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TOA-KEIZAI CHOSAKYOKU



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THE  
MANCHOUKUO YEAR BOOK

1934

TOA-KEIZAI CHOSAKYOKU

(East-Asiatic Economic Investigation Bureau)

TOKYO

1934



## PREFACE TO THE 1934 EDITION

This volume is a new edition of the Manchuria Year Book, which was published in 1931 and 1932-33 and received with favourable criticism by the public in many lands. With this edition the name is changed to the Manchoukuo Year Book for the obvious reason of using the name of the established state.

Various problems arising in the construction of Manchoukuo are described in the present edition with the latest information available, and affording comparisons of the new developments with conditions under the former régime.

New chapters or items have been included, on maintenance of peace, economic policies, the Wangtao principle, and customs tariffs, as well as a directory of government offices, public institutions, and business organizations, and "Who's Who in Manchoukuo."

The publishers have tried to give a plain, impartial statement of the facts as they exist, without giving any interpretation but providing the material for interpretation. That this was done with some success in the previous volumes has been recognized in reviews of the former two editions of the Manchuria Year Book by leading newspapers and magazines, and prominent publicists, in many parts of the world. In the present third edition the publishers have done their utmost to maintain this standard.

TOA-KEIZAI CHOSAKYOKU  
(East Asiatic Economic Investigation Bureau)

June, 1934.



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## NOTE

1. Various different views are held respecting the demarcation of South and North Manchuria, but in the present volume, the southern part of Manchoukuo which extends on both sides of the South Manchuria Railway lines is generally called South Manchuria, and the northern part lying on the both sides of the North Manchuria (Chinese Eastern) Railway lines is called North Manchuria.
2. The transliteration of Chinese proper names into Roman letters is, on the whole, made according to the Wade system, but in some cases use is made of popular names such as "Mukden."
3. The equivalent of the **Haikwan Tael** in which the Customs Revenue and some other monetary values are stated, was, during the years 1912 to 1932, at the average Sight Exchange on London, New York, Paris, Berlin, Calcutta, and Yokohama respectively, as follows:

Year	English Money s. d.	American Money Dollars	French Money Francs	German Money Marks	Indian Money Rupees	Japanese Money Yen
1912.....	3 0 $\frac{5}{8}$	0.74	3.85	3.12	2.27	1.49
1913.....	3 0 $\frac{1}{4}$	0.73	3.81	3.08	2.25	1.47
1914.....	2 8 $\frac{3}{4}$	0.67	3.45	2.79	2.04	1.34
1915.....	2 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	0.62	3.39	2.67	1.95	1.25
1916.....	3 3 $\frac{1}{16}$	0.79	4.63	3.68	2.46	1.54
1917.....	4 3 $\frac{1}{16}$	1.03	5.94	4.78	3.11	1.98
1918.....	5 3 $\frac{1}{16}$	1.26	7.11	—	3.55	2.37
1919.....	6 4	1.39	10.12	—	3.54	2.72
1920.....	6 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.24	17.79	—	3.34	2.38
1921.....	3 11 $\frac{1}{16}$	0.76	10.29	—	2.92	1.57
1922.....	3 9	0.83	10.23	—	2.87	1.72
1923.....	3 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	0.80	13.16	—	2.55	1.63
1924.....	3 7 $\frac{1}{16}$	0.81	15.60	—	2.53	1.95
1925.....	3 5 $\frac{7}{8}$	0.84	17.92	—	2.31	2.04
1926.....	3 1 $\frac{3}{8}$	0.76	23.85	—	2.08	1.58
1927.....	2 9 $\frac{3}{16}$	0.69	17.46	2.89	1.88	1.44
1928.....	2 11 $\frac{1}{16}$	0.71	18.13	2.98	1.95	1.53
1929.....	2 7 $\frac{1}{16}$	0.64	16.43	2.70	1.77	1.38
1930.....	2 10 $\frac{1}{16}$	0.46	11.71	1.93	1.27	0.92
1931.....	1 6 $\frac{1}{16}$	0.34	8.70	1.45	1.03	0.69
1932.....	1 11 $\frac{1}{4}$	0.34	8.63	1.43	1.28	1.20

The Manchoukuo Government adopted the basic policy of collecting Customs duties in the new Manchoukuo currency, on April 14, 1933, and fixed the value of one Haikwan tael at 1.56 yuan Manchoukuo currency. This rule has been enforced since April 16, 1933.

4. The rates used in converting Chinese and foreign standards of weight and measure into the metric system are as follows:

Measurement of length.....	1 ri (里)	(Japanese)	3.92727 kilometres
	1 li (里)	(Chinese)	0.576 "
	1 mile		1.6093 "
Measurement of area.....	1 cho (町)	(Japanese)	9917.355 square metres
	1 acre		4046.85 " "
Measurement of capacity ...	1 sho (升)	(Japanese)	1.8039 litres
	1 gallon	(English)	4.5459 "
		(American)	3.7854 "
Weight .....	1 kin (斤)	(Japanese)	0.6 kilogrammes
	1 kan (貫)	(Japanese)	3.75 "
	1 picul (擔)	(Chinese)	60.453 "
	1 ton	(English)	1.016 metric tons
		(American)	0.9072 " "
1 pound		0.45359 kilogrammes	



THE MANCHOUKUO YEAR BOOK



CHAPTER I  
GEOGRAPHY\*

**Meaning and Area of 'Manchuria.'**—From ancient times, Manchuria has been inhabited by a race which called itself 'Manchu'. This race is one branch of the Tunguse race, and possessing distinct racial characteristics, that made it different from other branches of Tunguse, not only did it often form a strong nation in this territory and play an important part in the history of Eastern Asia, but also even dominated the Han race of China and it has written an indelible page in the history of the world. The Manchu dynasty is an example of its remarkable strength in the modern age.

The term 'Manchuria' originates in the name of this race, that is, the land which is mainly inhabited by the race has been called Manchuria. Thus the territory designated by the name Manchuria differed according to changes in the distribution of the race. Thus it was quite natural that the geographical boundary of Manchuria did not possess any fixed nature. But according to the intimate relation that long existed between the Manchu race and its habitat, the name Manchuria and the territory designated by it came to coincide to a certain degree in course of time.

**Changes of Administrative District.**—Manchuria being the native place of the Manchu dynasty, in the days of the Manchu reign particular importance was given to it, and the name Manchuria was used as the name for the territory officially. It was divided into several administrative provinces the same as in China, and not only was it treated as the most civilized and advanced region in the vast domain of the Manchu dynasty, but also it was given special treatment as more important than China in some sense. The provinces in Manchuria then were Fengtien or Shengking Province, Kirin Province, and Heilungkiang Province. These three provinces existed since quite early days, and because of their geographical situation, they came to be called Tungsansheng or Three Eastern Provinces. But as the civilization of districts within

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\* Contributed by Mr. Kan-ichi Uchida, Professor of The Tokyo Normal College.



these provinces came to be extended to the outside Fanpu (藩部) or savage districts near the frontier, the general policy of the Manchu dynasty to include them within such provinces was also applied in the Three Eastern Provinces of Manchuria. Thus parts of the territories of Inner and Outer Mongolia adjoining Manchuria became gradually included within the three provinces, and the area of Manchuria was greatly expanded during the Manchu dynasty. This policy of including the outside savage districts in the provinces was followed by the Republic of China even after the Manchu dynasty fell. Since the establishment of the Republic, the expansion of the territory of the Three Eastern Provinces into Inner and Outer Mongolia was quite large, and particularly the Jehol district which was formerly within Inner Mongolia was also given provincial administration, and the Three Eastern Provinces and Jehol were put together and called the Northeastern Four Provinces, treating them as special districts that differed substantially from China. The present Manchoukuo was formed of these Northeastern Four Provinces, but in administrative divisions, some changes were made. While the former names of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang and Jehol Provinces were retained and their former areas were mainly kept, such portions of those provinces which were comparatively newly annexed from Inner and Outer Mongolia have been separated from the provinces, and made into the newly established Hsingan Sub-provinces. They are called Hsingan Sub-provinces because they mainly consist of the Hsingan (or Khingan) Range and its adjoining districts. The name Hsingan Province is used here for convenience' sake, although no such term has yet been adopted for referring to them as a whole. In 1933, the northern portion of Jehol Province was also included in Hsingan Province.

Thus there are five provinces in Manchoukuo today, and besides them Hsinking, the capital, and its surrounding districts comprise a special city (it does not include Railway Zone of the S.M.R.); and Harbin, known as an international city, and its surrounding districts comprise another special city. Thus the administrative divisions of Manchoukuo consist of five provinces, two special cities and one special district which is called the North Manchuria Special District.

Within the territory called Manchuria, there are also Kwantung leased by Japan and the South Manchuria Railway Zone under Japanese control in the south. The North Manchuria Special District constitutes the North Manchuria Railway zone in the north. These railway zones run along the railway lines in narrow strips of land which are expanded

around the main stations.

**Boundaries of Manchoukuo.**—The boundaries of Manchoukuo inclose the former Northeastern Four Provinces. In the North, the country is separated from Siberia of the U. S. S. R. by the main stream of the Amur River and its branch, the Argun River; in the south, it partly faces the Sea of Pechili (or Pohai), borders on the Kwantung Leased Territory across the neutral zone, and is separated from Hopei Province of the Republic of China by the line running south of the Great Wall; in the east, borders on Japan (Korea) by the Yalu and Tumen rivers, and also on the Littoral province of the U. S. S. R. by the Mishan range in the eastern part of Manchoukuo, the Ussuri River, and the Hanka Lake that receives water from the Mishan range and empties into the Amur River; in the west, the boundary runs along the frontier between the former Manchuria and Mongolia. This boundary of the west has the least topographic features to mark it. One of the reasons that during the Manchu dynasty the territory of Manchuria extended into Inner and Outer Mongolia was the fact that there were no striking topographic features to mark the frontier, the district mostly being vast plains or tablelands that rose in slow slopes. The Great Khingan Range sounds formidable and appears to be a great mountain range in name, but actually the highest point of the range is less than 2,000 metres, and its width is 300 to 350 kilometres, being only a low tableland where even a watershed cannot be clearly noticed. Thus since early days, the Khingan Range did not become important as a natural boundary in descriptive geography; since the latter part of the Manchu dynasty, the Han race expanded from east to west passing through Manchuria, and there was seen a racial wave expanding westward crossing the Great Khingan Range, bringing the consequence of such districts being gradually included in Manchuria.

The frontiers of Manchoukuo being on the U.S.S.R., China and Japan, give special geographical significance to the new State, and it was on that account that also previous to its independence, Manchuria occupied a special position politically and geographically. It is a well known historical fact that in the days of Czarist Russia Manchuria as the means for her southern advance and for securing an ice-free harbour constituted a region to which Russia paid the greatest attention in carrying out her Eastern policy just as important as her Balkan or Central Asia policies. Because of this situation, Japan had always to protect her national safety in Manchuria. Under such conditions, Manchuria formed a special cultural ter-



ritory quite different from China even prior to its independence, and the declaration of independence from China made during the régime of the Chang family was in nature quite different from the so-called independence often made in various parts of China.

That a new State has arisen in this region under the name of Manchoukuo has a great significance from the standpoint of political geography. That is because among the nations bordering upon Manchoukuo two are of peculiar social structure, one being a Communistic State and the other in chronic confusion. As her declaration of independence stated, Manchoukuo's basic polity is 'Wangtao' which is the foundation of the ancient thought of the Orient. The existence of such a nation between her two peculiar neighbours must be said to be of particularly important significance not only in the sense of being a so-called buffer state, but also in cultural geography.

**Division of South and North Manchuria.**—Manchoukuo is locally divided into South and North Manchuria. Although there is no such administrative division of the country, South Manchuria has been used as an official term since Japan came to operate the South Manchuria Railway in 1907, and North Manchuria also has come to be used to indicate the northern part of the country. The division of South and North Manchuria is not clearly defined. Generally speaking, South Manchuria consists of the regions traversed by the Liao and Yalu rivers, while North Manchuria includes the regions of the Amur, and its branches the Sungari, Nonni and other rivers. The Kungchuling range which forms a part of the divide of these two river systems is less than 250 metres high, and does not form any outstanding topographical feature. The sources of these two river systems are adjoining, and in some cases are naturally connecting; again there are still left the ruins of a canal constructed in the Manchu dynasty to connect the two river systems. Thus it is inconvenient to divide South and North Manchuria by the Kungchuling range, and again it is more inconvenient to mark the division by the railway systems. Therefore, judging also from the standpoint of various cultural and other general features, it is believed proper to make Hsinking the dividing point of the two districts.

**Topography and Cultural Zone.**—It will now be studied what relation the distribution of mountains and rivers has with the climate, industry, racial distribution, transportation and other cultural features of the country. The Liao and Yalu Rivers run north to south, and forming a river system empty into the Gulf of Pechili, while the Sungari, Nonni,



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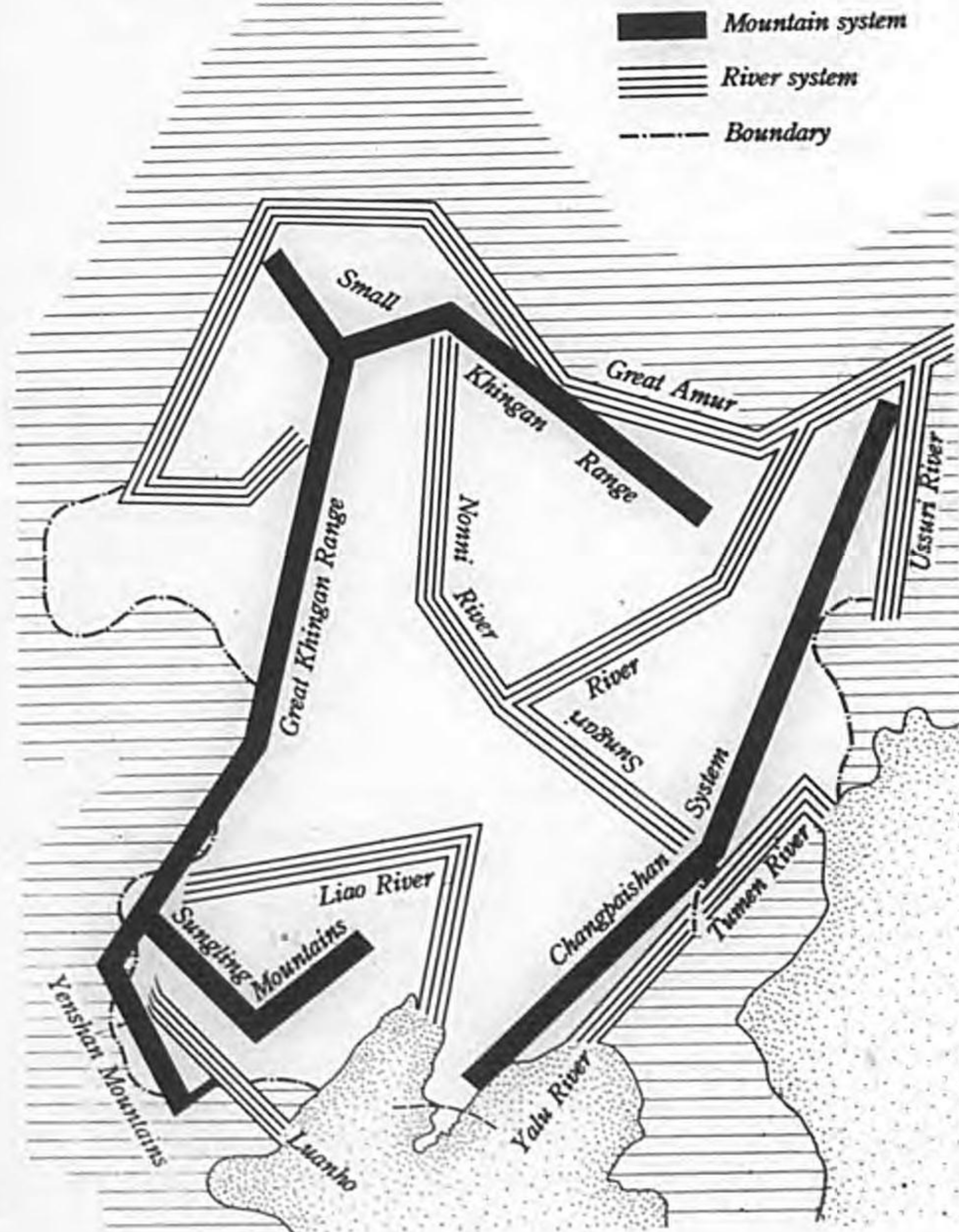
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## ROUGH SKETCH OF TOPOGRAPHY



and other branch streams of the Amur River run in the opposite direction, south to north, and join the main stream of the Amur; only the Tumen River forms an independent system and runs south to north.

The system of the Tumen and Yalu Rivers, and that of the above-mentioned branches of the Amur are topographically divided naturally, as the Eastern Manchurian mountain system formed mainly by the Changpaishan range lies between them, running northeast to southwest and forming their divide. Then to the west of the river systems of the Liao and the Sungari runs the Khingan Range in almost the same direction as the above-mentioned mountain range and separates the district from the tableland of Mongolia. The plains of the two south and north river systems of the Liao and the Amur branches located between the Eastern Manchurian mountain range and the Khingan Range are mutually connected and form the greatest plain. This may be called the great central plain of Manchoukuo. But this plain is generally narrow in the south and wide in the north, as in Jehol the Liaohsi Mountain System (Sungling, Yenshan, and other ranges) spreads, its eastern end running to the Gulf of Pechili and close to the Liao River, leaving only a small area between the eastern mountain range and the Liaohsi mountains, while in the north, the Small Khingan Range barely limits the plain topographically along the Amur River. Thus the great central plain forms a reversed trapezoidal shape.

The Mongolian plateau west of the Khingan Range is 1,000 to 1,500 metres high, being much higher than the above-mentioned great plain, but its surface is gently undulating. Thus the plateau may be called a flat plain, being connected with the great plain without any particular difference for a great distance. This condition is the great obstacle in nature to clearly marking the western boundary of Manchoukuo.

To the east of the eastern Manchurian mountain range, there is no room for a large plain in the regions of the Yalu and Tumen Rivers, as the Korean mountain range is close to the Manchurian mountains. Particularly the valley of the Tumen River is full of many gorges, and the basins at various points are mostly very small. Compared with the Tumen River valley, the region of the Yalu River has more valleys and basins, and their areas are comparatively large, but yet they cannot be compared with the vastness of the great central plain.



## MAIN MOUNTAIN RANGES

Ranges	Directions	Locations
Changpaishan System.....	Northeast to Southwest .....	Southeastern edge
Great Khingan Range .....	" " .....	Northwestern "
Small Khingan Range .....	Northwest to Southeast .....	Northeastern "
Sungling(松嶺) Mountains .....	" " .....	Southwestern "
Yenshan(燕山) Mountains .....	" " .....	" "

## PRINCIPAL LAKES

Lakes	Position	Extent (Kilometres)	
		East to West	South to North
Hanka (興凱)	Boundary of eastern part of Kirin Province and Siberia .....	50	90
Chingpo(鏡泊)	Central part of Kirin Province.....	8	40
Hulun(呼倫)	Northwestern part of Hsingan Northern Sub-province .....	10	20
Peir(貝爾)	Boundary of Hsingan Northern Sub-province and Outer Mongolia	7	32

The eastern mountain system, Khingan Range, Liaohsi Range, and Small Khingan Range are all based on the geological formation of Palaeozoic strata, and their formations as mountain regions are comparatively ancient. They were weathered and eroded in a long past period. In the case of the eastern mountain system and the Khingan Range, there was an eruption of basalt, and thus while the Changpaishan which is very high or the Wenhoehtungchi which is scenic though not very high, were produced, the eruption filled valleys and monotonized the ruggedness. In having close relation with the land formation, and the consequent development of the weathering process, the three of the above-mentioned mountain systems, excepting the Small Khingan Range, are in common. Among the three there are some natural geographical differences. That is to say, in the Khingan Range, it appears to be quite mountainous when viewed from the east as it forms the edge of the Mongolian tableland, but when it is viewed from the west, it has no feature to draw attention as a mountain system. In the eastern mountain system, the effect of the vertical and horizontal land formation with its erosion being remarkable, the Changpaishan range and several other branch ranges form rugged shapes because of their steep dips rather than their height, and particularly in the eastern side of the Changpaishan, there is a definite topographical division between the Korean and Manchurian mountains. On the western side of this system, generally there is a clear topographical feature in height separating it from the great central plain, though not so

definitely as on the eastern side. Then there are seen in the plain patches of mountain systems that are geologically related, and this tendency is particularly prominent in the southern section. In the eastern mountain system there are numerous formation lines crossing it, and not only do they divide it into several ranges, but also are instrumental in forming the basins seen in the Yalu and Tumen river regions. As the erosion process was added, the mountains forming such basins have generally very steep dips and become obstacles to transportation in many cases. Thus since ancient times, transportation routes avoided such basins and followed valleys.

The central plain adjoining to the west of the eastern mountain system forms several large, low terraces and ends at the Sungari or Liao River. The condition of such topographical transition is more pronounced than that of the places where the central plain approaches the Khingan Range or the Liaohsi mountain district; this point is a good contrast between the two districts.

**Nature and Exploitation.**—The great central plain lying between the eastern and western formation lines is not only always flat, but also very low, being generally less than 300 metres above sea level. The Kungchuling, the divide of the southern and northern river systems, is less than 250 metres, and most of the plain is as low as about 100 metres. Not only is the plain so low, but the majority (70 to 80%) of the annual rainfall (Mukden 667 m.m., Hsinking 645 m.m., Dairen 614 m.m., Harbin 548 m.m., and Manchouli 254 m.m.) generally comes as showers in summer, and thus in the rainy season of summer, the river water in the district is greatly heightened, and floods are frequent. Recently Manchurians had the bitter experience of the flood in the regions of the Liao and Sungari river system.

Table 1

## PRECIPITATION, DAYS OF RAIN OR SUNSHINE

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year	
Dairen.....	a*	12.4	8.2	18.2	24.6	42.8	44.2	169.7	129.5	100.5	27.9	24.5	11.8	614.3
	b	4	3	4	5	7	7	11	10	7	6	6	5	75
	c	15	13	10	8	6	5	3	5	10	13	12	13	113
Yingkow.....	a	7.5	5.6	18.7	25.5	49.7	58.8	173.7	158.5	77.3	47.4	21.7	7.2	651.6
	b	4	3	5	6	9	10	13	11	8	6	5	4	84
	c	17	14	11	8	6	5	4	6	10	14	14	16	125
Mukden .....	a	5.1	6.1	19.1	27.0	57.3	87.4	167.0	149.2	78.1	38.4	23.9	8.7	667.3
	b	4	3	6	6	10	12	15	12	9	7	5	4	93
	c	4	3	6	6	10	12	15	12	9	7	5	4	93
Hsinking .....	a	7.2	6.2	16.0	19.7	54.3	106.0	177.3	139.7	59.4	36.6	15.9	7.2	645.5
	b	6	5	6	7	11	14	16	12	11	8	6	6	108
	c	17	13	10	5	4	3	2	5	9	12	12	16	108

\* a.....precipitation (m.m.)

b.....raining days

c.....sunshine days



	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year	
Anshan .....	a	9.9	3.0	19.6	29.1	44.6	61.7	154.3	193.6	59.7	57.9	30.6	17.4	681.4
	b	3	3	5	6	9	10	14	12	9	7	6	7	91
	c	17	14	12	9	6	5	3	5	11	16	14	14	126
Taonan .....	a	1.7	2.2	3.4	12.0	20.1	60.6	123.4	137.9	55.8	8.2	6.0	1.2	432.5
	b	4	3	2	3	8	11	13	15	11	3	3	2	78
	c	17	13	13	6	5	3	3	4	6	15	13	20	113
Manchouli .....	a	2.2	1.7	2.9	4.6	16.5	44.7	71.4	61.3	34.2	7.0	4.7	2.8	254.2
	b	3	3	3	3	5	11	12	12	8	3	3	4	70
	c	16	14	15	10	5	4	5	4	8	11	12	14	118
Hailar .....	a	4.0	4.2	3.5	10.1	20.5	51.0	79.5	65.9	45.4	10.3	5.7	4.3	304.4
	b	7	6	5	5	7	7	13	13	11	5	5	7	91
	c	16	13	12	9	4	4	3	4	6	9	10	14	104
Harbin .....	a	4.1	6.4	12.1	19.9	43.1	99.5	149.2	109.8	56.4	24.3	13.2	5.1	548.1
	b	5	6	6	7	10	15	15	13	12	7	6	6	108
	c	14	11	8	5	4	2	3	4	7	10	9	12	89
Yenki .....	a	5.2	5.3	13.6	14.6	49.3	74.0	96.5	110.9	93.7	39.2	14.0	5.7	571.4
	b	4	3	5	5	12	12	13	12	11	6	5	4	109
	c	13	11	7	6	4	3	2	4	6	9	11	11	87

The land being low and flat, and floods frequent, naturally the winding of the rivers is pronounced, and consequently the total lengths of the rivers are much greater than the straight distance. This moderates the floods, but it causes the great inconvenience of increasing the distance of transportation. The surface of the great central plain is formed mostly of alluvial and deluvial formations, and yellow soil of aeolian and sedimental origins covers the most extensive area.

These weak places are constantly denuded by the rivers, but also they have accumulating process. Changes of river courses, however, have been numerous since ancient times, due to floods, and consequently the effect of rivers has been extended to a very wide area, and has played an important part in forming the present great central plain. In the cases of the Liao and the Yalu which directly empty into the sea, the accumulation of sand and soil at the mouths has been particularly great, and as there was also a tendency to upheaval of the land, deltas greatly developed and the shore line has been retreating. Thus the fact that ports at the river mouths have been obliged to be removed farther seaward, has been clearly shown in history. For instance, in the case of the Liao River, today Yingkow is prosperous as the river mouth port, but it has been developed during only about seventy years, and previously, Newchwang (牛莊) which is located about 40 kilometres up the river from Yingkow, was prosperous as the river mouth port. Even today, Yingkow is far from the mouth, and as the accumulation of sand and soil at the mouth is rapid, inconvenience in the entrance and departure of ships is felt even with constant dredging. Thus not only is the town of Yingkow being developed toward the mouth, but also there is a tendency for the connecting point of land and sea transportation to be moved further south. This situation is not caused only

by the fact that ships entering and leaving the port of Yingkow have become much larger than before.

## PRINCIPAL RIVERS

Rivers	Sources	Traversed Regions	Emptying into
Amur	Northern part of Great Khingan Range	Outer side of Great and Small Khingan Ranges	Sea of Japan
Sungari	Paitoushan (白頭山) of Changpaishan System	Kirin, Fuyu, Harbin	Amur River
Nonni	Northern part of Small Khingan Range	Plains in the neighbourhood of Tsitsihar	Sungari River
Ussuri	Southern part of Hsihoteshan (興赫特山), Siberia	Boundary of Kirin Province and Siberia	Amur River
Tumen	Paitoushan of Changpaishan System	Boundary of Korean and Kirin Province	Sea of Japan
Yalu	"	Boundary of Korean and Fengtien Province	Yellow Sea
Liao	Southern part of Great Khingan Range	Boundary of Hsingan Western Sub-province and Jehol Province, Chengchiatun, Yingkow	Gulf of Pechili
Luanho	Yenshan (燕山) Range	Chengte, Hopei Province of China	"

In the regions of the two river systems of the great central plain are found lakes and marshy lands which tell of former floods, as well as former river courses, and the land foundation is generally weak. Because of the frequency of floods, the construction of roads on river banks has been considered difficult from ancient times, and is practically inconvenient. In the river shore districts transportation is generally done by water, and roads were constructed since early days on the west side of the eastern mountain system or on the highest or second terrace adjoining the mountain, which became the main road running south to north. The South Manchuria Railway line runs along the ancient roads, and is a good example of transportation routes running on the terraces. The main and southern lines of the North Manchuria Railway also were constructed on high, dry land.

The fact that in South Manchuria the development of villages along the ancient roads has been remarkable and such districts are advantageous for development, may be one of the direct causes that made the South Manchuria Railway line have such intimate relation with the old roads, but this also can be regarded as an indirect topographical relation.



In the Yalu River region it was difficult for the south to north main road to develop because there is no flat land running south to north, and consequently, the winding of roads according to the river course is considerable. Only in the lower stream region of the Yalu River are there seen parallel roads.

The roads in South Manchuria running east to west meet the inconvenience of crossing numerous marshy lands and streams in the great central plain, and this inconvenience is further increased in the lower courses of the rivers. Consequently these roads avoid such districts as much as possible. In the Liao River district which was crossed by the important communication route with China since early days, roads crossed the main stream of the Liao northwest of Mukden since ancient days. The Mukden-Shanhaikwan railway line crosses the river though farther south of the above-mentioned point, but farther north than Mukden.

In the case of the Yalu River, the road running between Gishu (義州) and Chiuliencheng (九連城) was the main road in the lower stream district, previous to the crossing of the river by the Autung-Mukden Railway line from Shingishu to Antung. The road running from Chian (輯安) on the upper stream of the river to Mukden has been used since very early days. West of Mukden, roads crossing the Liao River to Jehol Province are the main routes. Although recently the road passes along the Mukden-Shanhaikwan Railway line, formerly this east to west transportation line passed through desolate grass fields and often it was necessary to use boats. Even east of Mukden, the land route had many difficulties, and therefore the coastwise ship route has been utilized from early days, and steamship routes from the coast of the Gulf of Pechili and the coast of the Shantung peninsula on the Yellow sea to the Liao and Yalu Rivers have developed and maintained the cultural communications between Manchuria and China. Particularly in the basins of the Yalu River region, the civilization established by the Manchu race made much progress, and the civilized areas extended to the basins in the upper stream of the Sungari River, and established the political and economic center of Manchuria. Thus the communications with China naturally became frequent and close, and the waterway of the Yalu became the great artery of communication with China. Chian, thus developed, as both a river port and a sea port.

There is another point to be mentioned respecting the progress of the water and land transportation of South Manchuria. That is the fact that

together with the Liao and the Yalu Rivers, their branch streams were utilized as waterways since early days. In the case of the Liao River, the connection between the limiting point of ship navigation on the branch rivers and the main road south to north had been considered an important route.

Some branch streams on the left bank of the Liao are utilized for ship navigation only after they pass the Eastern Mountain system and reach the terrace of the great central plain, and that is the point where the branch streams cross the south to north main road. This point not only possesses much importance in the land and water transportation connection, but also in political and military affairs, and thus became a great cause for the development of villages at that point. That may be quite ordinary from the geographical standpoint, but it is a point to be noticed. Kaiping, Haicheng, Lioyang, and Mukden are examples of such development, and each possesses the history of having been the central city in the central plain of South Manchuria at one time or another. With the change of the river courses and transportation systems, the value of these cities as ports has been greatly reduced, as the ship transportation facility was lost, but they are now able to remain as cities on account of being in positions to command the benefits of railway and automobile transportation facilities. Mukden, for instance, is enjoying prosperous development, taking advantage of such facilities.

The opening of the railway in South Manchuria played an important part in the development of Manchoukuo. The first is that with the decline of the water transportation by the Liao the railway line absorbed communication and transportation. The second is that by the operation of the railway the exploiting enterprises in the district along the railway by settlers progressed. The third is that the railway has brought changes in towns and villages along the line. Also there have been brought about other great cultural changes. The railway has not only brought prosperity or ruin to towns and villages that developed along the roads in the ancient times, but also created numerous new towns and villages at railway stations. Tashihchiao (大石橋), Anshan, Ssuchiatun (蘇家屯), Tiehling, Kaiyuan, Changtu (昌圖), Ssuping kai, Kungchuling and others are examples of such newly created towns. Hsinking (former Changchun), and Dairen have also been greatly developed because of the opening of the railway line. Thus numerous towns developed along the railway line not merely as railway stations, but also because the opening of farms rapidly increased to west and east of the railway line, and as the



hinterland has expanded, the quantity of goods shipped to and from the railway stations has greatly increased. This tendency is also seen on the North Manchuria Railway in North Manchuria, but because the flow of immigrants and settlers has not been so large as in the districts along the South Manchuria Railway line, the development of the North Manchuria Railway districts has not been so rapid and forceful as in the south. This is due to the fact that the majority of immigrants to Manchuria came from the North China districts of Shantung, Chihli (直隸), and Honan, and they entered Manchuria via Dairen and Yingkow and gradually proceeded from the south to the north, the South Manchuria Railway thus becoming the main route for them. Speaking of the districts along the South Manchuria Railway line themselves, it is a fact that the progress advanced from the southern parts to the northern. Now the narrow districts along the South Manchuria Railway having already been fully developed, and the density of farming population increased, they are making progress in districts far from the railway line, and with the construction of new railway lines, the area of development has been greatly expanded. Consequently the basin districts of the eastern mountain system which have an ancient history are now facing the prospect of revival and new progress. Furthermore, immigrants are now proceeding far into the former Inner Mongolian districts, crossing the Liao River. In less than twenty years since Japan began to operate the South Manchuria Railway, undeveloped lands became fertile farms, and sparsely populated districts came to have dense population, as shown in the table No. 5, and in such manner these districts, which were not noticed before, have come to contribute much to the world economy. The same tendency is witnessed in North Manchuria, but the progress in North Manchuria is far behind that in South Manchuria, because railway facilities are yet limited and the number of trains operated is few, while in point of wages and other features, North Manchuria has not the attraction for people and goods as is the case in South Manchuria. Consequently the waterway of the Sungari River has comparatively more importance than the Liao, and in North Manchuria the population density is low and towns are few and small in population. But it cannot be denied that even in North Manchuria the development along the railway lines has been greater than in other sections. Recently the development in a section of the triangular area formed with the Harbin-Tsitsihar line as the base and Heiho (黑河) at the point, in the districts along the Tsitsihar-Koshan, Hailun-Koshan and Harbin-Hailun Railways, has been phenomenally

rapid.

The construction of various new railway lines has stimulated the coming of immigrants, and the distribution of the Hans in those districts has become very large. Of course, this tendency is varied according to districts. For instance, in the districts along the Ssuping kai-Taonan Railway line, several miles west of the railway line or even the railway track itself marks the boundary of the distribution of the Hans, proving the extremely close relation between railway construction and the settlement of the Hans. After the establishment of Manchoukuo in 1932, the administrative divisions of the country became five provinces, but their boundaries are complicated, because the boundaries of the three provinces of Fengtien, Kirin and Heilungkiang, with Hsingan Province, were made according to the distribution of the Hans and the Mongols. Because of this intention, along the Ssuping kai-Taonan Railway line, the boundary of Hsingan Province is placed at some points quite near to the west side of the railway line, proving eloquently that the western advance of the Hans has not yet progressed at those places. On the other hand, the detached sections of Fengtien Province are established around Tungliao (通遼) and Liaohsi (遼西), because since about the time when the railway was constructed from Ssuping kai to Tungliao, the settlement of the Han people at Tungliao suddenly increased, and as the railway line was extended to Liaohsi, the Hans also settled much in those districts; thus at Tungliao and Liaohsi and their surrounding districts, the Hans came to be in the majority. Thus viewed, it will be seen that even in the boundary of Heilungkiang Province and Hsingan Province there is racial distribution. In Heilungkiang Province the Han people are comparatively numerous, but in Hsingan Province the Han distribution is limited, while the Mongols inhabit it just as before covering a very wide area, though the population density is low. Last year, the northern part of Jehol Province was included in Hsingan Province because of the same reason. In the northern part of Jehol Province, the settlement of the Hans is yet small, while the Mongols are distributed mainly as before, in sharp contrast to the southern part where the settlement of the Hans is quite large.

**Varieties and Features of Inhabitants.**—The races forming the present inhabitants of Manchoukuo are numerous and varied, but the most notable are the Manchus and the Mongols who have inhabited the territory since ancient times, and the Hans, Japanese, and Koreans who have newly entered Manchuria as farming or labouring immigrants. These five races constitute the majority of the inhabitants of Manchoukuo today, possessing the



greatest actual interests there. The five colours of the Manchoukuo flag signify these five races. Those who were formerly Russians but now are settled in Manchoukuo also number tens of thousands.

The Manchus who have the oldest history in Manchuria, among all the peoples inhabiting Manchoukuo, formerly politically controlled the Han race of China for more than two hundred years, and in that long period, mixed marriages of Manchus and Hans took place in large numbers in both China and Manchuria. Consequently Manchus of pure blood are today comparatively few, and their living customs are a mixture of Chinese and Manchu. Agriculture is the main activity of the Manchus. The Mongols were formerly extensively distributed over a much wider area than at present, but oppressed by the coming of the Hans, they retreated from the fertile lands to the west, and now mainly inhabit Hsingan Province. Live-stock raising is their main activity, and even today they retain their original habits mostly. Classified by their methods of stock-farming, they may be divided into two kinds. One kind is living at a fixed place and is engaged in stock-farming both indoor and outdoor, and the other kind is following nomadic habits. The Hans are found numerous in towns and farming villages of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang, Jehol and Hsingan Provinces. Particularly the agricultural progress is mostly due to their efforts. In urban districts they are active in economic affairs, and as labourers they have exceptionally superior qualities with which those of other peoples cannot be compared.

Although both the Hans and the Manchus engage in agriculture as their principal activity, there is a clear distinction between them. Particularly the Hans have the strong tendency to engage in agriculture gregariously. The Hans who engaged in stock-farming were few, but in the case of the Manchus, many engaged in it. But recently recognizing the profitableness of stock-farming, the number of Hans engaging in it is gradually increasing. Particularly the Hans in Heilungkiang and Hsingan Provinces mostly are taking much interest in stock-farming, and are raising comparatively large numbers of animals in limited spaces. This is due firstly to the fact that they find it difficult to purchase wide lands on account of lack of funds immediately after their settlements, and thus mostly they follow gregarious methods in stock-farming, just as in agriculture. This is in contrast to the Mongols who carry on stock-farming on vast areas. The Hans mostly erect animal sheds, and in summer they feed their animals outdoors on grass, and in winter they keep them in the sheds. Russians who entered Manchuria after the establishment of the

U. S. S. R., settling in the western part of Hsingan Province, are mainly engaged in stock-farming, but their method is between the gregarious one of the Hans and the nomadic one of the Mongols, in summer moving from one place to another with their animals, and in winter keeping them in sheds, feeding them with grass obtained in summer.

With the rapid coming of the Hans, the exploitation and cultivation of land were extended from the south to the north, along the South Manchuria railway main line and the North Manchuria Railway southern line, and also to the east and west of those railway lines. Until recently, the cultivation was limited to the North Manchuria Railway line in the north, and the eastern boundary of the present Hsingan Province in the west, but as it became known that the district north of the North Manchuria Railway is favourable for agricultural cultivation, the activity of the Hans as agricultural immigrants in those districts has become notable of late, increasing the cultivated area, and agricultural products, advancing the population density, and rapidly developing villages and towns. Particularly in the districts along the Tsitsihar-Koshan, Hailun-Koshan, and Harbin-Hailun Railways having connections with the North Manchuria Railway, in the so-called triangular area formed with the line from Harbin to Tsitsihar as the base and Heiho as the point, their number is especially large, and remarkable rapidity of agricultural development there is told. These districts are called the granary of North Manchuria with good reason. The opening of the Lafa-Harbin Railway line and motor roads is expected to increase activity in these districts.

**Climate and Regional Precedence in Development.**—In viewing the progress of the agricultural immigrants in Manchoukuo, it is seen that it is a proper phenomenon arising from the relation of the climate and agriculture, and excepting only some exceptional cases, generally the migration developed in close relation with the climate.

The annual average temperature of Manchoukuo falls going from the south to the northwest, rather than to the north, being  $10^{\circ}2'$  at Dairen,  $7^{\circ}1'$  at Mukden,  $4^{\circ}6'$  at Hsinking,  $3^{\circ}0'$  at Harbin, and  $0^{\circ}1'$  at Manchouli. Thus the climate changes from an oceanic mild climate in the southeastern section to a desert climate with strong continental features in the northwestern section. Places where the temperature rises to 39 degrees in summer and falls to 30 degrees below zero in winter are not few. In winter the lowest temperature is  $-19^{\circ}9'$  at Dairen,  $-32^{\circ}9'$  at Mukden,  $-35^{\circ}7'$  at Hsinking,  $-40^{\circ}$  at Harbin, and  $-46^{\circ}9'$  at Manchouli, the difference of temperature between the southeastern part and the



northwestern part being great. It is not accidental that immigrating farmers avoided the colder regions and undertook the exploitation of the southern part first. The annual rainfall is generally smaller than in Japan or the Yangtze River regions of China, and it is especially small in winter and in North Manchuria. Therefore, although the rivers and ground freeze generally in winter, the snowfall is small, and in flat plains dried grasses show their tops out of the snow. In South Manchuria snow does not cover the ground for any long period.

Table 2  
HIGHEST AND LOWEST TEMPERATURE  
(Celcius, -below 0°)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Dairen .....	a* 10.2	13.0	17.7	28.3	30.9	35.0	35.2	35.7	31.0	27.4	23.0	13.0	35.7
	b -19.9	-19.3	-12.4	-4.0	1.4	10.9	14.9	15.0	5.8	-2.9	-11.6	-18.9	-19.9
Yingkow.....	a 7.5	10.1	18.5	27.7	31.1	35.1	35.2	36.9	32.5	26.5	22.9	11.6	36.9
	b -29.4	-31.0	-18.0	-14.6	-1.0	7.1	12.3	10.4	0.0	-8.1	-23.4	-28.1	-31.0
Mukden.....	a 7.8	12.1	20.0	30.3	33.1	39.3	38.9	37.0	33.9	30.4	25.5	10.9	39.3
	b -32.9	-32.7	-20.9	-9.6	-2.0	6.5	10.7	9.6	-1.0	-10.0	-26.3	-31.3	-32.9
Hsinking ...	a 3.5	10.5	19.9	30.2	33.3	39.5	38.3	37.0	33.1	29.8	24.0	7.3	39.5
	b -35.7	-36.0	-26.0	-15.5	-3.4	4.4	9.0	6.4	-2.7	-13.4	-27.2	-33.5	-36.0
Anshan.....	a 6.9	11.3	20.0	29.2	31.2	37.7	37.7	34.4	32.4	28.0	19.7	11.0	37.7
	b -25.9	-24.6	-16.6	-6.8	1.8	8.3	15.2	11.8	0.0	-7.4	-17.7	-29.5	-29.5
Taonan.....	a -0.8	5.4	17.1	27.0	35.8	35.6	39.7	37.4	31.0	27.0	16.7	2.7	39.7
	b -36.4	-33.7	-28.0	-11.5	-2.0	4.0	13.8	9.1	-1.5	-11.5	-23.0	-30.8	-36.4
Manchouli..	a -6.3	1.0	12.5	28.2	31.7	35.0	38.7	40.0	31.9	20.4	7.8	-2.5	40.0
	b -46.9	-39.5	-34.8	-26.9	-8.1	-4.1	6.3	-0.9	-7.9	-23.8	-36.7	-46.5	-46.9
Hailar.....	a -6.3	-1.2	13.8	28.5	30.6	35.4	40.1	39.3	33.6	24.1	8.3	-2.0	40.1
	b -49.3	-46.4	-36.6	-27.4	-8.1	-1.7	6.0	-0.1	-7.1	-27.2	-37.3	-46.9	-49.3
Harbin.....	a 0.9	9.6	19.3	29.6	34.4	39.0	39.1	35.6	32.0	28.1	17.9	4.6	39.1
	b -40.0	-39.9	-27.8	-14.0	-5.2	3.8	9.6	6.0	-3.0	-14.8	-31.6	-33.7	-40.0
Yenki.....	a 7.2	11.2	20.1	28.6	34.7	37.1	39.7	40.3	32.3	26.3	23.3	8.2	40.3
	b -37.1	-31.8	-26.5	-11.1	-5.6	-0.3	10.6	2.4	-2.8	-12.3	-22.1	-27.0	-37.1

Table 3  
AVERAGE TEMPERATURE (Celcius, -below 0°)†

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Dairen.....	a -1.2	0.4	6.1	14.2	20.1	24.9	27.2	28.2	24.0	18.1	9.2	1.7	14.4
	b -8.9	-7.1	-1.7	5.1	11.0	16.5	20.6	21.5	16.3	9.6	1.1	-6.0	6.5
	c -5.0	-3.5	1.9	9.3	15.3	20.3	23.5	24.6	19.8	13.6	5.1	-2.1	10.2
Yingkow.....	a -4.3	-1.5	5.3	14.4	21.3	26.4	29.0	28.9	23.8	16.5	6.0	-2.0	13.6
	b -15.7	-13.0	-5.0	3.0	10.3	16.2	20.5	19.9	12.8	5.1	-4.3	-12.6	3.1
	c -9.7	-7.0	0.2	8.8	15.9	21.4	24.8	24.3	18.3	10.7	0.9	-7.1	8.4

\* a.....highest temperature  
b.....lowest temperature

† a.....(Monthly average of daily highest temperature)  
b.....( " " of daily lowest " )  
c.....average temperature



Above, Ice-skating at Hsinking.  
Under, Sea-bathing at Hoshigaura, near Dairen.



	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Mukden .....	a -6.5	-2.4	5.1	15.6	22.7	28.4	30.3	29.3	23.8	16.2	4.5	-4.0	13.6
	b -18.9	-15.3	6.4	2.1	9.3	15.6	20.1	19.0	10.9	3.3	-6.5	-15.6	1.5
	c -13.0	-9.1	-0.9	8.7	15.8	21.7	24.7	23.6	16.7	9.0	-1.4	-10.1	7.1
Hsinking .....	a -11.0	-6.0	1.9	13.1	21.0	26.5	28.9	27.6	21.6	13.2	1.3	-8.4	10.8
	b -23.2	-19.1	-10.5	-0.4	7.2	13.7	18.5	16.8	9.0	0.5	-9.8	-19.5	-1.5
	c -17.3	-12.8	-4.0	6.5	14.3	20.0	23.3	21.9	14.8	6.5	-4.5	-14.0	4.6
Anshan .....	a -5.1	-1.8	6.4	16.3	23.0	28.6	29.9	28.5	24.6	16.3	7.1	-3.5	14.2
	b -15.4	-12.1	-4.3	3.9	11.4	17.0	20.8	19.3	13.0	4.6	-3.6	-13.1	3.4
	c -9.9	-6.8	0.9	9.8	16.5	22.0	24.8	23.3	18.2	10.1	1.6	-8.4	8.5
Taonan .....	a -12.8	-6.9	5.6	14.0	21.3	26.7	26.7	26.8	21.1	13.7	0.5	-8.8	11.1
	b -25.1	-21.0	-10.8	-1.6	6.7	13.6	18.6	17.1	8.7	0.4	-11.8	-20.9	-2.2
	c -18.0	-13.8	-2.9	5.8	13.7	19.7	23.6	21.3	14.1	6.2	-5.8	-14.9	4.1
Manchouli .....	a -20.3	-16.1	-7.2	6.3	16.8	23.1	26.7	24.1	16.5	5.5	-8.9	-18.7	4.0
	b -30.9	-28.0	-20.5	-6.5	2.0	9.6	14.0	11.4	3.1	-6.7	-19.6	-28.9	-8.4
	c -25.8	-22.3	-13.8	0.7	10.4	17.4	21.0	18.0	9.8	-0.1	-13.9	-23.6	-1.8
Hailar .....	a -22.2	-17.2	-7.9	6.6	17.0	23.6	27.4	24.7	16.8	6.9	-8.3	-20.0	3.9
	b -34.2	-30.7	-22.4	-6.2	2.2	9.1	13.8	11.4	3.3	-6.3	-20.0	-31.2	-9.3
	c -18.3	-24.3	-15.2	0.6	10.4	17.1	21.0	18.1	9.8	0.0	-14.2	-25.6	-2.6
Harbin .....	a -14.4	-8.7	-0.2	12.0	20.1	25.7	28.6	27.1	20.5	11.6	1.8	-12.0	9.0
	b -26.0	-21.9	-12.5	-0.7	6.8	13.3	18.0	16.7	8.5	-0.2	-12.3	-22.7	-2.8
	c -20.4	-15.7	-6.5	5.7	13.8	19.7	23.2	21.6	14.2	5.3	-7.2	-17.4	3.0
Yenki .....	a -7.9	-3.5	3.5	13.5	19.7	25.0	28.3	28.3	22.0	15.2	2.9	-5.6	11.8
	b -20.6	-17.9	-10.0	-1.2	5.5	11.8	17.2	16.9	8.8	-0.0	-8.6	-17.4	-1.3
	c -14.4	-10.9	-6.3	6.3	12.9	18.3	22.4	22.1	15.0	7.1	-3.4	-11.7	4.8

Table 4

## FROST AND SNOW SEASON

	Snow		Frost	
	First day	Last day	First day	Last day
Dairen .....	Nov. 6	March 28	Nov. 1	March 31
Yingkow .....	Nov. 1	March 30	Oct. 10	April 12
Mukden .....	Oct. 27	April 10	Oct. 2	May 3
Hsinking .....	Oct. 17	April 23	Sept. 24	May 3
Anshan .....	Oct. 29	April 18	Oct. 1	May 1
Taonan .....	Oct. 13	April 14	Oct. 4	April 14
Manchouli .....	Oct. 6	April 19	Sept. 13	May 24
Hailar .....	Oct. 13	May 7	Oct. 14	May 23
Harbin .....	Oct. 19	April 17	Oct. 3	May 3
Yenki .....	Oct. 29	April 15	Oct. 4	May 10

Even in South Manchuria, the low temperature in winter is not suitable for agriculture, and consequently in most parts of Manchoukuo winter cultivation is impossible. Therefore, in most parts only summer crops are cultivated, and even when wheat is planted, spring wheat is cultivated, the winter crop being unsuitable. The summer temperature also falls as it goes from the southeastern parts to the northwest, the average temperature for July being 23.5 degs. C: at Dairen, 24.7 at Mukden, 23.3 at Hsinking, 23.2 at Harbin, and 21.0 at Manchouli. Thus the period suitable for agriculture is about 200 days in the southern parts, and about 150 days in



the northern parts, there being a difference of 50 days. But speaking of the daylight period only, the highest temperature in northern places does not differ much from South Manchuria and even in North Manchuria there are places showing excellent agricultural results. In the quantity of rainfall, the tendency of decreasing from the southeastern part to the northwestern is more notable than in temperature. This is, of course, due to the effect of the Sea of Japan and the Yellow Sea which is stronger in the regions bordering on those seas and weaker as it goes farther from them. The effect of the continental condition is greater in the northwestern section and smaller in the southeastern. Thus although agriculture is carried on extensively in Manchoukuo, its products and its methods vary according to district on account of temperature and rainfall naturally. In the southeastern section, kaoliang, soya beans, millet, maize, and wheat are extensively planted, and also rice cultivation is done; and in the neighbourhood of cities and towns, cultivation of vegetables is carried on. In the north, soya beans, kaoliang, millet, and maize mainly are cultivated, all these products being suitable for the conditions of small rainfall and high temperature. Soya beans are produced in Japan, Korea, China and other countries, besides Manchoukuo, but there is no country which exports soya beans as much as Manchoukuo. In the progress of agriculture and railway transportation in Manchoukuo, there is no agricultural product so important as soya beans. Thus it is not at all accidental that Manchoukuo has been called the land of the soya bean (see Chapter X).

**Climate and Agricultural Methods.**—In the southeastern part of South Manchuria there are some places where farming is conducted with only the natural rainfall, but such districts are comparatively small, and even in the southern parts it is generally necessary to irrigate the farms.

As the rainfall decreases as it goes to the west or northwest, the necessity of irrigation is more strongly felt, but with the small rainfall the available surface water also is generally small, and consequently a source of water for irrigation is lacking. Thus it is necessary to adopt methods similar to dry farming by utilizing the ground temperature, or to change cultivating methods to dry farming. Generally speaking, the area where these dry farming or semi-dry farming methods are adopted is quite large in both North Manchuria and South Manchuria, and the clever method of utilizing the limited moisture in the soil deserves attention.

The yield by dry or semi-dry farming is generally smaller than that from well irrigated farms. With the increase of population, urgent necessity of increasing the yield is felt. Therefore, as one of the fundamental

policies for improving the agriculture of the country, the Manchoukuo Government has been trying to improve the irrigation facilities. As recently a new system of utilizing the underground water by the so-called Manchurian well has been perfected by Engineer Shimizu of the Kwantung Government, it is expected that the crops will be greatly increased when it is applied in North and South Manchuria, and that it will turn the present waste lands and pasture lands into farms. The future agricultural development of Manchoukuo is to be watched with much interest because of this new irrigation system. The so-called Manchurian well does not differ from an ordinary well in digging perpendicularly into the ground, but numerous holes are bored in all sides of the well at its depth, and through these holes iron pipes which have many holes are put out in all directions to the necessary distance, so that the underground water in a wide area can be gathered into the well. By this method, the result is the same as boring a huge well encircling the outer points of the horizontal pipes could obtain. The Manchurian well is effective permanently, while ordinary wells are liable to dry up in a few years. Thus as it is able to supply a great quantity of water, it will become a strong force in developing the agriculture of the country if it can be adapted economically. The dry or semi-dry farming methods have been extensively adopted since early days because there was no proper method discovered to effect irrigation, despite many efforts. This new system, which collects the underground water in districts where the rainfall is light, will not only contribute much in irrigating Manchoukuo farms, but also in solving the problem of irrigation in other countries where the rainfall is small.

(Regarding industries of Manchoukuo, refer to respective Chapters)

**Living Condition of the People.**—The living condition of the people of Manchoukuo widely differs according to place and also to race. Generally speaking, in the southern part of the Eastern Mountain system, the houses are built of stone and earth in such districts where stone is cheaply and abundantly obtainable, and there are also brick houses. In Hsingan Province, both stone and timber are scarce, and consequently there are seldom seen stone or wooden houses, and in most districts people are obliged to live in tents. This is the natural condition of their dwellings because of the above-mentioned fact and also because of their engaging in nomadic activities.

In districts near the forest zones, wooden construction has much developed because of the abundant supply of timber, and the Manchus have comparatively many wooden houses. In the great central plain, trees



are few and stone also is scarce, and the building materials consist mainly of yellow clay, willow branches and agricultural products. The houses are constructed mainly of sun-dried bricks, or of willow posts and mud, or of willow poles and kaoliang stalks. For farming households the latter type is most numerous. For cold weather, the houses generally have a peculiar heating system. It is commonly called *kan* which is somewhat similar to the *ondoru* used in Korea though not the same. As fuel for heating, wood is used where it is obtainable, but in the great central plain, stalks and roots of agricultural products are mostly used, and also dried summer grasses are used. As even these materials become insufficient, animal dung is dried and used as fuel in many houses. In Hsingan Province, plant fuel is scarce, and animal dung is valued as fuel. Although coal is abundantly produced in the country, farmers and pasture households seldom use coal for heating, and it is used for this purpose only in cities and towns. The gregarious formation in Manchoukuo is mostly the walled town with walls formed in straight lines in geometrical shapes, after the Han hereditary custom, but sometimes there are seen walled towns of round shape. Even among the Manchus and Mongols, the customs of the Hans are found extensively.

Large cities are more and more becoming modern, under special plans joining western and eastern civilization. Hsinking, the capital, is now being constructed as the most characteristic great city of Manchoukuo.

**Population.**—It is impossible to learn the exact number of the population of Manchoukuo as no accurate census has ever been taken, just as its geography is not definitely known. Figures given for this item are mostly based upon the statistics compiled by the South Manchuria Railway Company or the Statistical Bureau of the Manchoukuo Government, but excepting only those for the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone, the figures must be regarded as being extremely rough calculations. With such materials, the static condition of the Manchoukuo population will here be first considered and then its movement, as well as some of its special features.

Regarding the static condition of the population the following table will be given first. This table is as estimated by the Manchoukuo Government as at the end of December, 1932, on the basis of reports submitted by various local government offices, and although it is not based upon a census in a technical sense, it is compiled after a fairly systematic special household investigation conducted in the Hsinking Special City on April 15, 1932.

Table 5  
POPULATION CLASSIFIED BY NATIONALITIES (1932)

Provinces and Districts	Area in sq. K.M.s	Households			Population				
		Total	Manchurians	Japanese	Other Nationals	Total	Manchurians	Japanese	Other Nationals
<b>Manchoukuo Proper</b>									
Total .....	1,416,092	4,829,881	4,707,158	92,576	30,147	29,606,117	28,902,592	566,471	137,954
Fengtien Province .....	191,753	2,270,418	2,257,020	13,016	382	15,143,420	15,044,473	97,103	1,844
Kirin Province .....	262,696	1,167,049	1,092,831	74,168	50	7,135,542	6,690,191	445,212	139
Heilungkiang Province .....	441,293	585,042	584,046	895	101	3,672,777	3,668,092	4,281	404
Jehol Province.....	135,006	518,252	518,221	4	27	2,054,305	2,054,185	30	90
North Manchuria Special District...	807	29,957	21,485	532	7,940	148,567	113,539	3,036	31,992
Hsinking Special City .....	191	23,420	22,570	563	287	126,309	122,033	2,753	1,523
Harbin Special City .....	934	82,346	58,571	3,356	20,419	404,797	295,365	13,795	95,637
Eastern Sub-prov. of Hsingan .....	104,056	16,216	16,216	—	—	97,300	97,300	—	—
Southern Sub-prov. of Hsingan.....	66,512	85,066	85,066	—	—	510,400	510,400	—	—
Western Sub-prov. of Hsingan .....	54,775	42,282	42,282	—	—	253,700	253,700	—	—
Northern Sub-prov. of Hsingan.....	158,065	9,833	8,850	42	941	59,000	53,314	261	5,425
<b>Japanese Administrative Territories</b>									
Total.....	3,752	223,503	161,538	61,371	594	1,323,864	1,049,325	272,482	2,057
Kwantung Leased Territory .....	3,462	155,149	126,366	28,553	230	961,146	832,488	127,937	721
Railway Zone of the S.M.R. ....	290	68,354	35,172	32,818	364	362,718	216,837	144,545	1,336
Grand Total .....	1,419,844	5,053,384	4,868,696	153,947	30,741	30,929,981	29,951,917	838,953	139,111



Manchoukuo Proper	Average Population of One Household				Percentage of Men to Women				Density per 1 sq. K.M.	
	Average		Other Nationals		Average		Other Nationals			
	Manchurians	Japanese	Manchurians	Japanese	Manchurians	Japanese	Manchurians	Japanese		
Total.....	6.1	6.1	6.1	6.1	123.0	123.2	113.1	135.3	21	
Fengtien Province .....	6.7	6.7	7.5	4.8	119.0	119.0	112.1	197.4	79	
Kirin Province .....	6.1	6.1	6.0	2.8	122.5	123.2	112.0	275.7	27	
Heilungkiang Province .....	6.3	6.3	4.8	4.0	127.9	127.9	130.8	130.9	8	
Jehol Province.....	4.0	4.0	7.5	3.3	119.7	119.7	275.0	350.0	15	
North Manchuria Special District...*	5.0	5.3	5.7	4.0	171.8	189.3	232.2	120.8	184	
Hsinking Special City .....	5.4	5.4	4.9	5.3	157.2	156.5	168.3	196.3	661	
Harbin Special City .....	4.9	5.0	4.1	4.7	166.4	179.0	124.1	139.7	433	
Eastern Sub-prov. of Hsingan .....	6.0	6.0	—	—	200.0	200.0	—	—	1	
Southern Sub-prov. of Hsingan.....	6.0	6.0	—	—	140.0	140.0	—	—	8	
Western Sub-prov. of Hsingan .....	6.0	6.0	—	—	200.0	200.0	—	—	5	
Northern Sub-prov. of Hsingan.....	6.0	6.0	6.2	5.8	200.0	212.5	146.2	116.9	0.3	
<b>Japanese Administrative Territories</b>										
Total.....	5.7	6.2	4.4	3.4	157.0	199.0	120.4	119.0	353	
Kwantung Leased Territory .....	6.2	6.2	4.5	3.1	130.8	135.0	107.2	104.8	278	
Railway Zone of the S.M.R. ....	5.3	6.2	4.4	3.7	183.2	263.0	133.7	133.2	1,251	
Grand Total.....	5.9	6.1	5.2	4.0	140.0	161.1	116.8	127.2	21	

In the above table the North Manchuria Special District is the North Manchuria Railway Zone. Hsingan Province is divided into four sections according to the administrative divisions, because they also constitute the gregarious divisions of the inhabitants.

Respecting the male and female populations, only the percentage of women to men is given, without mentioning their total numbers. According to this item, it will be seen that in the population of Manchoukuo men are more numerous than women, and men are more numerous in the undeveloped districts than in the developed parts as a whole. For instance, in the Hsingan Northern Sub-province, the number of men is double that of women. The number of persons in one household, however, is not much varied according to districts, and this is a notable feature showing that there are not large families.

The population density, on the whole, is greater in the south than in the north, because the southern part has generally better climatic conditions and more developed civilization than in the north. The most densely populated district is the South Manchuria Railway Zone, and the districts adjoining the zone, or the Liao River region, as well as the districts along the Mukden-Shanhaikwan, and North Manchuria Railways, and the Kwantung Leased Territory, are comparatively densely populated, proving that the population density is closely related with industry and transportation. Then between such districts and other parts of the country there is seen a great difference in density of population, and that may be said to show that there are yet vast areas open for development.

In the above table, the population is divided into three nationality categories. In the category of Manchurians are included Chinese nationals, and regarding this point, the explanation given later is to be referred to. In the category of other nationalities are included the so-called White Russians who are considered to have no nationality. Accurate statistics respecting the nationality of foreign inhabitants are obtainable only for the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone. The following table is the result of the investigation made by the Kwantung Government in 1931, and among those under the nationality of the U. S. S. R. in the table, White Russians appear to be included, but nothing is definitely known on this point. The classification of the population by countries will be mentioned later. The racial problem will be discussed later.



Table 6

FOREIGN NATIONALS IN THE KWANTUNG LEASED  
TERRITORY AND THE SOUTH MANCHURIA  
RAILWAY ZONE (1931)

U.S.S.R. ....	1,698	Netherlands .....	4
British.....	64	Austrian .....	4
Polish .....	47	Swiss .....	3
German .....	42	Brazilian .....	2
Turkish .....	19	Estonian .....	2
Greek .....	19	Portuguese .....	2
Latvian .....	17	Swedish .....	2
Danish.....	14	French.....	2
Czecho-slovakian .....	13	Belgian .....	1
Jugo-slavian .....	12	Persian .....	1
Armenian .....	11		
Italian .....	8	Total .....	2,122

Foreigners are mainly distributed along railway lines and in developed districts, while Koreans are exceptional and are distributed in undeveloped parts. In the racial distribution, the Hans are mostly distributed in the Liao River region, and districts along the Mukden-Shanhaikwan Railway line, as well as in North Manchuria, but their distribution is sparse in the western frontier district and the northern part of Jehol Province, in which districts the Mongols and other Asiatics are distributed, as more fully explained later. In the distribution of men and women, the number of men is more numerous in the undeveloped districts as already mentioned. Also there is nothing to be especially mentioned about the occupational distribution of population. The population density has already been explained. Most of the cities and towns have developed because of transportation facilities, and important cities have developed along railway lines, but also at important places favoured with water transportation facilities. Then there are towns like Fushun which developed according to industrial activities. The table of important cities and towns is given below.

In the following table, the cities between Port Arthur and Hsinking are mostly located along the South Manchuria Railway line, and in these cities, excepting Port Arthur and Dairen, there are two administrative divisions,—one in the railway zone, and the other outside—and therefore two figures are given for each city. It is also to be noted that Hsinking Special City does not include the railway zone at Hsinking.

The cities between Manchouli and Muling are located along the North

Table 7

POPULATION OF IMPORTANT CITIES AND HSIENS

(in 1932)

	Population				House- holds	Percentage of Men to Women
	Total	Man- churians	Japanese	Other Nationals		
Port Arthur .....	136,744	124,445	12,279	20	21,202	110.2
Dairen .....	398,988	287,711	110,577	700	74,140	165.3
Yingkow {						
S.M. Railway Zone..	6,750	2,900	3,845	5	1,063	212.6
City Proper .....	119,207	118,303	825	79	20,270	170.0
Total .....	125,957	121,203	4,670	84	21,333	191.3
Mukden {						
S.M. Railway Zone..	49,808	18,648	30,337	823	9,780	168.7
City Proper .....	339,041	334,882	3,482	677	63,306	172.6
Total .....	388,849	353,530	33,819	1,500	73,086	170.7
Penhsifu {						
S.M. Railway Zone..	5,325	2,190	3,135	—	1,149	142.5
City Proper .....	325,125	323,791	1,334	—	41,430	112.8
Total .....	330,450	325,981	4,469	—	42,579	117.7
Antung {						
S.M. Railway Zone..	62,603	39,688	22,901	14	13,491	149.8
City Proper .....	91,972	91,626	276	70	15,028	206.7
Total .....	154,575	131,314	23,177	84	28,519	178.3
Fushun {						
S.M. Railway Zone..	66,249	43,783	22,435	31	11,166	221.3
City Proper .....	228,787	225,744	3,041	2	37,082	115.7
Total .....	295,036	269,527	25,476	33	48,348	168.5
Kaiyuan {						
S.M. Railway Zone..	24,233	18,148	6,078	7	3,938	181.1
City Proper .....	293,287	290,324	2,961	2	48,348	111.0
Total .....	317,520	308,472	9,039	9	52,286	146.1
Hsinking {						
S.M. Railway Zone..	40,727	22,160	18,121	446	7,228	197.8
City Proper .....	126,309	122,033	2,753	1,523	23,420	157.2
Total .....	167,036	144,193	20,874	1,969	30,648	177.5
Manchouli .....	7,054	3,247	228	3,579	2,238	105.4
Hailar .....	10,114	3,998	237	5,879	2,423	156.2
Angangki .....	29,330	27,812	96	1,422	5,932	120.3
Harbin .....	404,797	295,365	13,795	95,637	82,346	166.4
Muling .....	11,654	9,850	181	1,623	2,053	277.0
Kirin .....	118,849	113,466	5,297	86	22,233	157.3
Tunhwa (敦化) .....	60,591	57,460	3,131	—	9,616	171.6
Yenki (延吉) .....	285,205	66,266	218,939	?	44,736	112.2
Hunchun (琿春) .....	82,546	32,768	49,778	?	13,722	126.0
Sansing(Ilan) (三姓).....	191,353	190,319	1,027	7	29,038	130.6
Tsitsihar .....	75,261	73,131	1,781	349	15,368	157.9
Aigun (爱珲) .....	29,511	29,511	—	—	6,658	100.3
Taonan (洮南) .....	138,207	137,355	837	15	22,836	128.7
Suichung (綏中).....	209,583	209,431	152	—	31,222	112.8
Chihfeng (赤峰).....	184,988	184,943	30	15	35,126	133.0
Chengte (承德) .....	155,517	155,516	—	1	40,169	123.2



Manchuria Railway line, but these cities, excepting only Harbin Special City, form belt-like districts along the railway line, rather than being a city.

Those mentioned below Kirin are cities or gregarious groups scattered in the districts, and among them, Kirin and Tsitsihar are called cities, but the others are called *hsiens*.

It is difficult to obtain the occupational distribution of the population. Only from the Northeastern Year Book (in Chinese) of 1931, a rough description of the occupational distribution in the former Northeastern Four Provinces previous to the outbreak of the Manchurian incident is obtained. According to the Year Book, the occupational percentage to the total population is as follows: agricultural population 72%, commercial population 9%, industrial population 8%, educational population 8%, military population 2% and political population 1%.

Regarding the occupational distribution of population in the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone there are fairly accurate statistics compiled by the Kwantung Government. According to those for 1932, the occupation percentage of the Manchurians to their total population in the districts are: agricultural 35%, commercial 16%, industrial 14%, transportation 8%, official and professional 7%, otherwise employed 10%, fishery 4%, mining 3%, unemployed 2%, and household work 1%. Of the Japanese inhabitants in the above districts, occupations that have the largest percentages are official and professional occupation, transportation work, industry, commerce, other employment, unemployed, mining, agriculture, household work, and fishery in the order mentioned.

The above is the outline of the static condition of the population, and now its movements will be studied.

There is no accurate information respecting the movements of population in this country, but upon the basis of available statistics and information, the following may be mentioned.

First will be given figures prior to 1907. In this, Jehol Province is not included as the statistics for the first year mentioned in the table are the figures for the Three Northeastern Provinces. In later years figures for Hsingan Province and other parts have been added, but such are administrative divisions, and do not affect the territory as a whole.



INCREASE AND DECREASE OF POPULATION  
IN MANCHOUKUO (in thousands)

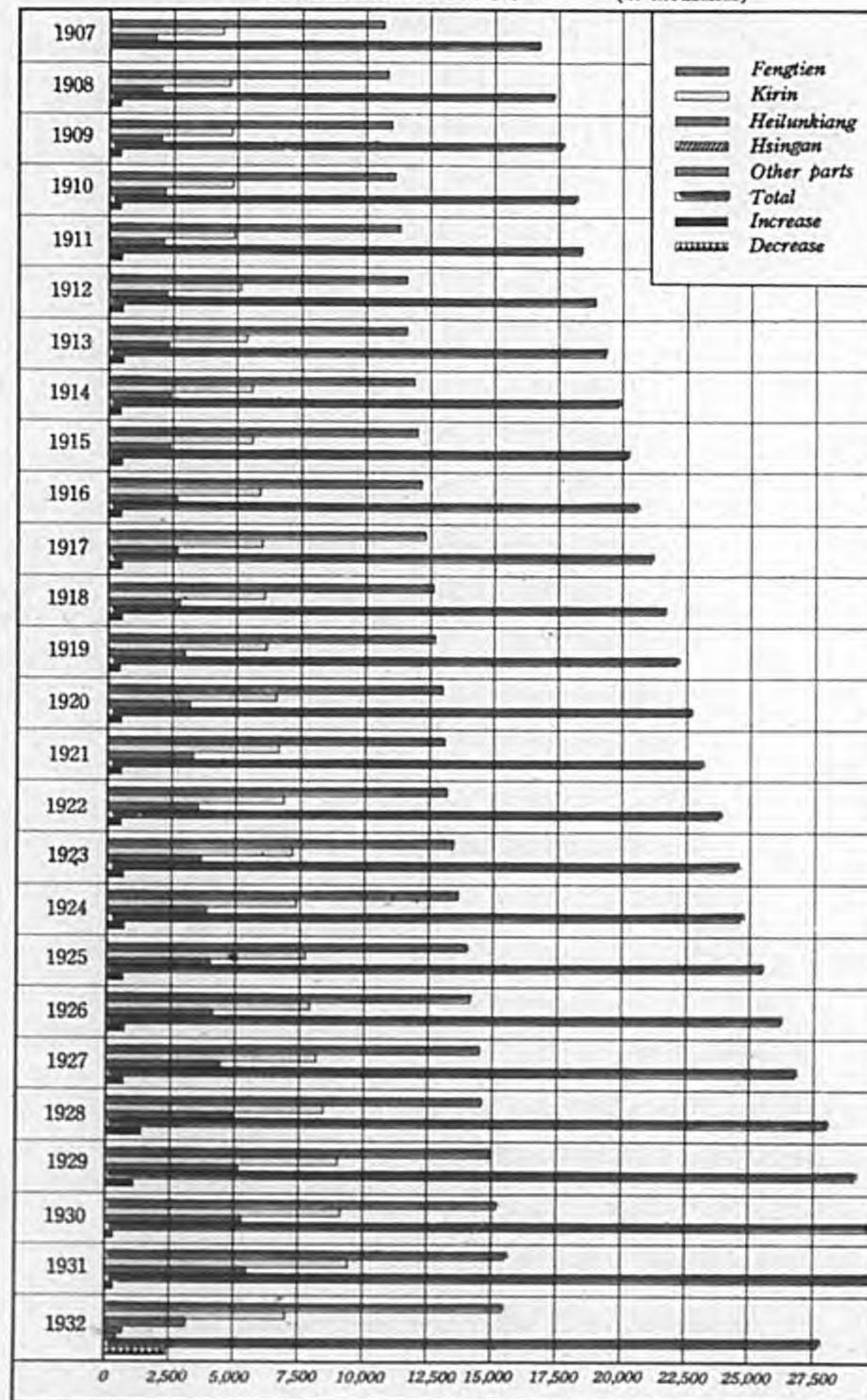


Table 8  
POPULATION GROWTH (in Thousands)

	Fengtien Province	Kirin Province	Heilung-kiang Province	Hsingan Province	Other Parts	Total	Increase or Decrease	Index No. of Pop. Growth
1907	10,637	4,416	1,725	—	—	16,778	—	100
1910	11,121	4,840	1,981	—	—	17,942	1,164	107
1913	11,628	5,304	2,274	—	—	19,206	1,264	114
1916	12,159	5,813	2,611	—	—	20,583	1,377	123
1919	12,714	6,371	2,996	—	—	22,081	1,498	132
1922	13,295	6,982	3,439	—	—	23,716	1,635	141
1925	13,920	7,651	3,947	—	—	25,508	1,802	152
1926	14,111	7,889	4,133	—	—	26,133	615	156
1927	14,322	8,134	4,327	—	—	26,783	650	160
1928	14,476	8,592	4,965	—	—	28,033	1,250	167
1929*	14,988	9,076	5,134	—	—	29,198	1,165	174
1930	15,152	9,192	5,231	—	—	29,575	377	176
1931	15,329	9,316	5,314	—	—	29,959	384	179
1932	15,143	7,136	3,673	920	680	27,552	-2,409	105

Table 9  
POPULATION GROWTH OF MANCHOUKUO

	Fengtien Province	Kirin Province	Heilung-kiang Province	Jehol Province	North Manchuria Special District	Two Special Cities	Hsingan Sub-Provinces	Total
1931	15,329,115	9,316,969	5,314,443	4,500,000	—	—	—	34,460,527
1932	15,143,420	7,135,542	3,672,777	2,054,305	148,567	531,106	920,400	29,606,117

The figures for 1931 in the above table are generally an estimate on account of the Manchurian incident. According to what was announced by the National Government of China for 1931, the population of the Northeastern Four Provinces was: Fengtien Province 15,233,000, Kirin Province 7,635,000, Heilungkiang Province 3,755,000, Jehol Province 2,262,000, or a total of 28,885,000. In the above table the figures compiled by the South Manchuria Railway Company are given.

Compared with the Chinese figures for 1931, the population in 1932 shows much increase, but according to the investigation of the South

\* The figures given in the table show the population at the end of each year, except that for 1929 which gives an estimate in July of the following year. As we have no estimation at the end of 1929 and having other figures for the end of 1930, we put those figures, for convenience' sake, under the year 1929.

The figures of 1931 are generally as estimated by the Economic Research Committee of the S.M.R.



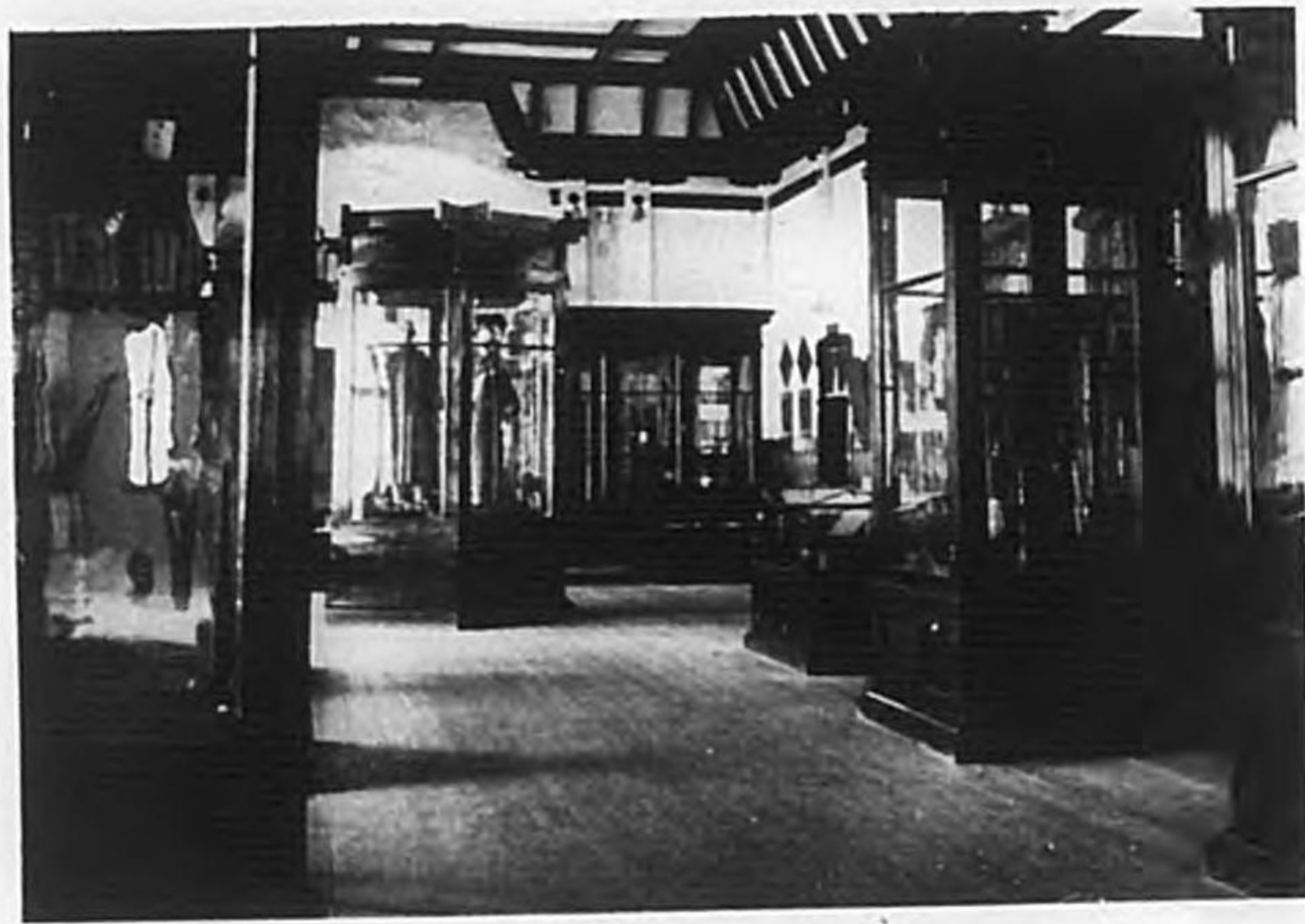
Manchuria Railway Company there is shown some decrease. It can be understood that the population has shown some decrease in the movements of population, and that is quite an exceptional phenomenon for the population of Manchoukuo. That means that the recent conditions of population flow, births and deaths are different from what were in the past. Because of the incompleteness of statistics, this situation cannot be shown in respect of births and deaths, but we can give the following table to explain this situation in respect of the population flow.

Table 10  
CHINESE SETTLERS

	Entering	Leaving	Remaining	Percentage of Leaving to Entering
1927 .....	1,159,747	316,549	843,198	27.3
1928 .....	1,074,467	381,087	693,380	35.5
1929 .....	1,049,291	601,392	444,899	57.5
1930 .....	748,214	488,504	259,709	65.6
1931 .....	467,402	461,339	6,063	98.7
1932 .....	414,034	498,783	-84,749	120.5

As is clearly shown in the above table, the Chinese immigrants remaining in Manchoukuo have greatly decreased since 1931, and finally in 1932 the number of those leaving the country was about 85,000 more than those entering. The sudden decrease of immigrants entering the country, and the greater number of those leaving the country than those entering are the first development of this kind in the history of immigration in Manchuria. The causes for this development are still a problem, but the following may be regarded as one of the causes. As shown in the above table, it was caused not so much by the increasing number of those leaving the country, as by the decrease of those entering. The number of immigrants leaving the country decreased in 1931 compared with the figure for the previous year, and the figure for 1932 still showed a decrease compared with that for 1929. Thus it cannot be said that the immigrants leaving the country had a tendency to increase, in the movement of population. On the other hand, the gradual decrease of incoming immigrants is shown in the movement tendency in the table. Therefore, the rapid decrease of the number of immigrants remaining in the country and the greater number of those leaving the country over those entering may be said to have been due to the fact that while the leaving number was almost stationary, the incoming number followed a decreasing tendency. The decrease of the incoming immigrants was due to the following fact.





Museum at Port Arthur.

As its foreign policy, the Manchoukuo Government has adopted the economic open door principle, as explained in other chapters. But for the maintenance of peace and order, a certain restriction has been placed upon the incoming population. It was due to an order issued by the Fengtien Provincial government on April 1, 1932, from the necessity of strictly preventing the entrance of plain-clothed Chinese soldiers into the country. Sometimes such plain-clothed Chinese soldiers could not be distinguished from peaceful immigrants, and it was recognized that a certain restriction had to be placed upon the entrance of immigrants, one of the causes of their decrease.

Among the incoming immigrants to Manchoukuo there are Koreans and others, but the majority are Chinese and from their condition the general situation of immigrants may be judged. The movements of Chinese settlers remaining in Manchoukuo are briefly explained above, but when viewed more generally, it may be said that the population distribution in Manchoukuo has gradually become more extensive and even, and consequently the country is losing the attractions for immigrants that it formerly had. Still, there are yet large areas waiting development.

There are no statistics available concerning births and deaths which also are causes of increase or decrease of population. Thus only from the table of the population increase and decrease, and the table of immigrants, can a rough understanding be obtained as shown in the following table. (The area covered in the table is the former Northeastern Four Provinces.)

Table 11  
NATURAL GROWTH OF POPULATION (in Thousands)

	Increase or Decrease of Total Population	Remaining Population of Chinese Immigrants	Balance
1925 .....	1,802	318	1,494
1926 .....	615	308	297
1927 .....	650	843	-195
1928 .....	1,250	693	557
1929 .....	1,165	445	720
1930 .....	377	260	77
1931 .....	384	6	378
1932 .....	-2,410	-85	-2,325

According to the above table, it will be seen that in natural population increase and decrease, the country showed decreases in 1927 and 1932, but in other years it generally showed an increasing tendency. But



it is difficult to explain what were the causes of the decreases, as it is impossible to understand the definite natural tendency in population increase or decrease from the above table.

Also it is to be mentioned that in respect of the movement of population, there are other causes in Manchoukuo besides the above-mentioned births, deaths, and flow of immigrants. One example of such other causes is the movement of bandits, and the above table may show the movement of bandits as well.

As to the population movement in the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone, in these districts the total population increased from 300,000 at the end of 1905 to more than 1,000,000 in 1925, reaching 420,000 in 1907, 500,000 between 1910 and 1913, 600,000 between 1914 and 1917, and 700,000 to 900,000 between 1918 and 1924. In these periods, the year 1921 showed a decrease of more than 4,000 compared with the figure for the previous year, but in subsequent years, the population steadily increased. At the end of 1930, it reached nearly 1,300,000, but in 1931 there was registered a decrease of 16,026. In 1932 it again increased, reaching about 1,323,830 at the end of December. The increase and decrease of population in these districts for the recent three years, according to the investigation made by the South Manchuria Railway Company, is given in the following table. According to this table, the figures for 1931 show that the population of all except the Japanese decreased, but gradually increased again in 1932, and in total population 1932 gave the greatest figure.

Table 12

POPULATION GROWTH OF KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY  
AND RAILWAY ZONE OF THE S.M.R.

	Manchurians	Japanese except Koreans	Koreans	Other Nationals	Total
1930 { Total	1,055,550	215,463	17,695	2,503	1,291,211
{ Kwantung L. T.	820,534	116,052	1,794	734	939,114
{ Railway Zone	235,016	99,411	15,901	1,769	352,097
1931 { Total	1,030,484	220,038	22,541	2,122	1,275,185
{ Kwantung L. T.	816,114	119,770	1,747	657	938,288
{ Railway Zone	214,370	100,268	20,794	1,465	336,897
1932 { Total	1,049,325	242,524	29,958	2,057	1,323,864
{ Kwantung L. T.	832,488	125,935	2,002	721	961,146
{ Railway Zone	216,837	116,589	27,956	1,336	362,718

The causes of the movement are not clear, because there are not

available statistics of births and deaths, and also statistics of the outgoing and incoming population for respective districts. But the population increase may be understood to be more due to the increased arrivals than increase by births (natural increase). In the arrivals, those of Japanese including Koreans are the most important, it is believed. Table 10 showing the figures for Chinese immigrants may have relation with these districts, but they may not be their destination, being only transit territory.

The above is the outline of the population movement in the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone, but classification by sex, occupations, and race, also details of density and distribution cannot be given here because of lack of proper information.

The static condition and movement of the population of Manchoukuo having been thus briefly explained, a few special problems concerning its population will be treated.

Firstly, the question of nationality will be discussed. In Table 5, the population is classified by nationality, but strictly speaking in Manchoukuo there is not yet any law that clearly defines nationality. In the Declaration of Establishment of the new State of Manchoukuo, it is written: "There shall be no discrimination, with respect either to race or creed, among those people who now reside within the territory of the new state, including the races of the Hans, Manchus, Mongols, Japanese and Koreans; nationals of other countries as well may upon application acquire as permanent residents' equal treatment with others and their rights shall be guaranteed thereby." The five races above-mentioned constitute the Five Races of Manchoukuo, as already explained. But these five races are not designated by the general term, Manchurians. It is understood that by Manchurians are meant those residents of the Five Races excluding Japanese and Koreans. Those will eventually become the population possessing Manchoukuo nationality. According to the investigation made by the Foreign Office of Japan, the term Manchurians includes those who continue to reside in the Kwantung Leased Territory, South Manchuria Railway Zone, and Manchoukuo who possessed nationality under the Republic of China at the time of the outbreak of the Manchurian incident. Therefore, strictly speaking, in considering the relation between Manchurians and their nationality, the nationality of Manchurians is not established because of their residence in the country, and some of the Manchurians belong to the nationality of China. Thus the classification by nationality as given in Table 5 becomes meaningless. But



there is no need of viewing this point from a too theoretical standpoint, as it will be settled with the promulgation of the Law of Nationality. In Manchoukuo at present there are many people who are regarded as having no nationality, such as the White Russians.

The races in Manchoukuo will be studied next. There can be given no accurate investigations nor statistics respecting the races. But roughly the majority of the population is of the Han race from China, and its percentage reaches as much as 80 to 90 per cent of the total population. Those who migrated to Manchuria in comparatively early days are settled in the Liao River region and southern sections, and they are called Laohanjen (老漢人) or old Han people. Those who came comparatively lately are called Hsinhanjen (新漢人) or new Han people, and are advancing to northern interior districts. These Han people are said to possess the characteristic features of the North China Han race, anthropologically speaking. The Manchu race is those people whose native places are within Manchoukuo, and today they constitute only about 5 per cent of the total population, it is reported. They are generally being oppressed culturally and economically by the Hans. The distribution of the Manchu race is extensive, being found in all districts, but they mostly exist as farmers in the remote mountain districts of the Changpaishan Range region, and also there is a small number of the Manchu Bannermen, descendants of officials and military men of the Manchu dynasty, living in the cities of Mukden, Kirin and others. The racial characteristics of the Manchu race are threatened with being lost because of their intercourse with other races, particularly the Hans.

The Manchu race is a branch of the Tunguse race of the Ural-Altai system. Other races coming from the same system are the Goldi (赫哲), Orochon (俄倫春), Daur (達呼爾), Solon (索倫), Bilar (畢拉爾), and Kile (奇勒). They are all scattered in the mountain districts in the northern parts of Kirin and Heilungkiang Provinces, and follow primitive methods of cultivation or hunting, or lead a nomadic life. The number of people belonging to these races is not known.

The Manchu race established the Manchu or Ching dynasty, but prior to that the Mongols established the Great Empire of Yuan and accomplished great historical deeds. In the Mongols now residing in Manchoukuo, there are three tribes. Although their numbers are not clearly known, those living in the western section of the country are the Kalka (喀爾喀), said to still comparatively retain their racial purity. Then in the northern and western sections of Jehol Province are the two other

tribes of the Mongols, the Kalmacks and the Buryats, who have lost many of their original characteristics because of the great influences of the Manchu dynasty and the Hans.

Of these tribes, the Kalka are divided into four leagues in Eastern Mongolia, and three of the four leagues, the Chelimu (哲里木), Chaowutai (昭烏達), and Chosotu (卓索圖) Leagues, belong to Manchoukuo. The Mongols mostly live in tents, and those who have not been much influenced by other races are simple and brave in nature. It is said that in their groups there are distinct classes, including one of slaves.

Besides the races above-mentioned there are White Russians, belonging to the Slav race, and other white races.

Japanese as mentioned in Table 5 is a general term including people from Japan proper, Koreans, Formosans and others. Formosans may be considered racially as Hans.

The population of Koreans living in Manchoukuo is said to be quite large. Some authorities estimate their number at about one million. They are distributed not only along various railway lines, but also in remote interior districts which have no other foreigners. Koreans largely engage in agriculture, and those engaging in paddy-field rice cultivation, which is entirely different from the farming method of the Hans, are most numerous. The Chientao district has been developed by Koreans. The following table gives the statistics for Koreans in comparison with the number of people from Japan proper.

Table 13

JAPANESE POPULATION GROWTH IN MANCHOUKUO  
(Including Kwantung Leased Territory and Railway Zone of the S.M.R.)

	Japanese except Koreans	Koreans	Total
1923 .....	175,348	528,027	703,375
1924 .....	181,705	531,857	713,562
1925 .....	187,988	531,973	719,962
		* 1	
1926 .....	193,179	542,185	735,364
1927 .....	199,108	558,280	757,388
1928 .....	206,197	577,052	783,249
1929 .....	216,167	597,677	813,882
		* 38	
1930 .....	228,784	607,119	835,929
		* 26	
1931 .....	233,320	630,982	864,337
		* 35	
1932 .....	268,982	596,573	865,614
		* 59	

\* Are figures for Formosans.



## CHAPTER II

## HISTORY\*

The history of Manchuria is not to be considered complete by merely describing the mutual relations of the various tribes that appeared in Manchuria from the earliest time. Although these different tribes had certain civilizations of their own, they were influenced by the higher civilization of China as they came in contact with the Chinese race, and the native tribes of Manchuria, consequently, have all lost their racial features and are now completely embraced by the Chinese civilization. At least about 2,240 years ago, the Chinese made a political advance into the Liao River (遼河) plain, the south-western part of Manchuria, and as the contact of the Chinese with the Manchus was later made more frequent and closer, the Chinese civilization penetrated gradually into Manchuria. The political influence of the Chinese in Manchuria advanced extensively at certain times, while at other times it remained greatly receded for long periods. This advance or decline of Chinese influence was not only caused by the vicissitudes of the respective powers of the Chinese and the Manchus, but also was brought about by the activity of various tribes that rose in Eastern Inner Mongolia or Outer Mongolia. In other words, the history of Manchuria is the record of the shifting of the relative influence of the three races of the Chinese, Manchus and Mongols, with the vicissitudes of Chinese influence upon Manchuria as the pivoting factor.

Topographically considered, the district that possesses the most important significance in the history of Manchuria is the Liao River plain. Since the Chinese advanced north-eastward from the Huangho (黃河) or Yellow River plain, crossing the southern section of the present Jehol Province, or the valley of the Taling section of the present Jehol Province, or the valley of the Talingho (大凌河) River, and then eastward from the present Ch'aoyang (朝陽) district to Manchuria, the Liao River plain became the first territory of the Chinese in Manchuria. The results of archaeological excavations recently conducted in the Liao River plain (including

\* Contributed by Mr. Matsui Hitoshi, Professor of Chinese History in Kokugaku-in University.

the Liaotung peninsula) have clearly proved the early Chinese advance to this district. With this plain as the base, the influence and civilization of the Chinese extended to all the other parts of Manchuria. The relative influence of the Chinese and the Manchus shifted according to the results of their contest for the Liao River plain. The Liao River plain extends to the great plain at the junction of the Sungari and Nonni Rivers where also rose various tribes that contributed to the history of Manchuria, as for instance, the Fuyü (扶餘) tribe, but the native tribes that occupy important places in the history of Manchuria appeared in the mountain zone of the eastern section extending on the east of the Liao River. As the centres of these different tribes could be mentioned, (1) the district extending from the valley of the Tungchia River (佟家江), a branch stream on the right bank of the Yalu River (鴨綠江), to the valley of the upper course of the Hun River (渾河), (2) the great valley district of the Sungari River and its branch, the Mutankiang (牡丹江) or Hurka River, and (3) the district along the Amur River after its confluence with the Sungari River.

The history of Manchuria in the sense mentioned above may be considered to consist of the following four periods when divided according to chronological developments.

*First Period.* 311 B.C.—318 A.D.

In 311 B.C., King Chao-wang (昭王) of the Yen (燕) Kingdom ascended the throne in the Chan-kuo (戰國) or War Period and, General Ts'in K'ai (秦開) succeeded in extending the territory to the Liao River district. For convenience' sake, the year of the accession of King Chao-wang is regarded as the beginning of the political advance of the Chinese into Manchuria. In 318 A.D. the Tung Tsin (東晉) dynasty of China was established. In the first period, the Chinese influence was extended to Northern Korea with the Liao River plain as the base, and particularly in the reign of Emperor Wu-ti (武帝) (140-87 B.C.) of the Ch'ien Han (前漢) or earlier Han dynasty, the Chinese influence in Manchuria became greater and powerful.

*Second Period.* 318-907 A.D.

As the Siempis (鮮卑), a Mongol tribe that rose in the district of the present Jehol Province, became powerful and occupied the Yellow River district, and other Mongol and Tibetan tribes also advanced into



Chinese territory from the west, the domain of the Chinese was pushed back to the south of the Yangtze River (揚子江). This dwindled country of China was called Tung Tsin (東晉) or Eastern Tsin. At that time, the Kaokouli (高句麗), rising from among the Manchu tribes, became a powerful kingdom, and Chinese influence was almost entirely driven out of Manchuria. Later, the Sienpi tribe conquered Northern China and established the Northern dynasty; and as the Chinese occupied Southern China, there followed the Northern and Southern Dynasties period (439-589). The Northern and Southern Dynasties were unified by the Sui (隋) dynasty which, however, failed in an attempt to revive Chinese power in Manchuria. The following dynasty of T'ang (唐) (618-907) finally conquered the kingdom of Kaokouli and thus succeeded in reviving Chinese influence in Manchuria.

Thus, the Liao River plain was recovered and replaced under Chinese control, and the influence of the T'ang dynasty extended almost throughout the entire territory of Manchuria. About this time, the great kingdom of P'ohai (渤海) was established by the Manchus in the valleys of the Sungari and Hurka Rivers. This kingdom was submissive to the T'ang dynasty and gave much effort to absorbing the civilization of China.

But in what is now Jehol Province there rose a Mongol tribe named Kitan (契丹), and not only was the Chinese power in Manchuria greatly threatened, but also the kingdom of P'ohai was conquered by the Kitans. After the downfall of the T'ang dynasty in 907, Chinese domination receded from Manchuria for about 460 years.

#### *Third Period.* 907-1616 A.D.

While the Kitans who rose in Eastern Inner Mongolia, the Nüchêns (女真) who made their headquarters in the present Harbin district, and the Mongols who became powerful in Outer Mongolia were making fierce struggles against one another after the fall of the T'ang dynasty, the Chinese not only had neither the energy nor opportunity to recover Manchuria, but also were finally conquered by the Mongols. It was the Ming (明) dynasty that drove these Mongols out of China proper. The Ming dynasty was established in 1368, and from then on the Chinese influence was greatly expanded to Manchuria. But as the Ch'ing (清) dynasty rose in the valley of the upper course of the Hun River, the Chinese lost the Liao River plain to the Manchus of the Ch'ing dynasty, who then finally conquered even China itself.

#### *Fourth Period.* 1616 A.D. to the present period.

In 1616 the Ch'ing dynasty was established, and in 1661 it completely destroyed the Ming dynasty and annexed China proper entirely. The Ch'ing dynasty at one time adopted the temporary policy of prohibiting the entrance of the Chinese into Manchuria by making it a closed territory, but this policy was never carried out thoroughly, and even the necessity was felt of encouraging the coming of the Chinese. As the actual power of the Manchus in China proper began to decline and the Chinese influence gradually commenced to rise after the T'ai-p'ing rebellion (1850-1864), Manchuria began to show the tendency of being actually controlled by the Chinese influence even though it was nominally the private property of the Manchu Emperor. This tendency became particularly notable after the Russo-Japanese War, and the same administrative system as in China proper was applied to Manchuria, which was also given the name of Tungsansheng (東三省) or Three Eastern Provinces. The revival of the influence in Manchuria of the Chinese, who had been so closely related with Manchuria, taking advantage of the decline of the Ch'ing dynasty, was to be regarded as a natural development, viewed from the facts of the history of Manchuria. As the result of the first revolution of October, 1911, the Republic of China was formed in the following year, and a new era of the revival of Chinese influence in Manchuria dawned. Obstacles in this revival, as viewed from the Chinese standpoint, were the Japanese and Russian influences in Manchuria. In the long past, the three forces of the Chinese, Manchus, and Mongols were the factors forming the history of Manchuria, but in modern times, the complicated entanglement of the three influences of China, Japan, and Russia have added importance to the international position of Manchuria.

The above-mentioned four periods are designated mainly for observing the advance or decline of Chinese power in Manchuria. To view the outline of the history of Manchuria by them is the proper and convenient method to understand it. The historical processes in Manchuria will be explained in more detail according to these four periods.

#### *First Period* 311 B.C.—318 A.D.

It is believed to have been in remote antiquity that the Chinese, continuing the north-eastward colonizing movement from the plain of the Yellow River, advanced to the Liao River plain of Manchuria. The docu-



mentary record of this advance was first made in the War Period (453-221 B.C.). In this period there was a kingdom named Yen (燕) having its capital in the neighbourhood of the present Peip'ing, and among its kings was one called Chao-wang (昭王) (311-279 B.C.). During the reign of this king, the kingdom of Yen became powerful, and General Ts'in K'ai (秦開) vanquished the northern tribe called Tunghu (東胡) and expanded the territory largely in the north-eastern district, even threatening the far-away Korean region. This fact is recorded in Chapter 94, *Hsiung nu ch'uan* (匈奴傳) of the *Ch'ien Han shu* (前漢書), and constitutes the beginning of the political advance of the Chinese into the Liao River plain. The king of Yen caused the construction of a great wall running eastward from the southern part of the present Jehol Province to the Hsiangping (襄平) or present Liaoyang (遼陽) district. This great wall was later utilized by Ts'in Shih Huangti (秦始皇帝) or First Emperor of the Ts'in dynasty to form the eastern end of the Great Wall of Ts'in. In the new territory of Yen were formed three administrative provinces; Yupeip'ing-chün (右北平郡) in the southern part of the present Jehol Province, Liaohsi-chün (遼西郡) in the west of the Liao River, and Liaotung-chün (遼東郡) in the east of that river.

The Chinese territory in Manchuria of the Ts'in dynasty (221-206 B.C.) was almost the same as that at the time of Yen, on the whole. It is mentioned in Chapter 115, *Ch'ao sien ch'uan* (朝鮮傳) of the *Shih chi* (史記) that the number of Chinese who advanced from the Liao River plain and entered the far-away Northern Korean district was not small at the time from the War Period to the latter days of the Ts'in dynasty. In the Ch'ien Han (前漢) period, following the Ts'in era, Emperor Wu-ti (武帝) (140-87 B.C.) conquered Northern Korea and divided the new territory into four provinces, or Chün (郡), and the capital of Hsuantu-chün (玄菟郡), one of the four provinces, was moved in the reign of Emperor Chao-ti (昭帝) (86-74 B.C.) to Kaokouli-hsien (高句麗縣) which is believed to have been located in the district along the upper stream of the Hun River, south of the present Mukden. This hsien was called after the name of the tribe inhabiting the district. In the period of the Ch'ien Han dynasty, the condition of the district of the Yalu River, its branch, the Tungchia River, and the Hun River was fairly well known to the Chinese. At that time, the Yalu River was called the Matzu-shui (馬訾水), and the Tungchia River, the Yennan-shui (鹽難水).

The province of Liaotung-chün adjoined, in the west, Hsuantu-chün, and its administrative capital was at Hsiangp'ing (襄平), the present

Liaoyang. West of Liaotung-chün was Liaohsi-chün, but its administrative capital is not known. West of Liaohsi-chün was Yupeip'ing-chün, and its capital, P'ing-kang-hsien (平剛縣) is believed to have been located in the district of the upper stream of the Taling River (大凌河) in the southern part of the present Jehol Province. The communication route from China proper to Manchuria in the Ch'ien Han period ran, on the whole, from the neighbourhood of the present Peip'ing north-eastward to the upper stream district of the Taling River, and then eastward passing in the vicinity of the present Ch'aoyang and crossing the Liao River to the present Liaoyang. Also the sea route from the northern shore of the Shantung peninsula to the Liaotung peninsula is believed to have been used to some extent, but not commonly at that time. The narrow road running north-eastward along the seashore from the present Shanhaikwan has been used since the latter period of the T'ang dynasty.

Thus, in the Ch'ien Han period, the district extending from the Liao River plain to the valley of the Yalu River was the territory of the Chinese, and from that time the various Manchurian tribes came to have intercourse with the Chinese. Of these native tribes, one that was particularly well-known was the Sushên (肅慎).

It was in the Ch'un-ch'iu (春秋) period (770-453 B.C.) that the tribe called Sushên became known to the Chinese. There is a tradition that this tribe brought a tribute to China in a much earlier time, but it cannot be accepted as a fact. In the chapter called *Ta huang pei ching* (大荒北經) of the *Shan hai ching* (山海經) it is written that in the territory inhabited by the Sushêns there was a mountain named Fuh sien (不咸), and this mountain is the present Ch'angpaishan (長白山). In the later documents of China, the mountain is called T'sungtai (總太), T'utai (徒太), or T'aipai (太白). The Sushêns inhabited the valleys of the upper Sungari River and the Mutankiang River and were also scattered extensively in the coast district on the Sea of Japan. According to the *Wei chih* (魏志), Chapter 30, *Tung I ch'uan* (東夷傳) of the *San kuo chih* (三國志), the Sushêns were submissive to the Fuyü (扶餘) which was a powerful tribe in Manchuria in the Ch'ien Han period, in the great plain at the junction of the Sungari and Nonni Rivers. According to the same chapter of the above-mentioned book, in the territory inhabited by the Fuyü there formerly lived a tribe named Weimo (濊貊). But it is surmised that the Weimo moved south-eastward at an unknown time and lost themselves in the vast mountain zone in the eastern part of Manchuria, and finally scattered in the north-eastern part of distant Korea. The Fuyü settled on the land and



leading an agricultural life, possessed some sort of civilization. The Su-shêns, on the other hand, were a hardy tribe leading a hunter's life, and greatly respecting the art of using bows and arrows. It is not known, however, what sort of cultural relation was established between these two tribes and the Chinese. In the Hou Han (後漢) or later Han period (25-220), a Mongol tribe named Wuwan (烏丸) or Wuhuan (烏桓) rose in the southern part of the present Jehol Province, and in the valleys of the Yalu River began to appear the kingdom of Kaokouli; thus the Chinese influence in the Liao River plain was gradually threatened from the east and the west. During the political confusion towards the end of the Hou Han period, the Liao River plain became the territory of the Kungsun family (公孫氏). This territory was annexed in 238 by the kingdom of Wei (魏), which was the strongest among the three kingdoms of Wei (魏), Wu (吳) and Shu (蜀) that appeared in China. These three kingdoms were unified by the Tsin (晉) dynasty and the Liao River plain was included in the Tsin territory under the name of Liaotung-chün. In the powerful days of the kingdom of Wei, General Wu-chi'u Chien (毋丘儉) attacked Kaokouli and conquered Wantu (丸都), its capital, about 244. On the other hand, the Wuhuan tribe above mentioned also submitted to the power of Wei, and its people were mixed in the Sienpi tribe of the same group. Thus in the Wei period, the Chinese influence in Manchuria became temporarily very extensive, but in the following era of Tsin (265-316) it gradually declined. That is to say, in the east the Kaokouli kingdom became strong, and in the west the power of the Sienpi tribe greatly increased.

The Sienpi were a part of the tribe formerly called Tunghu (東胡) and inhabited the district along the Jaolo (靉樂) River which is the present Siramuren River forming the upper course of the Liao River. The Mujungs (慕容) who were of this tribe became powerful in the Tsin period, and established a kingdom called Ch'ien Yen (前燕). The Mujungs conquered the Liao River plain, threatened Kaokouli, and annexed the territory of the Fuyü tribe in 346.

The Kaokouli tribe first established itself in the valley of the Tungchia River, a branch stream on the right of the Yalu River, but extended its territory to the upper course of the Hun (渾) in the Hou Han period, and in the latter part of the period crossed the Tumen River (圖們江) from the upper stream district of the Sungari River to the north-eastern part of Korea. According to the *San kuo shih chi* (三國史記), Chumêng (朱蒙) or Tsoumou (鄒牟), the first leader of the Kaokouli, is said to have made

his first headquarters in the Tsupênch'uan (卒本川) district along the Feiliu River (沸流). The Feiliu River was the present Tungchia River, and its upper valley is the Tsupênchuan district. While the Kaokouli tribe was strengthening its combination and forming a kingdom, its first capital was made at Kuoneich'êng (國內城) in 3 A.D., and its second capital at Wantu (丸都) in 209. These two capitals are regarded as having been situated near the right bank of the Yalu River, but their exact locations are not clear. In the Tsin period, the kingdom of Kaokouli became much more powerful, and in 313 occupied the district along the Daidoko (大同江) or Tai-dong-gang River in Northern Korea, and in 315 the western boundary of this kingdom is believed to have extended to the neighbourhood of the present Mukden.

Thus, in the Tsin period, the Chinese territory in the district from the Liao River plain to the Yalu River valley was invaded by the Sienpis and the Kaokoulis, and only the Liaotung peninsula south of the present Liaoyang was retained by the Chinese. Soon after the beginning of the Tung Tsin (東晉) period, even the Liaotung peninsula was seized by the Mujungs of the Sienpi tribe, and thus the Chinese power in Manchuria was entirely overthrown.

#### Second Period 318-907 A.D.

The kingdom of Tsin collapsed, and in 318 a kingdom named Tung Tsin (東晉) was established south of the Yangtze River, while North China became a disputed territory of various tribes which invaded it from the north and the west, finally the Sienpi tribe which advanced from Eastern Inner Mongolia becoming the conquerer of North China and established the so-called Northern Dynasty. For about 270 years from the establishment of Tung Tsin, the Chinese influence remained absolutely driven out of Manchuria, where the Manchu tribe of Kaokouli and the Mongol tribe of Sienpi rivaled in power, one in the east and the other in the west.

As the kingdom of Ch'ien Yen (前燕) established by the Mujungs of the Sienpi tribe was destroyed by the kingdom of Ch'ien Ts'in (前秦) in 370, the south-western part of Manchuria was temporarily included in the territory of Ch'ien Ts'in. Ch'ien Ts'in was a kingdom established by a Tibetan tribe inhabiting the northwestern part of China proper. In 384, the Mujungs recovered their territory in Manchuria, and shortly afterwards, in 392, the famous Kuang-k'ai-t'u-wang (廣開土王) or Haotai-wang (好太王) became the King of the Kaokouli Kingdom. During the reign of this king, the western frontier of the Kaokouli territory was extended to the



Liao River in the period from 397 to 401. At Chian-hsien (輯安縣) or Tungkou (洞溝) there still remains a large stone tablet describing the great work of territorial expansion and colonization accomplished by this king.

It was about 439 that the kingdom established in North China by the Sienpi tribe, and the southern China régime maintained by the Chinese came to confront each other. For about 150 years (439-589) from that time, the so-called Northern and Southern Dynasties period continued. In this period, Kaokouli became a great kingdom extending over Manchuria and Korea, and its capital was at Heijō (平壤) or Phyōngyang from 427. Although the northern boundary of the Kaokouli territory is not clear, it is believed that the influence of this kingdom extended over various tribes of Manchuria, the most famous among them being the Wuchis (勿吉). This tribe was originally the Sushêns who were later called the I-lous (挹婁) and again named the Wuchis. In Chapter 100, *Wu chi ch'uan* (勿吉傳) of the *Wei shu* (魏書) is mentioned the transportation route from Holung (和龍), the present Ch'aoyang (朝陽), in the south-eastern part of Jehol Province to the Wuchi territory. The principal rivers mentioned in this description are almost all in North Manchuria: the Sumo (速末) is the present Sungari River, the T'ailu (太魯) is the present T'aor (洮兒) River running by T'aonan (洮南), and the Nan Ho (難河) is the present Amur River. Again, according to Chapter 100, *Shihwei ch'uan* (失韋傳) of the *Wei shu* (魏書), a tribe named Shihwei (失韋 or 室韋) inhabited extensively the district along the Amur River. The Ch'üli (屈利) River described in the volume is the present Nonni River, the Choshui (嚼水) is the Ch'or (綽爾) River, a branch of the Nonni River, and the Nashui (捺水) is the present Amur River. In the Northern and Southern Dynasties era, the condition of North Manchuria became known to the Chinese in more detail than before.

Chinese domination in Manchuria seemed about to be revived after the unification of China by the Sui (隋) dynasty in 589, but repeated attempts to subjugate the Kaokouli kingdom made from 598 all ended in failure. In 618 the T'ang (唐) dynasty replaced the Sui dynasty, and after endeavouring to accomplish the firm unification of China, the subjugation of Kaokouli was planned. Three campaigns made in the reign of Emperor T'ai-tsung (太宗) (627-649) of the T'ang dynasty did not succeed, and in the reign of the next Emperor, Kao-tsung (高宗) (650-683), several more attempts again failed, but finally the subjugation of Kaokouli was accomplished. In 667, Li Shih-tsi (李世績), a T'ang General, first succeeded in a gigantic military operation in the Liao River plain, and at that time the

T'ang forces advanced to the present Ch'angch'un (長春) and Nungan (農安). Encouraged by this victory, the T'ang army crossed the Yalu River, and destroyed Heijo in 668, thus finally succeeding in the conquest of the great kingdom of Kaokouli.

For governing the former territory of Kaokouli, the T'ang dynasty established at Heijo an administrative office named Antung Tu-hu Fu (安東都護府). While the authority of the office was important, its organization was simple, and its actual power was limited. Consequently this office was unable to exercise its proper authority. In 675 the office was moved to the present Liaoyang, and in the following year to the vicinity of the present Hsinmin (新民), and again, in 714 it was temporarily moved to the other side of the present Shanhaikwan. In governing the former territory of Kaokouli the T'ang dynasty adopted a careful and positive policy which was applied equally to other newly conquered territories. For instance, although the same administrative system as established in China proper was applied to the newly acquired territory, nominally, both high and low officials appointed for the new territory were almost all selected from native residents. The T'ang dynasty generously permitted the native customs and habits of the people of the new territories to continue, and never attempted to enforce Chinese habits and customs upon them, being satisfied by merely making the subjected tribes take the attitude of submission to the T'ang dynasty. This policy had been adopted not only by the T'ang dynasty but also by other dynasties of China as the basic administrative principle for tribes different from themselves. Consequently the territorial conception of the Chinese is naturally extremely vague when viewed according to the present legal interpretation. But as far as the conception of territory is concerned, it often becomes necessary to consider it from the viewpoint of the Chinese.

Although the influence of the T'ang Empire was extensively and powerfully expanded in Manchuria, only a very loose administrative policy was applied to the new territory, being content with merely conciliating the tribes of Manchuria. Therefore, it is not at all surprising that one of these tribes of Manchuria came to establish a new state, and the kingdom of P'ohai (渤海) finally rose. In the former territory of Kaokouli appeared a man named Ta Tsu-jung (大祚榮) and in the reign of Tsê-T'ien Wu-hou (則天武后) of the T'ang dynasty, he established a territory named Chên kuo (震國) in the valley of the upper stream of the present Sungari River. At first he resisted the T'ang dynasty, but in 713 he was given the title of P'o Hai Chün Wang (渤海郡王), or King of P'o Hai Province



by Emperor Hsüan-tsung (玄宗) of T'ang (713-755), and taking a submissive attitude to the T'ang dynasty, he called his territory P'ohai. Ta Tsu-jung was the first king of the P'ohai kingdom, and at the time of Ta Ch'in-mao (大欽茂), the third King, the capital was moved from Hsientê Fu (顯德府) to Lung-chuan Fu (龍泉府). On the bank of the present Mutankiang River, there is a city called Ningkuta (寧古塔), and southwest of the city and near the Birteng Lake (畢爾騰湖) there are the ruins of an ancient city named Tungchingch'êng (東京城). This is the remains of the former Lungchuan Fu, the capital of the P'ohai kingdom. A detailed description of the ruins is given in the *Pai yün chi* (白雲集) written by Chang Pen (張贊) of the Ching (清) period, and quoted in Chapter 3 of the *Chin shi hsiang hsiao* (金史詳校). In the reign of Ta Jên-hsiu (大仁秀), the tenth King, the territory of P'ohai was greatly expanded, and within its large domain were established five important cities, including, besides Lungchuan Fu, the capital, Lungyüan Fu (龍原府) in the eastern part, Nanhai Fu (南海府) in the southern, Yalu Fu (鴨綠府) in the western, and Hsientê Fu (顯德府) in the central part.

The kingdom of P'ohai was formed by a tribe named Moho (靺鞨) which included the two large branches of Sumo-moho (粟末靺鞨) and Heishui-moho (黑水靺鞨). The former tribe inhabited the district along the present Sungari River, and the latter the district along the lower course of the present Amur River. The P'ohai kingdom was established by the former branch of the Moho tribe, and the latter branch came to be known by the name of Nüchên. The Heishui-moho were not included in the territory of the P'ohai kingdom, and expressed submission to the far-away T'ang dynasty. In 725 or a little later, the T'ang dynasty established an administrative office named Heishui Fu (黑水府) for governing the Heishui-moho. The one who was appointed head of the office was the most powerful chieftain in the tribe. The condition in the district along the lower course of the present Amur River was more or less known to the Chinese in the T'ang dynasty era, and even the Liukuei (流鬼), the tribe inhabiting the most remote district of all the tribes in the above-mentioned district, presented tribute to the T'ang dynasty. Liukuei was the name given to the Ainu race now inhabiting Saghalien. The knowledge of the Chinese respecting the Moho tribe, including the P'ohai kingdom, was fairly extensive as may be judged from the descriptions given respecting the Mohos in the *Sui shu* (隋書), *T'ang shu* (唐書), *Chiu T'ang shu* (舊唐書), *Wên hsien t'ung k'ao* (文獻通考) and other documents. North of the Moho tribe was the Shihwei (室韋) tribe scattered over a vast area,

and as a part of this tribe there was a branch tribe called Ta-shihwei (大室韋) living along the Shihchien (室建) River, the present Argun River, forming the upper course of the Amur River. A small branch tribe belonging to this tribe and living south of the Shihchien River was the Mêngwa (蒙瓦) or Mongols. The name of this small tribe later became a general term to include all tribes of the same race.

The boundary between the P'ohai kingdom and the territory of the T'ang dynasty in Manchuria is believed to have been, roughly, a line running from the right bank of the Yalu River to the present K'aiyüan (開原) district, via the upper stream district of the Hun River. The present district of Ch'angch'un and Nungan belonged to the T'ang territory. The P'ohai kingdom was powerful for about 200 years from 713 to 926, during which period it maintained a submissive attitude to the T'ang dynasty and endeavoured to absorb the civilization of China. There are no cultural remains of this kingdom left today, nor is there any detailed account of the history of the kingdom. As this kingdom had a long trading intercourse with Japan, some accounts of P'ohai are found in the historical descriptions of Japan. Towards Japan also, P'ohai showed a submissive attitude, and the Japanese-Manchurian relations at that time were smooth and satisfactory.

#### Third Period. 907-1616 A.D.

For about 460 years after the downfall of the T'ang dynasty in 907, the Chinese power in Manchuria was entirely lost. In the powerful days of the T'ang Empire, even the present Jehol region was recognized as T'ang territory. In the eastern part of this district extending to the Siramuren River, was a tribe named Kitan (契丹); and in the western part and particularly along the Laoha River (老哈) there was a tribe called Hsi (奚). These two tribes were nomads belonging to the Mongol race. In the reign of Emperor T'ai-tsung (太宗) of T'ang there were established the administrative offices Jao-lo Tu-tu Fu (饒樂都督府) in the territory of the Hsi, and Sung-mo Tu-tu Fu (松漠都督府) in the territory of the Kitan. As the governors of these districts there were appointed the most powerful chieftains in the respective districts, according to the policy of the T'ang dynasty in governing newly conquered territories. As the An Lu-shan (安祿山) rebellion (755-763) broke out in the reign of Emperor Hsüan-tsung (玄宗), the power of the T'ang dynasty declined, and the Kitans also took the attitude of resisting the authority of the T'ang dynasty. In the latter half of the T'ang dynasty era, the Kitans were gradually



gathering power to become independent.

The Kitan tribe was divided into eight branches, but a powerful chieftain named Yeh-lü A-pao-chi (耶律阿保機) succeeded in unifying and controlling the eight branches, and in 916 called himself the Emperor. Later he became known as Emperor T'ai-tsu (太祖) of the Liao (遼) kingdom, which was established by his son, T'ai-tsung (太宗). As meritorious subjects in the establishment of the kingdom of Kitan there were counted twenty-one persons, of whom three were Chinese. At that time, in the territory of the Kitans there were residing many Chinese refugees, from whom the Kitans obtained the Chinese civilization. The Kitans adopted the wise measure of utilizing the ability of these Chinese in undertaking works of cultural development. Even after the establishment of Linhuang Fu (臨潢府) as the capital of Kitan, its prosperity was mainly due to the cultural influence of the Chinese residents. That is to say, the civilization of the Kitans developed on the foundation of the Chinese civilization. The ruins of Linhuang Fu are found north of the upper stream of the Siramuren River, being now known as Boro Hotun.

With the establishment of the kingdom of Kitan, the Hsi tribe came to be controlled by the Kitans, and the district extending from Outer Mongolia to the T'ien-shan (天山) Mountains gradually became the land of the Kitans, and finally in 926 the kingdom of P'ohai also was conquered by the Kitans. The former territory of P'ohai was then named Tung-Tan kuo (東丹國). The capital of Tung-Tan kuo was first at the former capital of P'ohai, but two years after the conquest of P'ohai by the Kitans, the capital was moved to Tungp'ing Fu (東平府), the present Liaoyang. Although the Kitans conquered the kingdom of P'ohai, they took no positive policy to control the new territory, and merely attempted, without any systematic method, to conciliate or overawe the powerful Nüchên tribe scattering extensively in the north-eastern districts of Manchuria.

While the Kitans were gradually influenced by the Chinese civilization more and more, and were continuing to follow a very loose policy towards the Nüchêns, the Nüchêns were rapidly advancing their own civilization by keeping up intercourse with the Kitans. Although the Nüchêns had their own customs and religion, they also received much of the Chinese civilization through the Kitans. The Nüchêns gradually strengthened their combination and dared to defy the Kitans. Chieftain A-ku-ta (阿骨打) of the Wanyenpu (完顏部), a branch of the Nüchên tribe that inhabited the present Harbin district, finally made armed defiance of the Kitans. South-east of the present Harbin there is a place

called Ashiho (阿什河) and south-east of this place are the ruins of an old city known as Paich'êng (白城). This was the first headquarters of the Wan-yen Nüchêns, and was later called Huining Fu (會寧府), the capital of the great kingdom established by the Nüchêns. It was the *Chi lin wai chi* (吉林外記) that first recognized these ruins as the ancient Huining Fu. Then the *Tung san sheng Yü ti t'u shuo* (東三省輿地圖說), the *Chi lin t'ung chih* (吉林通志) and other books recognized Paich'êng as Huining Fu and gave detailed explanations.

In 1115, A-ku-ta called himself the Emperor, and adopted the name of Chin (金) for his kingdom. Soon afterwards he advanced westward and crossing the Hunt'ungkiang (混同江), the present Sungari River, occupied Huanglung Fu (黃龍府), the present Nungan (農安). Later the Chin forces invaded deeply the territory of the Kitans, and finally annexed the Kitan kingdom in 1125. In 1126 the Chin army entered China proper, and occupying Pienching (汴京), the present Kaifeng (開封) in Honan (河南) Province, the capital of the Sung (宋) Empire, captured Emperors Hui-tsung (徽宗) and Ch'in-tsung (欽宗). It is said that these two Emperors were later imprisoned at Wukuoch'êng (五國城) where they died. According to the *Yüan i t'ung chih* (元一統志) quoted in the *Man chou yüan liu k'ao* (滿洲源流考) Chapter II, or the *Ning ku ta chi lüé* (寧古塔紀略), Wukuoch'êng is believed to have been in the vicinity of the present Sansing (三姓), or Ilan (依蘭), on the right bank of the Sungari River, and north-east of the present Harbin.

Although the Nüchêns governed Manchuria as the Manchus, they were gradually influenced by the Chinese civilization and were attracted to China proper. Their capital was later moved within China proper, and they did not attach much importance to the control of Manchuria itself. The account of the journey of Hsü K'ang-tsung (許亢宗) who travelled to Huining Fu, the capital of the Chin kingdom, at the order of Emperor Hui-tsung is still preserved under the name of *Hsüan ho i chi fêng shih hang ch'êng lu* (宣和乙巳奉使行程錄), being mentioned in the fortieth chapter of the *Ta chin kuo chih* (大金國志), and the twentieth chapter of the *San ch'ao pei mêng hui pien* (三朝北盟會編). The customs of the Nüchêns as described in this travel account still showed their original characteristics. But later they were strongly influenced by Chinese civilization, and although in the boom period of the Chin kingdom Manchuria was nominally the land of the Manchus, it cannot be denied that in culture and civilization, Manchuria was steadily being influenced by China.

At about the time when Manchuria was being strongly influenced by



Chinese civilization, the Mongols commenced activities in Outer Mongolia, and the Nüchêns began to feel a serious threat. In 1215 the Mongol army invaded Manchuria from the present Ch'aoyang district, and the kingdom of Tun chên (東眞), established in the present Chientao (間島) district by P'u-hsien Wan-nu (蒲鮮萬奴) a Nüchên general, was conquered by the Mongols in 1233. The Chin territory in China was annexed by the Mongols in 1234.

The policy adopted by the Mongols in governing Manchuria was extremely loose, and particularly in respect of North Manchuria there was no established policy. In 1271, the Mongols adopted the title of Yüan (元) for their kingdom, and conquering the territory of Nan Sung (南宋) in 1279, gained control of the whole of China proper. Judging from the extreme clumsiness of their methods of governing China proper, it is quite natural that their control of Manchuria was exceedingly loose.

In 1368 the Ming (明) dynasty rose and returned China proper from the Mongols to the hands of the Chinese. Consequently Manchuria also was replaced under Chinese influence. The power of the Ming dynasty in Manchuria was extensive at one time, and in the reign of Emperor Ch'êng-tsu (成祖), or Yunglo (永樂), the third Emperor (1403-1424), the Ming dynasty established an administrative office named Nu-êr-han Tu-ssu (奴兒干都司) at the far-away mouth of the Amur River. In controlling Manchuria the Ming dynasty took the same policy as adopted by the former T'ang dynasty, and did not try to strictly enforce the same administrative system as in China proper. As positive territory of the Ming dynasty in Manchuria there could be mentioned only the Liao River plain which belonged to the jurisdiction of the Liao-tung tu-ssu (遼東都司). The territory under the jurisdiction of this office was, on the whole, the district south of the present K'aiyüan. For protecting this district against attack by the Mongols and the Nüchêns, there was erected a barrier called *Pien-ts'iang* (邊牆) that extended for quite a distance. In Chapter 9 of the *Liao tung chih* (遼東志) are mentioned districts in Manchuria where the political authority of the Ming dynasty was not duly exercised, and according to this documentary evidence, it is clear that Manchuria was not wholly under the direct and firm control of the Ming dynasty. In the vast area beyond the barrier of *Pien-ts'iang* were scattered the Nüchêns, and the Ching (清) dynasty, formed by a branch tribe of the group named Chien-chou Nüchêns (建州女眞), took the leadership of the Manchus and conquered the Chinese, finally the entire territory of China proper becoming the land of the Ch'ing dynasty. Thus, Manchuria

became again separated from the influence of the Chinese.

**Fourth Period.** 1616 A.D. to the present.

Nurhachi (奴爾哈赤), chieftain of a branch of the Nüchên tribe, making his headquarters on the upper course of the present Hun River, dared fierce opposition to the Ming dynasty in 1616, declaring himself the Emperor. He called his kingdom Ta Chin (大金), but in 1636, after his son became the Emperor, the name of Ching (清) was adopted. In the reign of the grandson of Nurhachi, the Ching army occupied Peking, in 1644, after which Peking became the capital of the Ching Empire. In 1661 the Ming dynasty was completely destroyed, and China proper came under the rule of the Ching dynasty.

In conquering China, the Ching dynasty skilfully utilized many able Chinese who were encouraged to show the best of their ability. This was one of the important causes that made possible such a rapid conquest of China. The Ching dynasty fully realized that they had no civilization to boast of, and at the same time entertained much respect for the Chinese civilization. Even after they conquered China and came to rule over the Chinese, the Ching dynasty recognized the necessity of respecting and protecting the Chinese civilization. But, on the other hand, they also were conscious that to maintain firmly the racial peculiarities of the Manchus was an indispensable requirement for retaining their ruling position over the Chinese. In 1599, Nurhachi instructed scholars under his command to form written characters for the Manchurian language, after the examples of Chinese characters. It was the fundamental educational policy of the Ching dynasty to make people learn the Manchu language and characters, and to curtail the use of the Chinese language and characters as much as possible. It was also their policy to encourage riding and hunting, which were the pride of the Manchus. Intermarriage of the Manchus and the Chinese was almost entirely prohibited, as they gave the utmost consideration to preserving the pure blood of the Manchus. The Manchus who were employed by the Ching dynasty as officials were given certain properties to enable them to maintain their position and reputation, and on the other hand, they were prohibited to engage in any productive work or business. The Ching dynasty also gave much thought to preventing the Manchus from being influenced by Chinese customs and religions, and even interfered in the matter of the dress of the Manchu women. The religion of the Manchus was Shaman, and the Ching dynasty respecting this faith and its rituals, endeavoured to preserve it. The Ching dynasty



had its capital at Mukden at first, and within the palace precincts at Mukden a special building was erected for its religious service, and when the capital was moved to Peking, a similar religious building was constructed. At services held in this building, only Manchu officials were allowed to be present. In short, the Ching dynasty gave its utmost efforts toward preserving the original characteristics and peculiarities of the Manchus, and preventing them from being influenced by Chinese customs and civilization. Also for the purpose of exaggeratedly stating that the history and civilization of Manchuria were not inferior to those of China, in their attempt to maintain a superior position over the Chinese, Emperor Ch'ienlung (乾隆) (1726-1795) ordered the compilation of the *Man chou yüan liu k'ao* (滿洲源流考) or History of Manchuria.

Despite such careful consideration, the influence of Chinese civilization on the Manchus became an undeniable fact. Even before the Ch'ing dynasty, the Manchus had already been influenced by Chinese civilization for a long period. This tendency did not first appear in the Ch'ing dynasty era, but the fact that the Ching dynasty gave such cautious consideration against the influence of Chinese civilization proves that the Manchus had already realized and actually experienced the assimilating power of the civilization of China. The Ching dynasty separated Manchuria from China proper and treated it like the private property of the Emperor, and this measure also was based upon the above-mentioned Manchu nationalism. This policy took the form of *Fengchin* (封禁) or the institution of closed territory not to permit the free entrance of the Chinese into Manchuria. But this measure was not carried out by the Ching dynasty as its basic policy, and its enforcement was made only imperfectly and partially. This policy of closing Manchuria to the Chinese was finally set at naught by the Chinese.

The Ch'ing dynasty politically differentiated China proper and Manchuria for a long period. In Manchuria, Fêngtien (奉天) or Shêngching (盛京), Mukden, was the political centre, and the Shêngching Chiangchün (盛京將軍) or Military Governor of Fêngtien was stationed there. Three Military Governors,—Shêngching Chiangchün, Kirin Chiangchün, and Heilungkiang Chiangchün,—governed their respective military jurisdictions in Manchuria, while the Shêngching Chiangchün was in command of the entire district. The provincial administrative system as in China proper was not applied to Manchuria for a long time. There was the basic principle that important official positions in Manchuria were to be given to the Manchus only. But the economic life of the Manchus was

extremely primitive, and in order to advance their economic life, it became necessary to secure the co-operation of the Chinese. The Manchus were not adapted to productive work and especially agriculture, and they felt the necessity of utilizing Chinese co-operation for agricultural development. In the reign of Emperor Shunchih (順治) (1644-1661), the third Ching Emperor, regulations for inviting the Chinese into the Liaotung district and making them undertake the cultivation of land were issued. Except for such special needs, the Ching dynasty did not like to permit the free entrance of the Chinese into Manchuria. In the reign of Emperor Ch'ienlung (乾隆), the sixth Emperor, an imperial order prohibiting the migration of the Chinese into Manchuria was issued, in 1740 and again in 1750. Similar orders were issued several times later. But such prohibition was not intended to forbid absolutely the entrance of the Chinese into any part of Manchuria, but was only for not permitting unlimited entrance of the Chinese. Later, the Chinese were often invited by the Ch'ing dynasty to come to Manchuria for the object of aiding the economic life of the Manchus by cultivating the land. As the result of the T'ai ping Rebellion (1850-1864), the authority of the Manchus over the Chinese declined, and although Manchuria was left nominally as the private property of the Imperial family, actually the influence of the Chinese gradually threatened the Manchus. From the reign of Emperor Kuanghsü (光緒) (1875-1908) the liberty of the Chinese to enter Manchuria became gradually recognized. The migration of the Chinese into Manchuria was not at first wholly for cultivation and colonization, but mainly for working as labourers. But as time passed, the number of the Chinese who settled in Manchuria and engaged in agricultural cultivation became numerous.

Thus, the economic development of Manchuria in recent years was first attempted by the Chinese though in a very limited way. Then the Russians came for the development of Manchuria. After the Sino-Japanese War, Russia made a signal advance in Manchuria, both in the expansion of political influence, and in planning economic development. The construction of the Chinese Eastern Railway further assured the Russian advance into Manchuria. When Harbin was becoming the centre of the Russian influence in Manchuria, some Japanese who first entered Harbin from Vladivostok in 1898, were said to have been protected by Russian officials. As the Japanese influence was newly extended into Manchuria after the Russo-Japanese War, there arose in Manchuria the complicated relations of China, Russia, and Japan.

The Chinese Government received stimulation on account of the



Russo-Japanese War, and particularly expected that the Russo-Japanese relations after the war would have a serious effect upon the future of Manchuria. In order to prepare for such future changes and also for meeting the necessity of solidifying the political unification of Manchuria, the Government of China decided in 1908 to apply to Manchuria the same administrative system as in China proper. The former system of Military Governor or Chiangchün was abolished, and the three provinces of Fêngtien, Kirin, and Heilungkiang were established. The administrator of each province was called Hsünfu (巡撫). To supervise the Hsünfus of the three provinces and also to guide the administrative affairs of Manchuria there was appointed the Tungshansheng Tsungtu (東三省總督) or Viceroy of the Three Eastern Provinces. Hsü Shih-chang (徐世昌) was appointed the first Viceroy of the Three Eastern Provinces. However the actual result of this new administrative system was quite doubtful, and three years after the adoption of the new system, a revolution broke out in 1911. The Ching dynasty fell and the Republic of China was established in the following year.

Regardless of the actual results of the new administrative system, Manchuria became politically recognized on the same footing as China proper by the adoption of the new system. The feature of Manchuria being a sort of private property of the Ching dynasty entirely disappeared. In fact, the Ching dynasty itself had already lost the distinct features of the Manchus and also the superior authority over the Chinese. Although in form it was Manchuria governed by the Manchus, actually it became Manchuria controlled by the Chinese. Besides the political change, the features of the Manchus in general civilization became very slight, and the influence of Chinese civilization strongly governed Manchuria. Customs and religions in Manchuria became impossible to comprehend unless viewed in relation to those of China proper. Between the Manchus and the Chinese there raged fierce struggles for their respective control of Manchuria over an extremely long period, but at least since the Russo-Japanese War, Manchuria became the possession of the Chinese.

While the Chinese influence increased in such a way as above mentioned, the Japanese influence also entered Manchuria, and it was unavoidable that the influences of Japan and China in Manchuria became entangled. But as Manchuria was placed in the same condition as in China proper politically and culturally, the unrest in China proper was naturally to be expected to influence Manchuria. While China proper suffered constantly from extreme unrest, not only during the confusion of

the revolution, but also even after the establishment of the Republic, Manchuria was recognized as a paradise of peace and comfort. This was absolutely the blessing brought about by the Japanese influence. Chang Tso-lin (張作霖) was able to develop his power by staying in the safety zone of Manchuria. Without faithfully considering the Japanese contribution to the political peace and economic development of Manchuria, to suspect it as an imperialistic invasion by Japan had to be called a disadvantageous attitude for the Chinese to adopt. For the Chinese military clans in Manchuria, to be hostile to Japanese influence in Manchuria was to invite their own downfall.

The history of Manchuria consisted in the long past of the mutual relations of the Chinese, the Manchus, and the Mongols. In recent years, while Manchuria was becoming actually the possession of the Chinese, the influences of Russia and Japan were also directly brought upon it, and thus the inter-relation of China, Japan, and Russia formed the new history of Manchuria. As far as the peace and prosperity of Manchuria were concerned, the understanding and cooperation of the three nations of China, Japan, and Russia were the fundamentally necessary factors. The Chinese attempt to unjustly expel the Japanese without realizing this situation actually caused the recent Manchurian incident.



## CHAPTER III ADMINISTRATION

### HISTORY OF THE FOUNDATION OF MANCHOUKUO

#### General Outline

The integrity of frontiers and the peace of peoples, and the independence of Manchuria and Mongolia were the ever consistent wish of their inhabitants since the establishment of the Manchu dynasty. But this desire was not fulfilled by Chang Tso-lin, Chang Hsueh-liang, his son, and the military groups gathered around them. However, as the result of the Manchurian incident which unexpectedly occurred, due to the bombing of the South Manchuria Railway track by the regular Chinese soldiers under the command of Chang Hsueh-liang on September 18, 1931, the long-cherished desire of the people came to the fore, as the power of the Chang family was destroyed, and their eager wish to establish a paradise of peace resulted in the establishment of new governments in various districts. These new governments aimed at establishing the integrity of frontiers, and the peace of the peoples, and performed the rôle of local governments, separating from China proper. Then the opportunity to become a perfectly independent State gradually matured, and in the middle of February, 1932, the Administrative Committee of the Northeastern Provinces (東北行政委員會) was formed. On February 18, 1932, the declaration of the independence of the northeastern four provinces was announced, declaring severance of relations with the Nanking Government. Then on March 1, Manchoukuo, as a new State, was formally established, and the foundation of the new State was announced to the world. The ceremony of founding the new State was held on March 9 at Hsinking (Changchun), the new capital.

#### Collapse of the Chang Hsueh-liang Government, and the Independence of New Local Governments

**Fengtien Province.**—The effort directed at restoring peace and order as the Chang Hsueh-liang government was driven out of Mukden by the

sudden outbreak of the Manchurian incident, first materialized in the Committee for Preservation of Local Peace and Order (地方維持委員會) organized at Mukden. The Committee was formed on September 24 by the co-operation of citizens and the former civil administrator's faction of Fengtien Province, and Yuan Chin-kai (袁金鎧), Vice-Chairman of the former Northeastern Administrative Council, was elected Chairman. The Committee at first gave its efforts exclusively to maintaining local peace and order, and particularly to stabilizing banking facilities, but as its political features became gradually stronger, it came to handle administrative affairs instead of the former government. From the latter part of October, in substance, it became almost equal to a provincial government, and various government offices executed their duties under the control of this committee. The former name of Liaoning Province was abolished and the name of Fengtien Province was again used from November 30, and thus the political change was clearly defined. On December 16, Tsang Shih-yi (臧式毅), former Governor of Liaoning Province, formally organized the government of Fengtien Province, himself becoming Chairman. Then the Committee for Preservation of Local Peace and Order was dissolved, and its authority was transferred to the new provincial government.

**Kirin Province.**—In Kirin Province, Hsi Hsia (熙洽) who was the Chief-of-Staff to Chang Tso-hsiang (張作相), former Vice-Commander of the Northeastern Frontier Defence Army, became the Governor of Kirin Province on September 26, and declared the independence of Kirin Province on September 28. At that time, however, only 25 hsien out of the total of 43 hsien in the province submitted to the new government, and the faction against the new government temporarily formed another Kirin Provincial Government at Harbin. Because of such developments, the political situation was complicated. Governor Hsi despatched messengers to all rural districts to urge the people to submit to the new government; at the same time, the representatives of the people of Kirin Province sent telegrams expressing their submission to the new government. By the successful attack on the faction against the new government in February, 1932, the situation in Kirin Province became stabilized.

**Heilungkiang Province.**—In Heilungkiang Province, not only did the former political power headed by Wan Fu-lin (萬福麟), Chairman of the former provincial government, and the faction advocating provincial autonomy confront each other, but also there developed a conflict between General Chang Hai-feng (張海鵬) and General Ma Chan-shan (馬占山),



Commander of the Heiho Garrison.

As the Ma troops destroyed a wooden bridge of the Taoang Railway, which was built with money loaned by the South Manchuria Railway Company, in this conflict, Japan despatched a repair corps to the scene. The Ma forces unlawfully opening fire upon the Japanese repair corps, there developed a conflict between the Japanese troops and the Ma forces; and as the latter were defeated and retreated, the Japanese troops advanced and occupied Tsitsihar.

In such conditions, the political situation was in confusion, but with the entrance of Japanese troops into Tsitsihar on November 19, the situation became temporarily stabilized. The Local Self-Government Committee which made its appearance, taking advantage of this opportunity, elected unanimously Chang Chin-hui (張景惠), Governor of Tungsheng Special District, as Chairman of the provincial government, and recommended General Ma Chan-shan as Commander-in-Chief of the army. The Local Self-Government Committee was dissolved with the appointment of Chang Ching-hui as chairman of the provincial government, but the political situation became chaotic again because of the relations between Chang Ching-hui and Ma Chan-shan becoming strained. But as the Government of Manchoukuo was organized, an understanding was reached by the appointment of Ma Chan-shan as Governor of the province, and Chang Ching-hui as a member of the Privy Council, and the differences between the two leaders were settled. In April, however, Ma Chan-shan revolted against the new government, and as he was removed from the governorship, Cheng Chih-yuan (程志遠) was appointed his successor. Thus the independence of the Heilungkiang government, after various difficulties, was finally established, and the province was stabilized.

**Jehol Province.**—Jehol Province was already separated from China proper, geographically and politically, even in the days of Chang Hsueh-liang, just as the Northeastern Three Provinces were, and the province was under the control of Tang Yu-lin (湯玉麟), subordinate to Chang Hsueh-liang. But after the Manchurian incident, the situation did not develop as easily as in other provinces. Governor Tang Yu-lin of Jehol formally issued a declaration of independence on September 29, 1931, but his actual attitude was not yet clearly decided, as there was danger of being attacked by Chang Hsueh-liang from behind if he positively approached the new Government of Manchoukuo.

But soon afterward the new Government of Manchoukuo was formally established, and as the National Foundation Conference (建國會議)

was held, Governor Tang of Jehol despatched Hsieh Lu-hsi (謝呂西) as his representative to attend the conference. Hsieh Lu-hsi signed the Declaration of Independence as the representative of Tang Yu-lin. Then the Manchoukuo Government appointed Tang a Privy Councillor, Vice-Chairman of the Privy Council and also Governor of Jehol Province.

Even after this development, Tang was restrained by Chang Hsueh-liang, and thus was unable to clearly define his attitude. Gradually he came to adopt a decidedly anti-Manchoukuo and anti-Japanese attitude, and Mr. Gonshiro Ishimoto, civilian attached to the Kwantung Army, was arrested and killed by the Tang troops. Towards the end of 1932, the regular troops of Chang Hsueh-liang continued to enter Jehol Province, and joining the Tang forces started anti-Japanese and anti-Manchoukuo operations. In the latter part of February, 1933, the Manchoukuo troops in co-operation with the Kwantung Army resolved to subjugate Jehol Province for the object of clearing the country of all evil elements, and by the middle of March succeeded in destroying the opposing forces. Then on May 3, the Jehol provincial office was opened, and Chang Hai-peng (張海鵬) was appointed Governor of the province. The vexed Jehol problem was thus finally settled.

**Mongolia.**—Among the Mongolian tribes the independence movement gradually arose after the Manchurian incident. On February 20, 1932, a conference of the representatives of all the Banners of Eastern Mongolia was held at Chengchiatun (鄭家屯) and submitted a memorial to the Administrative Committee of the Northeastern Provinces, demanding the immediate establishment of Manchoukuo, definition of the Mongolian autonomous administration area, guarantee of the right of residence of Mongolians outside the said area, and appointment of Mongolians to the offices of the new Government on equal terms with other peoples. On the following day, the conference defined its attitude towards the establishment of Manchoukuo by making public a declaration for the foundation of the new State, and despatched two representatives to the National Foundation Conference. Later, with the establishment of Manchoukuo, Hsingan Province (興安省) was established for the control of Mongolia.

#### Organization of the Administrative Committee of the Northeastern Provinces and the National Foundation Conference

The entrance of Japanese troops into Chinchow (錦州) effecting a



turning point in the political condition of Manchuria, the problems of the future were discussed among the leaders of all the provinces. The conference held at Mukden on February 16, 1932, by Chang Ching-hui, Ma Chan-shan, Hsi Hsia, Tsang Shih-yi, and Chao Hsin-pao (趙欣伯) who was then Mayor of Mukden, was for exchanging views on the functioning of the new independent state, the organization of the government, the time of issuing the declaration of independence, etc. As the result of this conference, it was decided that the Administrative Committee of the Northeastern Provinces (東北行政委員會) should be organized and preparations for the establishment of the new state be made. The Committee was formed by Chang Ching-hui, Ma Chan-shan, Hsi Hsia, Tsang Shih-yi, Tang Yu-lin of Jehol, Chi-Wang (齊王) representing Mongolia, and Ling Sheng (陵陞) representative of Hulunbuir.

On February 18, 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 (滿洲國); the administration of the new State to be based on democracy; the ruler to be called Chief Executive (執政); the flag to be a five-coloured one; the new era to be called Tatung (大同); and the capital to be Changchun (長春) (Hsinking).

On February 28, the Administrative Committee of the Northeastern Provinces fully executed its duty, and resolved to announce the proclamation of the establishment of Manchoukuo on March 1 in the name of the Manchoukuo Government. On this day a joint mass meeting of all the movements in the country for the establishment of the new State was held at Mukden with the attendance of the representatives of the peoples of all the provinces and Mongolia.

### Establishment of Manchoukuo

On March 1 Manchoukuo finally became independent, and in the name of the Manchoukuo Government the following proclamation of the establishment of the new State was issued to the world.

#### PROCLAMATION OF THE ESTABLISHMENT OF MANCHOUKUO

March 1, 1932

(Translation)

The territories of Manchuria and Mongolia form a region remote and

isolated on the Continent of Asia. The records of the past show that its history is a long one; that the country experienced unions and disunions within its borders; that the land is fertile and the people honest and simple in their manners and customs. After the country was opened to intercourse with outside countries the population increased in number and the products in volume, thus turning the country into a land of abundance and promise.

But since the establishment of the Chinese Republic following the revolution of 1911, the military factions of the Northeastern Provinces, taking advantage of the civil wars in China, usurped its administrative power, and brought the Three Eastern Provinces under their control. Twenty years have elapsed since the revolution, during which time one war-lord has succeeded another, each of whom, completely disregarding the welfare of the people, has indulged in greed, extravagance and dissipation. While they were bent upon the pursuit of their self-interest and cupidity, the people, on the other hand, were burdened with over-taxation at the will of the war-lords. As a result the currency system suffered complete ruin, and the trade of the country became stagnant and finally collapsed.

At this critical time, again, the war-lords, giving rein to their ambition, advanced their army into the country south of the Great Wall, and caused unnecessary strife, killing and wounding a large number of people. Although they suffered defeat time after time, they never realized their own folly; they have lost the confidence and respect of the foreign powers. They waged wars with neighbouring countries; and with utter disregard of the spirit of friendliness and cordiality towards foreign countries, they encouraged anti-foreign movements.

Laxity in the police administration caused disturbances in the country and gave rise to ravages by thieves and bandits. Looting, arson and massacre by these lawless elements terrified the entire population and exposed them to hunger in all corners of the country. To leave these thirty million people of Manchuria and Mongolia longer in their hands within the border would have meant their exposure to atrocity and lawlessness and finally to their extinction. The people earnestly desire to extricate themselves from this extreme danger and horror. Happily, through the aid of the army of a neighbour Power, it has been possible to expel these corrupt elements from the area where they had entrenched themselves for many years past. The home of misrule and corruption is thus now being given a thorough cleaning. This, we believe, is a Heaven-sent opportunity



to the people of Manchuria and Mongolia to shake off their shackles, who should, therefore, grasp the opportunity and strive for regeneration and rebirth with courage and determination.

Turning our eyes to China we see that the rival war-lords have engaged in intermittent warfare ever since the revolution. Of late years, despotic rule over the country has been exercised by one party alone. Under the guise of the "Three Principles of the People," the people are put to death in the name of Minsheng; their leaders are bent only upon promoting their own interests and indulging in their greed in the name of Min-chuan; and in their eyes there is nothing outside their own party although they profess the principle of Min-tsu. In this manner, though they declare that the country is ruled with fairness and equality, the practice of the party leaders is in utter contradiction to what they profess, thus not only deceiving themselves but the people at the same time.

Of late years, internal strife caused by illegal partitioning of one another's territory has been frequent in China. Even the existence of the Kuomintang party itself is now in danger. In these circumstances, it is impossible to expect from them any regard for national welfare. The country is, at present, overrun by Communist bands whose poisonous influence is fast eating into the flesh of the people and the very heart of the national government. In the face of these deplorable conditions we are compelled to look back to the days of the Ching and Ming dynasties, as well as those of the Yao and Shun and lament the vast distance that separates us from the golden age of our history. It should be noted that this feeling of ours is equally shared by friendly nations abroad.

The result of twenty long years' experiences has convincingly taught us that we must bravely face the realities and take upon ourselves the task of reforming our national life and of bringing about a new golden age. The fact must be borne in mind, however, that evil influences are still with us, and should we evade the issue at this time and fail to check the spread of Communism, it is obvious that the destruction of the nation is inevitable. In this hour of crisis unless the people of Manchuria and Mongolia awake to a realization of the Heaven-given opportune call to liberate themselves from this corrupt political state, their extinction, too, will have to be faced.

After thorough deliberation for several months past at numerous meetings, the leaders of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang and Jehol Provinces, Harbin Special District, and those under various banners of Mon-

golia, have come to the unanimous conclusion to adopt a practical application of good rule rather than a display of words in the administration of State affairs. Under whatever form of government, the primary duty of the State is to assure the inhabitants' peace and security.

Manchuria and Mongolia constituted in the past a separate State detached from China. The present situation places us in a position to strive for our own national independence. Accordingly, by the will of the thirty million people, we hereby declare on this day that we sever our relations with the Republic of China and establish the State of Manchuria, and we hereby make a public proclamation of the fundamental principles on which this new State is founded.

1. We believe that statecraft should be founded upon the principles of Tao or the Way, and Tao founded upon Tien or Heaven. The principle on which this new State is based is to follow Tien or Heaven that the people may have peace and security. The government must be approved by the people and no man's personal views shall be permitted to influence the affairs of the State.

2. There shall be no discrimination with respect to race and caste among those people who now reside within the territory of the new State. Besides the races of the Hans, Manchus, Mongols, Japanese and Koreans, the peoples of the other foreign countries may upon application have their rights guaranteed.

3. In internal affairs the new State will reject the policies adopted in the dark days of the past. It will revise laws and enforce local autonomy, draft able men into the service of the government and elevate the officials deserving promotion, encourage industry, unify the currency system, open up the natural resources of the country, endeavour to maintain a good standard of living for the people, adjust and regulate the administration of the police, eliminate banditry, and promote and popularize education, respect Li-chiao, the teachings of Confucianism, and apply the principle of Wang-tao, the Way of Benevolent Rule, and practice its teachings. These, we believe, will enlighten the people to maintain the honour of perpetuating the peace of the Far East and thus set an example of model government to the world.

4. The foreign policy of the new State shall be to seek and further promote cordial relations with foreign powers by winning their confidence and respect, and to observe strictly international conventions. Financial obligations incurred within the territory of Manchuria by treaty stipulations with various countries prior to the establishment of the new



State shall be met according to the usual international conventions. Foreign investments by any nation shall be welcomed for the furtherance of trade and the exploitation of natural resources, thus bringing the principles of the Open Door and Equal Opportunity and the like to a fuller realization.

The foregoing articles constitute the fundamental principles underlying the establishment of the new State. The newly-formed Government will bear all responsibilities thereof from the day of the creation of the new State and the Government hereby pledges upon oath to the thirty million inhabitants that these shall be faithfully carried out.

March 1st, the First Year of Tatung (1932).

#### MANCHOUKUO GOVERNMENT

Previous to this, the Administrative Committee of the Northeastern Provinces desired to make Mr. Pu-yi (溥儀),\* the Chief Executive of the new Manchoukuo, and despatched representatives of all provinces and districts to urge his acceptance. Because of their eager wish, Mr. Pu-yi finally consented to comply with their request. On March 9, the ceremony of his inauguration was solemnly held at Hsinking, the new capital, and Chief Executive Pu-yi made the following proclamation:

#### THE CHIEF EXECUTIVE'S PROCLAMATION

Mankind should respect Morality. Since there exists racial discrimination, one race attempts to exalt itself by oppressing others; thus comes about the weakness of Morality.

Benevolence should be highly esteemed by mankind. But on account of international strife, one nation strives to benefit itself at the expense of others, which causes Benevolence to lose its value.

Our new State is established on Morality and Benevolence. As a result of the removal of racial discrimination and the termination of international strife, this State will, as a matter of course, become a land of peace and happiness under "Wang-tao," the Way of Benevolent Rule.

Endeavour, therefore, all people, for the attainment of these noble objectives.

PU-YI

CHIEF EXECUTIVE OF MANCHOUKUO

9th March, the First Year of Tatung (1932).

On March 11, Prime Minister Cheng Hsiao-hsu (鄭孝胥), chiefs of

\* For particulars respecting Mr. Pu-yi, refer to Who's Who section.

various yuans, Ministers of various Departments, and other officials were appointed; and as thus the Government formation was perfected, the Government issued the Government Organization Law to be the provisional constitution of Manchoukuo, the law for guaranteeing the people's rights, and other basic laws. On March 12, in the name of Hsieh Chieh-shih (謝介石), Foreign Minister, the following statement regarding the establishment of the new State and its foreign policy was cabled to the foreign ministers of Japan, Great Britain, the United States, France, the U.S.S.R., Germany, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Italy, Netherlands, Poland, Czecho-slovakia, Portugal, Esthonia, Latvia, Lithuania,—nations having consuls in Manchuria.

#### COMMUNICATION TO FOREIGN MINISTERS OF VARIOUS POWERS

DESPATCHED BY H. E. MR. HSIEH CHIEH SHIH,  
FOREIGN MINISTER, MANCHOUKUO

March 12, 1932.

(Translation)

Sir,—I have the honour of informing you that the Provinces of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang and Jehol, the Tungsheng Special District and Mongolian Mengs (Leagues) under several Banners have united themselves to establish an independent Government severing their relations with the Republic of China and created Manchoukuo, the State of Manchuria, on March 1, 1932.

You are, no doubt, aware that the former military authorities, headed by Chang Hsueh-liang, that administered the Northeastern Provinces, sought only their self-interest and failed to give adequate consideration to the welfare of the people; that the entire populace was subjected to extreme suffering through outrageous exactions resulting from the corrupt discipline in the official circles; and the relations with foreign nations were greatly impaired through the enforcement of anti-foreign policies. Furthermore, in China proper there is to be found no unified and stable government due to the constant factional strifes of murderous nature among the various military leaders of their own race and not a day of peace is seen by the people at large.

Hereupon, the people of Manchuria at the opportune time when the old military power was overthrown established a new State with unity of endeavour and a single purpose.

The Government of Manchuria proposes to perfect the law, to establish security for the life of the people and to exert all possible power



for the promotion of their happiness and peace.

As regards the relations with foreign nations it has been definitely decided that diplomatic intercourse shall conform to the several principles hereinafter stated :

1. That the Government shall conduct the affairs of the State according to the primary principle of faith and confidence and the spirit of harmony and friendship, and maintain and promote international peace.
2. That the Government shall respect international justice in accordance with the international laws and conventions.
3. That the Government shall succeed to those obligations for which it is liable, due to the Republic of China by virtue of treaty stipulations with foreign countries, in the light of international laws and conventions and that these obligations shall be faithfully discharged.
4. That the Government shall not infringe upon the acquired rights of the peoples of foreign countries within the limits of the State of Manchuria, and further that their persons and properties shall be given full protection.
5. That the Government welcomes the entry of the peoples of foreign nations and their residence in Manchuria and that all races shall be accorded equal and equitable treatment.
6. That trade and commerce with foreign countries shall be facilitated so as to contribute to the development of world economy.
7. That, with regard to the economic activities of the peoples of foreign nations within the State of Manchuria, the principle of the Open Door shall be observed.

It is the earnest desire of this Government that your Government will fully understand the purport of the establishment of the State of Manchuria hereinbefore stated and that formal diplomatic relations be established between your Government and the State of Manchuria.

With the assurance of my highest esteem and distinguished consideration,

Respectfully,

HsIEH CHIEH-SHIEH  
Minister for Foreign Affairs  
Manchoukuo

12th March, 1932.

To the Foreign Ministers of 17 Countries which have Consular Officials in Manchuria, namely, Austria, Belgium, Czecho-slovakia, Denmark,

Esthonia, France, Germany, Great Britain, Japan, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, the United States, and the 35 other Countries.

## ADMINISTRATION OF MANCHOUKUO

### History

**History of the Four Northeastern Provinces.**—The Ching or Manchu Government paid particular attention to the territory of Manchuria as it was the birth-place of Aichinchiaolo (愛親覺羅), the founder of the dynasty, and ruled it under an administrative system which differed from that applied to the other provinces of China proper. In those days, Manchuria was divided into the three provinces of Shengching (盛京) (the present Fengtien Province), Kirin (吉林), and Heilungkiang (黑龍江). Shengching Province was administered by civil and military authorities jointly, Kirin by military authorities with some elements of civil administration added; and Heilungkiang was wholly under military control. Afterwards, by the revised administrative system adopted in the second year of Kuanghsu, 1876, towards the end of the Ching dynasty, the administrative organization of Shengching Province was made similar to that adopted in the provinces of China proper.

It was after the close of the Russo-Japanese War that the Peking Government paid serious concern to the administration of Manchuria.

In 1907, the military affairs of the Three Eastern Provinces were unified under the control of the Viceroy of the Three Eastern Provinces, and the first Viceroy appointed was Hsu Shih-chang (徐世昌), who was ably assisted by Tang Shao-yi (唐紹儀). Hsu Shih-chang made notable improvements in the systems of administration, communication, and transport, but as Yuan Shih-kai (袁世凱) who supported him at Peking fell from power in 1908, he had to leave his Manchurian post, and was succeeded by Hsi Liang (錫良).

When the Revolution broke out in 1911, Viceroy Chao Erh-sun (趙爾巽) of the Three Eastern Provinces called on Chang Tso-lin (張作霖), who was stationed at Taonan (洮南) as the Commander of the Frontier Forces to Mukden, and ordered him to resist the advance of the revolutionary troops, and his success in the discharge of this new duty brought power and influence to Chang Tso-lin. With the subsequent establishment of the Republican Government the Three Eastern Provinces were placed under its jurisdiction, and changes were made in the administra-



tive system, and the posts of Tsungtu (總督) or Viceroy and Hsunfu (巡撫) or Civil Administrator inaugurated during the Manchu Dynasty were abolished. At first, a Tutu (都督) or Governor-General was appointed to control both civil and military affairs, but later by the appointment of a Minchengchang (民政長) or Civil Administrator in each province, the civil and military administrations were formally differentiated. In 1914 (third year of the Republic), a new system of provincial administration was promulgated; the former system was abolished, and a Shengchang (省長) or Civil Governor was appointed administrator of the province. Under the jurisdiction of the Shengchang were Tao (道) or Divisions with Taoyin (道尹) or Divisional Chiefs as administrators, and Hsien (縣) or Districts with Chihshih (知事) or District Magistrates. Manchuria was then divided into three provinces as during the Manchu Dynasty, and consisted of Fengtien (奉天), Kirin and Heilungkiang Provinces. The independence of the civil administration existed only in name as it was in China proper, and actually the post of Shengchang or Governor was held by the Tuchun (督軍) or Military Governor. Sometimes a Shengchang was appointed independently, but he was generally only too willing to receive orders from the Tuchun, and when Chang Tso-lin, Tuchun of Fengtien Province, was in 1918 made Inspector-General of the Three Eastern Provinces (東三省巡閱使) as well, not only were the civil and military administrative powers both in his hands, but also the whole of Manchuria came practically under his control, and his influence was extended to other provinces. From that time, though a different title was given to his post, as relations with the Central Government changed, Manchuria was a state practically independent of China proper.

In July, 1922, soon after the first Mukden-Chihli (奉直) War, Chang Tso-lin proclaimed the autonomy of the Three Eastern Provinces. The fundamental relations between Manchuria and China proper remained more or less the same until Chang Hsueh-liang (張學良), successor to Chang Tso-lin, declared allegiance to the National Government, although in the meantime Chang Tso-lin attempted several times to invade south of the Great Wall, and, indeed, in 1927 he actually established himself in Peking as ruler of the vast territory north of the Yangtze River (揚子江).

In June, 1928, Chang Tso-lin, who was then Grand Marshal, met an unexpected disaster and died, and Chang Hsueh-liang succeeded him as Commander-in-Chief of the Three Eastern Provinces' Army. Chang Hsueh-liang formally consented to come into the council of the National Government on October 15, 1928, and the National flag was formally

hoisted in the Three Eastern Provinces on December 29.

After hoisting the National flag, the Three Eastern Provinces naturally changed their administrative organization as stipulated by the National Government. Fengtien Province was newly named Liaoning (遼寧) Province in March, 1929, and Jehol (熱河) Special District was placed under the provincial administrative system and included in Manchuria. Thus, Manchuria came to be called the Four Northeastern Provinces.

Manchuria having thus united with China proper in the administrative system, it was supposed to submit to the Central Government the same as other provinces of China proper, but the influence established by Chang Tso-lin in the past many years and the special conditions peculiar to Manchuria could not be removed or changed easily in a short period. As a compromise, the Administrative Committee of the Northeastern Provinces (東北政務委員會) was established as an intermediate organ between the Central Government and the Northeastern Provinces; this committee of twelve members under the chairmanship of Chang Hsueh-liang became the highest political organ in Manchuria. In respect of military affairs, the office of Commander-in-Chief of the Northeastern Frontier Defence Army (東北邊防軍司令長官公署) was established, and Chang Hsueh-liang was appointed Commander-in-Chief, with Chang Tso-hsiang (張作相) of Kirin Province and Wan Fu-lin (萬福麟) of Heilungkiang Province as Vice-Commanders, the office thus becoming the organ unifying the military command and administration in Manchuria.

On the other hand, the Kuomintang gave serious attention to establishing and perfecting its party influence in Manchuria, and on March 26, 1931, formally appointed a committee to direct the party activities in the cities and provinces. Thus the influence of the Kuomintang was gradually extended to Manchuria. From then international relations in Manchuria became eventfully disturbed because of the so-called revolutionary diplomacy of the National Government, and finally the 'Manchurian Incident' of September, 1931, broke out. With this incident as a turning point, a momentous change was wrought in the political and administrative forms of Manchuria.

#### Administration of the Four Northeastern Provinces Prior to the Establishment of Manchoukuo

Sheng (省).—Under the rule of the National Government the unit of



local administration was the province or Sheng, and they were under the direct control of the Central Government. The authority and organization of the provincial government were defined by the Law of Organization of Provincial Governments. In accordance with this Act, seven to nine Administrative Committees were appointed in each province by the National Government, and one of the Committee acted as the Chairman and had charge of the execution of the Committee's decisions, affairs of routine and of the summoning of Committee meetings.

**Hsien (縣).**—Provinces were divided into Tao or Divisions under the Ching dynasty. In the Three Eastern Provinces there were ten Tao, with a Taoyin or Divisional Chief as the administrator of each Tao. The National Government abolished the Tao, and divided each province directly into Hsien or Districts. The authority and organization of the Hsien were based on the Law of Organization of Hsien issued in 1928.

The Hsien government handled the administration of the entire district, and supervised local affairs under the direction and supervision of the provincial government. For each Hsien a Hsien-chang, or District Magistrate was appointed by the provincial government to control the administration of the district, and as an advisory body, there existed the Hsien Council (縣政會議) formed of all the chiefs of departments and bureaus of the Hsien government, with the District Magistrate as Chairman.

Each Hsien was divided into several Chu (區) or Counties, according to the number of households and geographical conditions. Each County was composed of at least twenty Tsun (村) or Li (里), the rural districts or villages.

**Municipal System.**—The Nanking National Government some years ago issued regulations governing the constitution of municipalities and a definition of the municipal system. In China proper, this municipal system has gradually been put into effect, but the system had not yet been established in any city in the Manchurian provinces. At Shenyang, or Mukden there was the Shih-cheng Kungso (市政公所) or Municipal Government Office; at Tsitsihar, the Shengcheng Chien Shangfou Shicheng-chu (省城兼商埠市政局) or Provincial Capital and Municipal Market Office; and at Sungpu (松浦), the Shichengchu (市政局) or Municipal Office. Although these offices were called municipal, they were in fact instruments for government administration, and were not independent municipal institutions.

There was also a Shihcheng Choupeiso (市政籌備所) or Municipal

Administration Planning Office at Yingkow, Antung and Taonan in Liaoning Province; at Kirin, Changchun, Pingkiang (Harbin) and Yenchi in Kirin Province; and Heiho and Hulun in Heilungkiang Province, nine places in all. The Shihcheng Choupeiso was a special institution peculiar to the Manchurian provinces, and, as its name indicates, it was a temporary office to be maintained until the establishment of real municipal autonomy, but actually it was established in 1929 by order of the Northeastern Political Committee as a step which was rendered necessary by the abolition of the Tao. The organization of Shihcheng Choupeiso differed somewhat in each province, but wherever it was opened, it was like the Shihcheng Kungso, an instrument of government administration. The head of the office was appointed by the provincial government, and the municipal administrative committee, the voting body, did not exist in some provinces. When the committee was organized, its members were not elected by the public but were selected by the Chief of the Shihcheng Choupeiso from among reputable citizens possessing special knowledge concerning municipal administration or having previous experience in it. The duty of the committee was to vote on affairs proposed by the Shihcheng Choupeiso, proposals by committees, petitions by citizens, municipal plans and improvement measures. The decision of the committee alone did not enforce the execution of a measure, but it was presented to the provincial government after being approved by the chief of the Shihcheng Choupeiso and put into effect after the approval of the provincial government.

#### Police

**The Police System.**—From the establishment of the Republic of China, the police administration was under the control of the Department of Home Affairs. Under National Government, a Chingchengssu (警政司) or Police Administration Office was opened in the Ministry of the Interior in the Executive Yuan to control the police administration of the entire country. The National Government has issued numerous laws and regulations regarding the police and police affairs as it has done with other departments of administration, and attempted to improve and unify the police system. But these steps only resulted in changing the name of the police office, and actually the system established in the early years of the Republic remained in force.

The police affairs of the Four North-Eastern Provinces were under the control of various specially organized police institutions, but in view of the imperfect system and the prevalence of robbery and banditry, there



were, in addition, various auxiliary forces to assist the regular police. The gendarmerie, for instance, performed the duty of judicial police and sometimes acted as general administrative police, besides doing duty as military police. Ordinary troops may become emergency police at the demand of the local authorities. In particular, the Hsunfangtui (巡防隊) or Patrol Corps, and the Chingpeitui (警備隊) or Guards Corps were under the jurisdiction of Provincial Governors, Chairmen of the Provincial Committee, and were mainly engaged in subduing banditry. Besides these, there was the Chinghsiangchu (清鄉處) or Local Riddance Office in Liaoning and Kirin Provinces to undertake the task of ridding districts of bandits hiding in the villages, and maintaining local peace and order by enlisting the services of the Chiefs of Hsien or districts, police, local protection organizations and troops. The Chinghsiangchu possessed the power of trying arrested robbers according to the regulations in force.

*Police Institutions.*—The Provincial Police Bureau (全省警務處) controlled the police administration of the province under the direction of the Chairman of the province, supervised by the Ministry of the Interior. A Bureau was maintained at each provincial capital, and the chief of the Bureau supervised the Hsien Chiefs, all Kunganchu (公安局) or Public Peace Bureaus and other police institutions.

Under the control and supervision of the Provincial Police Bureau, the central organ of the provincial police administration, looked after local police affairs. At each provincial capital there existed a Provincial Public Peace Bureau (省會公安局) at every market, a Market Public Peace Bureau (商埠公安局); each river had a River Public Peace Bureau (水上公安局), and in each hsien a District Public Peace Bureau (縣公安局).

*Auxiliary Police Institutions.*—Besides the above-mentioned police institutions, there was the Paoweituan (保衛團) or Local Protection Corps as auxiliary police. The Paoweituan dates back to the time of Chou (周), and during the Manchu dynasty, owing to the necessity of combining together for local protection, able-bodied men were trained as police and officials of various kinds, under the superintendence of government officials. This was the so-called Paochia (保甲) system.

With the establishment of the Republic, the Paochia system continued, and regulations of Paoweituan were issued, permitting the organization of Paoweituan in districts where no police institutions existed. The request for the establishment of Paoweituan was submitted to local administrators upon the demand of the public, or at the proposal of the Hsienchang. The special system of auxiliary police continued to exist even after the

unified administrative systems were introduced in 1929, and survived the recent changes in the system of general administration.

*Relations with Mongolia.*—A large portion of the present Manchurian provinces was formerly Mongolian territory. Mongolia has enjoyed a peculiar administrative system since the time of the Ching dynasty; at the beginning of the Manchu dynasty, many tribes submitted to Manchu rule, and the Manchu court, adopting the Pachi (八旗) or Eight Banners system of Manchuria, formed these Mongolian tribes into Chi (旗) or Banners. In each Banner was placed a hereditary Jassak (札薩克) or Banner Chief to undertake the administration in each Chi, and occasionally several Banners were joined together to form a Meng (盟) or League to control the affairs of its members. In a corresponding position there was also the Jassak Lama (札薩克喇嘛) who, besides being an ordinary Lama priest, exercised the power of Jassak.

Although the Peking Government contained a Lifan-yuan (理藩院) or Colonial Board and other means for the administration of Mongolia, the territory was actually left to the control of the Mengchang (盟長), League Chiefs or Chichang (旗長), Banner Chiefs. With the establishment of the Republic of China, abrupt changes in the Mongolian administrative system were avoided, in view of the hostile attitude of Mongolia which was an outlying colony of the Manchu dynasty. But as the unification of the local administrative system became gradually accomplished, the Hsien or District system was applied to Mongolia also. Up to the recent changes the names of Mengchang and Chichang were still used in the Mongolian territory included in the Four North-Eastern Provinces, and alliances of Banners or Leagues are often formed, but the actual power of administration is gradually being transferred to the Hsienchang or District Magistrates.

#### Tungsheng Special District

*History.*—In constructing the Chinese Eastern Railway, Russia secured absolute and exclusive administrative rights in the Railway Zone which was required for the construction, operation and protection of the line. To carry these rights into effect, the Chinese Eastern Railway Company made necessary provision not only for the functioning of civil authority, but also for extensive rights covering the military administration and policing of the Railway Zone. After the Russian revolution, Chinese authorities in Manchuria recovered such rights whenever possible. The Sino-Soviet and Mukden-Soviet Agreements of 1924 proclaimed the pure-



ly commercial character of the Chinese Eastern Railway, and the administrative authority in the Railway Zone was fully restored to China.

In December, 1922, China opened the Tungsheng Special District Administration Office (東省特別區行政長官公署) to control the administration in the former Railway Zone.

*Tungsheng Special District Administration Office.*—The Governor of the Tungsheng Special District occupied the same position as is held by the Governors of provinces, and his authority was specified by the General Regulations of Affairs of the Administrator of the Tungsheng Special District issued on December 8, 1922. According to these regulations, the Governor of the Tungsheng (Eastern Province) Special District, who was also the Commander-in-Chief of the Railway Guard Corps, was under the direct control of the Commander-in-Chief of the Three Eastern Provinces Army.

And he exercised the authority of administration, diplomacy, justice, and military guard in the Special District. But when Chang Huan-hsiang (張煥相) was in 1926 appointed Governor of the Tungsheng Special District, without being the Commander-in-Chief of the Railway Guard Corps, the position of the Administrator became independent.

*Municipal System.*—Under the exclusive management of Russia, the general administration in the Railway Zone was conducted by the Chinese Eastern Railway Company, but at Harbin and other principal cities, a system of self-government was set up adapted to the local conditions. This system was first promulgated by the General Regulations of the Chinese Eastern Railway Zone, which were enacted in 1906. The municipal system of Harbin was drawn up according to the above Regulations with the approval of the Chinese Eastern Railway Company, and in March, 1908, the election of Municipal Councillors was held and the Harbin Municipal Assembly formed. When the Harbin municipal system was put into effect, China lodged a strong protest with Russia on legal grounds respecting the administration of the Railway Zone, and was joined by the United States and other foreign Consuls at Harbin, with the exception of the Japanese Consul, in protest against the collection of taxes at the discretion of Russia. As the result of these protests, Russia recognized Chinese sovereignty in the Railway Zone as a general principle, and a preliminary agreement respecting the self-governing system in the Zone was concluded in May, 1909. Nevertheless, a formal agreement was never signed, and Russia actually adopted the municipal system of her own will, recognizing, however, the equal right of Russians and other foreign

residents in the Railway Zone, and promising that taxes collected would not be used for any other purpose than public works and institutions. On April 30, 1914, an Anglo-Russian agreement was signed regarding the application to British subjects of the systems of self-government and taxation to be instituted in the Chinese Eastern Railway Zone, and later other Powers, with the exception of the United States of America, joined this agreement.

After the Russian revolution, China recovered various rights relating to the Chinese Eastern Railway, and opening the Tungsheng Special District Municipal Administration Bureau on February 5, 1921, first secured the right of supervising the self-governing bodies. When the proposal to adopt the Chinese language as the official language of the Harbin Municipal Assembly was rejected on March 23, 1926, the Chinese members went on strike, but Chang Huan-hsiang, the Governor, dissolved the Assembly by force on March 30, and ordered the organization of a temporary independent municipal committee composed entirely of Chinese.

The Consular body at Harbin, the Russian and German Consuls excluded, lodged a strong protest against the violent steps taken by China, declaring that they had violated the acquired rights of foreign residents at Harbin to participate in the municipal government. But China paid no heed to these protests, and prepared for the formation of a new Municipal Assembly. The provisional regulations for the Special Self-government of Harbin were promulgated on May 23, and the new Municipal Assembly formed on November 1. Thus China entirely took over the self-governing system from Russia. Harbin was then made a Special City, and the Harbin Special City Self-governing Provisional Regulations was promulgated. According to these regulations, the executive power was in the hands of the Municipal Administration Bureau (市政局), and subordinate to the Bureau Chief, or Mayor, appointed by the Governor of the Special District, are two Assistants and several officials. The deliberative body was the Municipal Self-governing Assembly (市自治會), composed of 40 Chinese, 3 Russian, and 7 other foreign members, 50 in all, elected by the people. The Municipal Council consisted of 6 Chinese, 1 Russian and another foreigner, elected from among the members of the Assembly, and 4 Chinese appointed by the superintendent's office.

*Police.*—The outbreak of the great strike against General Horvath at Harbin in March, 1920, was regarded by China as a good opportunity to recover the police rights, and the Chinese authorities stormed the Russian police stations and disarmed the police officers. From then on the



police rights in the Railway Zone were exercised by China.

In December, 1920, China promulgated the General Regulation of the Tungsheng Special District Police System and the General Regulation of the Tungsheng Special District General Police Office Organization. China also established the Railway Police Office (路警處) for the protection of the railway lines, independent of the ordinary police force, and placed it under the control of the Director-General of the Chinese Eastern Railway. In July, 1923, the railway police system was revised and the Railway Police was placed under the control of the Governor of the Special District together with the ordinary police.

### Administrative Organs of Manchoukuo

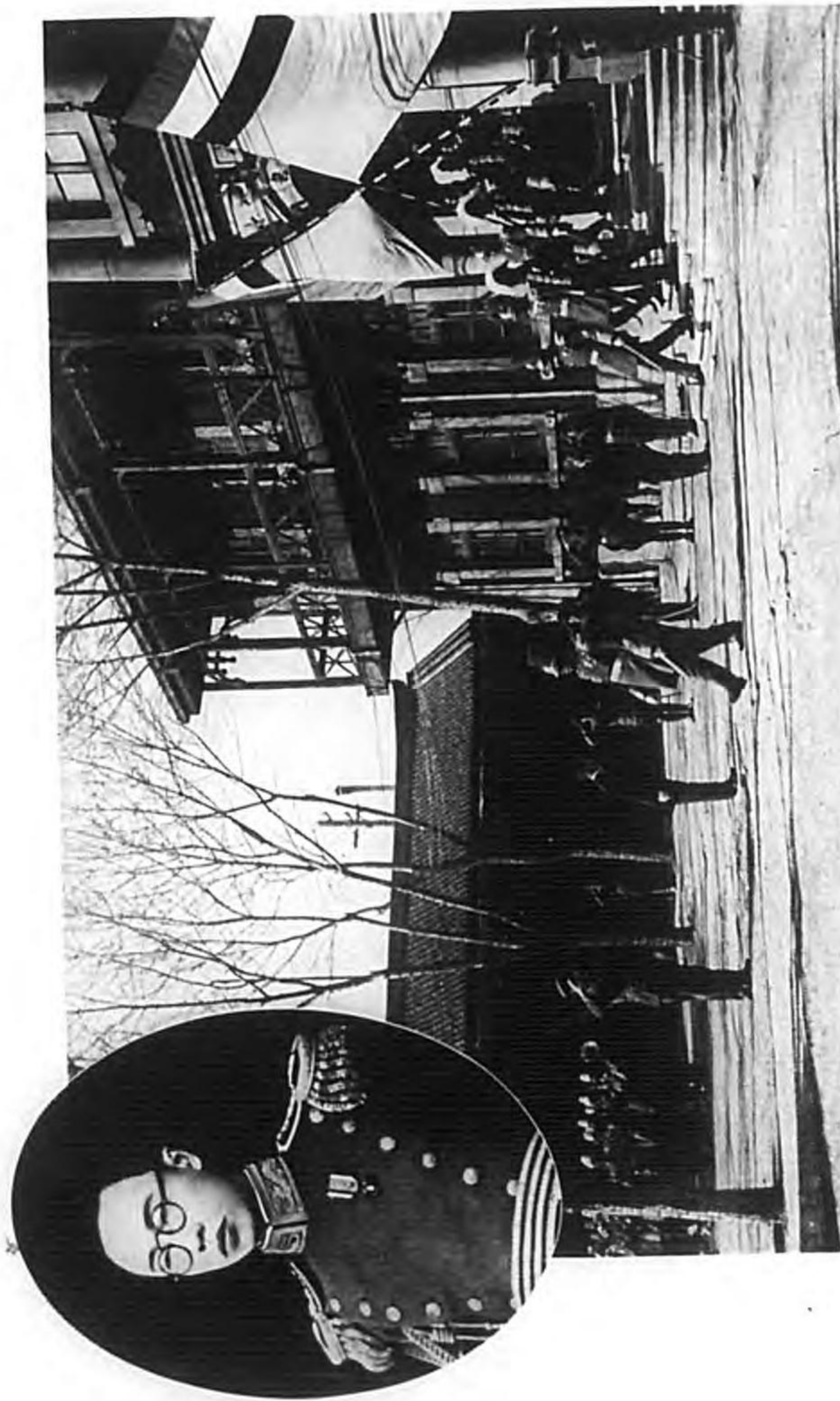
#### Outline of State Organization

*Government of Manchoukuo.*—The Chief Executive (See Note) represents Manchoukuo; possesses the supreme power to declare war, conclude peace, and sign treaties; commands the army, navy and air forces; and has the right of ordering amnesty, special pardon, commutation of penalties, and restoration of civil rights. The Chief Executive is supported by the entire people, and bears the responsibility for the entire people.

The government by the Chief Executive is a transitory administrative form until the promulgation of the Constitution, and in order to strengthen the national foundation, the promulgation of the Constitution is to be hurried as much as possible. A committee for studying the Constitutional system was appointed to investigate the subject.

**NOTE.**—On March 1, 1934, third anniversary of the establishment of the new State, Manchoukuo established an imperial dynasty, and named the country Manchoutikuo (大滿洲帝國) or the Empire of Manchou. The new era was named Kangte (康德), and Chief Executive Pu Yi was enthroned as the first Emperor. At the same time, the former Government Organization Law was abolished, and the National Organization Law (refer to Addendum II) which is regarded as the provisional Constitution until the promulgation of the Constitution was published, announcing the State to be a constitutional monarchy.

*Privy Council (參議府).*—The Privy Council gives its opinion at the request of the Chief Executive on laws, Chief Executive ordinances, budget, negotiations and treaties with foreign powers, declarations to for-



Emperor Kang-té of Manchoukuo. The Emperor and suite leaving the Enthronement hall.



eign countries made in the name of the Chief Executive, appointment of important officials, and other important State affairs; and may also submit its opinion to the Chief Executive in respect to important State affairs, without the request of the Chief Executive.

*Independence of Four Authorities.*—Manchoukuo has adopted the system of the independence of legislative, judicial, administrative, and supervisory authorities. The administrative organization of modern States usually is the system of the independence of the three authorities of legislation, justice, and administration, but Manchoukuo has followed the system of independence of four authorities by making the supervisory authority also independent, a special feature of the administrative organization of Manchoukuo. The system is also different from that of the so-called five authorities adopted in China that made legislation, justice, administration, supervision, and examination independent.

*Guarantee of the People's Right.*—The people of Manchuria formerly were not guaranteed safety of life, but Manchoukuo issued the Law for Guaranteeing the People's Rights, and thus guaranteed the freedom and rights of the people and at the same time defined the duties of the people, and promised them enlightened administration. In the Law for Guaranteeing the People's Rights, it is specially stipulated that the people of Manchoukuo will be protected from high interest rates, profiteering, and all other unfair economic oppression. In this is manifested the Wangtao administration, the ideal of Manchoukuo.

#### Central Government

The Central Government consists of the Legislative Council (立法院), Council of State Affairs (國務院), Courts (法院) and Supervisory Council (監察院), according to the basic principle of the independence of administration, legislation, justice and supervision.

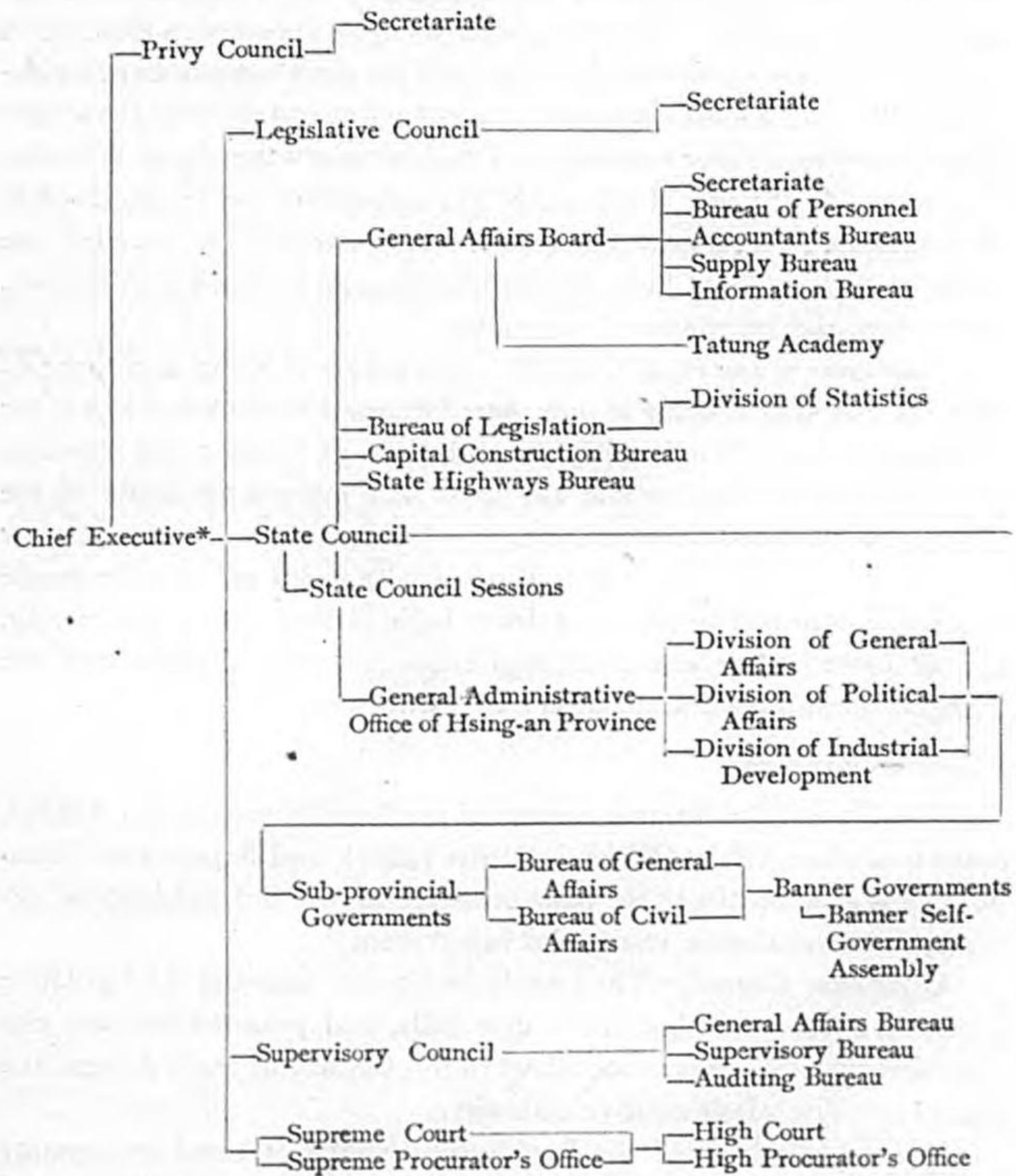
*Legislative Council.*—The Legislative Council exercises the legislative authority, approves the law and budget bills, and possesses the authority of presenting opinions on state affairs to the Council of State Affairs, the organ exercising administrative authority.

The organization of the Legislative Council is based on separate regulations. One point to be noted is that the Legislative Council of Manchoukuo is not on the bicameral system, being unicameral. The members of the Legislative Council are appointed by the Chief Executive from among able persons of Manchoukuo, thus to enable the Council to fully exercise its authority, and to accomplish in its political (to p. 78)

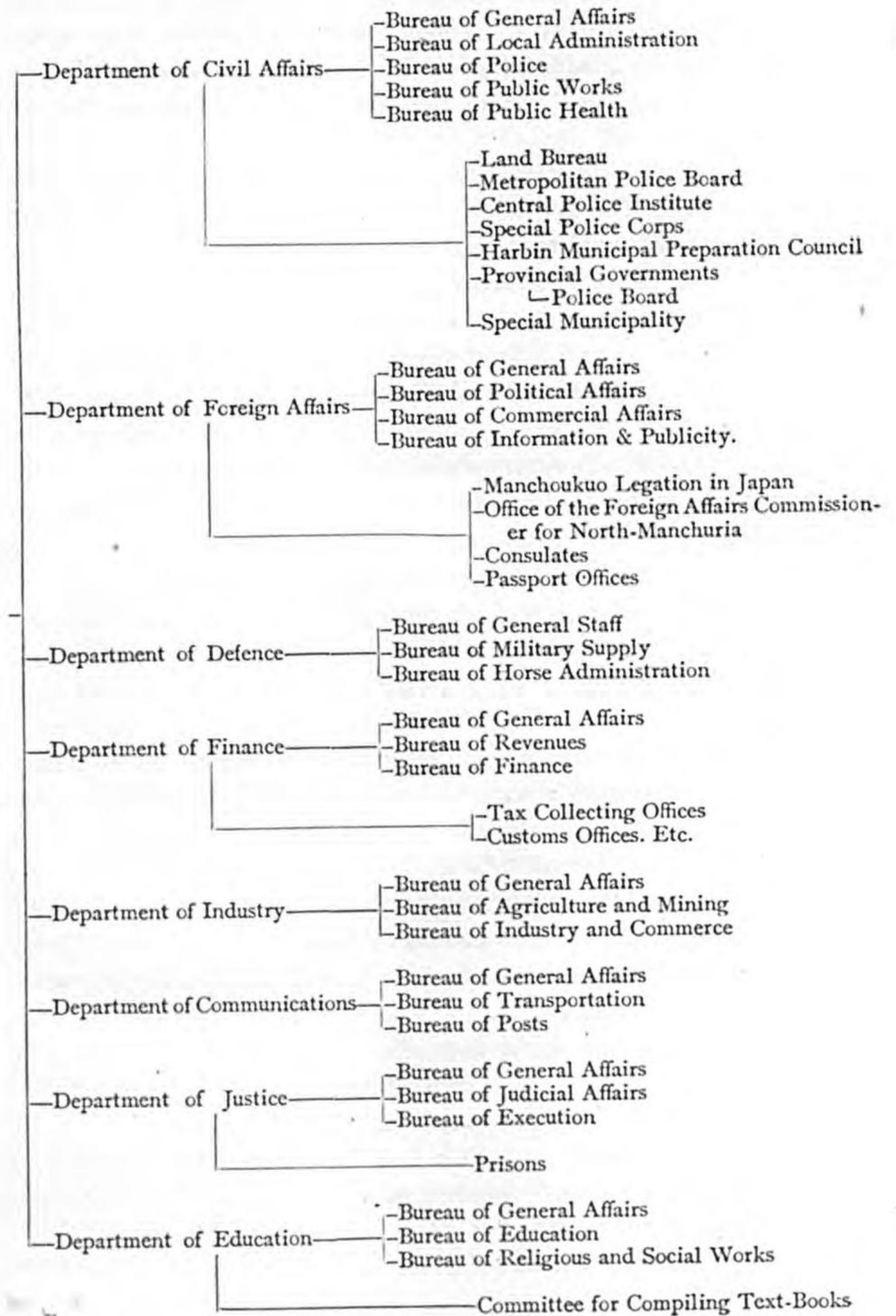


DIAGRAMMATIC CHART OF GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATION

(Abridged Form)



\* See Note on p. 74





organization true application of the principle of the harmony of the five races—Han, Manchu, Mongol, Japanese, and Korean—the basic sentiment underlying the establishment of Manchoukuo. The establishment of Manchoukuo being still recent, the organization law of the Council has not yet been issued.

*Council of State Affairs.*—The Council of State Affairs is the organ exercising administrative authority, and handles all administrative affairs under the instructions of the Chief Executive. Under the Council are the eight departments of Civil Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Defence, Finance, Industry, Communications, Justice, and Education. Organs under its direct control are the General Affairs Board, the Bureau of Legislation, and the General Administrative Office of Hsingan (Khingan) Province. The Prime Minister has the duty of assisting the Chief Executive by counter-signing laws, ordinances, military orders, and messages concerning State affairs, together with the Ministers of the Departments concerned; he supervises and directs the ministers of all departments under the orders of the Chief Executive; and he manages the affairs of national administration and is responsible for the national administration. The Prime Minister and the Ministers of all departments have at any time the right of attending the Legislative Council's sessions and expressing opinions, but they have no right to vote.

To unify administrative affairs under the Council of State Affairs and to secure cooperation among the various departments, and to maintain general balance, the Conference of the Council of State Affairs is instituted. At the conference of the Council of State Affairs, the Prime Minister presides, and the conference is attended by the Ministers of all departments, the Chief of the General Affairs Board, the Chief of the Bureau of Legislation, and the Chief of the General Administrative Office of Hsingan Province, or their representatives.

The following five groups of state affairs are required to be submitted to the conference of the Council of State Affairs:

1. Laws, ordinances, military orders, and budgets.
2. Treaties with foreign powers, and important diplomatic affairs.
3. Disputes over jurisdiction and authority among the various departments.
4. Expenditures not included in the budget.
5. Other important state affairs.

*General Affairs Board.*—The General Affairs Board is directly attached to the Council of State Affairs, is controlled by the Prime Minister, and

handles affairs relating to secret matters, personnel, accounting, and the requirements of the various departments.

The General Affairs Board is called the central organ of the Council of State Affairs as it handles not only budgets but also national policies. In Manchoukuo, the Department of Finance takes charge only of the National Treasury and the financial administration; the basic principles in forming the state budget and its assessment are controlled by the Prime Minister who has the authority of making administrative decisions in the General Affairs Board, the organ for establishing national policies.

*Bureau of Legislation.*—The Bureau of Legislation belongs to the Council of State Affairs, and handles the following matters:

1. Drafting and examining projects of laws, ordinances, military orders, and Council orders.
2. Examination of projects of treaty ratification.
3. Custody of the original copies of laws, ordinances, military orders, messages, and Council orders.
4. Investigation and study of legal systems of other countries.

Also, the Division of Statistics is attached to the Bureau of Legislation.

*General Administrative Office of Hsingan Province.*—The General Administrative Office of Hsingan Province is under the Council of State Affairs; it handles the general administrative affairs of Hsingan Province, and assists the Prime Minister in the affairs of the Mongol Banners in certain designated areas.

The Governor of the General Administrative Office of Hsingan Province controls the affairs of the office, supervises and directs officials under him and chiefs of the branch administrative offices, and is authorized to issue orders respecting the administrative affairs within the province according to his authority or under special commission. The General Administrative Office of Hsingan Province consists of the Division of General Affairs, Division of Political Affairs, and Division of Industrial Development.

*Supervisory Council.*—The Supervisory Council is under the direct control of the Chief Executive; it occupies a position independent of the Council of State Affairs, and handles the affairs of supervising and auditing.

If the Supervisory Council, which is to point out illegalities committed by officials, and supervises and examines the budgets of all government offices and their accounts, were placed under the administrative organ,



there would be danger of it not being able to fulfil its duties, and consequently the law of organization of Manchoukuo made the Supervisory Council independent, in order to clearly establish the independence of the four authorities of administration, legislation, supervision and justice. Not only is the Supervisory Council independent of the Council of State Affairs, but the positions of the Supervisors (監察官) and Auditors (審計官) are guaranteed by regulations. Thus the exercise of the supervisory authority is planned to be fully carried out to prevent or remove all illegalities.

*Courts.*—The courts are the organs for the exercise of justice, to try civil and criminal cases according to law. It is the three-courts system, viz.: District Court, High Court, and Supreme Court. The judges perform their duties independently, and cannot be removed from office except by criminal or disciplinary trial. Nor can they be suspended from office, transferred to other posts or places, or have their salaries reduced, against their wish. Thus their positions and duties are fully protected.

*Departments.*—The Ministers of all Departments of the Council of State Affairs are controlled by the Prime Minister and are responsible for their respective branches of State affairs. They have the duty of counter-signing laws, ordinances, military orders, and messages concerning state affairs, together with the Prime Minister.

All Ministers may ask for convocation of the Council of State Affairs respecting their respective affairs, and can also issue departmental orders according to their authority or special commission. Ministers supervise and direct provincial governors, excepting the Governors of sub-provinces of Hsingan, the Governor of North Manchuria Special District, and Chief of the Police Bureau; and may issue instructions or advice to those subordinate officials. There are the following eight departments.

(a) Department of Civil Affairs. The Minister of the Department of Civil Administration manages affairs concerning local administration, police, civil engineering works, and sanitation; supervises provincial governors (excepting the governors of the sub-provinces of Hsingan), Governor of the North Manchuria Special District, and Chief of the Police Bureau. The Department of Civil Administration consists of five bureaus: Bureau of General Affairs, Bureau of Local Administration, Bureau of Police, Bureau of Public Works, and Bureau of Public Health.

(b) Department of Foreign Affairs. The Minister of the Department of Foreign Affairs supervises and directs the envoys and consuls sta-

tioned abroad, and handles affairs concerning diplomatic negotiations, foreign trade and the protection of Manchoukuo nationals residing abroad. The Department of Foreign Affairs consists of four bureaus: Bureau of General Affairs, Bureau of Commercial Affairs, Bureau of Political Affairs, and Bureau of Information and Publicity. Also the Department maintains the Office of the Foreign Affairs Commissioner for North Manchuria at Harbin, and the Legation at Tokyo, for handling diplomatic affairs.

(c) Department of Defence. The Minister of the Department of Defence handles affairs concerning national defence, troop operation, military administration, land and river survey, and horses. The Department of Defence consists of three bureaus: Bureau of General Staff, Bureau of Military Supply, and Bureau of Horse Administration.

(d) Department of Finance. The Minister of the Department of Finance handles affairs concerning taxation, monopoly, currency, banking control, and State properties. The Department of Finance consists of three bureaus: Bureau of General Affairs, Bureau of Revenues, and Bureau of Finance.

(e) Department of Industry. The Minister of the Department of Industry handles affairs concerning agriculture, forestry, stock farming, mining, commerce, manufacture, and other industries.

The Department of Industry consists of four bureaus: Bureau of General Affairs, Bureau of Agriculture and Forestry, Bureau of Mining, and Bureau of Industry and Commerce.

(f) Department of Communications. The Minister of the Department of Communications handles affairs concerning railway, automobile, transportation, waterways, harbours, steamships, air transportation, postal service, telegraph service and other general transportation and communications. The Department of Communications consists of three bureaus: Bureau of General Affairs, Bureau of Postal Affairs, and Bureau of Transportation.

(g) Department of Justice. The Minister of the Department of Justice supervises courts and prosecutorates, and handles civil cases, criminal cases, non-trial cases, and other affairs concerning judicial administration. The Department of Justice consists of three bureaus: Bureau of General Affairs, Bureau of Judicial Affairs, and Bureau of Execution.

(h) Department of Education. The Minister of the Department of Education handles affairs concerning education, religion, festivals and national thoughts. The Department of Education consists of three



bureaus: Bureau of General Affairs, Bureau of Education, and Bureau of Religions and Social Works.

#### Local Administration

*Outline.*—The organs for local administration are Province, Special District, Hsien, Chi, Special Municipality, Village, and District.

Under the Chang Hsueh-liang government, a province almost constituted a nation, each province having a feudalistic despotism, with its own courts, army, police, independent currency and banking systems. But the Manchoukuo Government, aiming at the centralization of its authority, does not permit arbitrary acts of the provinces as formerly practised, and has greatly restricted their authority, and provincial finance offices are not established, so as to deprive the provinces of actual power in financial matters. To the governor of a province is not accorded such powerful authority as was granted before. Consequently, the position of the provincial governments under the new system of the Manchoukuo Government is nothing but that of intermediate organs of connection between the central government and the local administrative organs within the provinces. In the present transitional period of the new government, however, officials in important posts of the central government are appointed additionally as governors of provinces, but this is only an unavoidable temporary expedient at the commencement of the new state. With the development of the new government, it seems that the policy of making the post of provincial governor separate from a position in the central government will be adopted.

*Sheng (省) or Province.*—There are the five provinces of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang, Jehol and Hsingan (Khingán) of which the last is placed under the supervision and direction of the General Administrative Office of Hsingan Province, of the Council of State Affairs. In each province (excepting Hsingan Province) is a Provincial Office (省公署), and the Provincial Governor, under the direction and supervision of the Prime Minister and the ministers of all the departments, executes laws and orders, handles administrative affairs, directs and controls subordinate officials, and supervises and directs district magistrates according to his authority or under special commission. Although the Provincial Governors have to appeal to the Prime Minister when military forces are required for the maintenance of peace and order, in cases of urgency they may demand the despatch of troops from the commanders of troops locally stationed.

The Provincial Office consists of five bureaus: Bureau of General

Affairs, Bureau of Civil Administration, Bureau of Police Affairs, Bureau of Industry, and Bureau of Education.

*Hsingan Province.*—The administrative area of Hsingan Province is a vast territory including the Khingan Range district, Hulunbuir district, Chemuli district of Mongolia, and northern one-third of the former Jehol Province; the territory includes practically the vast district north of the Shilamulen River; it borders Siberia in the north, Chahar of Mongolia in the west, and Jehol Province in the south. The province is divided into the Hsingan Tungfensheng (興安東分省), Hsingan Hsifensheng (興安西分省), Hsingan Nanfensheng (興安南分省), and Hsingan Peifensheng (興安北分省). Each sub-province has a sub-provincial office.

The Governor of a Fensheng or sub-province is under the supervision and direction of the Governor of the General Administrative Office of Hsingan; he executes laws and manages administrative affairs within his district, and also directs and supervises officials under him; he also supervises and directs Banner chiefs according to his authority or special commissions. The Fensheng Office consists of the Bureau of General Affairs, Bureau of Civil Affairs, and Bureau of Hsingan Police.

*North Manchuria Special District (北滿特別區).*—The administration of the Tungsheng Special District (東省特別區) was not changed even after the establishment of Manchoukuo, and Governor Chang Ching-hui (張景惠) of the District was still kept in office although he is at Hsinking as the Minister of the Department of Defence. But with the promulgation of the Harbin Special Municipality System on June 21, 1933, the name was changed to the North Manchuria Special District and its area was defined as the former area of the Tungsheng Special District except the area of the Harbin Special Municipality. The District thus came to be administered under the new system since July 1, 1933.

According to the new system, the Governor of the Special District is under the supervision and direction of the Minister of the Department of Civil Administration, executes laws, handles administrative affairs within the Special District, supervises and directs officials under him, and is able to issue district orders respecting the administrative affairs of the District according to his authority or under special commission.

When the Governor requires troops for maintaining peace and order, he has to apply to the Minister of the Department of Civil Administration. But in case of emergency, he may demand the despatch of troops of the commander of locally stationed troops. Formerly the Governor possessed administrative, diplomatic and military authority, but the



Governor under the new system does not possess such authority, and his power is greatly restricted.

The Office of the Special District consists of the Bureau of General Affairs, Bureau of Administration, Bureau of Police Affairs, Bureau of Education, and Bureau of Lands.

*Hsien* (縣) or *District*.—A province is divided into several Hsien or Districts, while some hsien have autonomy, and others do not. Autonomous hsien have the Hsien Autonomous system, whereas other hsien have the Hsien Government system.

According to the Hsien Autonomous system, the hsien, an autonomous organ, is a legal body and under the supervision of the central government, and within its jurisdiction given by law, has authority to handle public affairs and other matters relating to the hsien. The inhabitants of such autonomous hsien have rights and obligations according to the Hsien Autonomous system. The magistrate of the hsien controls its administration under the direction and supervision of the governor of the province, and is empowered to demand aid from the commander of the locally stationed troops in time of emergency.

In autonomous hsien is organized the Hsien Self-Governing Committee of seven to fifteen members according to the number of households in each hsien. The committee is to be called in session at least once a year by the hsien magistrate. The committee is to discuss the following matters:

1. Estimated accounts and settlement of accounts of the hsien.
2. Adoption and abolition of hsien regulations.
3. Imposition of hsien taxes, charges and rentals, and exaction of service and goods.
4. Flotation of hsien loans and changes of loan terms.

The committee is also to submit views on administrative affairs, in order to assist in the important affairs of the hsien administration.

The autonomous hsien office has a Bureau of General Affairs, and a Bureau of Civil Administration, Bureau of Police Administration and Bureau of Industry. In case of necessity the Hsien Magistrate may also establish a Bureau of Education, Bureau of Civil Engineering and Bureau of Sanitation with the sanction of the Director of the Bureau of Civil Administration of the provincial government.

The Hsien Government system applied to hsien where the hsien autonomous system is not adopted does not differ much from the hsien autonomous system, except only in matters respecting self-government.

*Chi* (旗) or *Banner*.—Formerly utilization of the Banner lands of all the sub-provincial districts of Hsingan was prohibited except in the case of the originally inhabiting Mongolian Bannermen cultivating or utilizing them for pasturing or other purposes. But at present those who have lawfully obtained land rights can use the Banner lands just the same as the originally inhabiting Banner people, when they secure the permit of the Governor of the General Administrative Office of Hsingan Province.

A Banner is a legal body, under the supervision of the State, and handles public affairs within the stipulations of law, and also affairs concerning the Banner according to law. The Banner's area is the administrative district called Chi under the national system. All people residing within the Banner are the Banner residents, and possess rights and obligations equally under the Banner system. The Banner can issue Banner laws and regulations concerning the rights and obligations of the residents and autonomous affairs. But such laws and regulations have to obtain the sanction of the Governor of the General Administrative Office of Hsingan Province, and must be proclaimed according to a set formula.

The Banner Chief controls the administration of the Banner, represents the Banner, supervises and directs officials under him, reports to the Governor of the General Administrative Office of Hsingan Province through the Sub-provincial Governor respecting the movements of upper officials, arbitrarily decides the movements of lower officials, issues Banner orders regarding the matters under his control according to his authority or under special commission, and can request the despatch of troops of the Commander of the locally stationed troops when troops are required in case of emergency.

The Banner Office consists of the General Affairs Section, Home Affairs Section, and Police Administration Section.

In some Banners are established the Banner Self-Government Assembly which is formed of 5 to 21 Assemblymen. The term of Assemblymen is three years, and their position is honorary.

The Banner Self-Government Assembly is called at least once every year by the Banner Chief, or when more than one-half of the Assemblymen desire its convocation it has to be called. The duration of the session is decided by the Banner Chief.

The Banner Self-Government Assembly can submit to the Banner Chief or other offices opinions regarding the matters concerning the public welfare of the Banner. The following matters have to receive the ap-



proval of the Banner Self-Government Assembly.

1. Estimates and accounting of revenue and expenditure of the Banner.
2. Collection of Banner taxes, fees, and charges; and commandeering of labour and goods.
3. Expenditure outside the budget.
4. Adoption and abolition of Banner laws and regulations.
5. Supervision and disposal of capital properties, and equipments.

Other matters considered important by the Banner Chief may be submitted to the Banner Self-Government Assembly.

The Banner can levy Banner taxes, and commandeer labour and goods from the residents of the Banner. The Banner is to bear the responsibility of meeting the expenditures required for carrying out the affairs detailed to it by law and also its public welfare works. The Banner meets such expenses with the revenue from properties, Banner taxes, fees, charges, fines, and other revenues belonging to the Banner according to laws. When there is a shortage on account of unavoidable circumstances, the Banner may receive subsidies from the nation with the approval of the Governor of the General Administrative Office of Hsingan Province.

**Special Municipality.**—The Manchoukuo Government announced the Special Municipality system on August 17, 1932. According to this system, Special Municipalities are under the direct supervision of the State, as legal bodies, and are not under the administrative authority of the province. According to the stipulations of law, Special Municipalities handle their administrative affairs, and people residing within Special Municipalities possess the right to commonly utilize the properties and facilities of Special Municipalities as their citizens, and bear the duty of sharing the expenditures of Special Municipalities.

In Special Municipalities are the Special Municipality Offices. The Mayor controls the administrative affairs of the Special Municipality, represents it, directs and supervises officials under him, and has to report to the Minister of the Department of Civil Administration respecting the movements, rewards or punishments of such officials.

A Special Municipality Office has the Bureau of General Affairs, Bureau of Administration, Bureau of Works, and Bureau of Finance. Also there is the Special Municipality Self-Government Assembly of 15 members who are selected by the Mayor with the approval of the Minister of the Department of Civil Administration from among citizens possessing the following qualifications:

1. Men of proper knowledge and experience, who enjoy good reputation.
2. Men of more than 25 years of age, who have resided within the Special Municipality continuously for more than two years.

Military men on active service, police officers, students and others cannot be appointed members of the Assembly.

All important affairs concerning the Municipal administration have to be submitted to the Assembly for approval, and such matters include (1) adoption, revision or abolition of Special Municipality laws, (2) appropriations and accounting of the Special Municipality, (3) flotation of Special Municipal bonds and revision of their terms, and (4) responsibilities outside the budget and the surrender of privileges. Also the Assembly may submit its opinions respecting the public welfare of the city to the Government offices concerned.

The Special Municipality can levy city taxes on the citizens. Persons residing within the Special Municipality more than three months have the duty of paying taxes from the beginning of their residence. Although one may not reside in the Special Municipality or not remain there more than three months, in case he possesses or uses lands, buildings or properties or conducts business or other definite activities, he has the duty of paying the city taxes levied on such lands, buildings, properties, or his business or other activities.

At present the Special Municipalities in Manchoukuo are only Hsinking and Harbin. Hsinking was made a Special Municipality on April 19, 1933, and Harbin on July 1, 1933. Their respective areas had been much increased from what constituted their areas before the adoption of the Special Municipality system. Hsinking is expected to have seven times the present population and ten times the present area when the present plan of establishing the capital city is completed. The area of the Harbin Special Municipality also is great, consisting of the following:

1. Harbin City, North Manchuria Special District (area controlled by the Municipal Control Bureau of the former Tungsheng Special District).
2. Harbin Special City, North Manchuria Special District (wharf district and new town).
3. Pinkiang City, Kirin Province (Fuchiatic).
4. Sungpo City, Heilungkiang Province.
5. Pinkiang-hsien, Kirin Province.
6. 31 villages within Acheng-hsien, Kirin Province.



7. 10 villages within Hulan-hsien, Heilungkiang Province.

**Chu (區) and Tsun (村).**—In Hsien, there are chu (區) and tsun (村) as local autonomous organs. But autonomy in this case is much different from the autonomy of hsien. That is to say, it is not legal autonomy defined by legal ideals as in modern countries. It is the so-called people's autonomy which traditionally developed in Chinese farming villages.

### Police System of Manchoukuo

**Outline.**—Under Chang Hsueh-liang's rule, the police system differed according to provinces and districts, and there was no unification. There were also various special policing organs besides the general police (refer to 2. Administration of the Four Northeastern Provinces prior to the Establishment of Manchoukuo). Furthermore, the punishment by the police was often corrupt, because too much room was given to discretion. High officials in the police service mostly obtained their position by purchase or personal relations, and the training of policemen was imperfect, in many cases. The habit of bribe receiving was practiced by the high police officials as well as the common policemen. As the salaries of the lower officials were small, they could not support their families unless they make illegal practices. This was one of the strong causes of such corruption of the police force. The expenditure of the police was mostly under the contract system.

Thus sometimes the police levied taxes upon the people or commandeered money for various expenses. In some districts, the police were not clearly differentiated from the troops, and military men often arrested and punished the people, infringing upon the duties of the police.

Giving full consideration to such evil practices of the past, the Manchoukuo Government decided to unify the police system, improve the police personnel, train police officers, and thus to perfect the police administration. Some of the improvements made by the new Government will be explained.

**Division of the Police Jurisdiction.**—The Government clearly defined the jurisdiction of all police offices, in order to make the operation of the police system convenient. The division of the police jurisdiction was declared as follows on Mach 29, 1932.

1. The police authority of Manchoukuo belongs to the control of the Central Government.
2. Tungsheng (later North Manchuria) Special District Police

Office is to be supervised and directed by the Governor of the Special District (on March 3, 1933, the Harbin Police Office was established, and the Tungsheng Special District Police Office was included in the new Office, under the control of the Minister of the Department of Civil Affairs).

3. The police of the capital will be directly controlled by the Minister of the Department of Civil Affairs.
4. The police of Mukden, Yingkow, Chinchow, Tsitsihar, Antung, Kirin, and other places formerly belonged to the control of the respective cities, but were placed under the direct control of provincial governors.
5. The police of all hsiens will handle all police affairs under the direction and supervision of the Hsien magistrates.
6. The railway guards of various railways will be, for the present, handled according to the former regulations (refer to the item, Administration of the Four Northeastern Provinces Prior to the Establishment of Manchoukuo).

According to the above jurisdiction, police organs are established in the capital, provinces, cities, hsiens, Banners and others as follows:

**Police Organs.**—*Metropolitan Police Board* (首都警察廳).—The Metropolitan Police Board or the police of the capital is under the direct control of the Department of Civil Affairs, and handles the police affairs of the capital and Changchun-hsien. There are established the Police Affairs Section, Special Service Section, Peace Preservation Section, Judicial Affairs Section, and Public Health Section. The Police Affairs Section handles ordinary police affairs; Special Service Section handles secret service and affairs connected with foreigners; Peace Preservation Section supervises the peace preservation duties, fire and flood fighting; Judicial Section handles judicial police matters; Public Health Section handles sanitary policing. If necessary, a Foreign Affairs Section may be established with the sanction of the Minister of the Department of Civil Affairs. The Chief of the Metropolitan Police Board is called the Inspector-General of Police, and at present Hsiu Chang-yu (修長餘) occupies the post.

**Provincial Police Boards.**—Provincial Police Boards are under the Provincial Governments, and handle affairs concerning policing, public health, prohibition of opium smoking, and settlement of disputes. The Chief of the Provincial Police Board receives orders from the Provincial Governor respecting the execution of police affairs, and directs and



supervises police officers.

*Police Boards.*—Police Boards are directly under the Provincial Governor, and handle police affairs within their respective jurisdictions. The Chief of the Police Board may request the commander of the locally stationed troops to send troops when they are required in case of emergency. The Police Board has a Police Affairs Section, Special Service Section, Peace Preservation Section, Judicial Affairs Section, and Public Health Section. At present Police Boards are at Mukden, Kirin, Tsitsihar, Yingkow, Antung, Chinchow, Hailar, Yenching, Heiho, Fushun, and Chengte.

*Harbin Police Board.*—At Harbin the Harbin Police Board was opened on March 3, 1933, by reforming the former Tungsheng Special District Police Board. It is under the direct control of the Minister of the Department of Civil Affairs, and handles the police affairs within the area of the Harbin Special Municipality. The Police Board has a Police Affairs Section, Special Service Section, Foreign Affairs Section, Peace Preservation Section, Criminal Affairs Section, Public Health Section, and Tax Collection Section. Compared with other police boards, the duties of the Harbin Police Board are complicated. The Chief of the Police Board can request the commander of the locally stationed troops to send troops when they are required in case of emergency.

*Hsingan Police Bureau.*—The Hsingan Police Bureau is under the direct control of the Governor of the sub-province, and handles police affairs within its jurisdiction. At present the Hsingan Police Bureau is at Targhanwang-fu (達爾罕王府), Puhsi (布西), and Hailar (海拉爾). The Hsingan Police Bureau has a Police Affairs Section, Special Service Section, and Inspection Section. Under the Hsingan Police Bureau are the Police Stations. The Chief of the Hsingan Police Bureau may request the commander of the locally stationed troops to send troops when they are required in case of emergency, and also can command the Banner Protective Forces (旗保衛團) in case of necessity for executing its duties.

*Hsien Police Affairs Bureau.*—A Hsien Police Affairs Bureau belongs to each Hsien Office, and handles affairs concerning policing, fire fighting, and public health. The chief of the Hsien Police Affairs Bureau receives the orders from the Hsien chief respecting the execution of affairs of police, fire fighting, and public health, and supervises police officers and sub-officers.

*Banner Police Affairs Section.*—A Banner Police Affairs Section belongs to each Banner Office, and handles affairs concerning policing, public health, and self-protection organs.

*Special Police Corps.*—The Special Police Corps belong directly to the Department of Civil Affairs, and handle special policing affairs. They are divided into the Frontier Police Corps, the Mobile Police Corps, and Sea-shore Police Corps; the Frontier Police Corps guard the frontier within its district and prevent the entrance of unlawful persons or smuggling; the Mobile Police Corps are always moving within its district and undertake the subjugation of bandits, or keep watch for them; the Sea-shore Police Corps guard the shores in its district, and watch for unlawful entry of persons and smuggling, and also maintain peace and order on the sea.

The Special Police Corps at present organized are stationed at the following places and have the following names:

NAME	STATIONED AT
Manchouli Frontier Police Corps	Manchouli
Suifenho Frontier Police Corps	Aiho (愛河), Ningan-hsien.
Shanhaikwan Frontier Police Corps	Chienso (前所), Suichung-hsien
Heiho Frontier Police Corps	Heiho-hsien
Wafangtien Frontier Police Corps	Wafangtien, Fu-hsien
Sea-shore Police Corps	Yingkow, Yingkow-hsien
Mobile Police Corps	Hsinking, Changchun-hsien, Harbin

*Auxiliary Police Organs.*—In all hsiens there are Shangtuan (商團) and Tzuweituan (自衛團), which possessing the characteristics of auxiliary organs of the Police Office, handle local protection and policing affairs.

Shang Tuan is formed by the Shangwuhui (商務會), and Tzuweituan is organized by the general public. Both are for maintaining peace, suppressing bandits, and to assist in policing affairs. In Chu (區) and Tsun (村) there are self-protection organizations called Paochia (保甲).

Paochia is the self-protection system that developed in Manchuria, and it is now quite an improvement over former systems. The district controlled by one Police Board is divided into several sections, and in each section is organized a Paotung (保董). The section is again divided into Chia, with the Chia chief, and then the Chia is further divided into Pai (牌) with the Pai chief. Thus the residents of the section, chia, and pai are held jointly responsible for the maintenance of peace and order in their districts, and they all undertake the duty of maintaining peace.

*Police Education Organs.*—Recognizing the urgent need of properly educating police officials in order to effect the unification and improvement of the police system, the Manchoukuo Government has established



the following police training schools for advancing the knowledge, ability, and character of policemen:

1. Central Police Institute (Hsinking)  
The Institute has main, special, and research courses. The main course trains and teaches police officials already occupying superintending positions or those who desire to advance to such position. The special course trains and teaches those who are in special services or those who desire to engage in such special services. The research course enables policemen to make special studies of police system, criminal case, special service, foreign service, transportation, and fire fighting. The term of the main course is one year, and that of the special course six months; the term of the research course is decided by the President of the school.
2. Police Training Quarters, attached to the Central Police Institute. Chingshih (警士) or guards and acting guards are given the necessary training to become policemen, for a period of four months.
3. Training of Chingshih.  
For training Chingshih or guards, a Police Training Quarters is established at each District Police Board and Hsien Office. Necessary training, both theoretical and practical, are given for more than four months.

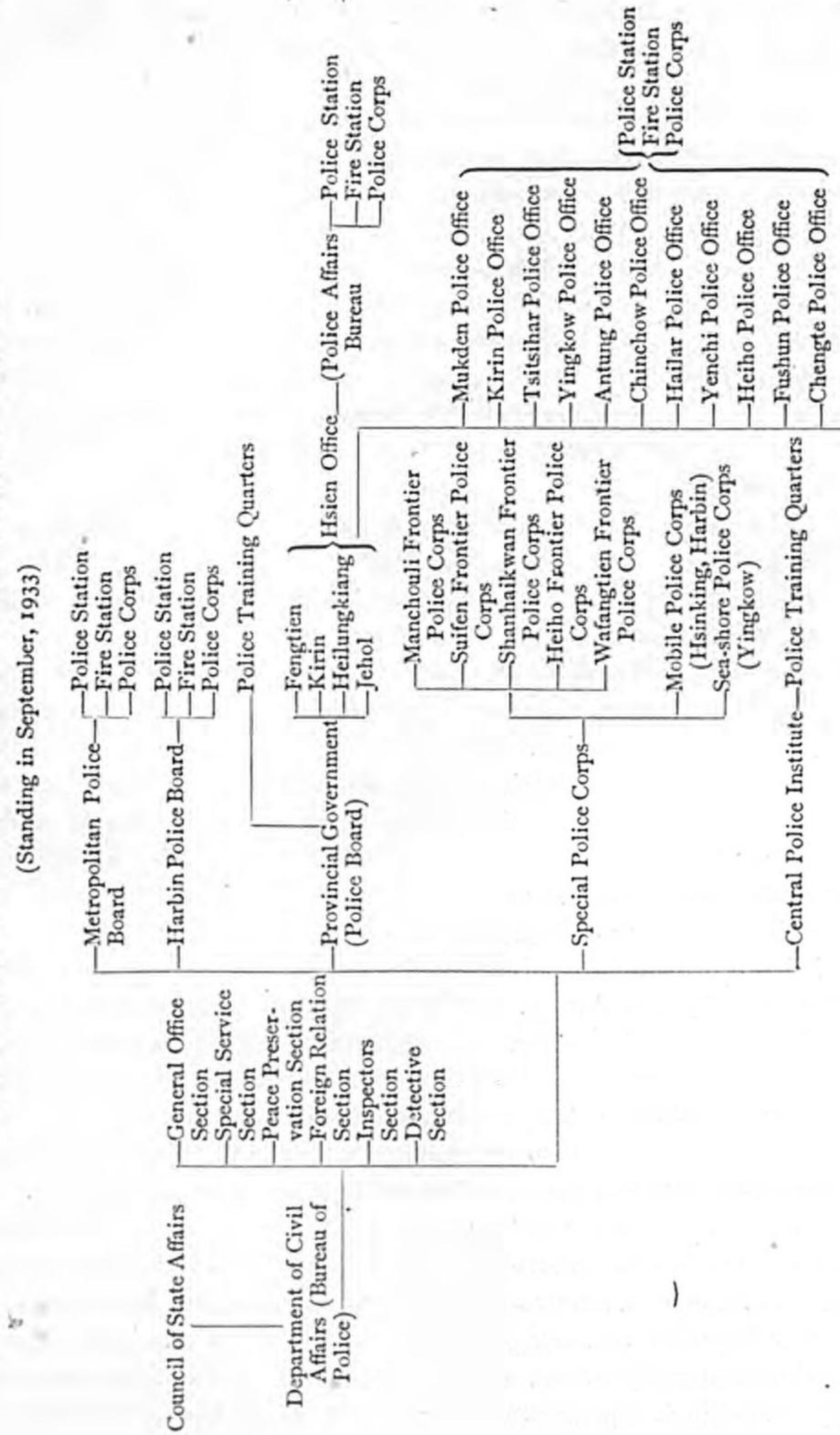
**Japanese Administration in Manchoukuo**

For administering the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone obtained as the result of the Russo-Japanese War, Japan placed the former under the Kwantung Government, and the latter under the South Manchuria Railway Company.

**Kwantung Leased Territory**

**A. Kwantung Government.**—When order in the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone was not yet firmly established, immediately after the conclusion of the Russo-Japanese War, Japan applied military administration to those districts, and establishing the Kwantung Government-General under a military Governor, had it control both the military and civil administrations. Later, as the Japanese administration developed favourably, it became no longer necessary to have a

PRESENT ORGANIZATION OF THE MANCHOUKUO POLICE SYSTEM  
(Standing in September, 1933)





military officer undertake the general administration, and in 1919 the Kwantung Government-General was abolished, and in its place was formed the Kwantung Government, stipulating that either a military or civil officer may be the Governor of the territory. For the control and command of the Japanese troops stationed there, the Headquarters of the Kwantung Army was established.

The main points of authority of the Governor of Kwantung are (1) jurisdiction of the Kwantung Leased Territory, (2) control of the policing affairs of the South Manchuria Railway Zone, (3) superintendence of the affairs of the South Manchuria Railway Company, (4) control of all administrative affairs under the supervision of the Minister of Overseas Affairs and foreign affairs under the supervision of the Minister of Foreign Affairs, and (5) demand for the use of troops to the Commander of the Kwantung Army.

The organization of the Kwantung Government at present is as follows:

Governor's Office—Secretariat—section of archives—section of foreign affairs—deliberative committee.

Bureau of Internal Affairs—local section—educational section—agriculture and forestry section—commerce and industry section—public work section.

Bureau of Police Affairs—police affairs section—special police section—peace preservation section—criminal affairs section—public health section.

Bureau of Finance—accounting section—financial section.

*Civil Administration Office.*—The Kwantung Leased Territory is divided into two administrative districts, and a civil administration office is established in each district. The Civil Administrator handles administrative affairs within the district, and directs chiefs of police stations.

At present the Civil Administration Office is at Port Arthur and Dairen. The Dairen Civil Administration Office has branch civil administration offices at Chinchow, Fulantien, and Pitzuwo for handling the administrative affairs of the respective sections.

*Subordinate Offices and Organs.*—Offices and institutions subordinate to the Kwantung Government are police stations, fire stations, courts, procuratorates, prisons, Communications Bureau, Monopoly Bureau, Marine Affairs Bureau, Engineering College and other schools, hospitals, agricultural experimental stations, sericultural experimental station, stud farm, aquatic products experimental station, exchange, museum, and others.

**B. Self-Government System—Municipal System.**—The Kwantung Leased Territory Municipal system was established in 1924 by Imperial Ordinance No. 130, and the system is now applied to Port Arthur and Dairen. The two cities have been made municipalities under the new system only recently, and as the citizens are both Japanese and Chinese, the organization of their deliberative organs is somewhat different from that of the municipal system adopted in Japan proper. The outline of the organization is as follows:

*Executive Organ.*—The Mayor who is the executive of the city is appointed by the Governor of the Kwantung Leased Territory out of three candidates recommended by the Municipal Assembly. The term of the Mayor is four years, and the post is honorary, in principle, but may be made a salaried one by regulation of the city. Supplementary officials to the Mayor are the Deputy Mayor, revenue officer, officials, committees, district chiefs and their representatives.

*Deliberative Organ.*—The Municipal Assembly is formed of Municipal Assemblymen elected or appointed, according to the regulations made by the Governor of the Kwantung Leased Territory. The total number of Assemblymen is at present 16 at Port Arthur, and 40 at Dairen. Of these, 14 at Port Arthur and 33 at Dairen are elected by public vote, and the remaining members are appointed by the Civil Administrator from among reputable and well established citizens. At present all the appointed Assemblymen are Chinese.

The cities also have Municipal Councils, formed of the Mayor, Deputy-Mayor, and six honorary councillors. Honorary councillors are elected by the Municipal Assembly from among the Assemblymen.

*Hui (會) or Kai.*—The Hui system existed from the time the territory was ruled by China, but it has been much improved since by the Japanese administration with the establishment of more educational organs, opening of plant nurseries, various industrial facilities, and other local developments. As the result of such progress, the Kwantung Leased Territory Kai system regulations were promulgated in 1925 by Imperial Ordinance No. 238, and thus the Kai system has made further progress toward self-government. The outline of the Kai system is as follows:

*Executive Organ.*—The Chief of Kai, who is the executive of Kai, is appointed by the Governor of the Kwantung Leased Territory, and his term is three years, the position being salaried as a rule, but may be made a honorary post. His subordinate officials are a vice-chief and accounting officials. In Kaitun (街屯), administrative division of the Kai, are the



Kaitun chief and vice-chief, who are either appointed or elected and approved by the Civil Administrator or Branch Civil Administrator.

*Council.*—As the organ to conduct examinations upon the request of the Kai chief, there is a council formed of the chief and councillors. The number of councillors is stipulated to be 8 to 20 according to the population of the district, and they are selected and appointed by the Civil Administrator or Branch Civil Administrator, from among the residents of the Kai.

#### South Manchuria Railway Zone

*Outline.*—Japan succeeded to the administrative rights in the South Manchuria Railway Zone as the result of the Russo-Japanese War, with the approval of China. The Japanese Government entrusted the policing affairs in the zone to the Kwantung Government (then the Kwantung Government-General), and facilities necessary for public works, education and sanitary affairs to the South Manchuria Railway Company, granting at the same time the authority for collecting charges from the residents in the zone and for levying other necessary expenses, with the sanction of the Government, to the Railway Company, for enabling it to meet the expenses of operating such facilities.

*Organization.*—According to Government instructions, the South Manchuria Railway Company undertook the administration of the Railway Zone in 1907 when the Company's business was commenced. The Company's organization for the local management had been repeatedly revised or improved, but as a general principle, the central organ is established within the Company's main office at Dairen, and local organs are opened at various important places for handling local affairs. As the central organ, there is established at present the Local Department, one of the six departments of the main office, for controlling local affairs. The Local Department is then divided into the General Affairs Section, Local Section, Educational Section, Commercial and Industrial Section, Agricultural Section, Sanitation Section, and Engineering Section, for handling respective branches of work. Local offices are under the direction of the Chief of the Local Department to handle local management of respective districts. Local offices are now at Wafangtien, Tashihchiao, Yingkow, Anshan, Liaoyang, Mukden, Tiehling, Kaiyuan, Ssuping kai, Kungchuling, Hsinking, Penhsihu, and Antung, 13 places.

Organs and institutions subordinate to the Local Department are: Schools—Manchuria Medical College, Manchuria Normal School, South

Manchuria Engineering School, numerous middle and primary schools; sanitary organs—Sanitary Laboratory, and 19 hospitals; libraries—at Dairen, Mukden and other places.

As mentioned above, the South Manchuria Railway Company has the privilege of taxing the inhabitants in the zone for paying the expenses for the local management, but with only the revenue of such taxes or charges, it is impossible to meet the expenditures of managing such a vast area, and the Company is giving a large subsidy to the local management annually. The Company organized a Local Committee in each district to give opinions to the Chief of the Local Office on revenue and expenditure, public charges and other items. The Committee is elected from among the residents in the district. Thus the Company has an organ for hearing the wishes and opinions of residents respecting various facilities and equipments of the district.

*Police.*—Police affairs of the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone are handled by the Kwantung Government. The Chief of the Bureau of Police Affairs supervises and directs Civil Administrators, Police Inspectors, Police Captains, Police Sergeants, policemen, and firemen, in respect of the execution of the policing, and sanitation within the territory under his control, following the instructions of the Governor of the Kwantung Leased Territory. A Police Inspector or Captain is appointed as the chief of the Police Station to handle the policing and sanitary affairs of the district. Within the Leased Territory, the Civil Administrator possesses the right of supervising and directing the chief of the Police Station and the chief of the Fire Station. Outside the Leased Territory, Japanese Consuls stationed in South Manchuria are additionally appointed officials of the Kwantung Government and are instructed to control the chief of the Police Station. In the Leased Territory there are eight Police Stations; the Port Arthur, Dairen, Dairen Water, Dairen Hsiaokwantzu, Dairen Shahokuo, Chinchow, Fulantien and Pitsuwo Police Stations. At Dairen there is one Fire Station. In the Railway Zone outside the Leased Territory there are 14 Police Stations at Wafang tien, Tashihchiao, Yingkow, Anshan, Liaoyang, Mukden, Fushun, Penhsihu, Tiehling, Kaiyuan, Ssuping kai, Hsinking and Antung.

To the six Consulates at Yingkow, Liaoyang, Mukden, Tiehling, Changchun and Antung, not far from the Railway Zone, Kwantung Government Police Officials are attached, and stationed at Consulate Police



Stations or policemen's stations, for handling the police affairs of the Consulates.

**Recent Changes in the Japanese Administrative System.**—The outbreak of the Manchurian incident and the subsequent independence of Manchoukuo made it necessary for Japan to unify the former Japanese administrative organs in Manchuria. The effort directed to the removal of the confusion brought about by the co-existence of the Kwantung Government, Kwantung Army, Consulates, and the South Manchuria Railway Company, which constitute the so-called 'Four-Heads Administration', resulted in the following plan of reform.

Although perfect and speedy unification of the various organs in Manchuria is desired, temporary unification is effected according to the following principles, under the present regulations and systems, for the present:

1. One person is actually to be Commander of the Kwantung Army, Governor of Kwantung Leased Territory, and Special Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo.
2. The organic law of the Kwantung Government is to remain in force without any change.
3. The Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary administers diplomatic and other administrative affairs under the instructions and supervision of the Foreign Minister and the Overseas Affairs Minister, and also directs and supervises the Japanese Consulates in Manchoukuo.
4. Assistants are to be attached to the Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary. Assistants holding other official posts may be excluded from the regular staff. Necessary matters respecting the salaries of the Ambassador and assistants are to be regulated separately by an Imperial Order.
5. The Special Service Division of the Kwantung Army is to remain in existence as before, and the staff of the Special Service Division may additionally be assistants to the Ambassador.
6. The educational, sanitary, and civil engineering work of the South Manchuria Railway Company will be, for the present, undertaken by the company as before.

Thus it is seen that the new administrative system was not formed by any revision of the existing regulations and laws, and by one person filling several posts actual unification has been effected.

General (later Field-Marshal) Muto was appointed Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo, and the new system was put into effect from August 8, 1932.

At the same time the office of the Ambassador, and of the assistants to the Ambassador, were established at Mukden. Later on October 30, these offices were removed to Hsinking, as were the Headquarters of the Kwantung Army.

As Field-Marshal Muto died on July 29, 1933, General Takashi Hishikari, Supreme War Councillor, was appointed his successor by the Emperor of Japan. Thus the Japanese organs in Manchoukuo were finally made to operate smoothly under perfect control.



## Addendum I

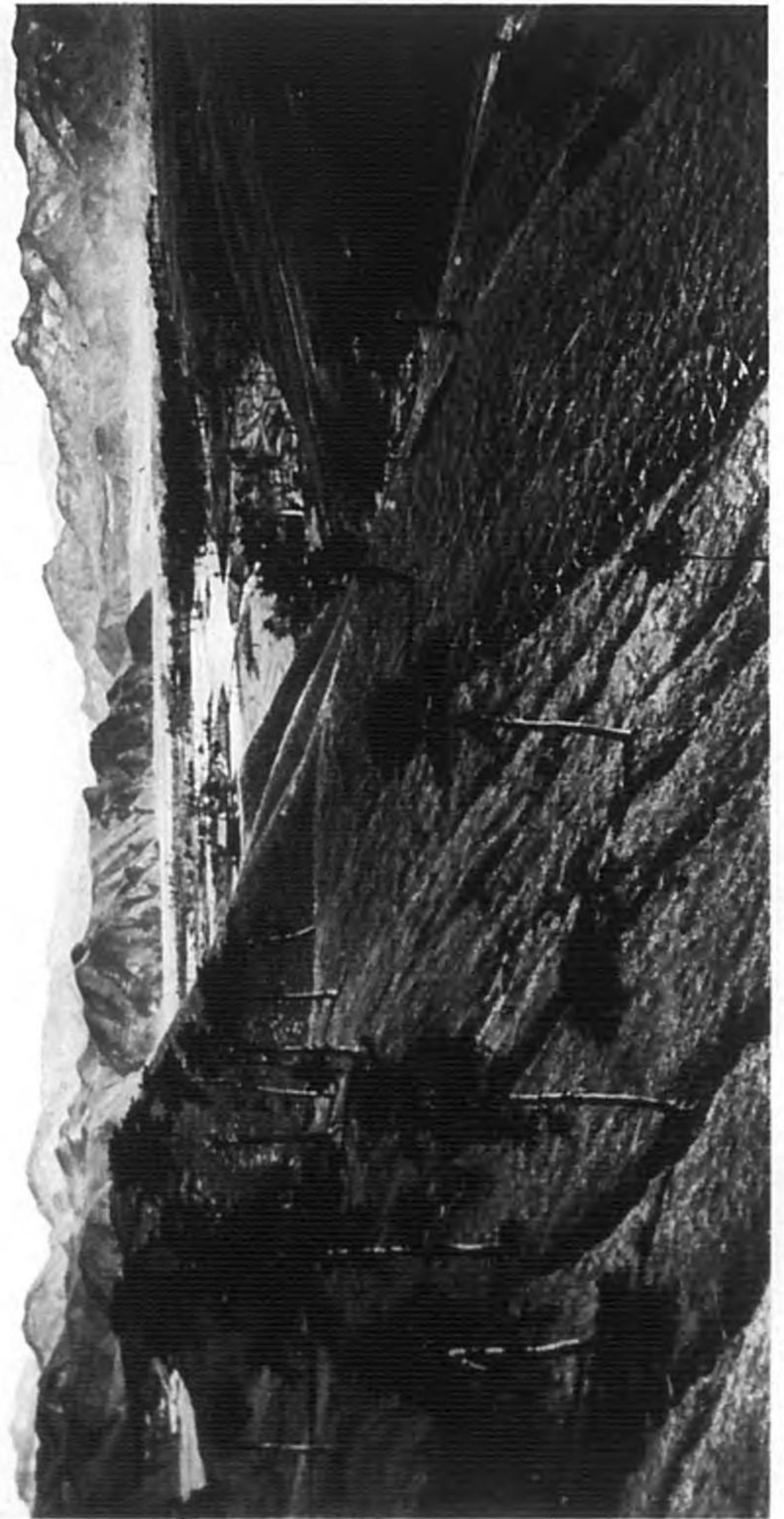
### WANGTAO—THE KINGLY WAY

*By Dr. Jin-ichi Yano*

Since its establishment the Manchoukuo Government has made the 'Wangtao administration' its ideal, and has expressed it at every opportunity. But as to the explanation of what is meant by the Wangtao administration, no general interpretation has yet been made in the name of the State, although partially expressed in the "General outline of economic construction policy" and other documents. At present, therefore, in order to comprehend the Wangtao administration we must depend upon the private explanations and interpretations made by scholars. Therefore, we publish in the following pages the views of Dr. Jin-ichi Yano, professor emeritus of Kyoto Imperial University, and counsellor of the East-Asiatic Economic Investigation Bureau, who is a leading authority in Japan on the subject. Of course, it cannot be definitely said whether his views conform in every point to what the Manchoukuo Government regards as its ideal.

Wangtao (王道) administration is a political system that has long been considered ideal in China. References made to it in ancient documents of China are mostly conceptual, there being given no definition that may be considered sufficient to explain it. But by comparing it with the polities of Western countries that developed on the basis of the principle of legal administration and capitalism, the special features of Wangtao may be recognized.

(1) While the polities of Western countries are based on the people's rights, the Wangtao polity follows the principle of the heavenly will. There is no Western country that does not recognize the people's rights, whether it be a republic or a monarchy, and the more the people's rights are recognized the better polity it is believed to be. In the Wangtao polity, the ruler reigns over the people as their parent, according to the heavenly will. The Shangshu (尚書) says that Heaven sends down the



Part of the former Imperial Palace garden at Chengde.



people and becomes their ruler and teacher ; Heaven does not speak, and the heavenly will becomes what the people desire. Also the same book says that Heaven sees what the people see, and hears what the people hear. Tung Chung-shu (董仲舒) of the Han dynasty says that the ruler deals with affairs by observing the heavenly will. The people's will in the Wangtao polity does not mean public desires based on selfishness and the self-interest of egoism and individualism as seen in the polity of the people's rights, but a moral and idealized sentiment expressing what is to be desired as by people sent down from Heaven. Therefore, the people's will in the Wangtao polity is also the heavenly will. Only when a man of virtue conforms to the heavenly will does the people's will follow him, and Heaven gives him the august order to rule the people.

In the polity based on the people's rights, it is believed that the country is to be governed by the people, and there exists the idea of government by the people ; there is a belief that the administrator is to feel responsibility to the people. But in Wangtao the people are always to be governed, taught, and guided. The ruler bears responsibility only to Heaven. The Shangshu says, 'if a hundred persons go wrong I alone am responsible,' and thus the ruler apologizes to Heaven as the wrongs and mistakes of the people are caused by evil administration and the ruler considers it his own fault that an evil administration is given.

(2) The polity of Western countries is of bureaucratic character, but that of Wangtao is based on the educational principle. In the administration of Western countries, the officials are only petty clerks to enforce laws and handle routine business, but yet they look down on the educators who are the teachers of the people and engaged in guiding them. In the Wangtao administration, the officials are not merely petty clerks enforcing laws and attending to routine business, but are to manifest the will of the ruler to the people, and are the teachers of the people to educate and guide them, in morality and propriety, sharing the duties of the ruler. Tung Chung-shui of Han says that chün (province) governors (郡守) and hsien (district) magistrates (縣令) are the teachers and commanders of the people, and are to distribute the benevolence of the ruler to the people and to educate and guide them by manifesting the virtues of the ruler. —*Life of Tung Chung-shui*. Chiuchün (丘濬) of Ming says that a teacher is to teach and command the people ; to teach the people is to make them know propriety, and to command the people is to make them serve in national affairs. Tung Chung-shui's statement that chün governors and hsien magistrates are the teachers of the people means that



local officials are not merely petty clerks to adjust books and records, to handle tax collection affairs, and to deal with court trials, but they are also to bear the responsibility of educating and guiding the people. The rulers of later days urged the local officials to the task of clerical work and did not give attention to the education and guidance of the people, and thus the original meaning of the appointment of such officials was lost. He says that as the period of Han was not very distant from ancient times, the responsibility of the local officials of guiding and teaching the people was discussed, following the ancient meaning.—(Tahsuehyenipu 大學衍義補). In China, down to the time of the Ching dynasty, the examination for officials was based on the meanings of the Four Books and Five Classics, and those who passed the examination were appointed hsien magistrates after becoming Chūjen (舉人) and Chinshih (進士). It was their main duty to educate and guide the people in morality and propriety, leaving the affairs of court trials and tax collection to minor officers under them. This was following the ancient idea that officials under Wangtao were responsible for the culture and education of the people.

(3) While the system of Western nations is to administer according to law, Wangtao is the principle of cultural training. In Western countries, freedom of pursuing desires of egoism and individualism is recognized, and for preventing the injury of others' interests and the public interest of the nation and society, such desires were to be restricted by laws and punishments, in order to achieve maintenance of the peace and order of the nation and society. That is to say, the principle of administering by law, or of the people's rights, was followed. In the moral polity, however, the ruler manifests the virtue of Heaven, gives the example of morality, and becomes the source of cultural training; the Prime Minister assists the virtue of the ruler with the ideal of making the ruler as great as that of Yao and Shun (堯舜) and making the people as those of Yao and Shun; all officials are to educate and guide the people in morality and propriety by manifesting the virtues of the ruler; and the people are to deal with others' parents with the same sense of respect they have for their own parents, to act toward others' children with the same love they have for their own, and to trust, love, and harmonize one another as though one big family—then the most peaceful and best ruled society will appear and there will be no need for laws and punishments. The Lunyü (論語) says when guided by virtue and regulated by propriety, all people will have the sense of shame and the people's mind will become righteous, and crimes naturally will not be committed; but on the other hand, if guided

by laws and regulations, and order maintained by punishments, the people will think that if they only evade punishments and laws, that is all they need to do, and thus become shameless, and consequently crimes will increase. Mengtzu (孟子) says that to act benevolence (仁) with virtue is Wangtao, and he means benevolent administration given with the moral mind. Tung Chung-shui also says that the rulers have to follow the heavenly will, and to engage in moral guidance but not in punishing. The Wangtao administration is the moral principle or the principle of moral guidance.

(4) The polity of Western nations is materialistic and aims at material happiness, but Wangtao is spiritual and aims at spiritual happiness. However great material happiness may be, it cannot be called happiness if there is no spiritual happiness, according to the conception of happiness in Wangtao. In the book of Mengtzu (孟子) it is written that the people of Hsia (夏) resented the tyrannic and cruel acts of King Chieh (桀) and hoped for the early ruin of the King even if they might be brought to their own ruin, and that when so hated by the people, however much the King might enjoy material pleasures, such as possessing magnificent houses, grand gardens, beautiful birds and strange animals, it gives no pleasure.

(5) While the polity of Western nations is of individualism and the majority, that of Wangtao is of mutualism and totalism. Western nations' administration aims at the greatest happiness of the greatest number of the people, and therefore good administration means only that the people who enjoy happiness are comparatively numerous, being satisfied by reducing the number of unhappy people as much as possible and by modulating the degree of their unhappiness, under the conception that the unhappiness of a certain portion of the people is unavoidable. Wangtao, however, aims at the happiness of the whole, and mutual happiness, not considering happiness not shared by all the people as true happiness, and believing that if a minor number of the people are unhappy, it cannot be called happiness even if the majority are happy. In the book of Mengtzu, it is mentioned that I Yin (伊尹) felt the responsibility and suffered if there was even one man or woman who did not enjoy the happiness of Yao and Shun, as if he had personally cast such a person into the mud of the gutter. In Wangtao, importance is given to the stability of the livelihood of the people, and the essential aim of the administration is to set the people's mind at ease and to provide them with livelihood. In the book of Mengtzu it is written that to enable the people to raise



children, to bury the dead and to feel no regret is the beginning of Wangtao. It is also mentioned that to enable the people to respect their parents and to take care of their wives and children is what a wise ruler must first accomplish. The people's stability in livelihood is required in any form of administration, and it is not restricted to Wangtao alone. But Wangtao is expected to enable all the people without any exception to enjoy stabilized life. In Western countries, that is believed to be impossible, but Wangtao believes it possible as by the moralization of political activities all the people will mutually love and harmonize as one family and will come to respect morality and propriety. In the chapter of Liyün (禮運) in the Lichi (禮記), it is written that when Wangtao is observed, all the people mutually love and harmonize as one family, and therefore the people never think it their loss when they alone work while others are not working and what they earn as the result of their work is divided with others who do not work, and coming to desire to work for others' sake, the aged will become able to perfect their life, the young will become able to use their power and will have no fear of non-employment, the little ones will be allowed to grow, and the widows, orphans, single, and diseased will also be properly taken care of.

(6) The politics of Western nations necessarily produce and develop capitalistic economy, but Wangtao demands economy of creation and production, following the theory that all things of the universe endlessly grow and create. Capitalistic economy originally developed as a means of production, but as it came to be established as capitalism, it so developed that productions that did not bring profit had to be restricted, because of its nature of pursuing profit. Thus production has become only a means of capitalism. In Wangtao, production that benefits human life is to be always encouraged according to the theory that all things of the universe permanently create and grow. In the chapter of Liyün in the Lichi it is mentioned that to leave materials that feed the life of the people undeveloped in the soil is like throwing away the benevolence of Heaven and Earth and is to be detested. In the ideal of Wangtao, all the people mutually love and harmonize as one family, and therefore there is no such evil as of restricting production in case the capital does not produce any profit and thus ameliorating the suffering of the poor, if there are poor persons; and all people use their strength and exert themselves for the exploitation of materials, wishing to bring happiness to the life of the people by supplying all the materials obtained by exploiting. The restriction of production

is regarded in the Wangtao ideal as a breach of trust, not appreciating and accepting the benevolence of Heaven and Earth. Although the production system in Wangtao is somewhat similar in form to communism, the motive is absolutely different, as while the latter is simple materialism, the former is absolutely moral principle.

(7) As in Western countries the freedom of the people is to pursue egoistic desires, the gap between rich and poor is necessarily very great, and the confrontation of social classes is invited; but Wangtao demands equal distribution of products among the people and wishes equality and peace of society, regarding it as the means of not causing either rich or poor in the community. In this sense, the administration of Western nations is of social inequality and conflict, while Wangtao is of social equality and peace. The Lunyü says: "One who possesses a country or a house, should worry if there is no equality without worrying about being small; without worrying about being poor, worry about not being peaceful; because when equal there will be no poor, when peaceful there will be no worry about smallness, and when peaceful there will be brought no ruin." Mengtzu also considered the system of giving an equal area of land to all people as the ideal system adopted in the ancient days of wise rulers. He also thinks that it is an ideal administration to give each household building land of 5 *mu* (畝) and 100 *mu* of farm land, thus to enable aged persons of 50 or 70 years to wear dresses of silk and eat meats.

(8) While the politics of Western countries are of racial discrimination and partiality, Wangtao is of racial equality and impartiality. In the book of Mengtzu it is written that the Emperor Shun (舜) was a man of an eastern foreign country, and King Wen (文王) was a man from a western foreign country; the Lunyü says that Confucius wanted to live in the eastern foreign country. In Wangtao there is no thought of racial discrimination. The Shangshu (尚書) says that Wangtao is vast without party, without partiality. Wangtao does not recognize any attempt to consider the interests of certain races or classes, and thereby restrict or oppress the interests of other races or classes. It hopes for the harmony and peace of all peoples, regardless of race or class. In the book of Mengtzu, it is written that to give upright administration with upright mind is Wangtao. To foster the interests of some races or classes without considering the disadvantages caused to other races or classes is not upright administration, and to give such administration is not of upright mind.



Then while the politics of Western nations are mostly militaristic, Wangtao is cultural, and that is one of the outstanding features of Wangtao.

The above are the features in which Wangtao differs from the law-governing and capitalistic systems of Western nations. In short, while the politics of Western nations recognize the people's pursuit of egoistic desires, and aim to secure the happiness of the people, peace of the community and safety of the nation, by outward means, Wangtao aims at the moralization of the people's desires by morality and propriety, and at securing the happiness of the people, peace of the community and safety of the nation by internal moral administration and moral economy.

Prime Minister Cheng Hsiao-hsu (鄭孝胥) of Manchoukuo wrote an outline of Wangtao administration in August, 1933, and said that patriotism and military education of the people are not compatible with Wangtao. He says that the object of patriotism is the mind to regard foreign countries as enemies, and military education of the people is a forerunner of war preparation; that such are the policies for national establishment or expansion, but are incompatible with Wangtao which aims at the harmony and friendship of the human race and the peace of the world. Of course such narrow patriotism as described by Premier Cheng is against Wangtao. When Wangtao is perfectly carried out, the virtue of the ruler will benefit the whole world and the world will become one, and therefore there will be brought about a peaceful world and there will not exist politically independent countries. In China, Wangtao was not practiced down to the time of the Ching dynasty, but yet she did not recognize independent nations, thinking that she was ruling over all the countries of the world, because Wangtao was her ideal. But the stage of Wangtao not yet being perfect, it is not absolutely necessary to recognize no independent nation. Mengtzu says that the basis of the world is the nations. For bringing about a peaceful world, administered countries are first necessary. As the denial of independent nations is not absolutely necessary, it is not necessary to deny patriotism. Such narrow patriotism as to regard foreign nations as enemies and to despise them is wrong. Patriotism that does not regard other countries as enemies is not to be despised. If one says patriotism does not exist without considering other countries as enemies, he is wrong. In the book of Mengtzu it is written that the virtuous man extends the thought for what he loves to what he does not love. What he does not love is not necessarily wrong—is only what has not caused him to love it. It is like the children and

parents of other people. The above saying means that the love one has for his own children and parents is to be extended to the children and parents of others whom he does not yet love. Mengtzu says that if our regard for our elders is extended to others' elders, and our love for our children is extended to others' children, it will be just as easy to administer the country as to turn over one's hand. Also it is mentioned that if benevolence is extended the whole world can be secured. To extend benevolence is the most important thing in the teachings of Confucius and Mengtzu. Premier Cheng had actually witnessed that the National Government of China had propagated extreme anti-Japanese sentiments under the name of patriotism and caused the Sino-Japanese dispute, and thus it is believed that he entertained extremely strong antipathy against such narrow patriotism. But he does not mean to say that whatever patriotism is against Wangtao absolutely. I believe that Manchoukuo must be made such an excellent country that the Chinese people in Manchoukuo will feel it great happiness and honour to be Manchurians, but that is to make the Chinese in Manchoukuo possess patriotism for Manchoukuo. When Manchoukuo becomes such a glorious country that the Chinese in Manchoukuo will feel that they are happy as Manchurians and far more fortunate than being people of the Republic of China, the people of the Republic of China will become envious and desire to become people of Manchoukuo. In the book of Mengtzu it is written that when the ruler gives benevolent administration, all those who wish to become officials will desire to go to the court of that ruler and obtain offices, all who till the soil will desire to cultivate the field of that ruler, all the merchants of the world will wish to come to the city of that ruler and open their shops and warehouses, and all travellers of the world will desire to walk the roads of that ruler. The above is perfectly true, and thus patriotism that extends the love of the nation to the entire world will never hinder Wangtao, but also will become a necessary means for Wangtao polity.

Premier Cheng has said that military education of the people is against Wangtao, but it cannot be said that military education of the people is absolutely against Wangtao. Aggressive and imperialistic military education of the people will, of course, be incompatible with Wangtao, but such military education of the people as for subjugating bandits that cause suffering to the people is not necessarily to be despised by Wangtao. Mengtzu says that war is to correct the people, and if feudal lords commit wrong, it is the proper duty of the ruler to subjugate them and regu-



late them. To disregard the ruining of the people for the sake of gaining territory is to be despised by Wangtao, but to subjugate those who hinder the propagation of Wangtao and the extension of justice and benevolence to the world is to be permitted. The book of Shangshu praises the expeditions made by King Tang (湯王) of Yin (殷), and says that when he advanced to the east the people in the west resented it, and when he advanced to the south the people in the north resented it, asking why they were left behind. To the ruler there are expeditions but no war; aggressive war is wrong, but expeditions to save the suffering people and remove evils are recommended by Wangtao. The army of the ruler is welcomed by the people as rain in a drought, or as one who will save them from the danger of fire or flood.

The politics of Western countries and Wangtao show sharp confrontation in various points, and it appears as though Wangtao is superior to the Western politics in all points. If Wangtao is materialized in Manchoukuo, it will greatly contribute to the civilization of the world by presenting a new political formula based on the moral and spiritual principle to the world, beside the political formulas based on the materialism and privilege of capitalistic and communistic states, at least. If the materialism and privilege of Western countries can be called Western, Wangtao is rightly to be called Oriental.

Yet Wangtao has one great defect. Wangtao appears to be superior to Western systems in many ways, but it has a great defect which cannot be covered by all its superior points, or which makes all its other superior features worthless. Despite all defects, the Western polity is practical and has already been practiced. But although Wangtao was conceived in China in very early days and was the ideal of the imperial rule of various dynasties, it has never been put into practice. In this respect, if Western polity is called practical polity, Wangtao is to be called impractical polity. This is the greatest characteristic of Wangtao, and it must be called the fatal defect as political thought. Viewed from Western nations, the superior points of Wangtao over the Western politics ideally may be indisputable, but if it is only an ideal and cannot be put into practice, it becomes merely an empty dream as a political principle which requires execution. Consequently it cannot escape the criticism that it is entirely worthless.

Whether the so-called Oriental thought is superior or not to the Western thought is not to be decided by whether it is ideally superior as a fancy or not, but by whether it is superior or not as a political theory that has practicability.

Wangtao has never been put into practice in China, and therefore it is clear that it is quite impossible for Wangtao as it was conceived in China to be realized in Manchoukuo of the present age surrounded by capitalistic nations and a communistic country.

The most important basic element of Wangtao is its moral element. The most important feature that makes it Oriental in comparison with Western politics is this moral element. How this can be materialized in the actual political organization and actual economic organization of Manchoukuo, or in other words, the practicalization and modernization of Wangtao, is the greatest mission in the history of world civilization of the authorities participating in the establishment of the Wangtao State in Manchoukuo.



## Addendum II

### NATIONAL ORGANIZATION LAW OF GREAT MANCHOU EMPIRE\*

(Translation)

#### CHAPTER I. THE EMPEROR

Article I.—The Empire of Manchou shall be reigned over and governed by the Emperor.

The succession to the Imperial throne shall be according to provisions especially made.

Article II.—The Emperor is sacred and inviolable.

Article III.—The Emperor is the head of the Empire, holding the rights of sovereignty, and exercising them according to the provisions of the present law.

Article IV.—The Prime Minister shall give advice to the Emperor and be responsible for it.

Article V.—The Emperor exercises the legislative power with the consent of the Legislative Council.

Article VI.—The Emperor orders the Courts to carry out the judicial procedure according to law.

Article VII.—For maintaining and fostering public welfare and for executing laws, the Emperor may issue orders or have them issued, but laws shall not be changed by such orders.

Article VIII.—The Emperor may issue, for the maintenance of public safety or to avert extreme calamities, when unable to convoke the Legislative Council, Imperial Ordinances which possess authority equal to law, with the approval of the Privy Council. Such Imperial Ordinances shall be reported to the Legislative Council at its next subsequent session.

Article IX.—The Emperor determines the organization of the Government, appoints and discharges officials, and fixes their salaries; those specially provided in the present law and other laws shall be exceptions.

Article X.—The Emperor declares war, makes peace, and concludes treaties.

Article XI.—The Emperor has the supreme command of the Army

\* Promulgated March 1, 1934.

and Navy.

Article XII.—The Emperor confers decorations and other marks of merit and honour.

Article XIII.—The Emperor orders amnesty, pardon, commutation of punishment, and rehabilitation.

#### CHAPTER II. THE PRIVY COUNCIL

Article XIV.—The Privy Council shall be formed of Privy Councillors.

Article XV.—The Privy Council shall submit its opinion on the following matters upon consultation by the Emperor :

1. Laws.
2. Imperial House Law.
3. Imperial Ordinances.
4. Budgets, and contracts that become liabilities of the State Treasury.

5. Treaties and agreements with foreign Powers, and declarations to be made in the name of the Emperor to foreign countries.

6. Appointment and discharge of important officials.

7. Other important affairs of State.

Article XVI.—The Privy Council may submit its opinion on important affairs of State to the Emperor.

#### CHAPTER III. THE LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL

Article XVII.—The organization of the Legislative Council shall conform to laws specially provided.

Article XVIII.—All laws, budgets, and contracts that become liabilities of the State Treasury other than budgets, shall require the approval of the Legislative Council.

Article XIX.—The Legislative Council may make representations to the State Council respecting State affairs.

Article XX.—The Legislative Council may accept appeals from the public.

Article XXI.—The Legislative Council shall be convoked by the Emperor every year, and the term of its ordinary session shall be one month. In case of necessity the Emperor may prolong the session.

Article XXII.—No session of the Legislative Council can be held unless not less than one-third of the whole number of the members is



present.

Article XXIII.—Decisions shall be taken in the Legislative Council by a majority vote. In case of a tie, the President shall have the casting vote.

Article XXIV.—Sessions of the Legislative Council shall be held in public, but upon demand of the State Council or resolution of the Legislative Council, a secret session may be held.

Article XXV.—Laws, budgets and contracts that become liabilities of the State Treasury, passed by the Legislative Council, shall be approved and ordered to be made public and executed, by the Emperor. When laws, budgets and contracts that become liabilities of the State Treasury, are rejected by the Legislative Council, they shall be again submitted to deliberation with the reasons for so submitting them, and if they are again rejected, their adoption or rejection shall be decided by consulting the Privy Council.

Article XXVI.—Respecting their utterances and votes in the Council, the members of the Legislative Council shall not be held responsible outside the Council.

#### CHAPTER IV. THE STATE COUNCIL

Article XXVII.—The State Council shall handle various administrative affairs.

Article XXVIII.—The State Council is formed of the Departments of Civil Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Defence, Finance, Industry, Communications, Justice, and Education.

Article XXIX.—The State Council shall include the Prime Minister and Ministers of the Departments. The Ministers shall be responsible for affairs under their respective administrations.

Article XXX.—The Prime Minister and Ministers of the Departments may at any time attend a session of the Legislative Council and speak, but they cannot vote.

Article XXXI.—Imperial Orders, Imperial Messages, Laws, and Imperial Ordinances shall bear the countersignatures of the Prime Minister and the Ministers of the Departments concerned.

#### CHAPTER V. COURTS OF LAW

Article XXXII.—The Courts of law judge civil and criminal suits according to law. For administrative and other special suits, provisions are

specially made by law.

Article XXXIII.—The organization of the Courts and the qualification of the judges shall be determined by law.

Article XXXIV.—Judges of Courts perform their duties independently.

Article XXXV.—Judges shall not be deprived of their positions unless by means of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment; shall not be suspended from duty, transferred to other positions or posts, or have their salaries reduced, against their will.

Article XXXVI.—Trials and judgments of Courts shall be conducted publicly. When, however, there exists any fear that such publicity may be prejudicial to peace and order, or to the maintenance of public morality, the public trial may be suspended by provision of law or by decision of the Courts of law.

#### CHAPTER VI. THE SUPERVISORY COUNCIL

Article XXXVII.—The Supervisory Council conducts supervision and examination. The organization and authority of the Supervisory Council shall be determined by law specially provided.

Article XXXVIII.—The Supervisory Council shall have Supervisors (監察官), and Auditors (審計官).

Article XXXIX.—Supervisors and Auditors shall not be deprived of their posts, unless by means of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment; shall not be suspended from duty, transferred to other posts or have their salaries reduced against their will.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY RULES

Article XL.—This law shall be enforced from March 1, the First Year of Kangte (1934).

Article XLI.—The Emperor may, for the present, issue, with the sanction of the Privy Council, Imperial Ordinances possessing the same power as law, determine budgets, and make contracts that become liabilities of the State Treasury other than budgets.

Article XLII.—All former laws and regulations, whether named as Ordinances, Council Orders and others, shall be effective.



## CHAPTER IV

### MAINTENANCE OF INTERNAL PEACE

The maintenance of peace and order in Manchoukuo now mainly lies in subjugating bandits. The Manchoukuo Government classifies the bandits as follows :

**Characteristics of Bandits.**—"The bandit hordes in Manchoukuo can be roughly divided into five categories: (1) The so-called political bandits formerly under command of notorious leaders, such as Ma Chan-shan, Ting Chao and Ssu Ping-wen; (2) professional bandits who are the traditional outlaws of Manchuria; (3) civilian bandits who have been forced to take up banditry because of economic necessity to get a livelihood; (4) religious bandits who ravage the interior districts from religious motives because of their affiliation with such native religious bodies as the Tataohui (Big Sword League) and Hungchianghui (Red Spear League); and (5) minor and insignificant groups which consist of farmers or workers in abject poverty."

#### Organs and Facilities for Maintaining Peace.—

##### 1. Political Workers :

- (a) Following the movements of the Japanese and Manchoukuo troops for subjugating bandits, political workers are despatched to undertake the revival and improvement of local administrative organs in districts where the bandits have been subjugated or are in course of subjugation; their duties are to make the effect of the troops' activity more certain, and also to gradually direct and improve the general administration and police administration.
- (b) Police Affairs Guiding Officers. After the withdrawal of Japanese troops, the political workers remain as Police Affairs Guiding Officers in the district, and assisting the Hsien Councillors, undertake the task of improving, training, and guiding the local police.
- (c) The number of Police Affairs Guiding Officers and the Hsien where they were stationed in September, 1933, was as follows :

### MAINTENANCE OF INTERNAL PEACE

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Province	Number of Hsien	Number of Hsien having Police Affairs Guiding Officers	Number of Guiding Officers
Fengtien .....	58	58	86
Kirin .....	43	12	26
Heilungkiang .....	46	20	20
Jehol .....	15	7	10

2. Ching-hsiang (清鄉) Committees or Community Purification Committees.

As organs for proposing and discussing plans for clearing the country of bandits and for maintaining peace, the Central Community Purification Committee and its Executive Board were organized, and in all provinces and hsien, provincial and hsien Community Purification Committees were established, on October 21, 1932, according to Ordinance No. 62 of the Council of State Affairs. The Ching-hsiang Committees suspended their activities during the period when the Peace Preservation Committee was in existence (from June to October, 1933).

##### 3. Peace Preservation Committee :

- (1) Its establishment was as follows : Success or failure in maintaining peace within Manchoukuo during the kaoliang growing season, in the summer of 1933, being extremely important for the future of the country, it was decided that both Japanese and Manchoukuo organizations should be employed to their full capacity under co-operative control, and the Central Peace Preservation Committee was established on June 10, by placing the Japanese and Manchoukuo troops and police under one control under the Commander of the Kwantung Army for the period from June to October, as the central organ for proposing and discussing measures for preserving peace. Later provincial and hsien Peace Preservation Committees also were organized in the respective provinces and hsien.
- (2) General Policy for maintaining peace :
  - A. Policy : All organs in Manchoukuo of both the Japanese and Manchoukuo Governments are to cooperate for the extermination of bandits in the districts where troops of the Kwantung Army are stationed, under controlled guidance; to aim at perfecting the peace preservation organs of Manchoukuo; to complete various preparations not to cause any disturbance of peace after the withdrawal of the Japanese troops;



and to give efforts to make the public feel at ease and safe.

B. Measures :

- a. The extermination of bandits is chiefly to be accomplished by subjugation; small bands of bandits which are weakened by subjection will thus be given no room for activity on account of the self-guarding ability of local guard organizations; their self-destruction is thus aimed at.
- b. The submission of bandits shall be permitted in the sense of surrender, but they will not be permitted to be formed into Manchoukuo troops or local guard organizations, in their armed condition.
- c. Efforts will be given for examining and collecting arms scattered among the people.
- d. Following the subjugation work, efforts will be given through propaganda and political measures to guide the public thought properly, to give employment, and thus to stabilize the public mind and aim at the perfection of the Wangtao polity.
- e. The organization and equipment of the Manchoukuo troops and police forces are to be carried out properly, and their pay is to be sufficient, in order to improve their quality. The Japanese troops are to aid in the training of the Manchoukuo troops, police forces, and local guard organizations as much as circumstances permit, for improving their strength for guarding against bandits.
- f. Following the development of the activities for subjugating bandits, improvement of various facilities concerned is to be made whenever necessary.
- g. The expenditure required by the Manchoukuo side for maintaining peace in this period is estimated at about M. ¥1,000,000 monthly, and the basic principle is to consider the importance of items of expenditure in spending the above estimated sum.

4. Improvement of the Police Force Organization :

The police forces of all hsiens bear the responsibility of maintaining peace within the respective hsien jointly with the hsien administrative police organization. To explain the present condition of peace maintenance in Manchoukuo, large organizations of bandits have already been subjugated, and it is the moment to

plan for the thorough extermination of small groups of bandits. The duty of the hsien police force is to destroy such small bands, and thus the improvement of its organization is the most urgent problem of the time. Thus, with the establishment of the hsien Community Purification Committees, Police Affairs Guiding Officers have been stationed in all hsiens since the autumn of 1932, and entrusted with the task of guiding and training the police forces. As the Peace Preservation Committees were formed following the distribution of Japanese troops since June, 1933, they guided and aided the formation, equipment, and training of the police forces under their control, disbanding all previously existing organizations similar in nature to police forces and forming new police forces by recruiting only the best elements of such former organizations, under the systematic control of the hsien magistrates. Thus, cooperating with the troops, the police forces aim at the establishment of peace and order within their respective districts, and thus attention has been given so that there will be caused no danger in maintaining local peace even when the Peace Preservation Committee is abolished, and the troops are withdrawn.

5. Control of Local Guard Bodies :

The local guard bodies now existing are mostly professional. They can be roughly classified into (1) those formed of the surrendered bandits, (2) those formed by disbanding the former Paoweituan (保衛團), and (3) voluntary bodies formed by young men recruited from all houses in case of emergency. As those coming under the (1) and (2) categories possess evil characteristics, they are to be immediately disbanded and replaced by the purely local self-protection system. Because of the necessity of effecting the cooperation of the Government and public in maintaining peace, it is planned to adopt the local protection system and establish the purely local guard bodies, to cooperate with the Peace Preservation Committees, Police Affairs Guiding Officers, and distributed troops.

6. Perfection of the Paochia (保甲) System :

As above mentioned professional self-protection bodies are dangerous, so it has been decided to perfect the Paochia system and to include regulations for self-guarding bodies within it, because of the lack of funds at present. This system is now being prepared by



the Government. The Paochia system is quite old and well known to the people residing in the country. This system was very effective in former periods when local peace was not maintained and bandits were active in many places. Furthermore this system has the possibility of being long maintained as it does not require much expenditure and will not place any notable burden on the people. As the system makes one jointly responsible for the protection of his own district, it utilizes the spontaneous sense of self-protection by forming an auxiliary organ to the police force. Thus much is expected of this system.

7. Roads and Communication Facilities :

Roads and communication facilities are most important for the peace preservation policy, but their public announcement is now prohibited for various reasons.

**Results of Bandit Subjugation.**—The Manchoukuo Government issued the following report on the actual results of bandit subjugation :

“For the work of peace preservation, the Government appropriated M. ¥42,420,000 for the army and M. ¥12,638,000 for the police forces out of the total national budget of M. ¥137,957,000, or some 40% of the total estimates during the first fiscal year. . . .

“During the middle of October, 1932, the Manchoukuo troops, in co-operation with the Japanese army, entered on the gigantic task of bandit suppression in the southeastern districts, and during the middle of November succeeded in suppressing the bandits who had infested the districts near Hsinking, Mukden, Kirin and Hailun. At the same time, the anti-Manchoukuo outlaws in Heilungkiang Province were completely subdued. Toward the beginning of December rebellious elements under command of Ssu Ping-wen, who had been continuing subversive activities along the western portion of the North Manchuria Railway (former Chinese Eastern Railway), were placed under control. Manchoukuo troops then continued the campaign in the various districts of Fengtien, Antung and Wafangtien.

“In the beginning of January, 1933, the eastern frontier districts were cleared of outlaws. It is interesting to note in this connection that some notorious bandit leaders or leaders of irregulars, repenting their atrocious activities in the past and seeking the blessings of the rule of “Wangtao” all over Manchoukuo, have surrendered themselves one after another to the new régime together with their subordinates.

“Traditionally Manchuria has been known as a nest of bandits. After

the birth of the new State, however, a new era was ushered in with the progress of the pacification campaign here mentioned. As a result of the strenuous efforts of the national army and police forces, assisted by the Japanese troops, bandit suppression has been considerably accelerated, the number of the outlaws being roughly reduced to some 40,000 or so from the 200,000 level during the old Chang régime.

“Owing to the acceleration of the anti-bandit campaign, financial, communication and educational organs have shown remarkable progress. Tax-collecting bureaus which were functioning properly numbered only 29 at the end of September, 1932, while they increased to 84 at the end of April, 1933. The number of banks which were open to business under control of the Central Bank of Manchou, increased from 69 at the end of December, 1932, to 103 in June, 1933, with only 12 branch offices still closed in the interior. Of the total length of highway (some 3,544 kilometres) in the construction programme, about 475 kilometres have been almost completed, 811 kilometres are under construction and a survey of 2,593 kilometres has been finished. Most of the schools once closed owing to civil disturbances are now open.”



## CHAPTER V JUDICIAL ADMINISTRATION

### History of Trial System

The present judicial system of Manchoukuo is the successor to the system of the Republic of China, and to understand the former it is necessary to know the present condition of the latter. The judicial system of China has been much improved since the end of the Manchu dynasty due fundamentally to the basic sentiment expressed in the so-called Pienfa-tzukung (變法自強) (Change the law and make self-improvement) movement that arose after the Sino-Japanese War and the Tientsin incident, and particularly to the direct influence of the clause respecting the abolition of extraterritoriality in the British-Chinese Commercial Treaty concluded in 1901 and also in the Chinese-Japanese and Chinese-American Commercial Treaties signed in 1902. In 1906 the Trial Regulations for All Grades of Courts (各級審判廳試辦章程) were promulgated, and in December, 1909, the Organization Law of Courts (法院編成法), was issued. The existing trial system of China was established according to the above-mentioned two laws, and the judicial system of Manchoukuo is based upon them.

There is also the Hsienssufa Kungshu (縣司法公署) which may be called a transitory system supplementary to the above-mentioned judicial system. A Hsienssufa Kungshu or District Judicial Office is established in the Office of the Hsien Magistrate in hsien where no court is established, according to the District Judicial Office Organization Regulations (縣司法公署組織章程), issued in 1917. Judicial affairs in hsiens where neither District Courts nor District Judicial Offices are established, are entrusted to the Hsien Magistrates according to the Temporary Regulations for Hsien Magistrates Additionally Undertaking Judicial Duties (縣知事兼理司法事務暫行條例) issued in 1914. The Chienlissufahsien-Kungshu (兼理司法縣公署) or Office of Magistrate Additionally Handling Judicial Affairs was the only organ for holding trials in China before the establishment of courts. It was announced in June, 1931, that in districts of all provinces where the hsien administration had not yet been set up, the Shechihchu (設治局) would

be opened and at the proper moment the hsien administration would be adopted. The Shechihchu handles judicial affairs as done by the Hsien Magistrate Office. In Jehol Province is the Chengshenchu (承審所) or Trial Office, equivalent to the Office of Magistrate Additionally Handling Judicial Affairs.

### Organization and Jurisdiction

**Tifang Fayuan** (地方法院).—Tifang Fayuan or District Court is a court of the mixed system, which is divided into the Chieniting (簡易庭), the section where trials are held by a single justice, and the section where trials are held jointly by three justices. All civil cases are brought to the Chieniting where the justice tries to effect a settlement out of court. Only cases which cannot be settled out of court are formally tried. Cases to be tried in courts are divided into two kinds. Civil cases involving more than 1,000 yuan or concerning family inheritances are called local cases and are given the first instance hearing in the collegiate section of the District Court. Cases involving less than 1,000 yuan are called first grade cases, and are tried by a single justice. Those who are dissatisfied with trials by single justices may have their cases retried by the collegiate section as second instance hearings.

The District Court also handles appeals against summary decisions or orders other than judgments given by single justices.

The so-called first grade cases among those handled as the first instance in the above-mentioned Hsienssufa Kungshu or Chienlissufahsien Kungshu also will be tried by the collegiate section of the District Court as the second instance.

The above-mentioned are the civil cases handled by the District Court, but criminal cases also are divided into local cases and first grade cases. By first grade cases are meant cases stipulated under Article VIII of the Criminal Trial Law, or those that are to be punished with the maximum of imprisonment of less than three years, detention or fines. The crimes of official corruption, the use of explosives for endangering the public, and others are made exceptions, however, and are included among local cases. Thefts, swindles, breach of trust and others are also exceptions and treated as first grade cases, although their punishments are more than three years' imprisonment (Article VIII of the Criminal Trial Law). By local cases are meant all other cases after excluding such first grade cases. The jurisdiction of criminal cases is the same as ex-



plained for civil cases.

**Tifangfayuan Fenting** (地方法院分庭) or **Branch District Court**.—This Court having only one or two justices, there is no collegiate system, and all cases are tried by single justices. All cases tried by this court being so-called local cases, they are not tried by the collegiate section of the District Courts to which these branch courts belong.

**Kaotengfayuan** (高等法院).—In the Kaotengfayuan or High Court, trials are made jointly by three justices. For the above-mentioned local cases the Court gives the second instance trial, and for the first grade cases the third or final instance trial. For civil cases involving less than 100 yuan, the second instance is the final. Thus cases involving less than 100 yuan do not come to the High Court, and this point deserves special notice.

**Kaotengfayuan Fenyuan** (高等法院分院) or **Branch High Court**.—The jurisdiction of the High Court covers the entire provincial administration area within which it is located, in principle. But in case the area is too extensive or transportation facilities are poor, a Kaotengfayuan Fenyuan or Branch High Court may be established within the jurisdiction of the High Court. Such a Branch High Court has civil and criminal sections, and there the distribution of cases is the same as in the High Court. To the Branch High Court is attached the District Section (地方庭) which handles cases as tried by the District Court; the jurisdiction and organization of the District Section are the same as those of the District Court.

**Tsuikaofayuan** (最高法院) or **Supreme Court**.—Tsuikaofayuan or Supreme Court is the organ of final trial in the country. There five justices jointly try cases. The Court handles the third instance trial of the so-called local cases. For first grade cases the High Court is the final trial organ as already mentioned. At present the Supreme Court has one criminal section and three civil sections.

**Hsienssufa Kungshu** (縣司法公署) or **Hsien Judicial Office**.—This office was established as a transitory system by mixing the organizations and procedures of the Chienlissufakungshu and Fayuan. A part of its organization and procedure is based on the system of Fayuan or Court, but another part is founded on the system of the Chienlissufakungshu or Hsien Magistrate Additionally Handling Judicial Affairs. The Hsienssufa Kungshu is established in the Hsien Magistrate's Office and formed of judges and Hsien Magistrates. Respecting all affairs concerning trials, the judges bear entire responsibility, and the Hsien Magistrate cannot interfere. The Hsien Magistrate handles and is responsible for prosecuting

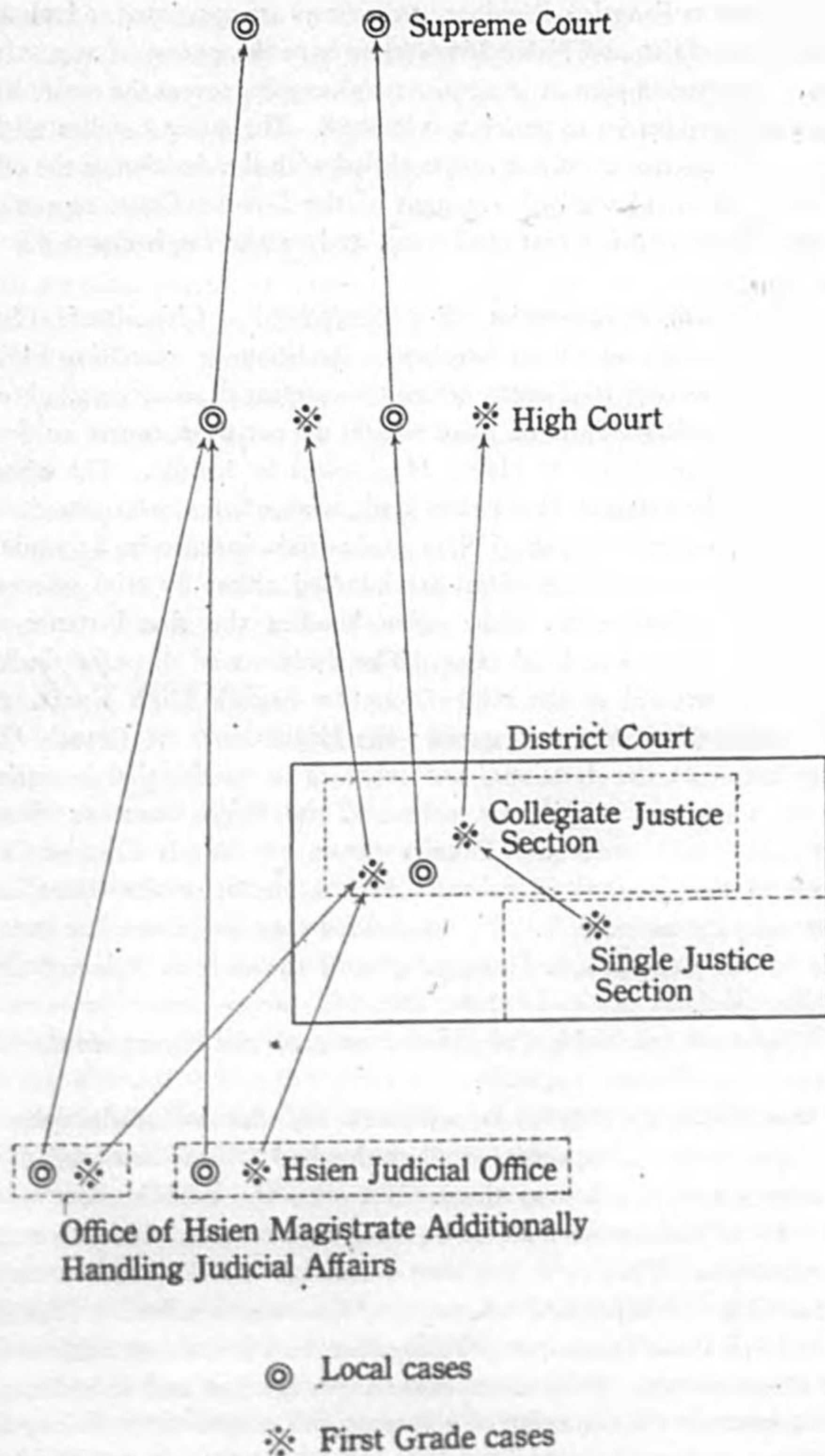
affairs. But in Fengtien Province, prosecutors are appointed to look after prosecuting affairs, and Hsien Magistrates have the power of supervising them. The jurisdiction of the Hsienssufakungshu covers the entire hsien administration district in which it is located. The office handles all first grade and local cases. If one is dissatisfied with the decision of the office, he may appeal to the collegiate section of the District Court supervising the office if the case is a first grade case, and to the High Court if it is a local case.

**Chienlissufa Hsienkungshu** (兼理司法縣公署).—Chienlissufa Hsienkungshu or Office of Hsien Magistrate Additionally Handling Judicial Affairs was the only trial organ before the opening of courts, and even at present the judicial affairs of hsien which do not have courts or Ssufakungshu are entrusted to Hsien Magistrates to handle. The office is formed of the Hsien Magistrate and trial officers who are jointly responsible, except in case of first grade trials independently made by trial officers. Prosecuting affairs are handled either by trial officers or by the Hsien Magistrate. The office handles the first instance trial of the first grade and local cases. The decisions of the office in local cases are submitted to the High Court or Branch High Court, even when a defendant does not appeal; the High Court or Branch High Court examines the decisions, and when it is found that a decision was mistaken and retrial was necessary, the High Court or Branch High Court can order the District Court or Branch District Court nearest to the original Chienlissufa Hsienkungshu or the Chienlissufa Hsienkungshu to retry it. The process for appealing from first instance trials by the Chienlissufa Hsienkungshu is the same as explained under Ssufakungshu.

Trial cases handled by the above-mentioned trial organs are shown in the following diagram (p. 124).

**Chienchating** (檢察廳) or **Prosecutorate**.—Under the judicial system of the Republic of China, courts of all grades had Chienchaso (檢察處) of the same grades attached to them. But with the establishment of the new State of Manchoukuo, all Chienchaso were renamed Chienchating or Prosecutorate. Thus there are now established the Tsuikaochienchating (最高檢察廳) or Supreme Prosecutorate, Kaotengchienchating (高等檢察廳) or High Prosecutorate, and Tifangchienchating (地方檢察廳) or District Prosecutorate. Prosecutors make investigations and formal indictments, supervise the execution of sentences, and control the judicial police, according to the Criminal Trial Law and other laws. In respect of civil





cases or cases concerning public benefit or morality, prosecutors perform special duties either as suitors or representers of public benefits, according to the Civil Trial Law and other regulations. The prosecutrate performs its duties independent of the Courts, and prosecutors cannot handle trial affairs nor interfere in trials by justices, regardless of circumstances. The jurisdiction of Procuratorates is defined like that of the Courts, but they may perform their duties outside their respective jurisdictions in case of special urgency.

**Chienso (監所) or Prisons.**—The general regulations for Chienso or prisons are based on Ordinance No. 3, and the prison system of Manchoukuo is formed by the application of the Prison Regulations and the Prison Officers' Regulations. Other regulations are the Prison Labor Regulations, Inspection Regulations, Prisoners' Provisional Release Regulations, Bail Release Regulations and others.

Before the establishment of Manchoukuo, the three provinces of Fengtien, Kirin, and Heilungkiang had special regulations for commuting prison terms to the payment of fines for prisoners except those specially excepted in case the cost of feeding prisoners exceeded the appropriated amount or prisons were unable to house them. But because there were various evil practices in connection with this system, it was abolished with the establishment of Manchoukuo.

**Number of Judicial Institutions and their distribution**

Department of Justice	1	
Supreme Court	1	
High Court	5	
District Court	Fengtien Province	14 (including 1 Branch High Court)
	Kirin Province	5 (including 2 Branch High Courts)
	Heilungkiang Province	5 (including 1 Branch High Court)
	Jehol Province	1 (Local Section attached to High Court)
	Special District	1
Branch District Court	Fengtien Province	9
	Special District	3
	Others	none



	Fengtien Province	37 (including Kenchih-chu (墾殖局) 2, Ssufakungshu 10, and Chienlissufahsienkungshu 25.)
Ssufakungshu (司法公署) Chienlissufahsienkungshu, (兼理司法縣公署) and others	Kirin Province	39 (including Chengshenso (承審處) 3, Shechihchu (設治局) 1, Ssufakungshu 15, and Chienlissufahsienkungshu 20.)
	Heilungkiang Province	48 (including Shechihchu 3, and Chienlissufahsienkungshu 45.)
	Jehol Province	17 (Chengshenso 14, and Shechihchu 3.)

Chienchating (Prosecutorate) Established wherever a Fayuan is located, and their number equals that of the Fayuan.

Prisons (for quartering sentenced prisoners)

New Prisons	25
Fengtien Province	15
Kirin Province	5
Heilungkiang Province	3
Special District	2 (with one branch prison)
Old Prisons	99
Fengtien Province	13
Kirin Province	36
Heilungkiang Province	50

Detention Quarters (for unconvicted prisoners)

Detention Quarters of Prosecutorates	38
Fengtien Province	23
Kirin Province	7
Heilungkiang Province	5
Special District	3
Hsien Detention Quarters	27
Fengtien Province	25
Kirin Province	2

(No information available for Jehol Province.)

NUMBER OF PRISONERS\*

(December, 1932)

Province	Capacity	Number of prisoners actually quartered
Fengtien	8,380	4,900
Kirin	7,115	2,350
Heilungkiang	5,660	770
North Manchuria Special District	455	300
Total	21,610	8,320

Thus, the prison facilities are capable of housing about 20,000. The number of prisoners has been greatly reduced on account of the act of amnesty issued immediately after the establishment of Manchoukuo. Later, the number has somewhat increased, but yet it is less than one half of the total capacity.

Improvement of Judicial System

Since its establishment the Department of Justice has given considerable attention to improvement in the dispensation of justice, and points that have been particularly improved are as follow :

(1) Unified Formation of the judicial appropriation for the entire country.

A. The former system of making up the judicial appropriations separately by the provincial governments, under contract, had evil practices, and consequently the Department of Justice established the Accounting Adjustment Committee to systematically control all judicial appropriations of the country. Thus, the Department despatched officials to all parts of the country to investigate the actual condition of the use of government funds, and clarified the revenue and outlay of all institutions under the jurisdiction of the Department. In the fiscal year of 1932, a systematic judicial appropriation was formed for the first time in the history of the country.

B. Among those who handled the accounting business of the judicial organs, those who understood the present accounting system were extremely few, the majority knowing no better than to follow old habits. This condition would cause serious obstacles in adjusting the judicial accounting, and the Department of Justice stationed, since the fiscal year of 1933, liaison officials at all judicial institutions, and they are now being trained to handle mainly accounting business.

(2) Committee to Study the Laws of the Department of Justice.

\* Figures for Jehol Province are unavailable.



As law reflects social conditions, and law not based upon the public becomes separated from the life of the people and thus entirely useless, the Department of Justice appointed a Committee to study the laws for investigating the various customs of Manchoukuo, to study the 'former laws to be adopted for the present' according to Ordinance No. 3, and also to study laws to be put into effect in the future. The Committee is collecting and studying various necessary materials to carry out this task.

(3) Improvement of the Penal System.

To improve the prisons and detention quarters at various principal places, the Department of Justice despatched officials of the Penal Section to all important districts to conduct investigations into the food, housing, clothing, and sanitary conditions at all prisons, also the protection of released prisoners, and reform of children. As the improvement of prison equipment requires a considerable sum, it was decided first to newly erect or repair the prisons at such important cities as Hsinking, Mukden, Kirin, Harbin, and Tsitsihar, and to undertake the improvement of the others gradually later. As the first work, the Detention Quarters at Mukden were renovated in 1932. The construction of the new Detention Quarters at Hsinking is expected to be started shortly. To carry out the principle of the general prison administration, it is necessary to train wardens and prison sanitation officials, and the Government is studying the means of establishing a prison administration training school.

(4) Improvement of the Personnel of Important Courts and Prosecutorates.

In order to have judicial officials superior in knowledge and character in the principal courts and prosecutorates, with the establishment of the judicial administration, it was decided to establish a Judicial Officials' Training School, inviting several Japanese judges and prosecutors to come and guide the affairs of the Courts and Prosecutorates, as well as to have them undertake the trial and prosecution of cases concerning foreigners. The Department is selecting such Japanese officials to be invited.

(5) Compilation and Revision of Judicial Codes.

A. Laws of Courts and Prosecutorates. The first draft of the Laws of Courts and Prosecutorates, which may be called the Constitution of the Department of Justice, has been completed. As the future judicial system of Manchoukuo is to be decided by these laws, and the majority of judicial regulations are to be based upon them, most careful attention is directed to their drafting. Japanese Laws of Courts and Prosecutorates are being followed as models, and at the same time due considera-

tion is being given to the actual conditions of Manchoukuo in framing these laws.

B. Criminal Codes. The criminal code and the criminal cases procedure now being used in Manchoukuo are the criminal code and the criminal trial law of the Republic of China which are utilized according to Ordinance No. 3. These laws are perfect modern laws, having been drafted in consultation with Dr. Asataro Okada and others of Japan, but as an independent State, Manchoukuo feels the need of establishing her own laws. Such laws being voluminous, they cannot be compiled by a few persons in any short period, and the Government is collecting the materials required for the compilation of these laws in future.

C. Civil and Commercial Codes. The civil code now adopted in Manchoukuo is the civil code of the Republic of China, used according to Ordinance No. 3. The commercial codes used are the corporation law, bill law, and marine trade law of the Republic of China. They are all newly made modern laws, but the regulations concerning commercial acts in the commercial code, excepting those stipulated in the civil code, are all based on ancient codes and do not include the law of guarantee. Also the civil trial laws now in force are the civil trial law and the civil trial procedure regulations of the Republic of China, and the civil trial procedure regulations of the North Manchuria Special District Court. There are no laws respecting deposit, bankruptcy, and settlement out of court. Respecting notary publics, there is only an imperfect law for the North Manchuria Special District. Because of such conditions, the Government is collecting various materials as preparation for adopting new civil and commercial codes.

D. Non-trial laws. There is no law respecting non-trial affairs other than registration. Regarding the registration of juridical persons and corporations there are used the Juridical Person Registration Law and the Corporation Registration Law of the Republic of China, which are quite modern laws. For the registration of immovable property there are used the Immovable Property Registration Law of the Republic of China, and the Kirin Province Revised Immovable Property Registration Law. Covering all registrations there are also the General Registration Regulations.

(6) Improvement of Judicial Organs.

The number of modern courts and prosecutorates is extremely few. In rural districts there are the transitory judicial organs of the Hsienssufa Kungshu or Chengshenchu; or the Hsien Magistrate's Office which is the administrative organ, the Hsien Shechihchu, or the Kenchihchu (墾殖局)



are made to additionally undertake judicial affairs. Even among the Courts and Prosecutorates which are new, the properly organized ones are few, and in most cases they are only Local Sections or Branch Prosecutorates. Although the urgency of improving these old fashioned judicial organs is recognized, it cannot be done immediately because of the expenditure required. It is the policy of the Government first to change the Local Sections and Branch Prosecutorates to District Courts and District Prosecutorates, and thus distribute a modern judicial system throughout Manchoukuo.

(7) Improvement of the Judicial System of Mongolia.

The judicial system of Mongolia is still what was in vogue under the Manchu dynasty. The Jassak or Banner Chief conducts the first instance trial, the League Chief handles the second instance trial, and the Mongolian-Tibetan Committee (formerly the Mengtsangyuan and the Lifanyuan under the Manchu dynasty) looked after the third instance trial. After the establishment of Manchoukuo a Banner Chief was appointed for each Banner, and the Jassak and League Chief were practically abolished. The Mongolia-Tibetan Committee no longer exists and at present there is the Hsingan Administration Office. As revision of the Mongolian judicial system is urgent, the Banner Chief, it has been decided, is to undertake the first instance trial, and it has been decided to establish a High Court, Branch High Court, High Prosecutorate and Branch High Prosecutorate in Hsingan Province for handling the second instance trial, and also to open one special section in the Supreme Court to handle the final trial.

## CHAPTER VI

### DEFENCE

#### Historical Outline

Regular troops were first maintained in Manchuria towards the end of the Ching Dynasty, and at that time a Shengking Chiangchün (盛京將軍) was stationed in Fengtien, and Chiangchün were appointed to each of Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces, to direct administration and military affairs. But the influence of these Changchün was insignificant.

After the revolution in China in 1912 succeeded, the Chinese National Government modernized the entire army into the present organization, and formed the 27th and 28th Divisions to undertake the guarding of Manchuria. But in 1916, Chang Tso-lin, then Commander of the 27th Division, rose and made himself the Fengtien Military Inspector-General (奉天軍務督理), and greatly increasing his military strength, placed Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces under his influence and thus gained the actual control of the Three Eastern provinces. Then his pan-Fengtien principle was manifested in various wars, and the power of the Fengtien army was extended to Central and North China. In 1927, he appointed himself Grand Marshal at Peking. That was the most brilliant period of the Fengtien Army.

Soon however, the National Government Army brought pressure upon the Fengtien Army, backed by the public opinion of the whole country, and drove it beyond the Shanhaikwan barrier. Chang Tso-lin met sudden death in 1928, and his plan of unifying the whole country of China was thus disrupted. Later, Chang Hsueh-liang, son of Chang Tso-lin, succeeded to the power of his father, and in 1929, he opened war against the U.S.S.R. troops in connection with the affair of the Chinese Eastern Railway (North Manchuria Railway), and sending 120,000 troops to the northern border, he had his first experience in fighting foreign troops. But in April, 1930, Chang Hsueh-ling joining the National Party, advanced beyond the Shanhaikwan barrier, taking with him 70,000 soldiers, and becoming the Vice-Commander of the Army, Navy and Air Forces of the Republic of China, he came to control the administrative



power in North China. Thus, practically, China was divided by Chiang Kai-shek and Chang Hsueh-liang. At that time, the strength of the North Eastern Army was 260,000, and when 100,000 irregular troops were included the total military strength reached 360,000.

After joining the National Party, the anti-Japanese attitude of Chang Hsueh-liang became particularly clear, and finally he ordered Commander Wang I-che (王以哲) of the 7th Infantry Brigade left at Mukden to destroy the South Manchuria Railway track on September 18, 1931. Upon this development, the Japanese troops stationed in Manchuria were obliged to take action for self-protection, and defeating the Chang Hsueh-liang army at various places, drove them out of Manchuria.

On March 1, 1932, the new State of Manchoukuo was established, but previous to this there were not a few troops of the North Eastern Army that became independent of Chang Hsueh-liang's command immediately after the outbreak of the incident, and undertook the task of preserving peace in various provinces under the name Paoanchun (保安軍), or peace preservation troops. Such troops were placed under the control of the Department of Defence, established on March 23, with the announcement of the organization laws for the various government offices on March 9, 1932. The Manchoukuo Government announced the Army and Navy Laws on April 15, by Military Order No. 1. Military Order No. 2 defined the districts to be guarded by various troops, and thus the Manchoukuo Army came to be properly organized.

Respecting the Navy, it must be mentioned that the former North Eastern River Defence Fleet was formed in 1919, and it was greatly improved later by converting merchant vessels. When the River Guard Office (航警處) was opened at Mukden in 1922, the fleet was placed under the supervision of the office and under the control of Chang Tso-lin. After the establishment of the Chang Hsueh-liang Government in 1928, the fleet was renamed the North Eastern Third Fleet. When the Manchurian incident occurred, the Commander of the fleet surrendered to Manchoukuo, with all the fleet. Thus on March, 1932, the former North Eastern Third Fleet became the River Defence Fleet under the direct control of the Chief Executive.

The military strength of Manchoukuo from 1908 to 1933 is given in the following table :

Table I

## STRENGTH OF TROOPS IN MANCHOUKUO

1908.....	22,000 men	
1909.....	26,000	
1910.....	23,000	
1911.....	26,000	
1912.....	21,000	
1913.....	38,000	
1914.....	56,000	
1915.....	56,000	
1916.....	56,000	
1917.....	71,000	
1918.....	97,000	
1919.....	125,000	} Chang Tso-lin period
1920.....	112,000	
1921.....	107,000	
1922.....	112,000	
1923.....	140,000	
1924.....	218,000	
1925.....	428,000	
1926.....	236,000	
1927.....	148,000	} Chang Hsueh-liang period
1928.....	172,000	
1929.....	247,000	
1930.....	243,000	
1931.....	258,000	} Manchoukuo
1932.....	130,000	
1933.....	130,000	

In this table the number of irregular troops such as guard forces and others is not included.

## Military Equipments of Manchoukuo

**General Outline.**—According to the Army and Navy Laws of Manchoukuo, the Army and Navy are to engage in maintaining peace within the country and in guarding the frontier and river districts, and the Supreme Commander of the Army and Navy is the Chief Executive.

Regarding the problem of guarding against foreign enemies, it is stipulated by Article II of the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol signed on September 15, 1932, that Japan and Manchoukuo jointly undertake it. This



is because the relations of the two countries are so close and intimate that any threat to the territory and peace of one country at once becomes a threat to the peace and existence of the other.

The military administration organ of the State of Manchoukuo is the Department of Defence, in which are included military educational organs as well as the staff organs. That is to say, in Manchoukuo the organs of military administration, military education, and military command are placed in an inseparable position. The Minister of the Department of Defence (at present Chang Ching-hui 張景惠) controls military administration, supervises all affairs respecting national defence and operation of troops, and directs both the Army and Navy.

The Department of Defence has the Bureau of General Staff and the Bureau of Military Supply. The Bureau of General Staff handles general affairs, troop operation, military training, formation and collection of troops, medical affairs, and legal affairs; and is divided into the General Affairs Section, Secretariat Section, Aides-de-camp Section, Clerical Section, Medical Affairs Section, Telephone and Telegraph Section, Budget Section, Military Affairs Section, Arms Section, and Military Law Section. The Bureau of Military Supply handles affairs concerning arms and military supplies, and is divided into the Fleet Administration Section, Arms Section, and Accounting Section.

The appropriation for the Department of Defence included in the total budget amounting to 137,957,000 yuan for the fiscal year of 1932 is as follows (including revised and supplementary budget):

Ordinary Expenditure .....	30,000,000 yuan
Department of Defence	1,320,000 yuan
Army expense	28,080,000 "
Navy expense	600,000 "
Extraordinary Expenditure.....	9,902,000 yuan
Reorganization of troops and bandit subjugation expense	1,800,000 "
Troops supplementation expense	800,000 "
Others	7,302,000 "
Grand Total .....	39,902,000 yuan

**Army.**—Private troops which belonged to the military leaders of the former North Eastern Four Provinces were centrally unified with the establishment of Manchoukuo, and were made the national troops under the direct command of the Chief Executive, as already explained. For maintaining peace and order, the Chief Executive appointed Guard

Commanders to undertake the preservation of peace in their respective districts by commanding the required troops. The Guard Commanders' posts are filled by Generals or Lieutenant-Generals, and they are directly under the command of the Chief Executive. However, they receive instructions from the Minister of the Department of Defence respecting the military administration and troop operations. Their responsibility is the maintenance of peace and order in their respective districts by studying the existing conditions within the districts and eliminating undesirable elements.

For guarding the Capital of Manchoukuo, the Capital Guard Commander controls the troops and police forces stationed at Hsinking, and is responsible for maintaining peace in the capital according to the minutely planned guard programme, quickly and decisively in both ordinary times and emergencies. The troops directly under the control of the Capital Guard Commander are as follow:

1. Guard Corps for the Office of the Chief Executive (執政府護軍), formed entirely of Manchus, responsible for guarding the Office of the Chief Executive, and placed under the control of the Department of Defence in February, 1933.

2. Iweichuntuan (翊衛軍團) or Chief Executive's bodyguard for guarding the Office of the Chief Executive and for forming the guard of honour in the formal cortège of the Chief Executive.

3. Kirin Railway Guard Corps.

4. Independent Cavalry Corps for guarding the Capital. Formerly the Cavalry Fourth Brigade belonging to the Guard troops of Kirin Province was stationed at Hsinking, besides various other guard bodies, but as the Brigade participated in the subjugation of Jehol Province, the Cavalry Fourth Brigade of Heilungkiang Province was placed under the direct control of the Department of Defence in March, 1933, and giving it the new name of the Independent Cavalry Corps, it was brought to Hsinking to undertake the guarding of the capital and neighbourhood.

5. Capital Gendarmerie. The Gendarmerie system of Manchoukuo is still under study, and although the Capital Gendarmerie Headquarters was established at Hsinking on June 2, 1932, it is not yet able to fully exercise its military judicial authority.

6. Other Guard Corps of the Capital. Besides the above-mentioned there is the Chinganchun (靖安軍) originally formed in Fengtien Province immediately after the Manchurian incident; at first it was named the Chinganyuchitui (靖安游擊隊) and being directly under the Fengtien



Provincial Office, it made signal achievements in participating in the war against the bandits that rose in various sections of the province. Later it was placed under the direct control of the Department of Defence, and in February, 1933, its organization was reformed and it was given the new name of Chinganchun.

Regarding the guarding of all the provinces, the Manchoukuo Government issued regulations respecting the Guard Commanders of all the provinces and Hsingan sub-provinces, their respective districts, and troops under their command on May 3, 1933, by Military Order No. 2, and cancelled the formerly issued Military Order No. 2 of 1932 (which stationed Guard Commanders in Taoliao (洮遼), Fengtien, Kirin, and Heilungkiang Provinces). That is to say, by the new order, it was announced that Guard Commanders were stationed in all the provinces and also Hsingan sub-provinces to undertake the guarding of their respective districts, but Tungliao-hsien (通遼縣) was temporarily made the district to be covered by the Guard Commander of the Hsingan South Sub-province. Troops to be placed under the control of these Guard Commanders are to be decided according to the condition of the respective districts.

Guard troops stationed in the various provinces are as follow :

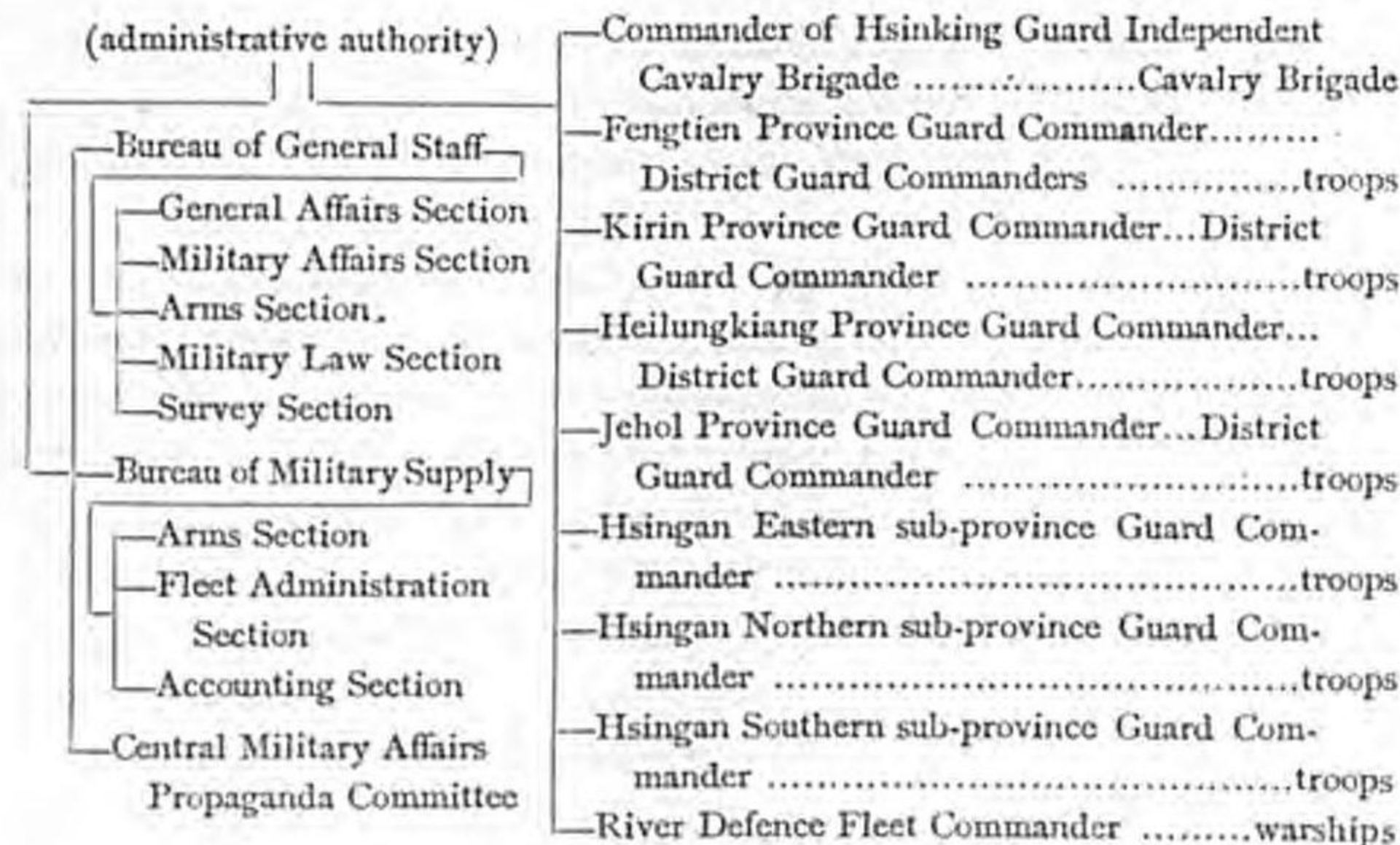
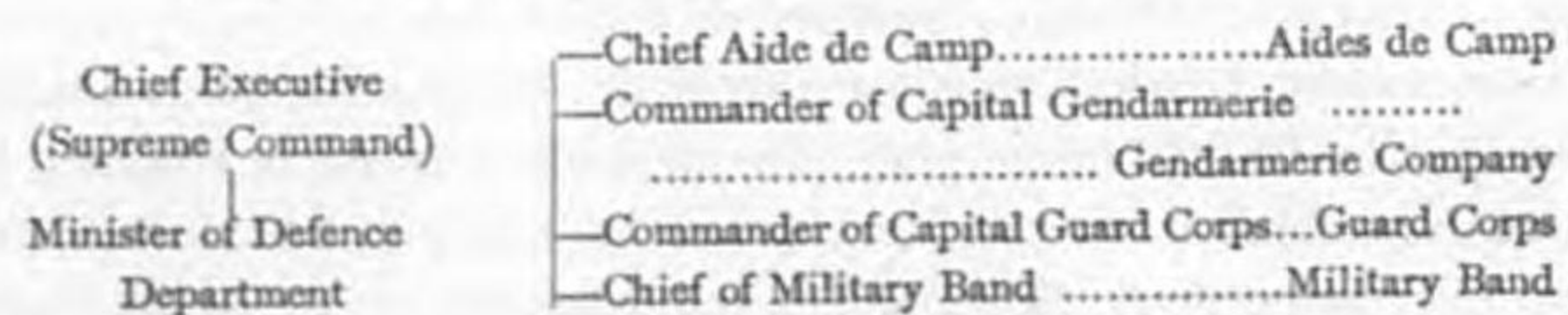
1. Fengtien Province Guard Troops.
2. Kirin Province Guard Troops.
3. Heilungkiang Province Guard Troops.
4. Jehol Province Guard Troops.
5. Hsingan Province Eastern Guard Troops.
6. Hsingan Province Northern Guard Troops.
7. Hsingan Province Southern Guard Troops.

The system of the military organs of Manchoukuo is roughly as follows :

Table 2

OUTLINE OF THE MILITARY ORGANIZATION SYSTEM OF MANCHOUKUO

(Prepared by the Department of Defence in August, 1933)



Manchoukuo army officers are divided into three ranks and nine grades. The highest rank is called Chiangkuan (將官), the middle rank Hsiaokuan (校官) and the lowest rank Weikuan (尉官). Each rank is divided into three grades, except there is no first grade of the first rank, there being only two grades for officers ranking as Chiangkuan. The second and third ranks are each divided into three grades. Non-commissioned officers and soldiers also are divided into three grades. Non-commissioned officers are divided into Shangshih (上士) or sergeant-major, Chungshih (中士) or sergeant, and Hsiashih (下士) or corporal. Soldiers are divided into Shangtengping (上等兵), Itengping (一等兵) and Erhtengping (二等兵). The highest rank for civil officers in military service is Shaochiang (少將), Major-General.

The Manchoukuo Government announced the system of military uniforms on December 28, 1932 by Military Order No. 9, and it was immediately put into effect. But the formerly used uniforms were permitted to be utilized for the present. The Order also announced the colours of collar-badge for the branches of the Army as follows :

- Gendarmerie .....black
- Infantry .....scarlet
- Cavalry .....light green
- Artillery .....yellow
- Engineers .....brown
- Air Force.....light blue
- Service Corps.....indigo



Military Supply Bureau	...silver grey
Military Medical Bureau	...deep green
Veterinary Bureau	.....purple
Military Band	.....blue
Military Law Bureau	.....white

The Army of Manchoukuo is, at present, of the brigade formation system, just as the former North Eastern Army or the so-called Chang Hsueh-liang army was. But the brigade formation is slightly different according to districts. The brigade is divided into regiments, the regiment into battalions, and the battalion into companies. The company is divided into sections. The above is the formation of one infantry brigade, but cavalry, engineering, and service troops are of the regiment or battalion formation. The unit is widely varied, and while one brigade has only 3,000 men, another has more than 10,000. In this respect the former system has not yet been improved, and the unification of the organization and unit is to be effected in the future.

The offices under the direct control of the Department of Defence include the Central Army Clothing Depot, Central Army Munition Depot and others.

The Central Army Clothing Depot manufactures, purchases, stores, and supplements the clothing requirements of the army and also conducts researches into the clothing problem. There are, besides the central depot, several branch depots. The Minister of the Department of Defence may establish sub-branches of the depot whenever found necessary. The Central Army Munition Depot purchases, stores, preserves, repairs, distributes, exchanges, examines, and disposes various arms; and is under the direction of the Minister of the Department of Defence.

The Horse Administration Bureau is established for preserving the excellent qualities of the Manchurian horses, to develop their characteristics, and thus to lay the foundation for the development of military affairs, transportation and industries. The bureau thus aims at the encouragement of horse races, encouragement of all affairs concerning horses, improvement of stud horses, prevention of animal diseases and improvement of sanitary conditions. The principal establishments of the bureau are the horse race course, stud farm, and breeding station.

**Navy.**—After the Manchurian incident, the Commander of the former North Eastern Third Fleet, with all the ships under his command, surrendered to Manchoukuo. With these river gunboats, the River Defence Fleet (江防艦隊) was formed under the direct command of the

Chief Executive and the headquarters of the fleet is in Harbin. For the purpose of maintaining peace, the Chief Executive defined the area to be placed under the supervision of the Commander of the Fleet, and ordered him to command the required fleet for the guarding of the river zones. As the Commander of the Fleet, an Admiral of the Navy is to be appointed, under the direct command of the Chief Executive. Regarding the Defence administration and the operation of forces he is to obey the orders of the Minister of the Department of Defence. His duty is to constantly patrol the river zones under his supervision, guard them, protect fishing boats, and watch for fish poachers and smugglers.

The Manchoukuo Government promulgated the naval flag of Manchoukuo on April 25, 1932, and issued the Warship Launching Law on April 24, 1933, for improving the navy.

### Military Equipments of Japan

**General Outline.**—By the terms of the Portsmouth Treaty and the Peking Treaty of 1905, Japan obtained the right of stationing 15 soldiers per one kilometre for the protection and guarding of the South Manchuria Railway lines and the Antung-Mukden Railway line. After the conclusion of the Russo-Japanese War, Japan continued to station one army division in the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone, but in July, 1906, she organized the Independent Railway Guard Corps specially for guarding railway lines, and then in April, 1909, formed the Headquarters of the Independent Guard Corps. Thus one army division and the Independent Guard Corps came to be stationed in Manchuria.

When the Russo-Japanese Peace Treaty was signed in September, 1905, and the Japanese troops were to be withdrawn from Manchuria, the Kwantung Government-General was organized and a military administration was established. But in June, 1906, the military administration was abolished, and the new organization law of the Kwantung Government-General was issued, stipulating that the Governor-General of Kwantung, who is either a General or Lieutenant-General, is to control both the civil and military administrations. Then in April, 1919, the law of the Kwantung Government organization was issued, and the military administration and the civil administration were separated. The civil administration came to be controlled by the Governor of the Kwantung Leased Territory, who is a civil officer, and for the military administration there was established the Headquarters of the Kwantung Army to supervise the division and the Independent Guard Corps stationed in South Manchuria.



When the new State of Manchoukuo was established, Japan recognized its independence, and the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol was signed, declaring that the two countries would jointly undertake the defence of Manchoukuo, as all threats to the territory and peace of one country at once become threats to the peace and existence of the other. Because of this agreement, Japanese troops are to be stationed within Manchoukuo; as far as the defence of Manchoukuo is concerned, the two countries have been brought into the relation of being one.

**Army.**—The chief organ of the Japanese Army in Manchoukuo is the Headquarters of the Kwantung Army. The authority of the Commander of the Kwantung Army is (1) under the direct command of the Emperor of Japan, to command the troops stationed in the Kwantung Leased Territory and South Manchuria, and to guard the Kwantung Leased Territory and protect the railway lines in South Manchuria; (2) to use military force in case it is regarded necessary for guarding the Kwantung Leased Territory and protecting the railway lines; (3) to despatch troops when the Governor of the Kwantung Leased Territory requests their despatch for the necessity of maintaining peace and order in the district under his jurisdiction or guarding the South Manchuria Railway Zone. But in the last case, he may take the necessary steps by the use of military force, when there is no time to wait for the demand of the Governor of the Kwantung Leased Territory because of the urgency of the situation. The Commander of the Kwantung Army is either a General or Lieutenant-General of the Army, and he receives the instructions of the Japanese Minister of War regarding the military administration and personnel affairs, of the Japanese Chief of General Staff regarding the operation of troops and mobilization plans, and of the Japanese Inspector-General of Military Education respecting the affairs of military education.

The Headquarters of the Kwantung Army was moved from Port Arthur to Mukden on account of the Manchurian incident, but because of the later developments in the country, the Japanese Army authorities recognized the necessity of effecting changes in the distribution of the Kwantung Army, and the Headquarters was moved to Hsinking, the capital of Manchoukuo, and it was decided to station standing troops in important districts of Manchoukuo. The removal of the Headquarters of the Kwantung Army to Hsinking was carried out in October, 1932.

The principal troops stationed in Manchoukuo under the control of the Headquarters of the Kwantung Army are as follow:

1. Division

- (The locality of the headquarters is not fixed.)
2. Independent Guard Corps  
(Headquarters at Mukden).
  3. Headquarters of the Port Arthur Fortress.
  4. Kwantung Gendarmerie Corps.  
(Headquarters is at Hsinking, and branch corps are stationed at various points along the railway lines.)
  5. Kwantung Military Warehouse  
(Main Warehouse is at Mukden, branch warehouses at Dairen and Tiehling, and a sub-branch at Port Arthur.)
  6. Army Hospital  
(Main Hospitals are at Hsinking, Port Arthur, Liaoyang and Tiehling, and branch hospitals at several places.)
  7. Military Prison  
(at Port Arthur).

**Navy.**—The Port Arthur Naval Station established with the surrender of Port Arthur during the Russo-Japanese War was changed into the Port Arthur Naval Base in 1914, and the latter was abolished in 1922. As the result of the agreement for the joint defence of Manchoukuo by Japan and Manchoukuo following Japan's recognition of the new State, the necessity of the naval base at Port Arthur was again recognized, and it was revived in April, 1933. The duty of the Port Arthur Naval Base is to protect and guard the sea along the coast of the Kwantung Leased Territory, and to guard the shores of Manchoukuo and North China, north of the Yangtze River.

According to the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol following Japan's recognition of Manchoukuo, the Japanese Naval Section stationed in Manchoukuo was established in April, 1933, as an organ for carrying out the duties of the Japanese Navy. The section is under the direct command of the Japanese Emperor, and undertakes matters concerning the defence of the coastline and rivers of Manchoukuo, and besides engaging in the guarding of the rivers, also handles military affairs concerning naval equipment, harbour affairs, transportation, and communications in Manchoukuo, and conducts investigations of natural resources in connection with navy. Under the Japanese Naval Section stationed in Manchoukuo there is the Temporary Naval Defence Corps, with its headquarters at Harbin, for protecting and guarding the Sungari River. The Naval Defence Corps undertakes the guarding of the Sungari River region by arming ordinary vessels, and also gives technical guidance to the crews of the Manchoukuo River Defence Fleet.



### Important Military Operations since the Establishment of Manchoukuo

The important military operations in which the Manchoukuo Army has participated since the establishment of the State are as follow : \*

Operation	Participating troops and Commander-in-chief	Strength of Participating troops	Troops of Opposing Force
Subjugation of anti-Kirin Army	Commander-in-chief : Yu Shen-cheng (于琛澄) Kirin Army : 7th Infantry Brigade 8th Infantry Brigade 2nd Cavalry Brigade 3rd Cavalry Brigade River Defence Fleet : Lisui, Litsai, Kiangping, Kiangching, Kiangtung.	7,000	Anti-Kirin Army : Li-tu, Ting-chao, Ma Hsien-chang, Li Chen-sheng
First Tungpientao Clearance	Commander-in-chief : Yu Chih-shan (于志山) Fengtien Army : 1st Detachment 2nd Detachment Subordinate forces Chinganyuchitui	4,000	Tang Chuwu Northeastern National Salvation Army : Wang Feng-ko (Tataihui)
Ma Chan-shan Subjugation	Commander-in-chief : Cheng Chih-yuan (程志遠) Heilungkiang Army : 1st Detachment 2nd Detachment	5,000	Ma Chan-shan 1st Route—Ma Chan-shan 2nd Route—Li Hai-ching 3rd Route—Wu Sung-lin
Li Hai-ching Subjugation	Heilungkiang Army : 1st Infantry Brigade 1st Cavalry Brigade Kirin 1st Cavalry Brigade Taoliao Army : 1st Detachment 4th Detachment 7th Detachment	6,000	Ma Chan-shan 2nd Route Li Hai-ching

\* 1. In this table are given only the principal military operations participated by the Manchoukuo Army after the establishment of Manchoukuo.

Enemy Strength	Operation Period	Note
20,000	March, 1932 to June, 1932	Operating jointly with the Japanese troops, drove the anti-Kirin troops to the northern parts of Kirin Province, and secured the control of the Sungari River course and occupied Ilan.
20,000	May to June, 1932	Former Tunghwa Regiment Commander Tang Chu-wu revolted, and surrounded the Japanese consulate at Tungho. Japanese Police forces advanced from Mukden, and the Fengtien Army also advanced at the same time from two different routes and commenced the clearing of the Tungpientao district. The revolting bandits being strong, Fengtien Army met defeats at various points. But the Chinganyuchitui bravely fought and demonstrated its value.
Main strength 6,000 Li bandits 10,000	Latter part of April to the first part of July, 1932	Ma Chan-shan who ran away from Tsitsihar on April 3, gathered his former troops, and opposed the Japanese and Manchoukuo troops. The Heilungkiang Army sent two detachments and attacked the Hailun district, the base of Ma's operation, and co-operating with Japanese troops, chased the Ma forces. Confusion was caused in many parts because the attitude of the Heilungkiang Army constantly changed.
10,000	First part of May to the latter part of May, 1932	The bandits under Li Hai-ching occupied Chaotung in the southern part of Heilungkiang and Fuyu in Kirin, and became very powerful. The Heilungkiang and Kirin Armies attacked from three sides, with the participation of Japanese troops and managed to disperse the enemy and regain the district. In this operation, Lieut.-General Chi-hsing, Commander of Kirin Province Guard Force personally commanded, and Hsu-chuan, Commander of the Heilungkiang Subjugation Army went to the first line and was wounded.

2. The operations for subjugation of bandits by various troops besides those mentioned in this table were numerous. 3. Figures given in this table are only rough estimates.



Operation	Participating troops and Commander-in-chief	Strength of Participating troops	Troops of Opposing Force
Feng Chan-hai Subjugation near Yushu	Kirin Army : Kirin Railways Guard Cavalry Corps Kirin 1st Infantry Brigade	1,600	Feng Chang-hai Kung Chang-hai
Subjugation of remnants of Li Hai-ching	Heilungkiang Army : 3rd Detachment (Feng Kuang-yu)	1,500	Remnants of Li Hai-ching force.
First Feng Chang-hai Subjugation	Taoliao Army : 4th Detachment 5th Detachment 8th Detachment Kirin Army : Liu Brigade	7,000	Feng Chang-hai Kung Chang-hai
Mongolian Bandit Subjugation	Taoliao Army : (Tang Yu-sung) 7th Detachment 1st Detachment (part)	2,500	Hu Pao-shan Hei Pao-tou Li Pao-ting
Attack of Tien-chen Bandit	Kirin Army : 1st Cavalry Brigade, 3rd Regiment	700	Tien-chen
Second Feng Chang-hai Subjugation	Kirin Army : Chang Detachment Chuan Detachment Kuo Detachment	7,000	Feng Chang-hai Kung Chang-hai
Su Ping-wei Subjugation (Manchouli incident)	Heilungkiang Army : Guard Corps 3rd Cavalry Regiment 1st Detachment Hsingan South Guard Army (part)	4,500	Su Ping-wei army Su Ping-wei Chang Tien-chiu



Enemy Strength	Operation Period	Note
15,000	June 20 to June 25, 1932	To subjugate the 30,000 anti-Kirin troops gathered in the district south of Harbin, the Kirin Army under the command of Lieutenant Ogawa met bandits on its way to Ssuho-cheng, after passing Yushu, and in the whole day's battle, both sides suffered much damage, and the Manchoukuo troops retreated to Yushu. The deaths among the Manchoukuo troops reached 150 including Lieutenant Ogawa, and the deaths of the enemy reached about 1,000.
2,000	Middle of July, 1932	The bandits under Li Hai-ching ran away to the Lanhsih district of Heilungkiang Province, and they were attacked, causing the deaths of 50 enemies; two leaders were arrested.
15,000	Latter part of June to the first part of July, 1932	Co-operating with Japanese troops, the districts of Shuangcheng, Acheng, Yushu, Wuchang and Shulan were cleared of bandits.
2,000	August 20 to the end of August, 1932	Bandits had occupied Tanyuhsien-cheng and caused destruction in the districts along the Ssutao railway line. The Taoliao Army, with the co-operation of Japanese troops, attacked those bandits, and recovered Tanyuhsien-cheng on November 1.
3,500	August 25, to the end of August, 1932	The Tien-chen bandits surrounded Shuangyang-hsien-cheng for several days, and the troops and police of the district held their ground against the bandits. One Regiment of Cavalry attacked the enemy, but without developing to a serious battle, the Tien-chen forces retreated.
10,000	September 2, 1932	Realizing that the Feng Chang-hai bandits were attempting to move to Jehol Province, the Kirin Army, in co-operation with Japanese troops, surrounded the Kirin district, and thus the bandits ran away to Jehol Province via the Nungan district, along the North Manchuria Railway line. Nungancheng was surrounded by the bandits, but the Liu Cavalry Brigade succeeded in protecting it.
20,000	September 30 to December 6, 1932	Su Ping-wen revolted and caused the Manchouli incident. Co-operating with the operation of the Japanese troops along the western line of the North Manchuria Railway, the Manchoukuo forces participated in the battle in the Fulaerchi district. The Hsingan Army formed the Solun Detachment and co-operating with the operation of Japanese detachments, advanced from Solun to Hailar. Su Ping-wen was defeated on December 5, and ran away to Soviet territory.