies, with eight factories, in 1919, but in

view of the inadvisability of continuing business on so small a scale, the South Sea Development Company, Ltd., capitalized at ¥7,000,000, was established, taking over the Nishimura Colonial Company, Ltd., and purchasing the South Sea Industrial Company, Ltd. Factories of this company are now located on the islands of Saipan and Tinian, the two principal sources of the raw material. Each has a pressing efficiency of 1,200 English tons, but completion of the factory now under construction at Tinian will increase the capacity there to 2,200 tons. Statistics taken in 1932-33 showed 6,140 hectares under cultivation, yielding 43,150 tons of sugar.

#### Industry

The lack of communication facilities greatly handicaps commercial and industrial advancement, and inadequate supplies of coal, water and iron disqualify manufacturing. The natives have little purchasing power, and the Japanese settlers, numbering 20,000 and possessing superior purchasing power, are scattered all over the isles.

Daily wages for both Japanese and natives are roughly as follows:

Japanese:	
Carpenter	¥3.00 — ¥4.00
Shipwright	3.00 — 5.00
Plasterer	2.50 — 4.00
Blacksmith	2.50 — 3.50
Sugar refinery worker	1.60
Mine worker (mechanic)	2.55
Mine labourer	1.30 — 2.30
Natives:	
Carpenter	¥ .70 — ¥1.50
Shipwright	.70 — 1.50
Day labourer	.70 — 1.50
Mine labourer	.43

The value of the annual production of the principal industries for 1934 amounted to ¥11,432,544, of which the following are principal products:

Sugar	¥10,223,420
Alcoholic drinks	279,451
Spirits for industrial use	437,877

**Forestry** All of the islands may

appear to casual travellers to have good forests, but inspection would disclose that most of the trees are of no practical use. The natives have been careless in removing timber and have disregarded the necessity of reforestation. The only trees receiving attention are the coconut palms growing on the island coasts. But this does not mean that forestry enterprises are hopeless. Various kinds of useful trees are seen thriving among the bushes, and the natural benefits here are the very conditions required for the growth of plants.

The coconut trees have long been depended on by the islanders for food, and practically every island is shaded by their long trunks and broad fronds of pinnate leaves. According to statistics for 1933, all the coconut plantations total 33,176 hectares, and the copra yearly produced therefrom amounts to 10,722 tons.

**Fisheries** There are no records available of fisheries in the islands before the Japanese occupation. A few Japanese made a start shortly after 1914, but unfortunately they all failed, due principally to unpreparedness to cope with the peculiar geographical and climatic conditions of the region. Only recently have profitable undertakings been established. The lack of transportation facilities, the unique conditions and the limited island market make it imperative that the industry be remodelled.

Bonito, tunny, mackerel, sardine, horse-mackerel and shark are found in abundance in neighbouring waters. In shallow waters near the coasts there are seen everywhere shoals of poly-coloured small fish and all sorts of shell-fish. The crocodile, hawk's-bill turtle and sponge of good quality are also plentiful.

The manufacturing side of the

fishing industry is still in its infancy and is still limited to the drying of horse-mackerel, bonito and mackerel by an obsolete process. Some pearls and sponges are cultivated, chiefly at Palau.

**Mining** The only mining is for phosphate on the Island of Angaur, south of the main island of the Palau group in the Carolines. The island is 15.54 square kilometres in area. The thickness of the phosphate deposit varies from about 3 metres to 7 metres, and the amount available is estimated in 1933 at 1,700,000 tons. For some time after the Japanese occupation of the territory, the mining was carried on by the Navy, but it is now an enterprise of the government. Yearly production is put at 60,000 tons. In addition to the superintendent, who is an expert, there are two assistant experts, three clerks, 442 mine workers, 15 labourers and 4 other employees.

**Encouragement of Enterprises** Encouragement and financial assistance are given to a number of undertakings, including vegetable farms; coffee plantations, which have been receiving subsidies since 1927; the breeding of cows, pigs and oxen; the growing of sugar-cane and the manufacture of sugar, which were subsidized to the extent of ¥479,044 in 1933, laundries, barber shops, shoe-repair shops and hotels; the cultivation of pearls; and the preparation of dried bonito. As the raising of coconut trees is recognized as one of the most promising industries in the islands, regulations were issued in 1922 stipulating that to those who seriously undertake the planting of coconut palms a subsidy is to be given at a rate not exceeding ¥20 per 2½ acres of newly planted land and not exceeding ¥10 per 2½ acres of old coconut groves put in order. Furthermore, the regulations were revised in 1931 to provide a

subsidy of one-fourth of the cost of constructing factories for drying copra.

Since 1924, Saipan and Palau have held competitive shows of the local agricultural produce and handmade articles, supported by the government. In addition, representative products of the islands are exhibited at various shows and exhibitions in Japan proper through the good offices of the government. The South Sea Government Products Museum was established and opened at the beginning of 1930 for the exhibition of all sorts of insular products and geographical and historic studies.

An official investigation is being made in places sparsely inhabited by the natives to see whether there is land for additional immigrants, and wherever land is found and designated suitable for colonization every care is taken to assure comforts for settlers. A survey made in October, 1932, showed the existence of land for 393 families. Another investigation is seeking to distinguish lands owned by the government from those possessed by private citizens. Although no accurate figures are yet available, government-owned coconut groves are estimated at about 6,600 acres, with 298,000 trees. From these figures, however, it is difficult to calculate the approximate amount of copra obtainable, for some of the groves are unproductive. A comprehensive survey is in progress.

**Experimental Stations** The Industrial Experimental Station in the islands, where all kinds of experiments and investigations connected with agriculture and stock-breeding are conducted, utilizes farms totaling 145 acres. The Aquatic Products Experimental Station, initiated in 1931 under the control of the Colonial Section of the government, experiments, among other things,

with the preservation of bonito and mackerel and the breeding of sponges, turtles and shell-fish.

**Trade** The staple exports are phosphate, copra, sugar, dried bonito and alcohol, which account for 96 per cent. of all exports. As to imports, 61 per cent. of the total consists of cereals and other provisions and drinks, cotton textiles and manufactures, clothing and fittings, metal goods, lumber and various wooden articles.

The open ports are Saipan, Palau, Angaur, Truk and Jaluit. Almost the entire overseas trade of the archipelagos is done with the Japanese mainland save for sundry goods exchanged between Saipan and Guam and between Jaluit and the Gilbert Islands and for a nominal amount of sugar from Hawaii and copra and sundry goods from Guam, the Gilbert Islands and Manila.

The total exports in 1933 were ¥18,739,675, of which export to the Japanese mainland was ¥18,155,920. Among exports to Japan, sugar represented ¥12,471,133, phosphate, ¥1,361,879, and copra, ¥1,509,385. The total imports in the same period were valued at ¥8,989,740 of which ¥8,550,486 were from Japan. With countries other than Japan, exports amounted to ¥583,755 and imports ¥439,254.

#### Transportation and Communications

There are no roads worthy of the name on the islands, though the government realizes that they are the first requisite for industrial development. As large appropriations will be needed, their construction will have to wait for some years to come. Nor are there railways for public use. The short one at Angaur to the phosphate mine, and that at Saipan is exclusively for the hauling of freight belonging to the

South Sea Development Company.

Improvement of transportation facilities is now being concentrated on harbours. Generally speaking, the ports are favourable for mooring, but the long distance between vessels lying at anchor and the landing places, as well as coral rocks extending far into the sea, handicaps their healthful growth as modern commercial ports. The construction of modern harbours depends upon magnanimous appropriations and years of labour. The first real harbour, started in 1926 and completed in 1931 at a cost of more than ¥1,000,000, was at Saipan. A second project was launched in 1927 at Corrol, where, between the vessels at anchor and the landing place, lies a coral-reef. The work came to an end after the expenditure of ¥106,992 in 1930.

**Shipping Routes** Upon the creation of the South Sea Government, all government-controlled shipping routes were placed under the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, Ltd. The schedule for these lines in 1933 follows:

(1) West Round Line: Plying between Japan and the Philippines, the ships touch at Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé, Moji, the insular ports, Menado and Davao, covering both ways in 44 days. 17 voyages are made a year.

(2) East Round Line: Plying between Kobé and Jaluit, the ships of the line call at Saipan, Truk, Ponape and Kusaie, covering both ways in 50 days. 6 voyages are made yearly.

(3) East and West Connecting Line: Between Kobé and Jaluit, this line includes calls at various insular ports. Both ways are covered in 53 days, and 6 voyages are made a year.

(4) Saipan Line: The ports of call are Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé, Moji, Futami, Saipan and Tinian.

17 round-trips, made in 28 days, are scheduled for the year.

The number of vessels on these lines is 8, ranging from 2,444 to 6,143 tons.

Among the islands themselves, shipping has been entrusted to the South Sea Trading Company, Ltd., which is subsidized by the Government. The services now available are: the Mariana line, connecting scattered islets within the Mariana Archipelago, available 17 times a year; the Yap, Palau, Truk and Ponape lines, each with 4 trips a year, and the Marshall line, which makes 7 trips a year. In addition there are Ponape, Truk and Palau lines. Five vessels are used, ranging from 192 to 541 tons.

During 1933, vessels that entered and cleared the nine ports of the territory numbered 511 and 503 respectively—354 steamships, 149 sailing vessels clearing and 359 steamships, 152 sailing vessels entering. The numbers of passengers landing and embarking were 11,598 and 13,904 respectively.

**Other Means of Communication** All means of communication were placed under the control of the local government when it was established. The Communication Section thus takes care of (1) post, telegraph, telephone, exchange and deposit services, (2) postal insurance, and (3) sea-routes, vessels and nautical markings. There are nine post offices, situated at Saipan, Jaluit, Tinian, Rota, Palau, Yap, Ponape, and Angaur. Each handles wireless messages. The cable and wireless lines now operated are as follows:

(1) Between Yap and Bonin Islands: dispatched by the Chichi-jima Wireless, relayed at Saipan.

(2) Between Yap and all except the Bonin Islands: dispatched on the submarine cable through Naha, Ryukyu (Loochoo).

(3) Between the South Sea Islands, except Yap, and Loochoo and Taiwan: sent by submarine cable.

(4) Between the South Sea Islands, except Yap, and the Bonin Islands: sent by the Chichi-jima Wireless, relayed at Saipan.

(5) Between the South Sea Islands and all outside points except the Bonin Islands, Taiwan and Loochoo: dispatched by the Tokyo Wireless, relayed at Palao.

Telephone facilities are still limited, switch-boards being installed at only Palau and Saipan.

#### Judicial System

The judicial branch of the South Sea Government employs the double trial system, the court for the first trial being one of the Local Courts of Justice and for the second trial the High Court of Justice. To each court is attached a public procurator's office. In remote places, minor irregularities, both civil and criminal, are disposed of by the judgment of the branch office heads.

The South Sea Government High Court of Justice is located in Palau. The Palau Local Court of Justice has jurisdiction in the Palau and Yap groups; the Saipan Local Court of Justice, in the Saipan group, and the Ponape Local Court of Justice, in the Ponape, Truk and Jaluit groups. On June 30, 1933, there were three judges, two procurators and four secretaries in the judicial system.

Most legal regulations are the same as in Japan, but due consideration is given to the customs and conditions peculiar to the natives. Their civil affairs are handled quite independently of those of settlers from outside; hereditary practices in land ownership are preserved, none but government officials being permitted to sell, purchase or mortgage their land; legal proceedings

are made as simple as possible, and natives sentenced to less than one year of penal servitude may be subjected to labour instead of being sent to a prison.

### Education

Besides elementary schools for the Japanese, there are 24 for natives throughout the insular territory. Though education is not compulsory, schools are provided, clothing and food supplied in particular cases and pupils from remote places received into dormitories. At the schools for native children, natives are employed as assistant instructors. The Japanese instructors must have the full qualifications of elementary school teachers in Japan proper.

There are schools for Japanese children in Saipan, Palau, Truk, Tinian, Yap and Ponape, and where there is no near-by Japanese school a Japanese class is attached to the native elementary school. The course of instruction, requiring six years, and the textbooks are the same as in Japan proper. The natives' elementary education takes three years, and after that they are free to enter continuation courses of two years. The lessons are about the same as those taught in the Japanese schools, save for the stress placed on ethics, calculation and the Japanese language. To teach carpentry, a special institute is attached to the Corrol Public School for natives.

Christian schools number 3 in Saipan, 1 in Palau, 6 in Truk, 2 in Ponape and 3 in Jaluit. All of them are attached to churches and naturally concentrate on diffusing knowledge of Christianity. They are not worthy of being called educational institutions in the strict sense.

With the object of popularizing education, a scholarship society was formed on the foundation of an Imperial donation, ¥2,000, in Feb-

ruary, 1924. The society is headed by the Governor, who, with the interest accruing to the original and yearly scholarship grants by the government, does everything possible to encourage deserving students. There is also the South Sea Islands Educational Society, headed by the Governor and with branches at the seats of branch offices of the government. Its sole object is elevation of the educational standard of the islanders.

The elementary schools for the Japanese, according to statistics taken at the end of April, 1934, have 63 instructors and 3,936 pupils—2,026 boys and 1,911 girls. Besides, there are 8 instructors in charge of the continuation courses, with 404 students under them. The schools for natives have 58 Japanese teachers and 23 native assistant teachers, 1,303 boys and 1,005 girls attending elementary school course, and 412 boys and 225 girls in the continuation course.

There are some private institutions, mostly kindergartens, for Japanese children. Kindergartens are found in Saipan, Yap, Palau, and Ponape, having in all 15 Japanese teachers and 295 children. A private elementary school for natives in Jaluit has 42 children under 2 instructors, 1 of whom is Japanese.

As there were not very many Japanese children, no middle school was in existence in the archipelago prior to 1933. But owing to the industrial development and the increase of Japanese residents, it became necessary to establish one, and in accordance with the prefectural ordinance of March, 1933, an industrial school was established in the island of Saipan.

### Religion

Among the native inhabitants there is no religion worthy of the

name, but they have a sort of religious belief. Christianity was first introduced and propagated by Spaniards in 1666. A Jesuit missionary worked enthusiastically in Guam until banished in 1766 by Charles III and is said to have initiated the islanders into the methods of cultivating corn, tobacco, cocoa and potatoes. In more recent times, an American missionary group gained influence, though it finally abandoned work in Ponape and Truk, as did a Protestant mission group from Germany in the former island. Catholicism went on evangelizing side by side with Protestantism and is said to have had more funds. Priests of the Otani branch of the Shinshu Sect of Buddhism established themselves in Saipan for religious prop-

aganda in 1919, and in 1926 a Tenrikyo church was opened in Palau.

Soon after the evacuation of the German Protestant missionaries, the Japanese Congregational Church despatched four missionaries to Ponape and Truk. American missionaries in Kusaie and Jaluit are engaged in educational as well as religious work, and Catholic missionaries, who came in 1921 from Spain, are also active. It is generally accepted that the natives' mild temperament is the result of the long and untiring efforts of the missionaries. Generally speaking, Christianity seems to have placed the entire population under its influence, but very few of the church-goers understand its tenets.

CHURCHES, MISSIONARIES AND BELIEVERS, April, 1934

Religion	Churches	Mission halls	Preachers	Inmates of Monastery	Native Preachers		Believers		Total
					Japanese	Foreign	Native	Foreign	
Catholic	18	39	15	22	24	104	11	18,595	18,710
Protestant	12	78	17	—	89	20	1	22,143	22,164
Buddhist	5	—	7	—	—	22,760	—	502	23,262
Tenrikyo	2	—	3	—	—	20	—	106	126
Total	32	117	42	22	113	22,904	12	41,346	64,262

The Charitable Society, founded on an Imperial donation of ¥1,000, was organized in May, 1927, in commemoration of the demise of the late Emperor Taisho. It is financed by the interest accruing to the foundation and contributions, and its principal mission is salvation of the poor and afflicted. So far its main accomplishment has been caring for lepers, 46 of whom are accommodated in 4 sanatoria.

### Medical and Hygienic Services

In general, there is less malignant disease in the islands than in other tropical lands. But the fact that most of them are coral reefs and small in area makes it difficult to obtain water supply. Rain-water

tanks are the usual source, and they often prove the agency for spreading sickness. When the trade wind begins and ends, bringing changes in the climate, influenza occasionally rages. The natives are most unsanitary and even when taken ill hesitate to consult a doctor. Despite untiring efforts by the authorities to better hygienic conditions, long-established customs have impeded progress.

The principal endemic diseases peculiar to the islands are amoeboid dysentery, frambœsia and dengue. Dysentery breaks out at places all the year round, but the symptoms are generally slight. Frambœsia, rampant among the natives, afflicts but few Japanese. In recent years,

in consequence of injecting salvarsan as a remedy, the number of those contracting it has decreased.

Dengue is at times so prevalent that nearly every inhabitant has it, but few fall victims to it. Fortunately, the islanders have never been attacked by malaria fever, cholera,

pest, yellow fever or sleeping sickness. Typhus, paratyphus, dysentery and a few other infectious diseases, however, are common. One suspected case of small-pox was reported in 1926, but it was agreed that the patient had contracted it while travelling in China and Japan.

#### CASES OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES

Period	Amoeboid Dysentery		Typhus		Paratyphus		Diphtheria	
	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths
1922	51	—	30	9	—	—	—	—
1923	84	—	11	2	2	1	—	—
1924	84	—	11	2	2	1	—	—
1924	44	4	10	3	1	—	—	—
1925	83	10	4	1	2	—	—	—
1926	64	11	10	2	17	1	—	—
1927	146	14	15	4	4	—	—	—
1928	105	14	6	1	2	—	—	—
1929	197	27	40	3	202	1	—	—
1930	70	7	149	11	59	2	1	—
1931	254	35	24	3	11	1	1	1
1932	57	1	17	4	39	2	—	—
1933	64	6	21	1	11	1	1	—

Period	Spinal Meningitis		Dysentery		Infantile Cholera		Total	
	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths
1922	—	—	—	—	—	—	81	9
1923	1	—	—	—	—	—	98	3
1924	—	—	—	—	—	—	55	7
1925	—	—	—	—	—	—	89	11
1926	—	—	—	—	—	—	91	4
1927	—	—	—	—	—	—	165	18
1928	—	—	2	—	—	—	115	15
1929	—	—	—	—	2	1	441	32
1930	1	1	—	—	—	—	280	21
1931	—	—	—	—	11	3	300	42
1932	3	1	17	—	4	1	137	29
1933	—	—	10	2	—	—	107	10

**Medical Facilities** Medical practitioner's offices are maintained by the government, and for the benefit of those living in remote places visiting doctors are despatched several times a year. The entire territory is divided into three classes, A, B and C, according to the standard of living, and medical charges are fixed differently; class A, for instance, paying from a third to half as much as the resident Japanese. The task of health protection lies heavily upon the shoulders of the government, for the number of private medical practitioners within the territory is

still far from sufficient. According to statistics taken in June, 1934, officials in the government medical service throughout the insular territory include 24 doctors, 7 pharmacists, 3 secretaries, 7 employees, 7 assistants, 8 midwives and 22 nurses.

Special precautions are exercised against the outbreak of epidemics, and all arriving vessels are subjected to strict quarantine inspection. Compulsory vaccination is being practised, as in Japan proper. Geisha and waitresses undergo examination at least once a month. Lepers are found in several places,

though the exact number is not yet available. The government opened a sanatorium in Saipan in 1926 and added others in Jaluit and Palau.

The health inspection is conducted in the schools once a year. The results indicate that though the physical growth of the native chil-

dren generally surpasses that of the Japanese, cases of malnutrition and disease are much more numerous among the former. Inspection of water, and investigation of the causes of deaths are practised to aid health and hygienic improvement.

MANCHOUKUO

MANCHOUKUO

## MANCHOUKUO

### Geography

**Position** Extending between 38°43' and 53°30' North latitude and 117°50' and 135°20' East longitude Manchoukuo is bordered on the north by Siberia and on the east by Korea and the Maritime Province of Siberia.

On the west its borders touch Outer Mongolia, Eastern Inner Mongolia and China proper, while on the south its shores are washed by the waters of the Yellow Sea and the Gulf of Pechili, the coast line extending over 855 nautical miles.

**Topography** Topographically, Manchoukuo is a vast expanse of plains, traversed from north to south by the Great and Little Hsingan (Khinyan or Khingan) mountain ranges in the north-western section, and by the Changpai mountains near the south-eastern boundary.

Several great rivers with many tributaries run through Manchoukuo, irrigating the plains which they pass. The most notable of these rivers are the Heilungkiang (Amur), Sungari, Ussuri, Yalu, Tumen and Liao Rivers.

**Climate** The climate of Manchoukuo is typically continental, despite the fact that this country lies within about the same latitudes as Japan, Korea, France and England.

Almost unaffected by ocean currents, Manchoukuo has a dry, cold climate with long severe winters and short hot summers. The spring season is windy, strong winds often carrying yellow dusts from the west.

The temperature falls as low as 49° C. below zero in winter and goes up as high as 40.0° C in some localities in summer.

### Area, Population, Language, etc.

**Area and Population** The area of Manchoukuo is put at 1,300,000 sq. km. and is about twice as large as the combined areas of Japan proper, Korea, Formosa and Karafuto. The population at the end of 1933, according to the investigation made by the statistics bureau of the Executive Yuan, was 30,879,717. This population as divided according to the various provinces, which were newly established in December, 1934, with the area of each province, is as follows:

### POPULATION AND AREA

(Dec. 31, 1933.)

Province	Area in sq. km.	Population
Kirin	89,910	4,656,607
Lungkiang	125,537	1,974,857
Heiho	109,813	38,502
Sankiang	107,545	833,419
Pinkiang	143,425	4,032,057
Chientao	29,395	487,972
Antung	48,226	2,641,214
Fentleng	85,546	9,379,302
Chinchou	39,462	2,938,709
Jehol	96,585	2,200,258
Hsinking Special Municipality	191	140,945
Harbin Special Municipality	929	413,386
North Manchuria Special District	(1,147)	181,019



Province	Area in sq. km.	Population
Hsingan, Western Division	80,411	358,368
.. Southern ..	79,021	484,973
.. Eastern ..	106,751	75,189
.. Northern ..	160,396	42,900
Total	1,303,143	30,879,717
Kwantung Leased Territory	3,462	1,072,078
S.M.R. Zone	284	462,276
Total	3,746	1,534,354
Grand total	1,306,889	32,414,071

## POPULATION OF MANCHOUKUO CLASSIFIED BY NATIONALITY

Dec. 31, 1933

Province	No. of Household	Population				Total
		Manchurian	Japanese	Korean	Others	
Fengtien	2,428,942	15,898,686	8,525	123,182	1,391	15,531,784
Kirin	1,164,616	6,948,087	11,956	409,578	2,272	7,371,893
Heilungkiang Prov.	624,078	3,810,104	3,017	5,599	563	3,819,286
Jehol	677,158	2,646,330	670	184	33	2,647,217
North Manchuria						
Special District	38,612	151,191	1,863	3,997	23,963	181,019
Hsinking Special						
Municipality	25,728	136,215	3,090	1,596	44	140,945
Harbin Special						
Municipality	87,458	334,663	9,095	5,207	64,420	413,356
Hsingan Prov.						
Eastern Div.	12,511	74,600	138	59	242	75,189
Southern Div.	57,024	337,800	297	2,241	—	340,338
Western Div.	52,600	315,350	—	460	—	315,810
Northern Div.	7,140	37,400	—	—	4,500	42,900
Total	5,185,967	30,190,526	38,657	552,103	98,431	30,879,717
S.M.R. Zone	74,944	235,234	120,973	27,781	1,328	404,316
Kwantung Leased Territory	161,838	862,307	120,016	2,295	857	1,004,439

**Language** Chinese is the official language of Manchoukuo, although native Manchus and Mongols living in the interior districts speak their own dialects and Japanese is now being taught at many native schools in Hsinking and other important centres of the country.

The original Manchus now living in the country are estimated to number between six and seven millions, but most of them speak Chinese, only those who live in some districts of Kirin province keeping to their own native dialect.

As the official, social and commercial language, the Peking mandarin language is most widely used in Manchoukuo, but the Shantung, Nanking, Shanghai, Canton and oth-

er dialects are spoken among the immigrants from these different parts of China.

Among other foreign languages Japanese and Russian are the best known in the country.

**Banditry** Manchoukuo has long been noted for its mounted bandits who ravaged the country. Under the old militarist régime even regular soldiers turned to banditry and quite often they were enlisted among the regular troops when in need, so that the troops and bandits were not clearly distinguishable from each other.

Bandits in Manchuria once numbered as many as 200,000 after the Manchurian Incident owing to the fact that the regular troops in the

army of Chang Hsueh-liang resorted to banditry. But the strenuous efforts of the Japanese and Manchoukuo troops have reduced the number to about 50,000 by the end of 1932.

As a result of the pacification of Jehol early in March, 1933, the base of operation of the major bandit groups was completely wiped out. With the view to furthering the work of restoring peace and order, a central peace preservation committee was organized in Hsinking. Between the autumn of 1933 and the early spring of 1934, an intensive campaign was directed against the remnant outlaws in Kirin province. The bandit-insurgents have been reduced to less than 40,000. Efforts are being made to confiscate the weapons illegally possessed by the people, to reduce the number of the so-called vigilance corps of the professional type, and to give work to the roaming outlaws who surrender to the authorities.

## History

**Before Ching Dynasty** Nearly twenty different dynasties have ruled successively in the territory now under the sovereignty of Manchoukuo, which includes Manchuria and part of Mongolia, from the Sushen dynasty to about the second and third centuries down to the Ching dynasty, which lasted from 1636 until 1911, when its rule was replaced by the new régime of the Republic of China.

The Ching dynasty was known as the Nuchen tribe before it gained hegemony in China proper. In 1636, the chief of the Nuchen tribe declared independence at Mukden against the Ming dynasty which was then in power in China proper, naming his country, which extended over the area now forming the territory of Manchoukuo, "Taching".

After rising to independence in

Manchuria, Taching gradually expanded its territory until 1664, when conquering the Ming forces it occupied Peking and made that city its capital, after which Manchuria seemed deserted, except Han immigrants who came from China proper and inhabited in Manchuria, though only sparsely.

Thus Manchuria was left neglected by the Manchus, who were almost entirely occupied in colonizing China proper, and when Russians penetrated into Manchuria they could do much as they liked in this region.

It was not until after the Russo-Japanese War that the Chinese authorities came to see the need of attending to the administration of Manchuria with any degree of seriousness. With this object in view, Hsu Shih-chang was appointed Viceroy of the Three Eastern Provinces in 1907, and notable improvements were effected in the systems of administration, communications and transport during the following few years.

The late Marshal Chang Tso-lin came into power in Manchuria after the Revolution of 1911, when Chao Erh-hsuan, then Viceroy of the Three Eastern Provinces, asked him to render military assistance to resist the advance of the revolutionary forces on Manchuria.

**Rise of Chang Tso-lin** The rapid ascendancy of Chang Tso-lin then followed and in 1916 he was appointed Inspector-General of the Three Eastern Provinces, thus virtually placing the entire territory of Manchuria under his autocratic rule.

After a series of three civil wars with the Chihli army, in the course of which General Kuo Sun-lin, one of his lieutenants, made an unsuccessful attempt to overthrow him, Chang Tso-lin started hostilities with the Kuomin army of Feng Yu-hsiang, the so-called "Christian General",

in January, 1926, and occupying Peking in December that year, installed himself as Generalissimo at Peking in June, 1927, thus attempting to reign over the entire territory of China.

This marked the peak of the ascendancy of the Mukden war-lord, for, in June, 1928, he had to leave Peking for Mukden ostensibly with the intention of spending the rest of his life in retirement. It was on this trip back to Mukden that the Marshal was killed in a train wreck near Mukden.

Under Chang Hsueh-liang Chang Hsueh-liang, known as the young war-lord of Mukden, then stepped into his father's shoes, but finding himself unable to keep effective control over the lieutenants of his late father, he declared allegiance to the National Government in December, 1928, and was appointed commander-in-chief of the North-Eastern Frontier Army. This was followed by the renaming of Fentien province as Liaoning in March, 1929. During the civil war of 1930, Chang Hsueh-liang maintained an attitude of sympathetic neutrality, thereby making it possible for the National Army to defeat the rebels under Yen Hsi-shan and Feng Yuhsiang. Apparently in appreciation of this, the National Government appointed Chang Hsueh-liang Vice-Commander-in-Chief of the National Army, Navy and Air Forces.

In 1931, Chang Hsueh-liang moved his headquarters to Peking and during his absence, all his influence in Manchuria was overthrown following the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident on September 18, 1931.

**Founding of Manchoukuo** The effort directed at restoring peace and order as the Chang Hsueh-liang government was driven out of Mukden by the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident first materialized in the

Committee for Preservation of Local Peace and Order organized at Mukden. This soon led to the organization of the independent government of Fengtien province, the example of which was followed by Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces. Later, an Administrative Committee composed of members coming from various provinces was organized and preparations for establishment of the new state were made.

On February 18, 1932 the Committee fulfilled its first duty by announcing the declaration of the establishment of an independent state and appointing a standing committee of seven members for discussing various detailed problems. The fundamental principles of the new state as announced by the committee on February 25 are as follows: the new state to be called Manchoukuo; the ruler to be called Chief Executive; the flag to be a five-coloured one; the new era to be called Tatung; and the capital to be Changchun, which later came to be called Hsinking.

Mr. Pu Yi, who was formally elected Chief Executive by the Administrative Committee, took office on March 9. The law regulating the organization of the government and the law guaranteeing personal rights were promulgated on the same day. On the following day, Cheng Hsiao-hsu, Prime Minister, and other high officials were appointed.

At the request of the people of Manchoukuo, who appreciated and enjoyed the benevolent administration of the new régime under His Excellency Pu Yi, many of their leaders in Mukden and other principal cities and towns petitioned for his enthronement as Emperor of Manchoukuo in the beginning of 1934. This was accepted, and the Chief Executive was formally enthroned on March 1, 1934, the second

anniversary of the founding of Manchoukuo. The state was thereafter called Manchoutikuo, which means the Empire of Manchuria, the Chief Executive the Emperor Kangtê, and the new era Kangtê.

**Japan in Manchuria** Japan's close relation with Manchuria began with the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95. The actual invasion of Manchuria by Russia, which was active in that region since 1858, came after the Three Powers' intervention in 1895, which wrested from Japan Liaotung Peninsula, a territory acquired by Japan as a fruit of the War. This was but the beginning of unrestrained activities of Russia in Manchuria. She established the Russo-Chinese Bank with a capital of 15,000,000 roubles, which was followed by acquisition of right from China to build the Chinese Eastern Railway through Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces, together with the right to operate mines in these two provinces.

In March, 1898 Russia acquired a twenty-five years' lease of Liaotung Peninsula, which included the right to construct a railway from a point on the Chinese Eastern Railway down to Port Arthur. This railway line was completed in 1902.

Moreover, Russia took advantage of the Boxer Uprising in 1900 and dispatched troops to many important places in Manchuria. These troops Russia refused to withdraw, in spite of her promise to do so after the suppression of the uprising, and concentrated her forces on the Korean border, thus obviously menacing the safety of Japan through Korea.

All these were sufficient to lead to the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-05, in which Japan was victorious. By the Treaty of Portsmouth, Russia transferred to Japan the lease of Kwantung province and all rights, privileges and concessions connected with or forming part of this lease.

The Treaty also provided for Russia's transfer to Japan of the railway between Changchun and Port Arthur and all its branch lines, together with all rights, privileges and properties appertaining thereto.

What are known as the special rights and interests of Japan in Manchuria are mainly based on the Treaty of Portsmouth and also on the terms of loans advanced to China for the construction of railways, as well as several other agreements.

#### Government

Manchoukuo abrogated, with the accession to the throne of the Emperor on March 1, 1934, the Organic Law, which was in force since 1932, and promulgated on the same day the new "Organic Law of Government", which may be taken as provisional constitution. According to the new Law, the Emperor exercises all the executive powers with the assistance of the Privy Council, which may advise him on important state affairs.

The governmental power of the state is divided into four and vested in Executive, Legislative, Judicial and Supervisory Yuans.

The Executive Yuan, which corresponds to the cabinets of other countries, is headed by the Premier and comprises the various Ministers of State respectively heading the Civil Administration (Home Affairs), the Foreign Affairs, the Military Administration (War), the Finance, the Industry, the Communications, the Justice, and the Education Department.

The legislative power is vested in the Legislative Yuan, whose approval is necessary for all laws and revenue enactments, while the Supervisory Yuan supervises the conduct of officials and audits their accounts. The members of the Council may not be dismissed except for criminal of-

fence or as disciplinary punishment, and may not be subjected to suspension or transfer of office, or reduction of salary, against their will.

The present personnel of the Manchoukuo Government includes the following. A complete change took place on the State Affairs Yuan on May 21, 1935:

**Privy Councillors:**

Tsung Shih-yi (president),  
Yen Chin-kai, Kuei Fu, T. Tsukushi,  
H. Tanabe, Tseng Yun, H. Yada.  
Hsieh Hsiao-hsu, Shen Jui-lin

**State Affairs Yuan (Executive Yuan):**

Prime Minister—General Chang Ching-hui  
Home Minister—Lu Jung-huan  
Finance Minister—Sun Chi-chang  
Foreign Minister—Chang Yen-ching  
Defence Minister—General Yu Chishan  
Industry Minister—Ting Chien-hsiu  
Communications Minister—Li Shao-keng  
Education Minister—Yuan Chentse  
Justice Minister—Feng Han-ching  
Imperial Household Minister—Hsi Hsia  
Mongolian Affairs Minister—Chi Wang

**Legislative Yuan**

President, Dr. Chao Hsin-po

Preparations had been made to effect fundamental revisions in the system of local administration and the four provinces of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang, and Jehol were reorganized into ten new administrative provinces, and the new system became effective on December 1, 1934. At the same time a new Department known as the Mongolian Affairs Department was formally inaugurated, and the four subprovincial governments of Hsingan Province were left unchanged. The names of provinces and their governors follow:

Provinces	Governors
Fengtien	Pao Kang
Kirin	Li Ming-shu
Pinkiang	Lu Jung-huan
Lungkiang	Sun Chi-chang
Chinchou	Hsu Shao-ching
Antung	Wang Tsu-tung
Jehol	Liu Meng-keng
Sankiang	Chin Ming-shih
Chientao	Tsai Yun-sheng
Helho	Chung Yu

Provinces	Governors
Hsingan, Eastern Division	E-lei-chun
.. Southern ..	Yeh-hsi-hai-shun
.. Western ..	Cha-ko-erh
.. Northern ..	Ling Sheng

**National Defence**

**History** The Manchurian army has its origin in the Lian army which rendered great services in founding the Ching dynasty. They were since then hereditary and were garrisoned in various important points. After the Chinese Revolution of 1911 the army was modernized, and in Manchuria, there were stationed two divisions of the 27th and 28th numbering from 30,000 to 40,000. When Chang Tso-lin came into power, he increased it to 200,000, which was again increased by his son to 260,000 regulars with an additional 100,000 held as provisional forces. There was kept also a small fleet of 7 gunboats to protect trade carried on the rivers. These were the military forces in service under Chang Hsueh-liang at the time of the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident.

**Present Status** The army and navy of the empire is under the supreme command of the Emperor, and is garrisoned in defence of particular districts prescribed by the Emperor.

The Department of War has following 9 bureaux and offices:

(1) The Staff, (2) The War Supplies Bureau, (3) The Horse Administration Bureau, (4) The Central Army Training Depot, (5) The Central Clothing Depot, (6) The Central Arsenal, (7) The Central Military Propaganda Bureau, (8) The central "Seikyo" Commission ("Seikyo" literally means purification of local districts), and (9) The Defence Headquarters.

The military forces at various points are:

1. The Imperial Guards
2. The Guards of Honour
3. The Flying Corps
4. The Gendarmerie Headquarters
5. Fengtien Army
6. Kirin ..

7. Heilungkiang Army
8. Jehol ..
9. East Hsingan ..
10. North ..
11. South ..

The army numbers 120,000. As to the coastal and river defence, the country maintains 8 warships, 7 gunboats and 3 vessels.

**Foreign Relations**

**With Japan** (1) Recognition by Japan. Japan is the only country with which Manchoukuo is exchanging envoys. Her relation with Japan is defined in the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol signed on September 15, 1932, between the two countries at Hsinking, providing for their mutual defence. (See p. 204) The document is also notable for the fact that by virtue of it, Japan accorded recognition de jure to the new state far ahead of other nations.

(2) Emperor Kangtê's visit on Japan. In June, 1934, Prince Chichibu was sent to the Empire to convey the Imperial Message of Congratulation to the Emperor and Empress of the new state. In return for this, the Emperor Kangtê paid a visit to Japan, arriving Tokyo on April 6, 1935, and made a formal call on the Emperor of Japan on the same day. He stayed till April 24.

(3) Abolition of Extraterritorial Privileges. Manchoukuo has confirmed, by the Japan-Manchoukuo protocol, the extraterritorial privileges which Japan had been enjoying under treaties with China. But the development and progress of the country, since its founding, in all branches of administrative system, which are connected with extraterritoriality, for instance, in judicial, police and taxation systems, have been noteworthy. In fact more than ¥8,000,000 was set up for the reform of these systems in the budget for 1934. Accordingly

Japan decided to give up the rights of extraterritoriality and obtained the Imperial sanction for doing so on August 9, 1935. The decision has to do with the principles and the actual abolition is to be effected in gradual stages and in accord with the reform of the governmental systems and organs of Manchoukuo. (See Appendix.)

(4) Japan-Manchoukuo Economic Agreement. The agreement regarding the establishment of a joint Japanese-Manchoukuo economic commission was signed on July 15, 1935, at Hsinking by General Jirô Minami, Ambassador to Manchoukuo and commander of the Kwantung Army, and Mr. Chang Yen-ching, Foreign Minister of Manchoukuo. The object of the agreement is to extend to the economic field the inseparable relations between Japan and Manchoukuo that already exist in the defence and diplomatic fields and to accelerate the formation of the economic bloc between the two countries.

**With the League of Nations** In regard to the issue of the Sino-Japanese dispute at the League of Nations, Manchoukuo was concerned only indirectly as it is not a member of the Geneva organization. During the Council and the Assembly meetings of the League at which the problem was discussed, late in 1932 and early in 1933, General Ting Shih-yuan, who was later appointed Manchoukuo Minister to Japan, stayed in Geneva as a personal representative of the then Chief Executive, now the Emperor Kangtê. With the assistance of a few advisers he presented the case of his country on several occasions to the League of

Nations through the Japanese delegation, and otherwise made efforts, though without avail, to influence those attending the League meetings in favour of his country.

**With Soviet Russia (1) The N. M. R. Issue** The issue of the North Manchuria Railway was first brought to light in connection with the dispute regarding the alleged unlawful detention of locomotives and carriages of the railway by the Soviet officials, followed by the partial suspension of through traffic on the line by the Manchoukuo authorities. By this suspension the connection between the North Manchuria Railway and the Ussuri Railway was almost completely cut away. Not only the loss which the Ussuri Railway would sustain was enormous, but the fate of Vladivostok was also likely to be sealed thereby. Alarmed at this, Russia hastened to come to Japan asking to render assistance for the solution of the problem.

**(2) Purchase of N. M. R.** In view of this and previous troubles concerning the North Manchuria Railway, Soviet Russia proposed to dispose of the railway and a conference was opened in Tokyo in June 26, 1933, between the representatives of Manchoukuo and Soviet Russia headed by General Ting Shin-yuan and Mr. Constantin Youreneff, with a few Japanese officials attending the parley as observers.

The most seemingly unsurmountable difficulty at the conference was the price to be paid for the railway, which the Soviet valued at 250,000,000 gold roubles which, calculated at its specified exchange rate, would amount to ¥625,000,000, although they later offered to reduce it to 200,000,000 gold roubles, while the Manchoukuo representatives persistently declared that they were not willing to pay any

more than ¥50,000,000 for the line.

The deadlock continued with little prospect of its being overcome and after meeting six times in plenary session the representatives of the two countries continued the discussion in unofficial conversations in the hope of finding a way out of the difficulty. At last through the good offices of the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Japan, Mr. Kōki Hirota, the conference came to be amicably closed and the transference of the N.M.R. was effected on March 23, 1935, the value of the railway having been agreed upon at ¥140,000,000. (See Appendix.)

**(3) Dispute with Outer Mongolia.** Of all the disputes which Manchoukuo has been experiencing the most complicated one was the Halha affair which took place on the frontier with Outer Mongolia.

On January 24, 1935, the troops of Outer Mongolia passed over the Manchoukuo-Outer Mongolia frontier on the east side of Lake Buir, and clashed with the garrison of Manchoukuo. Hulha is a strategic point on the Manchoukuo-Outer Mongolia frontier. Outer Mongolia is a territory of the republic formed by the Mongolian people, which is under control of Soviet Russia. The door of the republic is opened only to Russia, it being closed not only to Manchoukuo, but also to China, which formerly had sovereignty over it.

The delegates of the two countries began to hold conference on June 1, 1935 at Manchuli to settle the affair and also to establish a frontier line between the two countries. The delegates held more than ten sessions covering two months, but still have not come to any satisfactory agreement (August 15, 1935).

**(4) Committee on Frontier Disputes between Manchoukuo and the U.S.S.R.** In view of almost endless disputes occurring at the frontier

regions between Manchoukuo and the U.S.S.R., the Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs, Mr. K. Hirota, proposed to Ambassador Yuoreneff of the U.S.S.R. at Tokyo to establish a joint commission for the settlement of questions arising in the frontier between Japan, Manchoukuo and the U.S.S.R. The proposition is expected to materialize in the near future.

**With Great Britain and the U.S.A.** The Manchoukuo Government has decided to make the Petroleum Monopoly Law effective as from April 10, 1935. The governments of Great Britain and America protested against Japan stating that the above law infringes the principles of the Open Door and Equal Opportunity established by the Nine-Power Treaty. The Japanese Government replied that it is an independent action of the state of Manchoukuo, and that Japan can do nothing with it. The reason of the protest of the British and American Governments is that the capital invested in petroleum in Manchoukuo by their nationals would be practically expelled from the country by coming into force of this law. But the Manchoukuo Government had to issue this law to effectuate the control of its principal industries which are absolutely necessary for her development, with no aim to expel foreign capitals.

**With China** Manchoukuo, when she proclaimed her independence on March 1, 1932, notified China that her relation with the latter would be the same as with any other power, and declared that she would take over the business of postal service on the 20th of the same month. The country made new stamps and post cards, and had actually taken over the postal business on July 25, 1932. As to the collection of customs duties, the business was also

taken over by the Manchoukuo Government on September 25.

The question of railway, which was another important problem, came to a satisfactory solution on June 28, 1934, and the railway connection which was severed for 2 years and 9 months since the occurrence of the Manchurian Incident has been restored. Since July 1, 1934, one train each from Peiping and Mukden is being despatched every day.

**Recognition by Salvador** On March 3rd, 1934, the Republic of Salvador declared that she would recognize Manchoukuo as an independent state.

**With the Holy See** Under date of April 18, 1934, the Holy See notified the Manchoukuo Government of its decision to form a separate mission field in Manchoukuo, independent from that of China, and appointed the Rt. Rev. Bishop A. Gaspais as Acting Apostolic Delegate in Manchoukuo. This notice, originally given to the Manchoukuo Government by Bishop Gaspais, was confirmed on August of the same year by an official communication from His Eminence Pierre Cardinal Fumasoni-Biondi, *prefet de la S. Congregation de la Propagande*. At the same time, His Eminence in his communication to the Manchoukuo Foreign Minister stated that the Catholic missions in Manchoukuo would gladly contribute to the moral and intellectual development of the country according to the disposition of the Manchoukuo authorities.

**Passport Visé** Meanwhile, the Department of Foreign Affairs of Manchoukuo assiduously endeavoured to pave the way for the opening of diplomatic relations with European and American countries, and promulgated new regulations governing the granting of passports and their visés effective June 1, 1933, and otherwise took steps to provide travelling facilities for foreigners.

Simultaneously with the enforcement of the new regulations, the Manchoukuo Foreign Office opened four passport offices in Antung, Dairen, Yingkow and Suifeng on June 1 to which Shanghai-kwan, Manchuli, Tumen, Heiho and Kupeikou were added later, pursuant to the stipulations of the said regulation. Between June 1, 1933 and September 30, 1934, a total of 11,395 passports of foreigners entering or passing through the country were examined and viséd, an average of 950 a month.

**Manchoukuo Consulates** Another event worth mentioning in connection with Manchoukuo's foreign relations was the opening of the Manchoukuo consulate at Blagoveschensk, the first consulate to be established in a foreign country by the new nation, late in September, 1932. Mr. Kuei Heng-chin was appointed in charge of this consulate.

The number of Manchoukuo residents in Blagoveschensk, which is a Soviet city located near the Siberian border on the bank of the Amur River on the opposite side to Heiho, a Manchoukuo town, is approximately 7,000, most of them being engaged in the retail business.

Manchoukuo's second consulate in Soviet Russia was opened at Chita in January, 1933, the staff being headed by Mr. Li Yuan as consul.

Also the consulate at Shingishu, Korea, the first of the kind to be established on the Japanese Empire, was opened on November 9, 1934.

**Exchange of Ambassadors** The recognition of Manchoukuo by Japan on September 15, 1932 was acknowledged by the dispatch of Pao Kuan-cheng to Japan by the Manchoukuo

Government, to stay in Tokyo as Manchoukuo's representative, towards the end of the same month, and later by the visit to Tokyo by the Foreign Minister of Manchoukuo, Hsieh Chieh-shih, in November, 1932.

Meanwhile General Nobuyoshi Muto, commander of the Kwantung army, ambassador to Manchoukuo and governor of the Kwantung Leased Territory, who signed the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol on September 15, 1932, presented his credentials as ambassador to the Chief Executive of the country.

This was followed by the arrival of General Ting Shih-yuan on May 10 in Tokyo as the first Manchoukuo Minister to Japan. Meanwhile Manchoukuo desired to elevate the legation at Tokyo to the status of embassy in view of increasing importance in relation with Japan, which was endorsed by Japan on May 21, 1935. The first ambassador of Manchoukuo to Japan is Mr. Hsieh Chieh-shih, the former Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Shortly after the conclusion of Jehol expedition, Marshal Muto, to which rank he was promoted, fell ill in Hsinking and died on July 27. He was succeeded at his post by General Takashi Hishikari. General Hishikari retired from his post on December 10, 1934, and was succeeded by General Jiro Minami.

**Diplomatic Representations** Japan is the only nation which has an embassy in Manchoukuo. Consulates established by Japan and other powers in the country and their locations follow:

Country	Description	Location
Japan	Embassy	Hsinking
	Consulate-General	Mukden, Chilin, Harbin, Lungchingtsun
	Branch Offices of Consulate-General	Hajiung, Tunghua, Hsinmin, Hungchung, Paito-ao-kou, Chutsu
	Consulates	Kaichieh, Toutao-kou, Yingkow, Antung, Liaoyang, Tieh-ling, Chinchou, Tsi-tsi-Har Manchuli, Chih-feng
The U. S. A.	Branches of Consulates	Nungan, Taolu
	Consulate-General	Mukden, Harbin
Great Britain	Consulate	Dairen, Yingkow
	Consulate-General	Mukden, Harbin
Germany	Consulates	Dairen, Yingkow
	"	Dairen, Mukden, Harbin
France	"	"
Soviet Russia	Consulates-General	Mukden, Harbin
	Consulate	Dairen
Holland	"	Dairen (Honorary), Harbin
Sweden	"	"
Finland	"	"
Norway	"	Yingkow
Austria	"	Mukden
Italy	"	Harbin
Portugal	"	"
Czechoslovakia	"	"
Belgium	"	Harbin (Acting vice-consul)
Denmark	"	" (Honorary consul)
Estonia	"	"
Latvia	"	"
Lithuania	"	"

### Finance

While the finance under Chang Tso-ling was comparatively sound in his earlier administration, the expenditure commenced to increase steadily due to his army enlarged in latter days. Thus in 1926, the total expenditure was ¥120,000,000 and showed a budgetary deficit of ¥12,000,000. When he was succeeded by his son, Chang Hsueh-liang, the deficit was further increased. The recklessness of his finance was evidenced by the fact that, of the total expenditure of ¥142,500,000, the sum defrayed for the military purpose amounted to ¥114,720,000. The

deficit thus created was met by the increased tax and inflation of currency, causing thereby great miseries of the people.

In view of the deplorable state of affairs, as above stated, the leaders of Manchoukuo directed their efforts for the stabilization of the financial conditions of the country without increasing tax and economic pressure on the people. It is much to the credit of the new state that such a rapid and sound development has been made in finance and currency in so short a time.

Manchoukuo's national budgets since its foundation follow:

MANCHOUKUO'S NATIONAL BUDGET  
(in M¥ 1,000)

Fiscal years	Revenue			Expenditure		
	Ordinary	Extra-ordinary	Total	Ordinary	Extra-ordinary	Total
1932-33	97,356	15,922	113,308	104,482	8,826	113,308
1933-34	132,134	17,035	149,169	107,449	41,720	149,169
1934-35	163,321	25,404	188,725	131,662	57,063	188,725

Fiscal year runs from July to June.

The budget for 1934-35 follows:

## GENERAL ACCOUNT

## Ordinary Revenue

	1934-35	1933-34	Increase or decrease
Taxes and duties	MY140,475,587	MY108,629,445	MY31,846,142
Customs duties	72,041,107	49,781,018	22,260,089
Internal revenue	46,818,480	38,111,627	8,706,853
Salt gabelle	21,616,000	20,736,800	879,200
Stamp revenue	8,131,120	—	8,131,120
Monopoly profits	8,208,000	15,386,646	*7,178,646
Monopoly Bureau profits	4,000,000	9,828,246	*5,828,246
Kirin-Heilungkiang Salt Transportation Office	3,500,000	5,000,000	*1,500,000
Others	708,000	558,400	149,600
Revenues from state industries and other sources	6,506,367	8,118,209	*1,611,842
Total	163,321,074	132,134,300	31,186,774

## Extraordinary Revenue

	1934-35	1933-34	Increase or decrease
General	MY3,040,130	MY6,678,204	*MY3,638,074
From Special Accounts	750,000	317,310	432,690
Loan funds	5,000,000	7,000,000	*2,000,000
Surplus from previous year	16,613,854	3,039,364	13,574,490
Total	25,403,984	17,034,878	8,369,106
Grand total	188,725,058	149,169,178	39,555,880

\* Shows a decrease.

## Expenditure

	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
Dept. of Imperial Household	MY2,000,000	—	MY2,000,000
General Affairs Board	10,473,191	MY35,021,007	45,494,198
General Administrative for Hsingan Province	2,442,348	418,355	2,860,703
Dept. of Civil Affairs	23,663,687	8,345,899	32,009,586
Dept. of Foreign Affairs	1,421,393	158,021	1,579,414
Department of Defence	49,230,393	9,041,638	58,272,031
Department of Finance	13,645,067	10,077,656	23,722,723
Department of Industry	2,374,732	2,825,252	5,199,984
Department of Communications	3,128,234	319,917	3,448,151
Department of Justice	7,882,400	141,600	8,024,000
Department of Education	5,000,585	1,113,683	6,114,268
Total	121,262,030	67,463,028	188,725,058

The budget for Special Accounts is estimated to amount to MY136,434,133 for revenue and MY126,956,705 for expenditure, the details of which follow:

## SPECIAL ACCOUNTS

	Revenue	Expenditure
General Affairs Board		
Adjustment fund for old loans secured on customs duties and salt gabelle	MY32,313,900	MY32,313,900
Capital Construction Bureau	9,661,015	8,750,137
Supplies	11,316,635	11,354,967

	Revenue	Expenditure
Sinking Fund	MY5,542,354	MY5,542,354
Dept. of Defence		
Army Clothing Factory	7,296,771	7,397,189
Arsenal	7,000,000	7,000,000
Dept. of Finance		
Monopoly Bureau	25,724,000	21,153,872
Kirin-Heilungkiang Salt Transportation Office	17,310,277	13,323,233
State Properties Adjustment Fund	4,645,050	4,491,932
Investments	12,120,630	12,120,630
Dept. of Communications Postal Administration	3,503,451	3,503,451
Total	136,434,133	126,956,705
General Account	188,725,058	188,725,058
Grand Total	325,159,191	315,681,763

The budget for general account amounts to MY188,725,058, representing an increase of MY39,555,880 over that of the previous year. Figures of the special accounts are revenue, MY136,434,133, and expenditure, MY126,956,705, as compared with MY106,945,834, the figure for both revenue and expenditure for the preceding year.

Among the sources of revenue it is estimated that receipts from customs duties will total MY72,638,107, or 51 per cent. of the total income from duties and taxes. Compared with the estimated total revenue from the same source for the previous year, the above sum shows an increase of MY22,857,089 or 45 per cent. The growth in customs receipts is anticipated in view of the country's expanding foreign trade, the improving domestic economic condition, and the reduction of smuggling through the improvement of the customs system.

A growth of MY11,038,909 over the previous year is anticipated in the internal revenue which is estimated at MY46,221,480. The economic development of the country and the improvement of the tax-collecting system through the restoration of peace and order are given as reasons for this anticipated increase.

All departmental budgets, with the exception of the Finance Department, show considerable increases.

The most conspicuous is that of the Department of Education whose expenditure is estimated at MY6,114,268, as compared with MY931,102 for the previous year. The Department of Civil Affairs gained MY8,000,000, the General Affairs Board, about MY6,000,000, the Department of Defence, MY16,300,000, and the Department of Industry, an increase of about MY1,800,000 over the previous year.

The Government has incorporated in its social and industrial policies a system of gradual reduction of internal taxes and readjustment of various other duties and levies. Besides the unification of business taxes and readjustment of the food-stuff tax, the Government has effected the revision or the abolition of some ten different taxes, relieving the people of tax burdens amounting to about MY26,000,000. In view of the importance of salt in the daily life of the people, the authorities have lowered the price of this commodity by MY0.30 per picul since March, 1934. The old Import and Export Tariff rates have also been revised.

**Government Monopolies** As a means of lightening the tax burdens of the people and to suppress the smuggling of salt in the Korean border districts, the Government, since September, 1933, has reduced the price of salt in the Chientao district by sums ranging from MY2.20 to

MY3.55 per picul. For the relief of the inhabitants of Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces who suffered greatly during the old régime, the authorities have cut down the salt tax and salt price by MY1.00 per picul since March, 1934, although this has resulted in the decrease of the monopoly profits by MY1,100,000.

The opium monopoly system has been instituted for the purpose of eliminating the evil practice of opium-smoking and controlling the smuggling of opium and the cultivation of poppy. The profits from the monopoly are set aside to cover the expenditures for the control, relief and education of the opium addicts.

**National Loans and Sinking Fund** Although the Government makes it a point not to float loans to cover any revenue deficit, the following national loans have been raised since the founding of the new régime:

1. State Founding Loan	GY30,000,000
2. Bank of Chosen Loan	30,000,000
3. Local Municipal Construction Loans	10,000,000
Total	60,000,000
1. Capital Construction Loan	MY 5,000,000
2. Opium Monopoly Fund	2,600,000
3. Central Bank of Manchou Loan Compensation Loan	33,000,000
4. Old Foreign Claims Liquidation Fund	5,147,050
5. Shing-hai, Hu-hai, Tsi-ku Railways Expropriation Fund	11,928,000
6. Bonus to Customs staff	3,504,070
7. State Founding Loan (Central Bank shares)	7,500,000
8. North Manchuria Special District Loan, etc.	1,140,000
Total	MY69,820,020

In conformity with the practice of preserving international good faith the Government has put aside a special sinking fund to meet its due share of foreign loans secured on the Chinese Maritime Customs and Salt Gabelle as follows:

1932	MY13,886,192
1933	8,512,562
Total	21,598,754

Furthermore, the Government has since the 1933 fiscal year put aside a sum equivalent to ten per cent. of the surplus of annual revenues as a sinking fund to cover the national loans in general. This fund at present totals MY1,758,600.

### Banking

**General** Prior to the founding of Manchoukuo and under the régime of the Chang family each of the Three Eastern Provinces had its central bank. Each of them took advantage of its note issuing power conferred on it. Especially the central bank in Fengtien province was almost reckless in the issue of paper money, the amount it issued in 1929 for providing funds for military purpose reaching MY1,500,000,000 with the resultant slump of the value of the paper money to one seventieth of its worth. The new government, therefore, aimed at the effective control and stabilization of the currency. It enacted laws for this purpose, adopted the silver standard, as this system suits more to the character of the country, and established the Central Bank of Manchou.

**Central Bank of Manchou** This bank was established on July 1, 1932, and it opened business on the same day. In it were included four old banks of issue, the Three Eastern Provinces and the Frontier Bank. It has its head office at Hsinking, and branch offices at Mukden, Kirin, Tsi-tsihar and Harbin. It is capitalized at MY30,000,000, and Manchoukuo government hold more than 50,000 shares of MY100 each. It is authorized to mint coins and issue notes.

The balance statement of the Central Bank of Manchou as at the close of business, December 31st, 1934, follows:

ASSETS	
Capital unpaid	MY15,000,000.00
Advances to the Government	19,100,000.00
Time loans	69,783,000.00
Overdrafts	60,966,000.00
Bills discounted, etc.	10,144,000.00
Deposits with other banks	50,439,000.00
Liabilities of customers for acceptances and guarantees	504,000.00
Suspenses (Short-term Advances)	11,896,000.00
Various securities	58,973,000.00
Bullion	29,870,000.00
Foreign money	8,668,000.00
Bank premises	21,812,000.00
Cash on hand	7,566,000.00
Total	369,323,000.00

LIABILITIES	
Capital subscribed	MY30,000,000.00
Legal reserve	777,000.00
Notes issued	168,382,000.00
Government deposits	51,210,000.00
Fixed deposits	7,885,000.00
Current deposits	22,430,000.00
Special current deposits	5,480,000.00
Deposits at notice	11,402,000.00
Other deposits	2,960,000.00
Loans from other banks	20,753,000.00
Bills payable	2,011,000.00
Acceptances and guarantees	504,000.00
Suspenses (Short-term deposits)	44,520,000.00
Balance carried over	230,000.00
Net profits for the half year	823,000.00
Total	369,323,000.00

### PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT

1. Total gross profit for the period	MY6,445,000.00
2. Total gross loss for the period	5,621,000.00
Net profits for the period	823,000.00
Balance carried over	230,000.00
Total	1,053,000.00

### ALLOCATION OF PROFITS

1. Reserve against losses and contingencies	MY68,000.00
2. Reserve for dividend	25,000.00
3. Special reserve	180,000.00
4. Bonus for executives	35,000.00
5. Dividend for shareholders (6% per annum)	450,000.00
6. Balance carried forward	295,000.00

**Currency Problem** The currency in Manchoukuo has been in an extremely complicated condition, native and Japanese and other notes and coins being in circulation. But in the newly regulated system of currency

of Manchoukuo, 23.91 grammes of silver is taken as the unit called the yuan, there being 100 fen or 1,000 li in one yuan. The new paper notes are issued in five different denominations of 100 yuan, 10 yuan, 5 yuan, one yuan and chian, or 50 fen, circulated together with 1-chiao and 5 fen nickels and 1-fen and 5-li coppers.

**Note Issue** Before opening for business on July 1, 1932, the Central Bank of Manchou took over old notes of 15 different kinds and 136 denominations amounting to MY142,234,872.34 calculated in the new currency at the exchange rate fixed officially. This figure was gradually reduced and by the end of June, 1934, MY132,400,000 or 93 per cent. had been redeemed by the Bank. The amount of the notes in circulation at present reaches MY130,000,000.

**Other Banking Institutions** Though the Central Bank of Manchou occupies the controlling position in the monetary market as the note issuing bank, there are other banks which do substantial banking business. The names and capitalizations of the principal banks follow:

Name	Authorized Capital
(1) Manchoukuo Banks	
Fntien Commercial and Industrial Bank	MY2,200,000
Fentien Commercial Bank	1,000,000
Yingkow " "	1,000,000
Kung Cheng Yu Bank	500,000
Tungpien Industrial Bank	1,500,000
I Fa Bank	1,000,000
I Tung Commercial Bank	1,000,000
Hui Hua Bank	250,000
(2) Japanese Banks	
Yokohama Specie Bank	Y100,000,000
Bank of Chosen	400,000,000
Shoryu Bank	12,000,000
Manshu Bank	10,000,000
(3) Chinese Banks	
Hsien Tayang	
Central Bank of China	25,000,000
Bank of Communication	10,000,000
Chin Cheng Bank	10,000,000
Ta Chung Bank	4,000,000

(4) Other Foreign Banks		
Russo-Asiatic Bank	R65,000,000	
The Far Eastern Bank	\$5,000,000	
Hongkong Shanghai Banking Corp'n	\$5,000,000	
National City Bank of New York	\$150,000,000	
The Chartered Bank of India, Australia & China	£3,000,000	

To aid the sound development and proper control of banking, the Government promulgated a new Banking Law in November, 1933.

Encouraged by the favourable results of the two credit associations which were created in Fengtien province, one each in Shenyang and Fu districts, to aid the rural communities, the Finance authorities in 1933 inaugurated eight similar associations in Fengtien, two in Kirin and one in Heilungkiang provinces, and are at present making preparations for the establishment of 40 during 1934.

#### Foreign Investments

General The foreign investments in Manchoukuo, in 1933 amount to ¥2,063,850,000 distributed among the various countries as follows, according to the statistics compiled by the South Manchuria Railway Company:

Country	Amount of Investments	Percentage
Japan	¥1,510,755,000	73.201
Russia	465,051,000	22.531
Great Britain	39,590,000	1.918
United States	26,400,000	1.279
France	21,086,000	1.022
Sweden	850,000	0.041
Denmark	157,000	0.008
Total	2,063,850,000	100.000

Japanese Investments The distribution among various industries of the Japanese investments in Manchoukuo is tabulated by the South Manchuria Railway Company as follows:

Items	Amount Invested	Percentage
Railways	¥355,316,000	24.00
Harbours	63,834,000	4.00
Transportation	28,086,000	2.00
Agriculture, mining, and forestry	241,045,000	16.00
Manufacturing	110,121,000	7.00
Commerce	117,753,000	8.00
Electric and gas industries	37,288,000	2.50
Banking	106,705,000	7.00
Finance and trust	97,634,000	6.50
Public utilities	302,569,000	20.00
Miscellaneous	49,453,000	3.00
Total	1,510,755,000	100.00

#### Foreign Trade

Manchuria was first opened to foreign trade in 1862, when Yingkow was opened as a commercial port. This port lost its former prosperity when Russia made Dalny (Dairen) a free port and built a railway between Harbin and Dalny.

Dairen became the greatest port of export for Manchurian products after completion of its harbour facilities. The rebuilding of the Antung-Mukden Railway and the construction of the bridge spanning the Yalu River have made possible the recent development of Antung as a commercial port.

A noteworthy feature of Manchoukuo's foreign trade during the 20 years or so up to 1930 was the annual excess of exports, ranging from several tens of million hk. tls. to 100,000,000 hk. tls. or more. These features have completely changed since the world depression which started in 1930 and the establishment of Manchoukuo which followed the Manchurian Incident. Imports began to increase at an unprecedented rate due to the huge demand for building materials required for the construction projects throughout the country. Imports continued to surpass exports at such a rapid pace that in 1933 Manchoukuo's foreign trade finally registered an import excess of MY90,000,000, which fur-

ther increased to MY145,000,000 in 1934, and thus completely reversed the former tendency. It is believed that this new trend will continue for quite a long time, as imports will in all probability continue to grow with the development of industry and commerce.

As staple exports of Manchoukuo

soy beans, bean oil, kaoliang, wheat, wild silk, coal and lumber are the best known. Among the import are cotton fabric, cotton yarn, sugar, tobacco, petroleum, iron, steel, machinery and paper. The growth of the foreign trade of Manchoukuo is illustrated in the following table:

Year	Imports (In 1,000 Haikwan Tls.)	Exports	Total
1907	35,516	24,421	59,929
(Average of 5 years 1907-1912)	73,528	74,590	148,119
1917	158,562	161,120	319,682
1927	258,913	408,036	678,949
1928	302,956	434,035	736,991
1929	329,603	425,651	755,255
1930	306,999	396,714	703,713
1931	(in MY1,000) 323,975	693,903	1,017,878
1932	301,068	616,152	917,220
1933	514,540	423,325	937,867
1934	593,562	448,426	1,041,988

The decrease in the amount of exports and imports in 1932 is due to the Manchurian Incident.

Among the countries trading with Manchoukuo, Japan by far occupies

the most conspicuous position as may be seen from the following table which shows Manchoukuo's foreign trade since 1931 with various countries:

#### FOREIGN TRADE OF MANCHOUKUO BY COUNTRIES

Countries	Exports (in MY1,000)			
	1931	1932	1933	1934
Japan proper	230,828	189,733	172,668	172,262
Korea	34,103	42,321	30,355	46,413
China	214,282	169,967	55,210	65,694
U.S.S.R.	65,946	33,785	12,918	8,423
Hongkong	11,003	5,363	6,213	6,848
British India	383	2,123	1,080	645
Great Britain	23,842	11,026	8,793	16,218
France	2,223	3,026	2,545	2,921
Germany	8,103	73,946	66,357	53,310
Belgium	508	1,507	281	1,190
Netherlands	55,964	6,302	5,910	8,072
Dutch East Indies	9,774	5,415	4,045	1,709
Italy	4,376	2,167	1,847	4,303
U.S.A.	8,874	5,009	7,414	5,966
Other countries	23,694	64,461	47,689	54,447
Total	693,903	616,152	423,325	448,426

#### FOREIGN TRADE OF MANCHOUKUO BY COUNTRIES

Countries	Imports (in MY1,000)			
	1931	1932	1933	1934
Japan proper	126,540	162,430	312,099	383,296
Korea	9,856	12,903	25,913	25,305
China	96,129	54,968	79,812	57,594
U.S.S.R.	20,986	6,825	7,569	4,875



Countries	1931	1932	1933	1934
Hongkong	12,886	8,090	8,004	2,526
British India	8,701	18,400	14,703	23,943
Great Britain	6,345	7,106	7,141	9,316
France	1,022	986	779	864
Germany	7,080	5,769	10,454	12,485
Belgium	3,181	800	1,294	703
Netherlands	819	321	425	358
Dutch East Indies	1,959	214	3,324	6,694
Italy	932	133	1,737	701
U.S.A.	18,305	17,747	28,996	35,277
Other countries	9,734	4,873	12,290	28,863
Total	323,975	301,068	514,540	593,542

Principal commodities exported and imported since 1931 and their values follow:

#### PRINCIPAL EXPORT COMMODITIES OF MANCHOUKUO

(in MY1,000)

Commodities	1931	1932	1933	1934
Soy beans	245,656	224,420	169,095	160,349
Bean cakes	124,748	103,445	57,614	51,509
Coal	71,115	59,863	47,201	41,956
Bean oil	57,400	38,238	18,472	16,262
Kaoliang	23,867	28,401	6,948	7,311
Wild silk	18,568	10,017	9,565	7,409
Other beans	17,533	12,206	9,180	—
Maize	17,052	23,556	14,745	5,016
Iron & steel	16,873	15,069	10,446	10,380
Ground nuts	13,055	8,435	8,826	14,129
Millet	—	23,566	14,745	19,940
Mixed cattle food	—	—	6,381	8,668
Cotton yarn	—	8,202	6,999	6,136
Sesame seeds	—	1,275	4,664	5,865
Salt	—	7,554	3,582	5,438
Others and total	693,903	616,152	423,325	448,426

#### PRINCIPAL IMPORT COMMODITIES OF MANCHOUKUO

(in MY1,000)

Commodities	1931	1932	1933	1934
Cotton goods	46,788	40,966	69,167	22,870*
Wheat flour	25,238	30,582	58,678	57,059
Gunny bags	24,734	25,998	16,991	16,134
Raw cotton	16,062	16,299	11,046	—
Cotton yarn	13,781	12,329	20,921	—
Sugar	13,758	14,608	16,028	11,319
Medicine	12,809	6,733	9,458	—
Tobacco	12,665	9,196	11,236	11,236
Iron & steel	11,112	21,308	39,996	58,227
Vehicles	6,456	5,251	22,685	30,976
Machines and tools	—	6,005	9,543	28,056
Lumber	—	3,625	9,637	17,499
Papers	—	7,699	10,012	12,139
Petroleum	—	4,528	7,582	11,621
Silk goods	—	2,379	8,128	10,942
Gasolene	—	3,612	9,009	9,865
Woollen goods	—	9,766	7,831	9,579
Others and total	323,975	301,068	514,540	593,562

\*Includes cotton yarn.

#### Agriculture

**General** The vast plains of Manchuria consist for the most part of agricultural land, covered with fertile soil or humus, and agriculture has always been the main occupation of the people of Manchuria. The recent development of transport facilities has encouraged the coming of immigrants in large numbers from China, especially from Shantung province. Undeveloped land is being thus brought under cultivation, and every year sees some increase in the total amount of farming products. Unfortunately, these immigrants possess neither scientific knowledge nor capital, and, as they still follow primitive methods of cultivation, the productiveness of the land is not yet fully exploited. The wide plains that characterize the country invite the use of machinery for large-scale cultivation, and if capital and technical skill were applied, their agricultural products could certainly be multiplied manifold. One novel feature of the agriculture in Manchoukuo is that Korean farmers who migrated there are doing a large share of work.

**Cultivated Area** The plains along the lower Liao River, the upper and middle Sungari River, and the Hurka

River are most fertile and constitute the main agricultural territory of Manchoukuo. Next come the lands in the centre or Heilungkiang province and along the lower reaches of the Sungari. These districts have been developed with an astonishing rapidity by the Chinese immigrants from Shantung and Hopei.

At the end of 1931 the area under cultivation totalled 13,733,000 hectares, an increase of 876,000 since 1929. In 1932, however, due to the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident and by a devastating flood in North Manchuria, the area decreased by 300,000 hectares. A further decrease of 170,000 hectares was witnessed in 1933, partly due to floods in North Manchuria but more to a great decrease of the exports of soy beans to European countries and consequent fall in the prices of agricultural products in general.

A decline in 1934 in agricultural prices, together with the plight of farmers in the North probably would contract the area under cultivation. Possibilities, however, for the future extension of farm areas are abundant inasmuch as more than 50 per cent. of Manchoukuo's arable land is yet uncultivated.

The area of arable land in Manchoukuo since 1929 follows:

#### AREA OF CULTIVATED LAND IN MANCHURIA

(Unit in hectare)

Year	South Manchuria	North Manchuria	Total
1929	6,232,720	6,634,080	12,866,800
1930	6,529,200	6,858,230	13,387,430
1931	6,582,600	7,150,650	13,733,250
1932	6,263,840	7,150,650	13,414,490
1933	6,299,750	6,941,490	13,241,240

**Principal Crops** The total tonnage of the agricultural products of Manchoukuo for the year 1933 was

18,477,000 tons. Production of principal agricultural crops since 1929 follows:

## CULTIVATED AREAS AND PRODUCTION OF CEREALS

## CULTIVATED AREAS

(in hectares)

	Soy Beans	Other Legumes	Kaoliang	Millet	Maize	Wheat	Paddy-field Rice	Upland Rice	Other Cereals
1929	3,989,920	847,350	2,965,150	2,181,780	876,220	1,297,150	88,280	111,800	1,048,000
1930	4,118,450	850,220	3,031,420	2,209,670	865,520	1,381,200	98,140	108,880	1,086,320
1931	4,200,590	813,490	2,980,490	2,282,320	987,710	1,586,160	81,800	118,500	1,232,190
1932	3,878,610	800,580	2,661,860	2,156,690	979,900	1,305,150	62,980	105,270	1,124,250
1933	4,000,670	823,250	2,658,430	2,380,850	1,101,950	1,373,950	79,860	104,760	1,218,020

## PRODUCTION

(in metric tons)

	Soy Beans	Other Legumes	Kaoliang	Millet	Maize	Wheat	Paddy-field Rice	Upland Rice	Other Cereals
1929	4,849,460	377,490	4,681,560	3,351,960	1,513,290	1,802,230	136,820	156,270	1,593,600
1930	5,297,820	369,270	4,779,690	3,276,480	1,585,680	1,356,660	154,350	157,840	1,722,760
1931	5,227,010	312,820	4,497,490	2,960,020	1,701,110	1,580,310	158,640	162,800	1,852,670
1932	4,267,890	277,670	3,729,360	2,615,870	1,541,850	1,133,090	109,790	137,810	1,350,390
1933	5,205,170	825,320	4,229,440	3,273,020	1,568,290	1,429,810	164,880	148,160	1,632,950
1934	3,841,000	265,000	3,784,000	2,280,000	1,516,000	645,000	190,000	129,000	1,513,000

Kwantung Leased Territory and the S.M.R. Zone excluded.  
1933 and 1934 figures are estimates.

Thus the country has an abundant supply of food to feed the people, which now roughly numbers 30,000,000. The surplus of crops is exported every year the total amount

of which in 1932 was MY211,562,000, and in 1934 MY244,282,000. The quantity and value of agricultural products which were exported during 1931-1933 follow:

## EXPORTS OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS, 1931-1933

Commodities	1931		1932		1933	
	Qty in 1,000 pcls	Value in MY1,000	Qty in 1,000 pcls	Value in MY1,000	Qty in 1,000 pcls	Value in MY1,000
Soy beans	43,586	125,114	39,111	169,095	41,308	160,348
Other legumes	1,601	11,512	1,530	9,190	2,161	9,993
Millet	3,825	23,566	2,808	14,745	4,006	19,940
Kaoliang	6,185	28,401	2,565	7,215	3,333	7,310
Maize	1,162	5,142	1,180	3,319	2,056	5,216
Ground-nuts	698	8,435	917	8,826	1,562	14,129
Oats	503	2,868	539	3,222	835	4,251
Hempseeds	547	2,631	542	3,052	1,078	4,410
Perilla	372	2,618	439	3,051	533	4,152
Sesame seeds	82	1,275	343	4,664	582	5,865
Mixed cattle food	—	—	2,311	6,381	4,275	8,668
Total	57,511	211,562	52,280	232,750	61,729	744,282

**Soy Beans** Manchoukuo produces about 60 per cent. of the total production of soy beans in the world. The beans contain about 10 per cent. of oil, and the cake which is obtained in pressing the beans is exported as fertilizer. The latest figure for production of soy beans in Manchoukuo was 5,200,000 metric tons and its total plantation area 4,000,000

hectares. The average crop per hectare was 1,300 kg.

**Kaoliang** Kaoliang comes next in importance to soy beans. It serves as the diet of the people. Its production in 1933 was 4,681,500 metric tons, and the area planted reached 2,965,000 hectares. The average crop per hectare is 1,240 kg. It grows more in the southern districts than in

the northern part of Manchoukuo, and its export to Japan and China is increasing in recent years.

**Millet** The yield of this crop reached 3,352,000 metric tons in 1933 and its area of plantation 2,132,000 hectares. The average yield per hectare is 1,570 kg.

**Wheat** The northern districts of Manchoukuo are better suited than the southern part for wheat. The production reached 1,302,000 metric tons in 1933, more than one-half of which was consumed in the country as raw material for flour.

**Paddy-field Rice** Rice grown in paddy-fields is of comparatively recent origin in Manchoukuo. But the climate and soil of Manchoukuo are well adapted for this method of growing rice. Though the area of paddy-fields in 1933 was but 88,000 hectares and the yield 136,000 metric tons, it is not difficult to make it ten times as large both in area and yield.

**Maize** The product reaches 870,000 metric tons, its area of plantation about 876,000 hectares. It is mostly consumed within the country.

**Special Crops** In addition to the above-mentioned crops, the soil of

Manchoukuo is well adapted to cotton, tobacco, hemp, ground-nuts, fruits, etc. The plantation area of cotton totals 50,000 hectares, while its production is estimated to be about 20,000,000 kin. Tobacco is produced in Kirin and Fengtien provinces, and its production is estimated at 7,800,000 kwan a year. The production of tussler silk in Manchoukuo is a hundred years old, and it has now become one of the principal staple products in the country. Its production in Fengtien province alone reaches about ¥11,000,000 in value.

**Live Stock** Raising of domestic animals is indispensable to Manchoukuo's agricultural system, as they serve well for the daily life of the farmer as well as for transport purpose. They are widely spread and almost every family raises some kind of them. Farm wastes are utilized for feeding them, while their excrements are used as fertilizer, and ploughing, stamping, harrowing, manuring, transporting and threshing, etc. are carried out with their help. The number and principal kinds of live stock follow:

## NUMBER OF LIVE STOCK IN 1933

Kinds	Fengtien Prov.	Kirin Prov.	Heilungkiang Prov.	Jehol Prov.	Total
Cattle	516,670	429,950	658,650	201,710	1,806,980
Horses	669,220	735,070	1,033,700	616,080	3,054,070
Mules	321,530	269,250	151,920	—	742,700
Donkeys	349,330	83,410	46,000	117,460	596,200
Sheep	518,200	182,430	1,939,930	594,850	3,235,410
Hogs	3,444,030	2,273,760	1,789,400	457,300	7,964,490
Grand total	5,818,980	3,973,870	5,619,600	1,987,400	17,399,850

**Wools and Hides** Sheep are raised for the purpose of getting meat, but not for wools. Wools obtained from them are very coarse. They are not good for woollen cloth making, and are therefore used only as carpet wools. The amount of

wools produced is estimated to be about 9,000,000 lbs. a year.

As meat is of universal demand in Manchoukuo, the number of live stock slaughtered every year is very large. Owing to the lack of accurate statistics, the number actually

slaughtered is not known, but the production of hides is estimated to be 450,000 from cattle, 2,000,000 from sheep, and 380,000 from mules and donkeys. But there is no tannery which is equipped with modern machinery to put a good finish to the hides, though a large number of hides is exported every year.

#### Forestry

**General** The total forest area in Manchoukuo is estimated to be

about 358,684 sq. km. which is equal to about 36 per cent. of the entire area of the country, and the volume of standing timber about 15,000,000,000 koku. Investigation conducted by the Manchoukuo Government, however, shows that the deforestation seems to have been done in a reckless manner in the past and the real volume of the standing timber may perhaps be about 9,000,000,000 koku. Standing timber in Manchoukuo follows:

#### STANDING TIMBER IN MANCHOUKUO

Districts	Estimated Standing Timber in 1,000 koku	Principal Species of Timber
Right Bank of the Yalu and the Hunho valley	276,635	Korean pine, Korean fir, Korean larch, silver-fir, maple, birch, oak, ash, Doronoki.
Sungari valley	874,036	
Tumen valley	420,401	
Hurka valley	420,951	Korean pine, fir, spruce, larch, lime, oak, elm, ash, birch.
Lalin valley	800,490	
North Manchuria Railway Eastern Line District	898,295	Korean pine, fir, spruce, maple, birch, Doronoki, Siberian cork-tree, Manchurian walnut.
Sansing district	2,615,302	Korean pine, fir, spruce, Siberian cork-tree, ash, birch, oak, lime.
Great Khingan Range	5,600,000	
Little Khingan "	3,500,000	Larch, Japanese birch, Siberian red pine, willow, alder.
<b>Total</b>	<b>14,906,11</b>	

For the purpose of preserving forests and securing their rational management, the authorities of the new régime have stopped granting fresh forest concessions and have commenced to classify forests into three categories, viz., State, public, and private, under a three-year programme. At the outset the authorities took over the various forests of the Central Bank in Kirin province as State forests, for which purpose a sum of MY2,000,000 was appropriated in the 1933 supplementary budget. The forestry offices established in 1933 at Chiacho, Tunhua, Yenki, Wuchang and Peianchen and the branch office at Hailar, have

been entrusted with the rational management of State forests and the improvement of forestry. Some 15 other forestry offices will also be established in various other districts during 1934-1935. A five-year programme for the investigation of forests by means of aerial photography is also being worked out. It is expected that with the progress of the forest investigations and the enactment of new forest laws and regulations, the most scientific and up-to-date management of forests will become possible in the near future. A pulp manufacturing plant will probably be put up as soon as conditions warrant it.

**Species of Timber In Manchuria** there are as many as 300 species of timber, but the more common species are the following:

**Evergreen:** Korean pine, silver fir, Korean fir, spruce, larch.

**Deciduous:** Korean oaks, birch, Amur lime tree, ash, elm, willow.

The proportion of evergreen to deciduous is 4 to 6, and in the evergreen the Korean pine constitutes more than half of the total.

**Lumber Industry** Lumber industry

is carried on in the districts of Antung, Kirin and Harbin, but that in Antung districts is best known. Production of lumber in Manchoukuo runs from 2,000,000 to 4,000,000 koku a year. Owing to activities in buildings and public works in Manchoukuo, the domestic product is not enough to meet the demand, and large quantities of lumber are being imported. The production of lumber during 1926-1932 follows:

#### LUMBER PRODUCTION IN MANCHOUKUO

Year	(in 1,000 koku)				Total
	Yalu Lumber	Kirin Lumber	Chientao and Junchun Lumber	North Manchurian Lumber	
1926	1,247	451	218	1,459	3,376
1927	1,919	580	386	1,048	3,885
1928	1,412	997	478	2,230	5,118
1929	948	1,042	370	1,484	3,846
1930	882	1,015	267	922	3,087
1931	1,458	983	320	505	3,268
1932	1,218	741	249	623	2,833

#### Fisheries

**General** In spite of the largeness of area, the coast line of Manchoukuo is comparatively short, its total length being only 855 kilometres. Moreover, the coast is made up of shallow bays, which readily get frozen in winter, and is not therefore favourable for fisheries. The amount of catches is valued only at about ¥5,000,000 a year. Figures for 1931-1933 are as follows:

Year	Amount of Catches in 1,000 kwan	Value in ¥1,000
1931	9,887	3,151
1932	11,171	4,104
1933	12,992	5,023

**Fresh Water Fishery** Fresh water fishes are abundantly found in the Sungari, the Nonni, the Mutankiang, the Ussuri, the Amur and the Liao Rivers as well as Lake Hu-jun-ti, Pei-erh-ih, etc. The amount of catches in 1932 follows:

#### CATCHES OF FRESH WATER FISHES

River or Lake where Caught	Amount of Catches in kin	Value in yen
Sungari River	6,000,000	650,000
Nonni "	18,600,000	1,860,000
Hujunti Lake	5,100,000	400,000
Argun River	1,000,000	100,000
Amur "		
Ussuri "	1,560,000	120,000
Yalu River		
Liao "		

**Salt Industry** The coast line of Manchoukuo stretches only for 855 km. which is but one-eleventh of the entire border line of the coun-

try. However, the coast on the Yellow Sea and the Po-hai has very little rainfall and as the evaporation is very rapid and the air dry, the district is well adapted for salt manufacturing by evaporation. The total area of salt fields now reaches 21,200,000 tsubo and the total annual production 400,000,000 kin, which may be tripled or quadrupled if the salt fields are extended. The

annual output and export of salt in 1932 were 3,700,856 piculs and 481,000 piculs respectively, while the same in 1933 were 5,106,293 piculs and 990,000 piculs. The consumption of salt in the country during 1933 totalled 3,463,130 piculs, while the total amount of salt exports to Japan was something like, 1,500,000 piculs during 1934. The area of the salt fields in 1932 follows:

THE AREA OF SALT FIELDS AND SALT PRODUCTION

Districts	No. of Salt-fields	Area of Salt-fields tsubo
Ryojun (Port Arthur)	104	3,394,582
Dairen	3	129,899
Chinchou	9	244,499
Pulantien	147	8,531,101
Pitzuwo	261	8,891,274

With the object of increasing the production of salt, improvement of its quality, and the lowering of its price, the authorities have stationed experts at various salt-fields to undertake the improvement of the fields and the manufacturing process. At the same time, the Government is conducting an investigation of promising salt-fields. Thus, it will not be difficult to double the present

yield with a corresponding increase in exports before long.

#### Mining Industry

General Numerous kinds of minerals are found in Manchoukuo, of which iron, gold, coal, magnesite, fire-clay, and shale oil are most abundant. The production of the principal minerals in Manchoukuo and a brief account of a few of them follow.

PRINCIPAL MINERAL PRODUCTS OF MANCHOUKUO

Kind of Minerals	(in metric tons)				
	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932
Iron ore	710,286	985,671	832,228	922,649	998,143
Pig iron	283,667	294,156	348,054	342,270	368,181
Iron sulphide	4,266	5,057	3,028	3,919	3,620
Lead ore	366	1,450	—	—	—
Manganese ore	444	723	609	270	60
Copper ore	—	750	840	—	—
Coal	9,509,563	9,803,594	10,048,652	9,048,703	7,108,282
Coke	343,741	338,307	485,312	418,625	416,306
Shale oil	—	—	981,004	1,245,094	1,412,554
Crude oil	—	—	47,815	61,081	70,631
Magnesite	25,454	31,681	29,016	35,034	55,386
Dolomite	471,710	629,502	688,489	545,131	477,350
Fire-clay	60,481	68,651	53,664	35,476	51,796

Iron Iron and coal constitute the two most important minerals in Manchoukuo. Iron deposits are mostly found in Fengtien province, especial-

ly in Anshan and Miaoerhkou, ores coming from these deposits being turned into pig iron in Anshan and Penhsihu iron works. The estimated iron deposit is about 1,080,000,000 metric tons, of which, however, the deposit containing more than 50 per cent. iron is less than one-half of one per cent. The ore is mostly hematite and magnetite, and is not

of good quality.

Coal Coal is even more important than iron. The estimated coal deposit in Manchoukuo is 4,804,000,000 metric tons, and its production in 1933 was about 9,000,000 metric tons. The production of coal in various provinces follows (in 1,000 metric tons):

Province	1922	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932
Fengtien	4,508	8,800	8,250	8,569	8,794	7,506	6,750
Kirin	25	373	474	570	523	530	218
Hellungkiang	—	170	100	120	170	300	95
Jehol	66	324	405	445	544	601	45
Hsingan	—	240	270	188	7	20	—
Total	4,600	9,908	9,509	9,893	10,040	9,048	7,108

Fushun Coal Field The Fushun coal field is the most famous in Manchoukuo. The right of mining this coal was transferred to Japan by Russia as a result of the Russo-Japanese War, and since 1907 the mining has been under the management of the South Manchuria Railway Co. The average thickness of the coal seam is 40 metres, the thickest part of the seam reaching 130 metres. The estimated deposit of

coal is put at 950,000,000 metric tons. The coal is bituminous, and its characteristics are a large content of volatic matter, a small quantity of ash, and generally a large amount of nitrogen. When the mine was transferred to Japan, the daily output was 300 metric tons, which in 1933 was increased to about 9,000,000 metric tons a year. The annual production of the coal field since 1910 follows:

Year	Production in metric tons	Year	Production in metric tons
1910	913,669	1928	6,900,233
1920	3,213,665	1929	6,785,000
1925	5,844,478	1930	6,864,100
1926	6,591,908	1931	6,114,700
1927	7,030,193		

Shale Oil This is a layer of brown rock which covers the coal bed at Fushun to the thickness of about 400 feet. The rock contains oil. This rock deposit is estimated at 4,400,000,000 metric tons, and its oil content at about 6 per cent., the crude oil of more than 300,000,000 metric tons may be obtained from it. The South Manchuria Railway Co. started early to utilize the rock, and established an oil mill at Fushun. The company is now obtaining more than 54,000 metric tons of the crude

oil through dry distillation method, and also along with it paraffin, ammonium sulphate and coke.

In addition to the above, there are gold, silver, lead, etc., the gold deposit being estimated at ¥5,000,000,000. Also magnesite produced near Ta Shih Chiao and fire-clay produced in Yen Tai and Pen Hsi Hu deserve a serious consideration. Light metal producing companies which use these products as raw materials are being organized.

Manchoukuo has such vast mineral