

in modulation are given for various modulation systems with multielectrode tubes. It is emphasized that the condition that minimizes distortion is incompatible with the condition of increase in degree of modulation.

The second part of the paper relates to such a case as that in which the range of operation is wide. The discussion is made from quite a different standpoint to that in the first part, wherein the coefficients of second degree are disregarded whereas, here, the coefficient of the first order term is considered. If this coefficient varies linearly with the operating voltage, such as a suppressor voltage, for example, the distortionless modulation

will then be accomplished. The value of the coefficient of course depends not only upon valve constants, but also on the external load impedance, all of which were confirmed by experiment.

It is concluded that what is essential are vacuum tubes, which must be studied and designed especially for the purpose of using them as modulator amplifiers.

Experimental results for various modulation systems, including series modulation with multielectrode tubes, are given and tabulated in comparison. Suppressor grid modulation gave the best result.

### Medicine

**Epidemics in Manchoukuo (1. Epidemic Goitre, 2. Kaschin-Beck's Disease.)**  
By T. Takamori. (Department of Internal Medicine; Manchuria Medical College, Mukden, Manchoukuo.)

I gave an account of endemic goitre at the general conference held the year before last, and this time I intend to report a part of our further investigations. Last year we investigated most of the province of Jehol, a part of Fengtien Province and a part of Hsingan Province.

The goitre which is prevalent in Jehol belongs to the class known as Alpine-goitre, and is commonly associated with deafmutism, idiocy, cretinism, and myxedema. The results of our investigations prove this very clearly.

#### Conditions of prevalence.

For convenience' sake we regarded those places where the disease was over 50% as having it in a high degree, those from 10 to 50%, as having a medium degree, and those of under 10%, as of a low degree. We investigated the regions along the Great Wall and the district surrounding Pingchuan, the incidence of which is of high degree, while the alpine regions such as Lingyuan, Chengte, Luanping, Lung-hua, and Weichang have it in a medium degree. The percentage tends to lessen the further a region is from the center.

#### Goitre incidence and races.

Both the Chinese and the Mongolians are affected by the disease and no noteworthy difference between the two could be observed. The Japanese resident in the goitre prevalent regions have also acquired the disease not-

withstanding their short stay. Previously I reported my opinion on a prophylaxis for the disease and brought the attention of the Manchoukuo government. Unless some well regulated prophylaxis be taken also by the Japanese Government, the problem will be a serious one for the immigration of her people to Jehol.

For this reason, we are conducting in our department, investigations of the iodine-content in vegetables, grains, and in the Manchurian soil, especially in that of Jehol, and of the so-called Mongolian salts and seasalt.

**Incidence and length of time of residence.**

There have been cases in which some people after a few months' residence in Jehol, have acquired an enlargement of the thyroid gland. The first Japanese, a non-commissioned officer of the 8th Division, became a victim of the disease four months after his entry into Jehol, and a member of the Japanese consular police in Pingchuan, nine months after, contracted a second-degree enlargement of the thyroid gland by Dieterle's scale.

#### Incidence and age.

Although enlarged thyroid glands are occasionally found in infants, the disease is least common in pre-school age, but increases in incidence as age advances, showing a rapid increase at the age of puberty, reaching its height at the age from 16 to 20. Thenceforth up to old age, though there may be ups and downs, no marked difference is recognized.

#### Incidence and sex.

Incidence is higher in females than in males and especially so at the age

of puberty. When the incidences in various localities are compared, those of females are always higher than those of males and the ratio in the two sexes appears to be always in inverse proportion to the occurrence of the disease in the locality, viz. the lower the occurrence the greater the difference, while scarcely any difference is observed in regions of high endemicity.

#### Incidence and occupation.

Generally the incidence is low among the upper classes such as government officials and merchants and high among farmers, craftsmen and coolies. This proves that the cause of the disease has a close connection with food, clothing, and habitation. The Japanese residents in Jehol who eat seaweed, rarely contract the disease, while those who do not it, are prone to become victims.

#### Incidence and wells.

Some investigators maintain that the causation of the disease should be attributed to the deficiency of iodine in drinking water, or to some toxin water in goitreous regions or to some unknown pathogenic organism. As the result of our extensive researches, I have come to believe that wells alone can not be blamed.

#### Kaschin-Beck's Disease.

The existence of a certain kind of arthropathy in various places of Manchoukuo has been recognized by the circuit clinic corps of our college which has been in operation for over ten years, but no one has as yet made thorough investigations and consequently there have been no reports concerning the malady. I have been studying this disease in the patients affected by it, and should like to report my observations thus far.

The malady appears to be endemically prevalent in various places in Manchoukuo. So far as I could see it exists endemically in the so-called Tung-pientao district, a rhomboid extension of land surrounded by the Hsinking Tumen, Mukden Antung, Fentien Kirin railway lines, and the boundary line between Manchoukuo and Korea, and the Peianchen district in the Province of Lungchiang. The incidence varied from 10 to 50 or 60% respectively. The principal symptom is a poly-articular symmetrical swelling or deformity in various joints of the extremities. Most frequently it attacks the small joints of the fingers and toes, gradually advancing and bringing changes in the joints of the elbows, the arms, and the feet. Shoulder-joints and thigh-

joints may be likewise attacked, but only in a slight degree. Pains in the articulations are the symptoms felt by the patients, and are especially remarkable in spring and in autumn and after labour. This malady chronically progresses from the very beginning and lacks acute inflammatory symptoms such as calorification and reddening of the joints. Therefore the time of contraction of the disease can not definitely be given, but in many cases people have fallen ill from the ages of 10 to 14 or 15. This is not always so as some of them have contracted the disease in early childhood and some after they attained full age. In those who become victims in childhood the lengthwise growth of bones is obstructed. In the attacked joint regions disturbance of movements and abnormality of position and deformity are seen.

Viewed by röntgen-rays, no accumulations of an exudation nor thickening of capsular ligaments were found. Transformation of articular ends of bones and their withering, the roughening of surface, and the formation of osteophytes were seen. Articular cavities which bear the resemblance of arthritis deformans are generally narrow.

This malady is supposed to be the same as that reported by Okano, an army surgeon, as chronic progressive poly-arthritis deformans, in Korea in the 8th year of Taisho (1919), and later on studies by Nakamura, Kato, Kin, and others. In Japan proper two cases were reported by Hiramatsu in Yamaguchi Prefecture.

The disease also exists in the Transbaikal district. In 1956 a Russian army surgeon, Kaschin, first investigated it, then Beck made a further study of it.

The disease should be called osteochondroarthrosis deformans endemica owing to the absence of inflammatory symptoms, or simply Kaschin-Beck's disease.

The disease seems to be endemically prevalent in the Transbaikal district, in various places in Manchoukuo, and in the northern part of Korea.

As to the causation of this disease Hiramatsu holds the theory that the trouble lies in the mutual relation of internal secretions; in the opinion of others, a special relation with the thyroid gland is held to be the cause.

In the Transbaikal district where the disease prevails, goitrecretinism also endemically exists. In the Tunhua and the Peianchen districts in Manchoukuo,

goltre exists at the same time. However, the distribution of this disease and goltre do not always correspond.

Certain investigators hold that drinking water or the lack of vitamins is the cause. The truth has to be discovered by future study.

**Clinical Study On Roentgendiagnosis of Cancer of Stomach.** By Shuhéi Nozaki. (Roentgen, Clinic, Medical Faculty, Niigata). [Crenzgebjet, Vol. 10, p. 546, 1936.]—Any of filling method, polygraphy and relief roentgenography must not be omitted, if one expects perfectness of roentgenological diagnosis of cancer of stomach, but polygraphy is most valuable for early diagnosis and determination of indication. After an administration of contrast media the polygraphy is made at first, then the simple examination of filled stomach and at last roentgenography of relief are carried out. Roentgenological determination of operative indication for cancer of stomach is not always correct: 77.9% of cases, which were diagnosed as radically operable, was correctly diagnosed and 12.3% of cases, which were thought inoperable, was falsely diagnosed. Adhesion, metastasis of lymphglands and other organs are often the causation of inoperable, in those cases the both curvatures of the stomach do not show any peristaltic movements in the polygrams, while there is no considerable stenosis of the pylorus or marked change on the fluoroscope. Examination of the gastric content, occult blood, sedimentation velocity of erythrocytes and the curve of the gastric movement are of valuable aid of diagnosis.

**Statistical observations upon the peritonitis tuberculose** By Junichiro Honda. (Med. Clinic, Med. Faculty, Kanazawa). [Jufenkai Z, Vol. 40, p. 2319, 1935.]—The female is affected three times oftener than the male, especially in the younger age than twenty five. It is not always complicated by other tuberculosus diseases. Pleuritis is most frequently complicated, lung tuberculosis is next to it. The most cases of the exsudative form of the peritonitis are combined with the pleuritis and changes in blood picture are not so remarkable. Disturbance of stool is seen in about 40%, and that of the menstruation is observed in about half case. The exsudive form slows better prognosis and the prognosis of the lesion is the worst, when the pulmonary tuberculosis is combined.

Irradiation of x-ray or ultra-violet ray is of little use when the inflammation is flourishing, while injections of calcium preparation is rather valuable in such case. However the irradiation must be always tried.

**Statistic observations of gallstones by radiographic appearance** By Yasutaro Hashimoto and Těiji Matsubara. (Surgic. Clinic, Imperial University Tokyo). [Nihon Geka Gakkai Z. Vol. 36, p. 800, 1935.]—We have studied the photo-roentgenographs of 44 gallstone cases operated in the surgical clinic of Prof. Shiota from June 1929 to March, 1934. Dr. S. Sato reported 116 gallstone cases by radiographic appearance in November 1931, most of which came from the surgical clinic of Prof. Dr. Shiota until April, 1929. Adding Dr. Sato's cases, we made a statistical research of 160 gallstone cases by radiographic appearance. Our classification of gallstone by radiographic appearance is based on Dr. Sato's method.

The nature of the photoroentgenograph of gallstones,

1. Cholesterin stones (19 cases, 11.87%).

A characteristic nature of these stones in roentgenograph is the uniform faint but positive shadow, the contrast to surroundings is not distinct.

2. Pigment calcium stones (45 cases, 28.13%). In general this group shows a faint positive appearance. There is seen dark calcified shadows at various areas.

3. Cholesterin pigment calcium stones (44 cases, 27.59%). These stones indicate a positive shadow mixed with faint figures and the greatest part of them shows a concentric zone. In some of them these are not present.

4. Anorganic calcium stones (29 cases, 18.13%). In the center of the stone-shadow there is seen a dark image of lime.

5. Parasite stones (9 cases, 5.62%). In the center of these stones, there is a wormlike shadow surrounded by a clear zone of airslit. This shadow was probably created by dead parasites. The peripheric zone is dark image of the stone. There are 3 zones seen in the film, i. e. faintly positive shadow of wormlike body, airslit, and the dark zone of stone.

6. Combined stones covered with mantle (14 cases 8.75%). Most of these stones consist of many small stones covered together with one mantle.

## CHAPTER XXXIV

### PRESS AND PUBLICATIONS

#### Press

##### Early History

**Yomiuri** Even in Old Japan some form of public announcement was issued from time to time, like the *Acta Diurna* of the era of the Roman Empire, but perhaps the present subject may appropriately be begun with the *Yomiuri*, the oldest semblance of the newspaper, which name can be literally translated "reading aloud and selling." The *Yomiuri* sheets were so named because the venders read aloud the contents of the newspaper on the street while soliciting buyers. The *Yomiuri* sheets were essentially the *Flugblatt* of the Middle Ages of Europe. They consisted of single printed sheets, or pamphlets of several pages, recording the latest events of the period. Even in those days the progress of wood-block prints permitted the appearance of illustrations in the sheets. In many cases the illustrations were the outstanding feature, and the descriptive matter was of secondary importance. In this respect the *Yomiuri* differed from the *Flugblatt* of Europe.

**Its Publishers** Old records are lacking to identify the publishers of the *Yomiuri*, but it appears that the publishers of newspapers, or rather equivalents to newspapers, in the earlier part of the Tokugawa period (about 250 years before the Restoration of Meiji, 1868) were men of little fame and honour. Even at the end of the Tokugawa period it appears that the publishers of the *Yomiuri* were men of so lowly positions that they were not permitted to enter the society of even woodblock printers. It is, however, considered likely that his early form of the newspaper failed to make any progress owing to government pressure. The *Yomiuri* carried contents that were often inflammatory and distasteful to the government. Suspension of publication was ordered so frequently that no decent publishers dared to take it up as an enterprise. Only men of low repute engaged in the business often against the law.

Printing of the *Yomiuri* sheets was done by wood-block prints. The contents of the *Yomiuri* sheets can general-

ly be divided into two, prose and poetry. This distinction, it appears, existed from the early part of the Tokugawa period. In the era of Genroku (1688-1704) the hawkers sold their sheets on the street either calling the attention of prospective buyers by singing, with or without the accompaniment of the *samisen*, or merely reading aloud the contents. At the end of the Tokugawa period sheets were sold with the sellers singing popular ballads.

**Its Contents** A perusal of those *Yomiuri* sheets still extant shows that at the outset of the development the chief interest of the sheets lay in the illustrations. What are believed to be the oldest *Yomiuri* have illustrations of the Battle of the Osaka Natsu-no-jin in May in the first year of the era of Genna (1615), accompanied by descriptive matter. Judging from the frequent issuance of suppression or suspension orders, *Yomiuri* sheets appear to have been published and sold in abundance during the eras of Empo (1673-81), Jokyo (1684-88) and Genroku (1688-1704). In Western Japan, with Osaka as the centre, there is evidence of the popularity of erotic contents in *Yomiuri* sheets, featuring such stuff as stories of double suicides. Since the vendetta of the famous Forty-seven Ronin vendetta stories formed the chief subject of interest and after the era of Genroku subjects of natural calamities were featured. In the eras of Bunka (1804-18) and Bunsai (1818-30) the enforcement of justice and morality undertaken by the Shogunate government, stressing the protection of right and chastisement of wrong, was reflected in the stories featured in the *Yomiuri* sheets of those days, even in the accounts of natural calamities and those of sex relations. Because the stories were written by men of low repute, the contents of the *Yomiuri* sheets in many cases were repellent in tone. Immediately before and after the Restoration of Meiji accounts of the civil disturbances were written, but by this time the number of *Yomiuri* sheets had considerably decreased owing to the appearance of

newspapers in the more correct sense of the term.

**Fusetsugaki** Another equivalent of the modern newspaper, in addition to the *Yomiuri*, was a periodical named "Fusetsugaki" or Book of Reports, which carried foreign intelligence. These books were of two kinds, one with Dutch and one with Chinese reports. After the third Tokugawa Shogun adopted the policy of seclusion, it was only China and the Netherlands which had intercourse with Japan. Captain "Yanyos" (Jan Josten) of Holland, after Japan's adoption of the seclusion policy, presented annually a book descriptive of foreign affairs to the Shogunate government. It was the *Oranda Fusetsugaki*, or Book of Dutch Reports. The Chinese government in those days presented to the Shogunate government of Japan Chinese intelligence after the manner of the Dutchmen. Information obtained thus was placed in the hands of the Prime Minister and kept confidential, but after the American "black ships" came to knock at the door of Japan, permission was granted to make copies of these books for public circulation. The presentation of Dutch documents continued until the era of Ansei (1854-60), but as the country was opened to foreign intercourse this custom was discontinued at the request of the Dutch government, which instead of the customary annual volume presented Dutch newspapers to the Japanese government. It is considered certain that the newspapers thus presented to Japan were copies of the *Javasehe Courant*, organ of the Government of Batavia.

**Precursor of Modern Paper** When the provincial clans requested that the Dutch Book of Reports be made public, the Shogunate government's *Yosho Shirabesho*, or Bureau for the Study of Western Learning, agreed and planned to publish it. This plan did not materialize, as the Dutch government then replaced the book with newspapers, but instead, the bureau translated the newspapers into Japanese and published them for general circulation. This was the precursor of the modern newspaper in Japan. Not content with this Dutch newspaper, the Shogunate government continued to translate and publish other newspapers from Holland and imported Chinese-language newspapers published by white Christian evangelists in Hong Kong, Shanghai and other places, and had them not only translated and annotated but printed and bound into books and entrusted Hyoshiro Yorodzuza, a book purveyor

to the Shogunate government, with the public sale of these books. In general printing wooden types were used. For printing these Chinese newspapers imposition was adopted and for this purpose the Shogunate government had to establish a special department for type foundry. This enterprise was a reflection of the out-and-out principle the Shogunate government adopted for opening the country to foreign intercourse. Those books were chiefly published during the era of Bunkyo (1801-64). Hence they were popularly called *Bunkyo Shimbun* (newspaper).

**Papers in Yokohama** In the meantime, anti-foreign sentiment was gaining force in this country and after the era of Bunkyo this interfered with the translation and publication of foreign newspapers. Foreign residents of Yokohama, however, translated foreign-language newspapers and published them in Japanese and they were patronized by those who favoured opening the country to foreign intercourse. Men on the staff of the Bureau for the Study of Foreign Learning had an eye on foreign affairs and established a new institution for the purpose of translating into Japanese articles dealing with Japan which appeared in the English-language newspapers in Yokohama, such as the *Japan Commercial News* and *Japan Times*. Those translations were not printed but written by scribes and circulated among interested persons. The years during which this was done extended from 1863 to 1865. Foreign residents of Yokohama also published three Japanese-language newspapers, *Kaigai Shimbun* (Foreign Newspaper), *Bankoku Shimbun* (International Newspaper) and *Rondon Shimbun* (London Newspaper). Of these three, the *Bankoku Shimbun* had in its contents not only foreign intelligence but news of Yokohama and comment on the English-language newspapers of Yokohama; it introduced ideas of British civilization and carried many advertisements. This journal was edited ably in a characteristic style and published monthly. From this time general progress in newspaper-making was noticeable.

**Foreign Language Papers** The first foreign-language newspaper published in Japan was the *Nagasaki Shipping List and Advertiser* issued for the first time in the year 1861 by a resident Britisher, Mr. Hansard. It was a weekly. The publisher soon moved to Yokohama, where he continued his publication under the name of *The Japan Herald*, the first issue of which was brought out in December of the same year. He

employed Mr. Black, another Britisher, then a resident of the port city, as editor-in-chief. The example set by the *Japan Herald* was soon followed by the appearance of the *Japan Commercial News* in 1863, a weekly published by a Portuguese. In October of the same year, the *Japan Herald*, in addition to the weekly, started a daily newspaper which featured advertisements. In the year 1865 the *Commercial News* was discontinued and Mr. Rickerby, a banker, bought the newspaper equipment and started the *Japan Times* in September of the year. In 1867 Mr. Black had a dispute with the new owner of the *Japan Herald*, and, leaving the paper, he issued the *Japan Gazette*, an evening paper. The popularity of the *Japan Gazette* overwhelmed the *Japan Times* and the latter lost much patronage and finally had to discontinue publication. The disappearance of the *Japan Times*, however, was followed by the launching of the *Japan Mail*. In addition to these newspapers, there was another English-language newspaper, having the name of the *Japan Express*, published by an American, whose first issue appeared in 1866. The copies of this newspaper were hand-written, carved in wood blocks, and printed. While the name of the publisher and the period of publication are unknown, it is recorded in a diplomatic document in the possession of the French government that this journal represented the American interests. In addition to these papers, there were also a French newspaper, *L'Echo du Japon*, in the era of Keio (1865-69), an English magazine of caricature, the *Japan Punch*, which was published continuously for 20 years from the era of Bunkyo (1861-64), and a French magazine of caricature entitled *Tobayé*. These publications stimulated directly or indirectly the birth of the Japanese modern newspapers.

**The Restoration Demand** for foreign intelligence was the principal factor in the birth of newspapers in the East as in the West. In Japan, too, newspapers of the earlier periods carried much foreign news, but when there were big developments like civil disturbances they played up internal affairs. The Restoration of Meiji in 1868 afforded the press of Japan much scope for development. Newspaper editors in Yedo, the present Tokyo, were excellent scholars and their papers were much superior to those edited in the provinces. One of the papers in Yedo already advocated parliamentary politics as early as this period. Newspapers

published by those holding the "Emperor-centric" policy were filled with articles which merely reflected on the intelligence of the editors themselves. They only advocated the "Emperor-centric" policy and did not propose any advanced ideas about reforms. Newspapers affiliated with the Shogunate government enjoyed much larger circulation than their competitors and it is stated that one of them had a circulation of 3,000.

#### The Press Law

The press law in Japan was enforced by the Government for the first time in February, 1869. This was the signal for several new newspapers to spring up. The Government, however, interfered so much with the press that sales of newspapers were much hindered and the healthy progress of the press was checked. While the business side of the press was dull, editing itself attained notable progress. Political news had become unusually constructive and efforts were made to establish a new civilization and propagate new and advanced ideas among the people.

#### Modern Papers

**The Yokohama Mainichi** The first true Japanese daily newspaper appeared in December, 1870, with the publication of the *Yokohama Mainichi Shimbun*. Not only was this newspaper a daily but it consisted of a single foreign-style paper sheet with printing done with lead types. In outside appearance it had the semblance of the modern newspaper. Although its contents were much inferior to those of the newspapers that were founded later in Tokyo, it resembled English-language newspapers in that it carried many advertisements.

**More Papers Born** The year 1872 saw several more dailies born, newspapers which were more perfect in appearance and reading matter than their predecessors. Those newspapers included the *Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun*, *Yubin Hochi Shimbun*, and the *Nisshin Shinjishi*, the last being edited under the supervision of Mr. Black, formerly editor of the *Japan Herald*. The *Nichi Nichi* and *Hochi* remain to this day but the *Shinjishi* had to change hands in 1875 when the Government, in an effort to bring pressure to bear upon democratic newspapers, controlled the activities of foreigners in newspapers. The change of ownership brought decadence to the journal and the paper was discontinued shortly afterward.

### Government and Press

**Era of Terrorism** An era of terrorism dawned upon Japan's journalism in 1875 when the government, dissatisfied with the way in which the press in general stirred up the discontented elements of the people, revised the press law with the avowed purpose of curbing the influence of the newspapers. Severe punishment was provided for violation of the press law. Journalists writing articles censuring the government were fined or imprisoned. Indeed, this was the first time journalists in Japan were exposed to punishment. Not content with this cruel legislation, the government in July, 1877, invested the Home Minister with power to suppress newspapers or delay their publication, and he was thus free to bring pressure to bear upon them as he saw fit. This objectionable law worked havoc with the press, whose progress was much hampered thereby.

The era in which newspapers served as political party organs began in 1881. Two years before that time the movement in favour of instituting the Diet was launched by the late Taisuké Itagaki and others.

**Revised Press Law** The government's desperate policy of oppression toward the liberals of the period, which resulted in the prohibition of the formation of political associations and the oppression of newspapers and magazines, came to a definite halt on December 26, 1887, with the enforcement of a new government decree. Two days later a revised press law was issued, considerably modifying the strict control of the press, which had had the effect of almost exterminating all the free political organs of the country. The new press law was drafted on the basis of the principle of "freedom of the press," recognized in the Japanese Constitution which was to be promulgated shortly. The new press law was received by journalistic circles with much satisfaction. Indeed, the modified press law marks a turning point in the history of the development of the modern newspaper in this country.

Whereas under the old law a prospective publisher had to apply for a permit to start a newspaper, by the new regulations he had only to notify the authorities of his intention to issue a journal. The prefectural governor was robbed of his power to suppress newspapers or confiscate the newspaper plants and only the Home Minister was given such power. Unreserved criticism for public good was admitted, and

compared with the despotic rule that had prevailed before, newspaper management under the new law became markedly free.

### Emergence of Independent Dailies

The approaching promulgation of the Constitution, coupled with the removal of the ban on the formation of political associations and the growing political enthusiasm among the people, revived political newspapers. In the meantime, the Diet was instituted and the majority of the best-known editors of influential newspapers were elected to the legislature. As a natural consequence, the newspapers of these editors became their political tools and alienated public sympathy. Their popularity showed a decided tendency to wane.

**The Kokumin and Yorozu** While the political organs were thus losing influence, a strictly politically-independent newspaper which refused to cater for the popular taste of the people but which assumed an attitude to instruct the public was founded and caught the fancy of the intellectuals of the day. Its editing, however, was on the old lines and this newspaper never became popular. In the year 1890 Mr. Heitaro Tokutomi founded the Kokumin Shimbun, a popular newspaper. This journal enjoyed the support of the masses and soon other papers more or less imitated the style of editing inaugurated by the Kokumin. In 1892 the late Mr. Shuroku Kuroiwa founded the Yorozu Choho, which added to the Kokumin's style of editing a strong spice of sensationalism, devoting much of its space to the publication of detective and love stories. The Yorozu invaded the fields of the Miyako Shimbun, Yamato Shimbun and other newspapers then having the largest circulation. Thus, the promulgation of the Constitution served to bring about marked progress in the development of the modern newspaper in this country.

**Chinese War and the Press** The Sino-Japanese War (1894-5) caused severe competition in news reporting. The Osaka Asahi Shimbun, by introducing new features in covering war news, greatly increased the number of its subscribers. In Tokyo the Chuo Shimbun, closely affiliated with the military, was conspicuous for its activities in the issuance of extras and consequently gained an enlarged circulation. Other papers also sent war correspondents and featured news from the front. The Yorozu then was the most popular newspaper, having a circulation of 20,000. In point of circulation the newspapers of that time were in the follow-

ing order: The Yorozu Choho, Kokumin Shimbun, Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, Miyako Shimbun, Nihon Shimbun, Chuo Shimbun, Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, Jiji Shimpō, Mainichi Shimbun, Yubin Hochi Shimbun and Yamato Shimbun. The war was also responsible for the appearance of influential provincial newspapers, including the Fukuoka Nichi Nichi Shimbun in Kyushu, the Shin Aichi in Nagoya, the Kahoku Shimpō in Sendai and the Hokkai Times in Hokkaido.

### After the Russian War

**Catering to the Public** Following the Sino-Japanese War the majority of the newspapers in Tokyo adopted an impartial attitude toward politics and concentrated their efforts in popularizing pages. To advance their sales they resorted to means which often savoured of vulgarity and received public criticism. The city of Osaka witnessed a duel between the Asahi and the Mainichi not only in business but in news gathering. In the meantime, the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5) occurred to start keen competition in war coverage. The Asahi both in Tokyo and Osaka, the Osaka Mainichi and the Jiji Shimpō competed severely in the matter of extras and increased their circulation. At the end of the war the peace treaty was signed at Portsmouth, but the peace terms were found unsatisfactory and stoutly opposed by all the newspapers of Tokyo and Osaka, with the exception of the Kokumin and the Chuo, both of Tokyo, the political organs of the then Government. Anti-peace mass meetings were held in Tokyo and Osaka, and in Tokyo the participants in the mass meeting, incited by inflammatory articles in one or two newspapers, turned into a mob and attacked the building of the Kokumin Shimbun. To suppress the mob the government had to proclaim martial law. The government simultaneously issued an urgent Imperial Ordinance and suspended the publication for certain periods of the newspapers which incited the public to violence. During one month shortly after the enforcement of the Imperial Ordinance the Yorozu, the Niroku, the Miyako, the Nihon, the Jimmin, the Asahi of Tokyo and Osaka, and other papers were suspended. Of these papers, the Niroku and the Osaka Asahi suffered suspension twice in a month.

**Equilibrium of Influence** The panic in the newspaper world thus brought about upset the equilibrium of influence. The Kokumin was robbed of much circulation; so was the Chuo. The

Yorozu, with a special appeal to the youth of Japan, increased its circulation markedly. In Osaka the Mainichi took advantage of the suspension of publication which the Asahi suffered and invaded its unfortunate yet heretofore superior competitor's field, with the result that finally their influence in business and other respects became about even.

**Motion Picture Utilized** Several changes for the better were effected following the Russo-Japanese War, and it is noteworthy that the changes effected all concerned with newspaper enterprises. The Kokumin, which had suffered a dwindling popularity since the paper became the object of public censure by supporting the government that signed a "humiliating peace treaty," issued provincial editions, an example which was soon followed by other newspapers. Shortly afterward the Hochi attained success by issuing an evening edition. This ambitious enterprise was also followed by several other competitors. As regards the contents of newspapers, the Yorozu reported all sorts of sports and amusements; the Asahi brightened its pages with articles from the pen of famous men of letters like the late Soseki Natsumé, and the Hochi established a precedent by carrying a novel in serial form that suited home reading. On the business side, the Hochi took the initiative in establishing provincial branches. The Yamato promoted an exhibition and began a motion picture demonstration show throughout the country.

That these enterprises attained favourable results soon showed in the increased number of circulation. According to reports considered reliable, the Osaka Asahi topped the list with 350,000. The Osaka Mainichi came next with 300,000, and the other papers came in the following order: the Hochi, 200,000; the Yorozu, the Kokumin and the Yamato each 150,000; the Tokyo Asahi, 80,000, and the others 30,000 or 40,000 each.

### In the Taisho Era

**Expansion of the Business** One notable advance made by the press of Japan during the Taisho Era was the remarkable expansion of newspaper business. All first-class journals erected imposing structures for their offices and installed expensive high-speed presses. By the end of the era all the leading newspapers in Tokyo and Osaka had become public corporations with their capitalizations above the ¥1,000,000 mark. The earthquake and fire of 1923 reduced

to ashes the majority of the newspapers in Tokyo, except the Hochi, Nichi Nichi and Miyako. Of the unfortunate sufferers, those financially well off got to a good start and soon recovered their former positions, but those less financially favoured failed to raise their heads again and had to be content with insignificant showings. At present the Osaka Asahi and Osaka Mainichi possess more than 1,000,000 subscribers each, and big papers in Tokyo have subscribers approaching the above figure. It is not an exaggeration to say that the achievements made by the press of Japan after the dawn of the era of Showa (1926-) are a high-water mark of Japan's modern culture.

#### Present-Day Newspapers

Of numerous papers, the Asahi and the Mainichi are the most widely circulated and the most popular with our intellectuals. Both of these papers have their main offices in Osaka. They also have a large office each in Tokyo, one being called the Tokyo Asahi and the other the Tokyo Nichi Nichi. Recently the Yomiuri has come to run a close second in the race for press leadership. Not only are these papers widely read in the larger cities, but they also vie with one another in outrivalling the minor local press in provincial cities and towns by issuing their own local editions which possess the features of the local press in addition to the features essentially their own.

The more influential dailies in Tokyo and Osaka pay special attention to international news, that is, to cables from abroad. They are eager to get foreign news as speedily as possible. Japan's largest news agency, the Domei Tsushin Sha, has been and is obtaining a great deal of news from abroad in concert with the world's influential news agencies. Not to be behind, the Asahi, the Mainichi, the Yomiuri and other large papers all have their own special correspondents stationed in the principal cities of the world. So complete is its network of communications that our press, coupled with the spread of radio and periodicals, has done much to augment knowledge of international affairs on the part of the nation at large.

The reason why the Asahi and the Mainichi have attained the present prosperity may be found in their critical attitude towards the successive powers that be, as well as in the speed and accuracy with which they furnish news to the readers. This has been particularly so with the Asahi, with the result that it has received strong support from the

nation's intellectuals. Since the Manchurian incident, however, there has been much change in the attitude of editorial writers of our dailies. Just as the press in other countries has lately been compelled to alter its functions, so in recent years our influential dailies, the Asahi, the Mainichi, the Yomiuri, etc., have come to find it necessary to modify their tone owing to the great change that has taken place in the political situation. In the main, the tendency is now for the press to support the Government's policy. It must not be supposed that the Japanese press is controlled by law. Still, one can easily imagine that a considerable change has been made in the functions of the Japanese press, whose duty it is to guide public opinion bright, simply as a result of editorial appraisal of the limits within which freedom can be exercised safely and profitably.

**Activities in 1937** Since the outbreak of the present hostilities between Japan and China, conditions, political, economic and what not, in this country have greatly changed. It is natural that the press should also be influenced by the change and be run in accordance with the spirit of the times. The birth of the Domei Tsushinsha, the organization of the Koho Kyokai in Manchoukuo, the organization of the Information Committee, the enforcement of the law controlling seditious literature, the organization of the Cabinet Information Bureau and the invocation of Article 27 of the Press Law (governing the control of information regarding military secrets) have not only circumscribed the freedom of the press in giving information, but evidently are manifestations of the Government's intentions to mobilize the press for the good of the country.

The times being such, the editorial policy of the newspapers have come, consciously or unconsciously, to co-operate with the Governmental policies and great efforts have been made to give fresh informations on the progress of warfare in China, sending many correspondents to the front where not a few of them sacrificed their lives. By the good use of cinema leading papers are satisfying people with shows of living pictures of battles.

**Government, a Journalist** The spirit of the times was carried forward a step further when with the development of the China situation the Government has successfully launched upon a journalistic career. The Shuho (Weekly), the Shashin Shuho (Photo-

graphic Weekly) and the Zaisei (Finances) are representative magazines published by the Government. The Shuho, a supplement of the Official Gazette, is edited and published by the Information Bureau of the Cabinet. It is sold at 5 sen a copy. Official weekly though it is, the Shuho is far from being ideally edited, but in circulation it is so successful that it is now estimated at 250,000. Its cheap price and authenticity evidently account for the success of the Shuho. The weekly's rationalized salesmanship has also done a great deal for building up its great circulation. The weekly is sold systematically and efficiently through the bookstores and news stands where the Official Gazette is on sale. A similar sales campaign is adopted for all other official magazines, which, therefore, are conducted on a paying basis. Shashin Shuho which is only three months old at the present writing (April, 1938) is claimed to boast of a circulation of 150,000 copies.

#### Number of Newspapers

The number of daily newspapers in Japan proper in October, 1937 was 1,214. In addition, there were on the same day 601 newspapers issued 4 times or more a month and 5,913 newspapers issued 3 times or less a month. All these 7,728 papers come under the category of "newspapers" and are so treated by the Government. The newspapers classified according to prefectures follow:

Prefecture	Daily Papers	Issued 4 times or more a Month	Others and Total
Tokyo	251	125	1,881
Kyoto	36	8	336
Osaka	98	62	743
Kanagawa	19	11	133
Hyogo	48	32	336
Nagasaki	10	8	78
Niigata	21	26	145
Saitama	9	2	50
Gumma	14	8	64
Chiba	14	5	73
Ibaraki	12	3	88
Tochigi	15	10	68
Nara	8	2	61
Mie	17	6	101
Aichi	73	26	496
Shizuoka	60	1	170
Yamanashi	8	4	26
Shiga	18	4	82
Gifu	11	3	72
Nagano	39	10	324
Miyagi	15	5	63

Prefecture	Daily Papers	Issued 4 times or more a Month	Others and Total
Fukushima	38	3	104
Iwate	12	3	49
Aomori	12	19	72
Yamagata	12	7	59
Akita	7	20	58
Fukui	15	8	74
Ishikawa	10	10	61
Toyama	7	8	79
Tottori	3	3	39
Shimane	2	3	34
Okayama	10	4	81
Hiroshima	18	15	116
Yamaguchi	17	20	113
Wakayama	20	10	74
Tokushima	4	—	21
Kagawa	2	3	48
Ehime	21	10	147
Kochi	4	4	45
Fukuoka	57	32	344
Oita	32	3	90
Saga	7	7	50
Kumamoto	7	5	59
Miyazaki	14	4	51
Kagoshima	6	2	64
Okinawa	6	7	24
Hokkaido	75	28	362
Total	1,214	601	7,728

**Mainly in Tokyo and Osaka** The majority of leading newspapers are published in Tokyo and Osaka. This is because Tokyo is the capital of the Empire and Osaka is the centre of social and economic life in West Japan. The combined number of daily newspapers in the two largest cities is 30 per cent of all and their combined circulation covers almost all parts of this country. Large daily papers have their own provincial editions of more than 20 kinds. The spheres of provincial editions are divided between the large papers of Tokyo and Osaka. Tokyo papers publish provincial editions for Eastern Japan, Hokkaido and Saghalien, while Osaka papers issue those for Western Japan, Shikoku, Kyushu, Korea and Formosa. These provincial editions eat into the business spheres of country papers. Recently, Tokyo and Osaka papers have been issuing Manchurian editions. Next to these cities in the number of their papers come Aichi (Nagoya), Hokkaido, Kyoto, Hyogo (Kobe), Fukuoka and Nagano prefectures, reflecting the extent of cultural development of those localities. Okinawa prefecture (Loochoos) issues only 16, the smallest number of all, and 19 are issued in Tokushima prefecture in Shikoku.

Increase or Decrease The following table gives the number of newspapers which increased or decreased each year, from 1926 to 1937:

	With Guarantee Money					Without Guarantee Money				
	Sum Total	Total	Daily	4 Times or more Monthly	3 Times or Less Monthly	Total	Daily	4 Times or More Monthly	3 Times or Less Monthly	
1926	7,600	5,089	861	344	3,884	2,511	174	165	2,172	
1927	8,350	5,438	916	380	4,142	2,912	177	170	2,565	
1928	8,445	5,482	966	399	4,117	2,963	184	178	2,601	
1929	9,191	5,917	1,020	417	4,480	3,274	201	193	2,880	
1930	10,130	5,995	1,031	428	4,536	4,135	184	221	3,730	
1931	10,666	6,290	1,083	476	4,731	4,376	197	247	3,932	
1932	11,118	6,301	1,124	463	4,714	4,817	206	241	4,370	
1933	11,860	6,678	1,179	461	5,038	5,182	210	261	4,711	
1934	12,166	7,081	1,219	470	5,392	5,084	215	258	4,611	
1935	12,101	7,180	1,222	506	5,452	4,921	219	256	4,407	
1936	12,820	7,531	1,226	564	5,741	5,286	209	498	4,579	
1937	13,154	7,728	1,214	601	5,913	5,426	—	—	—	

#### Circulation

**Circulation Unpublished** The circulation of daily newspapers in Japan ranges from about 4,000 to about 1,500,000. Japanese newspapers never make public their exact circulation. For this reason, it is impossible to get the exact figures of circulation of each or any. What is believed to be comparatively correct of the daily circulation of more than 1,100 newspapers is an estimate of about 19,000,000, and in 1937 the average monthly consumption of paper by all newspapers amounted to over 800,000,000 lbs. The number of households in Japan is over 17,500,000. Newspapers are far more widely read in cities than in provinces and they are read more in commercial and industrial districts than in agricultural districts. Tokyo has the largest number of daily newspapers, and the more powerful ones are a well-defined force in society. Among them are the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, the Yomiuri Shimbun, the Hochi Shimbun, the Miyako Shimbun, the Kokumin Shimbun and the Chugai Shogyo Shimpō. The first-mentioned two papers are predominant, having an overwhelming influence in newspaper circles. As organizations for news reporting these two giant papers rank among the world's largest newspapers.

Osaka City has a relatively small number of daily papers, 88 in all, but, as regards circulation, the Osaka Asahi Shimbun, which is the head office of the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, and the Osaka Mainichi Shimbun, which controls the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, predominate all, and their circulation is said to

be nearly the same. The two papers have practically the whole of Western Japan under their control, and their influence is felt stronger in Kyushu districts by the publication of the "Kyushu Asahi" and the "Western Mainichi" commenced in February, 1935.

**Estimated Circulation** Estimated circulation of leading dailies in Japan is as follows:

Tokyo	
Tokyo Asahi Shimbun	1,100,000
Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun	1,000,000
Yomiuri Shimbun	1,000,000
Chugai Shogyo Shimpō	150,000
Kokumin Shimbun	150,000
Hochi Shimbun	300,000
Osaka	
Osaka Asahi Shimbun	1,300,000
Osaka Mainichi Shimbun	1,200,000
Leading Provincial Paper	
Shin-aichi, Nagoya	200,000
Fukuoka Nichi Nichi, Fukuoka	180,000
Hokkai Times, Sapporo	100,000
Kahoku Shimpō, Sendai	100,000

**Subscriptions** Subscription fees of Japanese daily papers in large cities range from ¥1.00 to ¥1.50. Airplanes are used for transportation between Osaka and Fukuoka, but in most cases it is done by trains and electric cars.

**English-Language Papers** English-language daily papers in Japan proper and colonies are as follows: The Japan Advertiser (American), The Japan Times (Japanese owned), both in Tokyo; the Osaka Mainichi English Edition (controlled by the Osaka Mainichi Shimbun); the Japan Chronicle (British), in Kobe;

the Seoul Press (Japanese), in Keijo; and the Manchuria Daily News (Japanese), Dairen.

#### News Agencies

The long contemplated merger of the Shimbun Rengo Tsushin Sha (later Dōmēi Tsushin Sha) and the Nippon Dempo Tsushin Sha has been finally realized on June 1, 1936, the new agency assuming the name of the Dōmēi Tsushin Sha. The Dōmēi Tsushin Sha consists of over 200 Japanese daily newspapers as members and its directorate is organized by representatives of larger dailies and

the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan. It maintains close relations with the Tass, A. P., U. P., Stefani, Reuter, D. N. B., and Havas, which have their branch offices in Japan in the Dōmēi Building. Branch offices are located in Washington, New York, San Francisco, Los Angeles, London, Berlin, Paris, Moscow, Bangkok, Manila, Batavia, Singapore, Shanghai, Nanking, Hong Kong, and other important cities in China. The Nippon Dempo remains as a purely advertising service agent after the merger.

#### LEADING NEWSPAPERS AND THEIR PRESIDENTS

	Capitalization	Presidents or Representatives
Tokyo		
Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun	¥10,000,000	Minoru Oka
Tokyo Asahi Shimbun	6,000,000	Séiichi Uéno
Hochi Shimbun	1,100,000	Séiji Noma
Yomiuri Shimbun	Private	Matsutaro Shoriki
Chugai Shogyo Shimpō	2,000,000	Tokichi Tanaka
Miyako Shimbun	3,000,000	Eisuké Fukuda
Yamato Shimbun	Private	Fumio Iwata
Kokumin Shimbun	3,000,000	—
Chuo Shimbun	400,000	Katsuzo Horikawa
Niroku Shimpō	—	Yonékiichi Matsumoto
Yorozu Choho	Private	Zenji Hasé-gawa
Tokyo Maiyu Shimbun	320,000	Masajiro Kimura
Tokyo Yukan Shimpō	Private	Tétsuya Nakajima
Japan Advertiser	150,000	B. W. Fleisher
Japan Times	500,000	Hitoshi Ashida
Osaka		
Osaka Asahi Shimbun	6,000,000	Séiichi Uéno
Osaka Mainichi Shimbun	10,000,000	Minoru Oka
Osaka Jiji Shimpō	500,000	Nobuyoshi Shindo
Other Prefectures		
Fukushima Minyu Shimbun (Fukushima)	330,000	Kiyoshi Ujié
Kahoku Shimpō (Miyagi)	Private	Jiro Ichiriki
Iwaté Nippo (Iwaté)	80,000	Ichizo Goto
Akita Sakigaké Shimpō (Akita)	300,000	Kokyo Inoué
Niigata Shimbun (Niigata)	200,000	Sukésaku Yamada
Shinano Nichinichi Shimbun (Nagano)	300,000	Sachihiko Ogasawara
Shinaiichi (Aichi)	1,500,000	Ukichi Oshima
Nagoya Shimbun (Aichi)	1,050,000	Ippéi Mori
Shizuoka Minyu Shimbun (Shizuoka)	80,000	Mitsunosuké Oishi
Gifu Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Gifu)	Private	Ai Takahashi
Isé Shimbun (Mie)	300,000	Munéshigé Matsumoto
Hokkoku Shimbun (Ishikawa)	200,000	Masataké Hayashi
Koshu Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Shiga)	Private	Iwaishi Hattori
Kyoto Hinodé Shimbun (Kyoto)	500,000	Séinosuké Gokawa
Kyoto Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Kyoto)	Private	Fumio Yamané
Kobé Shimbun (Hyogo)	500,000	Nobuyoshi Kondo
Kobé Yushin Nippo (Hyogo)	160,000	Toranosuké Obata
Japan Chronicle (Hyogo)	Private	Douglas George Young
Chugoku Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Hyogo)	200,000	Takéo Sé-gawa
Tokushima Nichi Nichi Shimpō (Tokushima)	350,000	Hajimé Matushima
Sanin Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Tottori)	250,000	Ei-jiro Miyoshi
Gedo Shimbun (Okayama)	480,000	Saichi Okamoto

Other Prefectures	Capitalization	Presidents or Representatives
Chugoku Shimbun (Hiroshima)	300,000	Sanéichi Yamamoto
Kwammon Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Yamaguchi)	Private	Tétsunosuké Suémitsu
Fukuoka Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Fukuoka)	1,000,000	Shingo Nagae
Kyushu Nippo (Fukuoka)	600,000	Yoshitaro Shimizu
Nagasaki Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Nagasaki)	200,000	Kozo Makiyama
Kyushu Shimbun (Kumamoto)	300,000	Dalshiro Takagi
Kagoshima Shimbun (Kagoshima)	Private	Sanéyoshi Kodama
Hokkai Times (Sapporo, Hokkaido)	800,000	Yoshio Abé
Otaru Shimbun (Otaru, Hokkaido)	520,000	Toshihisa Uéda
Hakodaté Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Hakodaté, Hokkaido)	Private	Kanzaburo Sato
Taihoku Shimpō (Odomari, Karafuto)	300,000	Toshihachi Hemmi
Taiwan Nichi Nichi Shimpō (Formosa)	1,000,000	Toru Kawamura
Kéijo Nippo (Korea)	500,000	Tomoichiro Takada
Manshu Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Dairen)	750,000	Yoshimaro Murata
Manchuria Daily News (Dairen)	100,000	Tanéhidé Kojó
Hoten Mainichi Shimbun (Mukden)	300,000	Kinshi Matsumiya
Shenking Jihpao (Mukden)	350,000	Yosuzo Soméya
Dai Shinkyō Nippo (Sinking)	700,000 (M.Y)	Yoshimaro Murata
Mansen Nippo (Sinking)	300,000	Yóséki Ri
Harbin Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Harbin)	200,000	Kiyotaka Omori

#### Newspaper Organizations

The Japan Newspaper Association (Nippon Shimbun Kyokai) This consists of daily newspapers, news agencies and advertising agencies under Japanese management; it was founded in 1913. His Imperial Highness Prince Naruhiko Higashikuni has been honorary president of this association since 1926. Count Kéigo Kiyoura, former Premier, is president and Mr. Hoshio Mitsunaga, president of Nippon Dempo, is director-in-chief. It has among its honorary members noted persons such as Mr. Ichiro Tokutomi, Mr. Yukio Ozaki, Mr. Séiichi Uéno, Dr. Yujiro Miyaké, Dr. Minoru Oka, Mr. Ukichi Oshima and Mr. Takéshi Azuma. The association membership includes almost all the Japanese daily newspapers. The Shunjukai is a social club of newspaper editors, magazine writers and corres-

Naikaku Kisha Kai  
Kasumi Club  
Yamashita Club  
Sakurada Club  
Shinto Kisha Kai  
Rōdō Kisha Kai  
Kunai Kisha Kai  
Kokuchokai  
Shinyu Club  
Naiséi Kenkyu Kai  
Hitotsubashi Club  
Zaiséi Kenkyu Kai  
Kinyu Doshi Kai  
Noséi Kisha Kai  
Unémé Kai  
Tokiwa Club

pondents. It was organized in 1908 and has among its members leading newspapermen and magazine writers of Tokyo. The Nifuichinichikai is composed of high editorial staff members of daily newspapers. It was established in 1926. Its members are editorial directors, managers, news editors and other men of important positions in the editorial service of influential papers. The Shimbunkisha Club (Newspapermen's Association) consists of newspapermen and news agency reporters mostly connected with the business of the Imperial Diet. The Federation of Newspapermen and News Agency Reporters was organized in 1931. It consists of 46 newspapermen and news agency reporters' clubs which are connected with various governmental institutions and economic and financial bodies. Leading newspaper and news agency reporters' clubs are as follows:

Connected with the Cabinet  
Foreign Office  
Séiyukai  
Minséifo  
Kokumindoméi  
Proletarian Parties.  
Imperial Household Department  
Navy Ministry  
Army Ministry  
Home Office  
Ministry of Education  
Ministry of Finance  
Bank of Japan  
Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry  
Ministry of Commerce and Industry  
Ministry of Communications

Kabuto Club  
Tétsudo Issin Kai  
Hoséi Kenkyu Kai  
Tokumu Club  
Tokyo Undo Kisha Club

Stock Exchange  
State Railways  
Ministry of Justice  
Ministry of Overseas Affairs  
Modern Sports

**Newspaper Courses in Universities**  
The Meiji University and Jochi University, Tokyo, opened their newspaper courses in April, 1932. The Newspaper School (Shimbun Gakuin), founded by Mr. Shinjiro Yamané, of the Kokumin Shimbun, sent out its first graduates numbering 40 in December, 1932. The Tokyo Imperial University Journalism Course, established as a section of the Department of Literature was opened in April, 1932. Mr. Hidéo Ōno is in charge of the course. Lecturers include noted newspapermen and magazine proprietors having many years' journalistic experience. The Newspaper Course of the Jochi University was opened in April, 1932. Mr. Ōno is in charge of this course

also.  
**Students' Newspapers** At the end of 1932 there were 51 so-called students' newspapers in Japan. These papers are published by universities and schools once a week or once or twice a month. The Téikoku Daigaku Shimbun, issued by the Tokyo Imperial University, is one of the largest of its kind and is issued every Monday. It is an eight-page paper, which was founded in 1920. The Kyoto Imperial University also issues a newspaper of the kind. The Mita Shimbun is issued by the Kéio University and is one of the oldest and most influential of those published by private universities. It was founded in 1917.

#### Publications

##### A Historical Summary

The number of books published in Japan prior to 1881 is not accurately known. But judged from the records and catalogues of books now existing, they may be roughly taken as follows:

About 1,800 between the time of founding the country and one year before the time when the Shogunate Government was established at Kamakura.

About 5,000 since the establishment of the Shogunate Government at Kamakura until one year before the time when the Tokugawa Shogunate was established.

About 60,000 between the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate and the Meiji Restoration.

About 130,000 between the 1st and the 10th year of Meiji, 33,819 between the 10th and the 13th year of Meiji, and 679,368 between 1881 and 1924. Statistics for latest years follow:

1927	19,967
1928	19,880
1929	21,111
1930	22,476
1931	23,110
1932	22,104
1933	24,025

1934	26,331
1935	30,347
1936	31,994

**Publications in 1937** Publications in 1937 were largely affected by the rise of prices in general and the occurrence of Sino-Japanese hostilities in July. The cost of book making and publications rose with the rise of prices in paper, from 20 to 100 per cent, printing materials, remunerations and postage. The advertisement expenses enlarged considerably. The price of books had, therefore, to be raised about 20 per cent. But the decrease of gain was inevitable.

The Sino-Japanese hostilities carried the readers away from books to newspapers, news cinema and periodicals. Books of novels, stories and for easy reading especially lost readers. On the contrary books on China and in relation to the emergency were published in considerable numbers.

Economic control of the Government was extended to the consumption of paper and luxurious use of paper in book-making was greatly restrained.

The figures on publications for 1937 is incomplete, but those for 10 months, January to October, are as follows:

	1937 Jan.-Oct.	1936 Jan.-Oct.	Compar- ison
Politics, economy, law and social science	4,526	4,392	+134
Religion, education and text books	6,033	6,115	- 82
Science	1,569	1,826	-257
Industry, business, domestics, military	3,946	3,779	+167
Literature, music, arts	3,979	4,634	-655
History, geography	1,951	1,938	+ 13
Language, amusements, series, dictionaries, etc.	3,229	3,311	- 82
Total (Jan.-Oct.)	25,233	25,995	-762

Imports and Exports During the Meiji and Taisho eras the imports of publications far exceeded the exports. The balance, however, gradually decreased because of a steady increase in exports. In 1935 the total value of imports amounted to ¥2,066,000 against ¥2,255,000 of exports. The destinations of the exports were mainly the countries

where the Japanese are residing in great numbers, such as the Kwantung Leased Territory, Manchoukuo, the U. S. A. the Hawaii Islands and China. The countries from which books are exported to this country are, in the order of importance, England, Germany, the U. S. A. and France. Details follow:

#### EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF BOOKS AND PERIODICALS

	(In yen)			
	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports
	1934	1935	1934	1935
Manchoukuo	412,755	512,046	9,456	13,531
Kwantung L. T.	577,903	669,160	6,378	12,160
China	210,559	208,824	21,807	19,264
Hongkong	8,968	9,870	—	60
British India	2,988	18,918	961	210
Straits Settlements	48,538	46,796	649	990
British Borneo	1,500	2,067	—	—
Dutch East Indies	8,243	36,516	383	6,113
French Indo-China	66	4,064	—	400
Asiatic Russia	806	30	40	40
Philippine Islands	26,277	34,444	—	150
Siam	170	1,582	185	310
Great Britain	15,550	16,490	818,827	604,418
France	10,901	7,611	139,540	113,237
Germany	44,643	29,323	790,828	730,311
Belgium	214	1,082	1,954	1,149
Italy	—	870	5,327	18,210
Switzerland	431	1,500	9,135	4,942
U.S.A.	293,112	318,016	446,789	510,150
Canada	23,811	28,131	3,470	4,110
Peru	2,968	6,037	—	—
Brazil	40,969	40,029	—	3
Australia	5,887	24,610	—	268
Hawaii	173,616	211,883	—	—
Other	1,921,996	2,255,883	2,266,436	2,000,078

#### Magazines

Historical One of the oldest magazines in Japan was the "Mei-rokuzasshi" which was published in 1873. But this magazine was full of heavy material only suitable for scholars. It was

four years later that a number of magazines to cater to popular interest came into existence. The magazine named "Marumaru-chimbun", for instance, was one of these and was full of sarcastic verses, popular lyrics and also of many laughter-provoking car-

toons. Short stories were also favourable reading matters in it. For novels principally appeared the "Hodan-zasshi". For pleasure-reading the "Robun-chimpo." There also appeared a magazine named "Tokyo-shinshi" written chiefly in Chinese, but decidedly erotic. There were also such ones as the "Homel-shinshi," "Moon and Snapping Turtle" and "Kwagetsu-shinshi," and "Shimbunshi."

The "Homel-shinshi" was a more or less imitation of the "Tokyo-shinshi." The "Tsuki-to-Suppon" (Moon and Snapping Turtle) was largely a cartoon paper. The "Kwagetsu-shinshi" (Flower and Moon Magazine) was a pure literary paper under the editorship of Ryuhoku Narishima and lasted about five years from 1879. The "Shimbunshi" (New Prose and Verses) was under the editorship of Shunto Mori. Political magazines also were not slow to arise. The "Ohmel-shinshi" was a private organ of democratic politicians such as Saburo Shimada, Ikuzo Ohoka and Ryo Koyezuka and was full of fervent articles of democratic principles. The "Fuso-shinshi" was also another of this type of magazines, and there were many others of this sort of papers. No one, however, lasted long, because they all evoked official ban soon. Among these political magazines there was one "Deikin-sodan" which is remembered by the imprisonment of Eitaro Komatsubara, later Education Minister, on account of his anti-Government articles. It was not, however, Mr. Komatsubara alone who was sent to jail on account of outspoken expression of political views in letters. Many were imprisoned on account of similar offences. Ryuhoku Narishima of the "Kwagetsu-shinshi" was once forced to spend months in jail. As the day of the first opening of Parliament drew nearer, the number of political magazines increased. In 1886 the "Chuo Koron" (Central Review) was first published. The year 1887 was an epoch-making one in the history of magazines in Japan as it was in February of that year that Mr. Ichiro (Soho) Tokutomi started a publishing society named "Min'yusha" with the "Kokumin-no-tomo" as its organ which surpassed all other periodicals of the day in the amount of circulation. A few months later the Kokumin Shimbun, a daily paper, was published by the same society headed by Soho Tokutomi. In June the Hakubun-kwan was brought into existence which soon published the "Nippon Taika Ronshu" (Essays by Great Scholars). This resulted in a big success. The "Jogaku-zasshi" (Ladies'

Magazine) of Zenji Iwamoto, the "Kyo-iku-hochi" (Educational News) of Sanosuke Kusakabe and the "Tetsugaku-kai Zasshi" (Philosophical Association Magazine) of Yenryo Inouye, were published almost simultaneously. The circulation of the aforesaid "Nippon Taika Ronshu" was indeed epoch-making in the sales of all published matters in those days. In 1889 the Hakubun-kwan published the "Nippon no Shonen" (Children of Japan) which surpassed the "Nippon Taika Ronshu" in the amount of circulation. Even that, however, counted only ten thousand, a fact quite incomparable to the modern colossal number of successful publishing matters. The business condition of the Hakubun-kwan went on successfully and in January, 1895, they published the "Taiyo" (Sun) which soon secured 50,000 readers. In 1904 another hit was made by the issue of the "Nichi-Ro Senso Shashin Gaho" (Graphic News of the Russo-Japanese War) which was published alongside the "Nichi Ro Senso Jikki" (True Stories of the Russo-Japanese War), with 150,000 copies published. Some months later such magazines as the "Jitaugyo no Nippon" (Japan of Business), "Fujin-sekai" (World of Women), "Nippon Shonen" (Youths of Japan) etc. were published by Mr. Giichi Masuda which caused a great sensation among the magazine people. Another noted publisher of those days was a certain Mr. Shimada who published a number of periodicals for youths and children and also for artists which was an equally big surprise to other publishers. It is of interest to note that both Mr. Masuda and Mr. Shimada as well as Mr. O-hashi of the Hakubun-kwan were men from Niigata prefecture. In 1919 the "Kaizo" was published and became a good rival of the "Chuo Koron" which had attained leading position in the magazine world of Japan by this time. Years later came another big magazine man and he was Mr. Seiji Noma, now president of the Dai Nippon Yubenkai (Eloquence Society of Great Nippon) and also president of the Hochi, one of the leading dailies in Tokyo. His first periodical enterprise was the "Yuben" (Eloquence) which was followed by the "Kodan (Heroic Story) Club", "King", "Fujin(Women) Club" and "Gendai" (Present Day). It is a matter of surprise, indeed, that the circulation of the "King" numbers one million copies monthly. In the meantime, the "Taiyo" of the Hakubun-kwan which lasted 36 years disappeared from the magazine world. Soon a



rival of the "King" in the bigness of circulation appeared and that was the "Shufu-no Tomo" (Friend of Household Wives) by Mr. Takéyoshi Ishikawa.

Present State Surprisingly many and varied are the periodicals, mostly monthlies, published in this country. A casual visit to a book-stall or the book section of any of our department stores, will give one some indications of the amount of mental pabulum provided to the masses by this type of publication. Statistics show that in 1936 Japan had 8,578 monthly magazines in all. Add to this those published semi-monthly or quarterly, and the number reaches more than 13,700.

What purport to be periodicals of a serious nature intended primarily for intellectuals deal with a wide range of subjects including social problems, science, literature, sports, as well as political and economic subjects. Representative of such magazines are the Chuo Koron, the Kaizo, the Nippon Hyoron, and the Bungéi Shunju. Apart from its rich contents, the remarkable thing about any of these "big four" is the tremendous number of pages it has. Every one of them has the thickness of a fairly big volume, containing from 500 to 600 pages in octavo. What is more, these magazines become stouter still at least four times a year when special numbers are issued. So far as the number of pages is concerned, these monthlies most probably stand in a class by themselves in the whole world.

The contents of any of these so-called reviews include, among other things, detailed reports of news relating to political and economic problems, and frank comments by experts on such problems. Besides, every one of these journals contains, as a rule, a treatise or two of topical interest, usually examinations, from all sorts of standpoints, political, philosophical, religious, literary and what not, of some of the heritages of Japan's past which remained ignored while the country was busy transplanting Western civilization to her soil. It may be stated in this connection that the view often held by Western journals that the tendency is for Japan to turn Fascist and become imbued with a bellicose spirit at the expense of liberalism, is not a sound one, if credence is to be given to the opinion reflected in these high-class reviews which are enjoying wide popularity among the country's intelligentsia.

Needless to say, journals in Japan, as in other countries, have to be censored. And it is a fact that of late years censorship has become very strict, but free-

dom of speech, though thus circumscribed, is far from dead. What there is of freedom of speech in this country is quite different from that crippled freedom which prevails in other countries. Certainly it is many degrees removed from that which one sees in Russia where speech is entirely monopolized by the Government.

Another feature of the aforementioned reviews of Japan is that a large number of contributors write for each issue. The number averages about forty-five, of which from one-third to one-half are generally considered as first-rate pens of the day. Among them are—to mention only a few at random—Nyozékan Haségawa, Tsunégo Baba, Hitoshi Yamagawa, Yoshitaro Ohmori, Masanori Ito, Hakuchō Masamuné, Kiyoshi Miki and Itsuro Sakizaka. The writings of these men, excellent both in substance and style, make good reading, when they enrich the pages of Japanese periodicals, and are always warmly received by Japan's intellectuals.

Yet another feature of these reviews is the large space devoted to short stories and dramas by coming writers. Each issue contains as a rule three or four such pieces of work, and in the case of a special number anything from five to seven. Short-story writing has been and still is occupying an important place in the literary field in this country. One of the cogent reasons for the healthy growth of this branch of literature in this country may be sought in the great favour shown by magazine editors to young writers able but unknown to fame. It has been the custom ever since the Meiji era for almost all literary efforts by writers, who have since found niches in the temple of fame, to be introduced to the public first through the pages of magazines of a serious type.

As these serious magazines are intended for readers of the highest level of intellect, they naturally have a limited circulation of from 30,000 to 70,000 each. Magazines which have a larger circle of readers are those catering to the tastes of the masses, young and old, and those edited primarily for the fair sex.

Most of our popular magazines intended for amusement are published by the Dai Nippon Yubenkaí Kodan Sha, the president of which is Mr. Séiji Noma, known both at home and abroad as a magazine king. This publisher owns nine magazines, all enjoyed with avidity by the millions. Of these the more popular are the King, the Kodan Club,

and the Fují, the first-named being literally the king of Japan's popular magazines. These journals are said to have a circulation of from 300,000 to 400,000. Then there are two or three other magazines, such as the Hinodé and the Hanashi, which, though they are not published by Mr. Noma, boast nearly as many readers. These popular magazines have from 500 to 600 pages each. As might be expected, editors of such magazines are out to put in stories calculated to move the reader to tears or tickle his or her sense of humour. Here is a vast scope for popular writers of tales replete with those deeds of derring-do which reflect the ethos of the feudal days. Sentimental love stories by popular novelists are hailed with great delight. The Edgar Wallaces and Wodehouses of Japan find in these journals a great demand for their thrilling and side-splitting stories.

Keeping pace with these journals in point of popularity are women's magazines. The more popular of these are the Fujin Koron, the Fujin Club, and the Shufu-no-Tomo. They contain, among other things, articles on social problems previously touched upon in newspapers, such as the love affairs concerning film stars, cases of double suicide, scandals of noted ladies and many other sensational topics. Space is not allotted to sensationalism alone. A great deal of space is also devoted to articles on conventional things, such as hints on cookery, sewing and the care of babies—rehashed and repeated year in and year out—as well as romances by popular writers.

Another remarkable thing about all these popular journals is that whenever special numbers are issued, generally three times a year, two or three extra volumes, running up to 200 pages each, are thrown in as a token of gratitude to the reader. This idea of showing generosity was originally hit on by Mr. Noma. The extra volumes thus given into the bargain generally contain articles on the ABC of manual art, or else articles meant purely for amusement. All this goes to show, if nothing else, that publishers of such journals are great consumers of paper.

Of the monthly magazines described above, those of a serious nature generally see the issues of the following month out on or about the 19th of each month, popular magazines much earlier, that is, at the beginning of each month. As soon as they are out a half-page advertisement, showing the contents with subjects and names of writers of fea-

ture articles printed in large type, is inserted in turn for two or three days on end in the principal newspapers. There can be no doubt that this sort of advertisement serves as a powerful magnet.

As already stated, there are at present more than 8,500 varieties of monthly journals in Japan. Of these about 800 are on sale in Tokyo. Below are given figures representing some of the principal magazines:

Magazines of a serious nature	250
Magazines for amusements	58
Women's magazines	25
Young men's magazines	95
Juvenile magazines	30

There are practically no weekly periodicals of any importance in Japan. The Asahi, one of the most important daily newspapers in this country, once started publishing a weekly of a serious nature, giving news of the previous week lumped together and comments made on the principal international problems, mainly political and economic. The result of this enterprise was not so satisfactory as expected, and the weekly in question degenerated in less than a year into a periodical catering for the amusement of the public. Much the same fate was shared by the weekly undertaken by the Osaka Mainichi, another influential daily. It may be that the very fact that here in Japan the unit of the economic life of the people is the month, and not the week, stands between weeklies and their success.

#### LIST OF PRINCIPAL PERIODICALS

##### and Politics literature:

Chuo Koron (Central Review)  
Kaizo (Reconstruction)  
Nippon Hyoron (Japanese Review)  
Bungéi Shunju (Literary Review)

##### Politics and law

Séikai Chishiki (World Knowledge)  
Shakaiséisaku Jiho (Social Policy Review)

Kokusai Chishiki and Hyoron (International Knowledge)

Gaiko Jiho (Diplomatic Review)

Hogaku Shimpo (Science of Law)

##### Finance and Economic Magazines:

Toyo Kéizai Shimpo (Oriental Economic Review)

Economist

Diamond

Kéizai Chishiki (Economic Knowledge)

Kéizai (Economy)  
 Popular Magazines:  
 King  
 Hinodé (Rising Sun)  
 Kodan Kurabu (Kodan Story Magazine)  
 Gendai (Present Generation)  
 All Yomimono (all Stories)  
 Hanashi (Story)  
 Shinséinen (New Young Generation)  
 Literary Magazines:  
 Bungéi (Literary arts)

Bungaku (Literature)  
 Bungakukai (Literary World)  
 Shincho (New Tide)  
 Araragi, a waka magazine  
 Hototogisu, a haiku magazine  
 Butai (Stage)  
 Woman's Magazines:  
 Fujin Koron (Woman's Review)  
 Fujin Kurabu (Woman's Club)  
 Shufu-no Tomo (Friend of Ladies)  
 Fujin-no Tomo (Woman's Friend)

## CHAPTER XXXV

## LITERATURE, ARTS AND MUSIC

## Literature

## History

**Yamato Period** The history of Japanese literature may be divided, in accordance with the political development of the country, into 6 periods: the Yamato, Héian, Kamakura, Muromachi, Yédo and Tokyo periods. The Yamato period comprises the Kodai (archaic period) and the Nara age that followed. The term, Yamato, is derived from the district of Yamato, Nara prefecture, wherein was the seat of the Imperial capital throughout that age. This nascent age of Japanese literature ended in 781 A. D., with the removal of the Imperial capital to Kyoto, then called Héian, by the Emperor Kammu. It may seem improper to include so long a period under one section, but this early stage of Japanese literary growth can thus conveniently be considered as one concrete age, and be studied as such.

(1) **Literary Works.** The literary works which reveal the mind of the Yamato period and which are still extant, are: the Kojiki, Nihonshoki, Fudoki, Norito, Senmyo, Manyoshu, Kaifuso, and Nihonraiki. The principal writers are: Ohno-Yasumaro, Tonérisshino, Yamabé-no-Akahito, Kakinomoto-no-Hitomaro, Yamanoéno-Okura, Ohtomono-Yakamochi, Ohmino-Mifuné, besides certain sages of the prehistoric age. The last mentioned, Ohmino-Mifuné, was proficient in Chinese classics and poetry.

(2) **Development and Classification.** Narrative prose and lyric verse assumed concrete form in this period. From a literary point of view the writings of the period can be divided into two sections: works in descriptive style, of which the

Kojiki is the main representative; and poetry that followed, with the Manyoshu' anthology as the typical poetic composition.

Individual self-consciousness realized meagre general development; instead, a collective sense controlled society. But ample evidence of a pure national spirit is seen. In the latter part of this period alien ideas were introduced from China and India, but could not find their way deeply into the minds of the people. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that the literary achievements of this awakening period are instinct with the noble national spirit of loyalty and ancestor-worship, permeated with the national traits of optimism, frankness, and genuine simplicity.

**Héian Period** The Héian period starts from the year in which the Emperor Kammu removed the Imperial palace to Kyoto, then called Héian, and ends in 1186 when the Shogunate government was established by Yoritomo Minamoto at Kamakura. This second literary period, covering nearly 400 years, following the period of dawn, saw Japanese prose and poetry reach full bloom.

Generally speaking, the literature of the period emerged from a style of clear-cut simplicity to one of elegance and delicacy, all literary productions assuming a mood of refined sentiment. In presentment likewise there appeared the graceful kana syllabary, in keeping with current ideas. This harmonization of content and form in the literature of the Héian period set an example to succeeding generations. The Héian period is thus the golden age of Japanese literary achievement. The

1 **Manyoshu (or Manyoshu).** The anthology is considered to be one of the greatest poetical attainments of the nation not only in this period, but all through the history of Japanese literature. Its compiler is unknown. The period in which the poets of the book lived covers 450 years from 313 to 764 A. D., and the range of the social standard of the poets extends to all classes from the Emperor down to the farmer or the hermit. The book contains 4,496 poems, which consist of 262 long poems, 4,172 waka and 62 others. Their themes are taken from human relations, love, lamentation, the four seasons, and natural scenery. They are written in the Yamato dialect with Chinese characters. The eminent anthologists in it are Kakinomoto-no-Hitomaro of the epic long poems; Yamanoéno-Okura of the long lyrics who took his themes from social and economic problems of his day; Yamabéno-Akahito, the only nature poet among the group; Ohtomono-Yakamochi who is believed by many critics to be the compiler of the book and Nukata-no-ohogimi and Sakanoé-tratsumé, who distinctly tower above many poetesses who left beautiful love songs with the anthology to their posterity.

period may further be subdivided into the following four sections:

- Early Héian period (781-834)
- Middle Héian period (835-980)
- Mature Héian period (981-1064)
- Last Héian period (1065-1182)

(1) Early Héian Period. During this period, imported Chinese culture exercised no small influence on the literary circles of the country, resulting in the popularity of Chinese classics and poetry. Among the poetical works are the *Ryounshu*, *Bunkashureishu*, *Kéikokushu*, while among the authors were the Emperor Saga, Kukai, Onono-Takamura, Miyakono-Yoshika, Oéno-Otôno, Sugawarano-Koréyoshi, Tachibanano-Hirosuké, Sugawarano-Michizané, Fujiwarano-Sukéyo and Miyoshi-Kiyoyuki. With the overwhelming influence wielded by these imitators in the domain of the newly imported Chinese literature, the Japanese waka (31-syllabled poem) was threatened at one time with relegation to obscurity. But the situation was saved through realization of a proposal from Sugawarano-Michizané to discontinue the customary visits of Government envoys to China. In consequence, Chinese literature gradually lost its former influence, and the eminent position once occupied by this alien form of belles-lettres was taken by Japanese poetry. The forerunner of the revived waka verse was the *Rokkasen*, a collaboration of six representative poets, namely, Ariwarano-Narihira, Onono-Komachi, Bunyano-Yasuhidé, Kisen-hoshi and Otomono-Kuronushi. A further literary achievement of the period is the appearance of works in the Japanese kana syllabary, such as the *Takétori-monogatari* and the *Isé-monogatari*.

(2) Middle Héian Period. This is the age of national consciousness when the waka poetry triumphed over Chinese forms, pushing itself forward like a tidal wave. In poetry, works like the *Kokin-wakashu* and *Gosen-wakashu* are prominent, while in fiction such works as the *Utsubo* and *Ochikubo* and *Tosa-nikki*, in Japanese kana syllabary, are representative products.

1 *Genji-monogatari*. The author Murasaki-shikibu (875-1031) was born a daughter of Tametoki Fujiwara, a family of the illustrious Fujiwara clan, and served at Court for some years as lady-in-waiting to the Empress Akiko. She is known as Lady Murasaki, but her personal name is not known. The book is a large one (nearly 1,900 pages in Arthur Waley's English translation), written in pure old Japanese, extremely refined and pregnant, with Japanese character, or kana, sentences, and literary critics agree in the opinion that it belongs to the greatest masterpieces of the novels of the world.

*Genji-monogatari* means the Tale of Genji, mainly a love story between the hero Genji and several heroines. It is also a most vivid picture of a civilization, nine hundred years ago, probably as refined, though in the central city only, and certainly as colourful, as any the world has ever known. The most striking thing about the book is the impression it creates upon us of its modernity and universality of feeling. It reflects the Oriental characteristics in every line and still shows human nature very much the same as the Occidental.

(3) Mature Héian Period. This is the period in which the literary development of the Héian era attained the highest perfection, creating a golden age of prose. In the field of waka we have such poets as Izumi-shikibu, Akazomé-Emon, Fujiwarano-Kinto, Fujiwara-Sanekata and Noin-hoshi, while in the realm of prose there appeared women novelists, like Murasaki-shikibu and Séisho-nagon, the former being the authoress of the *Genji-monogatari*, while the latter composed the *Makurano-soshi*, opening up a literary régime of women, as if flowers of innumerable variety and colours blossomed all at one time.

(4) Last Héian Period. A general survey of the period gives the impression of its being politically transitional from Imperial rule to Shogunate administration. Along with the decline of the Fujiwara family in power, literature also hastened towards decline. And in consequence, in the early part of the period the literary cult turned from novels to historical works, producing the *Eiga-monogatari* and *Okagami*. In the realm of poetry also a new tendency was apparent, which gave birth to such noted poets as Toshiyori Fujiwara and Saigyô-hoshi; and at the same time a scientific criticism of poetry was initiated and prevailed under students like Mototoshi Fujiwara, Toshiyori Minamoto, and Kiyosuké Fujiwara.

(5) General Development. The most characteristic feature of the period lies in the movement from impromptu and lyrical poetry to stories and narration which require plots and objectification of things. The instinctive or primitive sentiment of the *Manyôshû* precedes the more intellectual *Kokinshû*; and the *Shikashû* that followed is pervaded by more meditative and philosophical reflections. With reference to prose, the myths and legends appearing in the *Manyôshû* and *Kiki* (short for *Kojiki* and *Nihonshoki*) underwent mutation and took the form of narrative tales in the *Takétori-monogatari* and the *Isé-monogatari*. This realistic tendency

was further augmented by the *Utsubomonogatari*, and later produced the famous *Genji-monogatari*, turning its direction thenceforward toward historical compositions, such as the *Eiga-monogatari* and the *Okagami*. To enhance this realistic tendency of the time, legends and fairy tales, mingling with current realism, regained their former influence, producing the *Konjaku-monogatari*, a fairy tale dealing with supernatural and supersensuous things. Furthermore, amid this abundance of literary composition there are others with characteristic features common to meditative, lyrical literature, namely the *Tosa-nikki*, *Murasaki-shikibu-nikki*, *Makurano-soshi*, *Izumi-shikibu-nikki*, *Tombo-nikki*, *Tonomine-sho-sho-monogatari* and *Sarashina-nikki*.

**Kamakura Period** The period of about 150 years, beginning with the Minamoto-no-Yoritomo Shogunate government at Kamakura in 1182 and ending in the Kemmu Era of 1334, is called the Kamakura period, in the history of our literature. For the first 50 years literature was under the influence of the preceding Héian period; but the one hundred years that followed saw two literary currents sweeping against each other, one at Kyoto, the cultural centre, and the other at Kamakura, the pivot of political authority. Although, during the period, there was no literary movement worthy of special mention, yet it created its own literary atmosphere which resulted in the production of numerous so-called war-tales and religious literature.

(1) Kamakura Literature. The fact that the emotional and sentimental tendency of earlier ages gradually turned to philosophical meditation during this period explains why the works of the time are generally void of individual touch while being true to type. Buddhist pessimism then dominated social thought. The popularization of the Buddhist religion in this period was the result of the natural growth of that religion on the one hand, and of the reaction of public sentiment against the ceaseless civil wars, on the other.

(2) Representative Works. War literature, like the *Hogen-monogatari*, *Héiji-monogatari*, *Héike-monogatari* and the *Gempô-sôshi*, is the most outstanding production of the age. Just as in the preceding period, when literary themes were gathered from historical facts, so in the Kamakura period subjects were sought for from the social conditions of the times when bloodshed, existing side by side with the simple, artless life of the samurai, completely saddened and subdued public sentiment.

With reference to waka, inspired by the advent of well-known poetical works like the *Shin-chokusenshu*, were born the *Zoku-gojushu* and *Kinkashu*. The *Shin-kokinshu*, another anthology of poetry, shows the highest point that Japanese poetry had so far reached. The *Kinkashu* suggests a return to the *Manyôshû*, while the *Shin-chokusenshu* gives an impression of having reached the acme of poetical refinement, retracing its way back to the beauty of simplicity. It is a pity, however, that rival influences between groups of literary men and critics holding different theories of literary values left the healthy development of literature very much handicapped. Ranking as principal poets of the period were Gotoba-joko, Tsuchimikado-joko, Juntoku-joko, Yoshitsuné, Sadalé, Ietaka, Jakuran and Sanétomo.

**Muromachi Period** The Muromachi period is the term applied to the 270 years sandwiched in between the Kamakura and Tokugawa periods, beginning in 1335 when Takauji Ashikaga rebelled against the Emperor Godaigo and terminating in 1603 when Iyeyasu Tokugawa removed the Shogunate government to Yédo.

(1) Muromachi Literature. In consequence of civil disturbance in the preceding age, the literary movement of the period was rather stagnant; the Court nobles were deprived of their positions, while the militarists, taking advantage of the disorderly administration of the central government, exercised an unfavourable influence on the natural development of literary talent generally. Nevertheless, even in such helpless social conditions, the period had the literature peculiar to such an age. Despite the troublesome yoke of historical events, there emerged a certain free and simple literary style; hence, instead of the waka, tales, and diaries, that flourished down to the close of the last period, such descriptions of war and historical tales as the *Masukagami*, *Jinnoshotoki*, *Taihéki*, *Yoshitsunéki* and *Soga-monogatari* were born, besides rambling notes like the *Tsuruzurégusa*, with their own characteristic attractions.

(2) New Forms of Literature. It is worthy of special mention that in this chaotic period originated such new literary forms as the *renka*, *yôkyoku* (*utai*), *kyôgen* and *otogisôshi*, which saw full development in the following period. *Tanka* (or waka) verse developed and gave birth to a more diminutive mode, the *haikai* (or *haiku*); *kyôgen* evolved into *yoruri* and drama; while *otogisôshi* reappeared in the form of novels and plays, all in the period that

followed. Herein we notice the beginnings of modern thought, the product of classicism evolving into modernism, and aristocracy into plebeianism. The Muromachi period thus occupies an important position in our literary history, functioning as a bridge that connects the preceding periods with the more illustrious Yédo literature. Another thing worthy of note in this connection is the creation at this time of the Kanazawa Bunko, the Ashikaga-gakko and the Gozen-bungaku, the first two being seats of learning and the last a branch of literature.

**Yédo Period** The Yédo period begins in 1603 when the Tokugawa Shogunate took up the task of civil government in Yédo, and ends, after 265 years, in 1868, when the Meiji Restoration was accomplished. This forms the most important section in the history of Japanese literature. The Yédo literature succeeded the decadent Muromachi literature and handed on its wealth of achievement to the Meiji period. The remarkable fecundity of this era is to be attributed to various factors, but to none more fundamental than the good government of Iyéyasu Tokugawa, the first Shogun of that line. Realizing the importance of the diffusion of learning for good government, he engaged Confucian scholars, published books, started schools and collected rare literary works. The example thus set by the first Shogun was emulated by the succeeding Shoguns, each striving to open up the way for easier access to knowledge and culture both in town and country, until in the Genroku Era under the rule of the fourth Shogun, Tsunayoshi, national culture reached its highest stage of development. The Yédo period may be divided into the following four sections: centered around Osaka and Kyoto.

1. Period of enlightenment (1603-1680)
2. Period of development (1681-1741) Yédo as the centre.
3. The period of eastward advance of literature (1741-1791)
4. Period of maturity (1791-1868)

(1) Period of Enlightenment. True to its name, this period, following the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate in Yédo, saw the collection and publication of ancient books, and annotations thereof, as well as translations of Chinese literature. It is but natural that during this period nothing worthy of note was produced save as foundation work in preparation for what was to come. From another viewpoint this is the age when our traditionally mystic view of art, and our undue belief in tradition, greatly wanes in influence.

(2) Period of Development. A bird's-eye view of the period gives the impression of a rapid development in popular literature, with Osaka and Kyoto as the centre and the Genroku Era as its climax. The origin of this literary movement is traceable to the Mitogaku, which later led to a renaissance of the classics; we see a revival of haikai verse under Basho, the poet; and then the appearance of Chikamatsu's *yoruri*. Each made unfettered development within its own sphere of influence. Towards the close of the period, however, these branches of literature lost popularity, until eventually they could scarcely enjoy public recollection.

(3) Eastward Advance of Literature. This is the period when the so-called Kamigata literature of Kyoto and Osaka, began its movement eastward to establish a new literary movement in the city of Yédo, the seat of the Shogun's government. By this time the popular literature founded by Chikamatsu and Saikaku had declined. Buson became the representative haikai poet of the time. Besides haikai, there came into vogue in Yédo various kinds of short poetry, namely, *senryu*, witty epigrammatic verse; *kyōka*, comic verse; and *kyōbun*, nonsense notes. Also in this period the so-called literature for men of the world cropped up, following the publication of the *kibyōshi* and *sharōbon*.

(4) Period of Maturity. It was in this period that the construction of the main body of Yédo literature was completed. As a result of the encouragement of learning by the Shogun's highest official, Sadanobu Matsudaira, both art and learning made a remarkable advance, producing a number of artists, and authorities on Japanese and Chinese classics. Parallel with this phenomenal development of classics, popular literature resumed its firm grip on the public. Inasmuch, however, as during the latter half of the period the country was completely upset by troubles both from within and without, most of the literary progress was confined to the early part of the period. Nevertheless, this is known as the period when Yédo literature was crowned with full maturity.

What most characterize Yédo literature are its fecundity in kind, volume of production and sphere of influence. Not only was it prolific but, all branches of art and learning, from the aristocratic classics down to *kyōka*, *senryu*, *haikai*, *yoruri* (*gidayu*) and popular novels, showed systematic advancement. The social structure in those days could

not but react on the taste and sentiment of the people, as is evidenced by the two different literary currents that prevailed throughout the period, whereas the so-called aristocratic literature, which dominated those days, stood on a foundation of Bushido and Confucianism, the popular literature strove to create the epicurean's world. Each of these tendencies went on cultivating its own field of influence in its own respective class, yet what most aptly represents the characteristic features of Yédo literature is the stronger public appeal of popular literary works. These intellectual diversions of the common people, unlike the traditional, conservative and retrogressive taste of classical literature, are optimistic, and charged with the spirit of uplift and mirth. But the negative policy of the Tokugawa government proved an impeding factor in the healthful growth of popular literature, resulting in a gradual loss of individuality. In this way authorship gradually kept aloof from essential requirements of progressive art; the most glaring example of this deplorable tendency is clearly noticeable in Bakin's works.

**Tokyo Period** The Tokyo period of Japanese literature begins with the Meiji Restoration of 1868 and still happily continues in our present Showa Era. In this short period of sixty-five years the volume of national literature surpasses any other period in Japanese history. The same can be said of its quality.

(1) A general survey of the literary movements of this period reveals the enormous influence exercised by Western literature; all works have thus been enriched in quality and enabled to rank among the most advanced literatures of the West. The present period can conveniently be subdivided into four sections in the following way, chronological figures being given for form's sake:

1. Period of transition (1868-1886)
2. Period of new literary movement (1887-1901)
3. Period of naturalism (1902-1910)
4. Period of neo-romanticism (1911- )

(i) Period of Transition. During this time the new and old forms and types of literature maintained coexistence, beginning with the earliest years of the Meiji Era and terminating about the 12th year, when the *Shosetsu-shinzui* by Shoyo Tsubouchi was published. In the early part of the period, still under the influence of the reserve energy of the preceding Yédo period, the novels of Kanagaki-Robun, the plays of

Kawataké-Mokuami, the *Sosho* style haiku all made their influence felt; but the tendency to inertia could not cope with the destructive invasion of European thought and principles; namely, the utilitarianism of Britain and America, the universal love and altruism of Christianity, French liberalism and German nationalism. To be more concrete, in the realm of fiction there appeared, through the influence of such English writers as Lytton and Scott, the *Kaikoku-bidan* by Ryukéi Yano, the *Kajinno-kigu* by Shiba-Tokanshi, *Setchubai* by Tétcho Suéhiro, *Ryokusaidan* by Suto Nansui, and *Bunmei-tozenshi* by Meikaku Fujita, which were brought out one after another. All these are political novels. Following these came the *Shosetsu-shinzui* and *Toséi-shoséikatagi*, written by Shoyo Tsubouchi, sign-posts pointing to the new-born movement in national literature. Coincident with the rise of the new literary movement appeared a new form of poetry with the publication of the *Shintai-shisho*. Mingled with these new renaissance phenomena the cultural and literary aesthetics of France and Britain were being introduced through translations.

(2) New Literary Movement. The most outstanding characteristic of the literature of this period is that it completely relinquished Yédo influence and established its own assimilation of the romantic thought then sweeping over Europe and America. Realism, especially psychological delineation, came to be demonstrated by novelists like Shoyo Tsubouchi and Futabatei Hasé-gawa. They were soon followed by Koyo Ozaki, Rohan Koda, Bizan Kawakami, Kyōka Izumi, Ryūro Hirotsu, Chugai Goto, and Ichiyo Higuchi, a woman novelist. These fiction writers dealt with either idealistic, pungent or psychological materials. Especially noteworthy for phenomenal activity in poetry were Toson Shimazaki and Bansui Tsuchi, composers of long poems; and Tekkan Yosano, Saishu Onoé and Kunen Kanéko in the sphere of tanka verse. Furthermore, there was the Négishi school initiated by Shiki Masaoka, and the Araragi school by Sachio Ito. As to haiku verse, under Shiki Masaoka were composers affiliated with the Nihon school; under Kōyo Ozaki was founded the Shiginsha school, and with the combined efforts of Sésétsu Sassa, Shiéi Fujii and Shachiku Ōno was formulated the Tsukubakal.

(3) Period of Naturalism. The trend of literary movement during the last quarter of the Meiji Era was toward

the domination of naturalism. In this sudden rise of naturalism, much influence was exercised by the works of French, German and Russian novelists. Representative Japanese novels indicative of this new movement include works by Doppo Kunikida, Toson Shimazaki, Katai Tayama, Hakucho Masamune, Shusei Tokuda, Seika Mayama, Homéi Iwano, Seiko Nakamura and Shuko Chikamatsu. Against this realistic trend there appeared in the literary arena Soséki Natsumé, Kyoshi Takahama and Ogai Mori, upholding the transcendental school, commonly called the Kotoha. In the realm of literary criticism Hōgetsu Shimamura, Tenkai Haségawa, Tengen Katakami and Gyofu Soma wielded their pens under the banner of art for life's sake. In the domain of drama, plays depicting social thought came into existence under Ibsen's influence. A similar trend was apparent in general poetry and short verse, represented by Yuméi Kamowara's and Kyūkin Suzukida's symbolic poems, Gyofu Soma's poems in colloquial style, Rofu Miki's free verse and Hakushu Kitahara's prose-poems. In the sphere of short poems, came Bokusui Wakayama, Aika Doki, Takuboku Ishikawa and Yugurū Maeda, exploiting new fields, just as Hekigodo Kato and Seisensui Ogiwara did in the realm of haiku. Literature created in the atmosphere of naturalism is generally too much involved in representation of the ugly side of human life, failing thereby to see the whole of life. It is not unnatural, therefore, that the naturalistic trend of the period did not long enjoy public support and was obliged to effect a change towards the close of the Meiji Era.

(4) Period of Neo-romanticism. We may be doing injustice to modern literary movements by crowding all their complex currents under the one category of neo-romanticism. Yet, it is a fact that after the predominant sway of naturalism, every new branch of literary activity obviously based itself on the reactions of the naturalism of the preceding period. Contrary to the negative, sceptical and pessimistic view of life as evinced by naturalism, neo-romanticism attempts to draw from life with the eye upon reality and humanity, in a positive attitude and a spirit of optimism. At the back of this new movement were the pragmatism of William James, Bergsonian philosophy, Tagore's mysticism, Tolstoy's humanism, and the ideas of several other influential Occidental writers. Neo-romanticism, was, in its early days, supported

by Rinsen Nakazawa, Yohéi Ishizaka, Jiro Abé, Sanéatsu Mushakoji and other youthful thinkers. It was at that time that the European War broke out. This greatly stimulated the literary movement, pushing it further into the actual life of the people; eventually it built up such intimate human relations that a drastic renovation was considered unavoidable. This welcomed the rise of many new novelists and playwrights; among whom were Sanéatsu Mushakoji, Takéo Arishima, Yoshio Nagayo, all holding fast to their principles; Toyohiko Kagawa and Koyata Ebara initiated the vogue of religious fiction and literature; Naoya Shiga, Ton Satomi, Ryunosuké Akutagawa, Yoshio Toyoshima, Masao Kumé, Haruo Sato and Kan Kikuchi cultivated their own field, in a characteristic style of description. In addition to these fiction writers there arrived on the scene, Seikichi Fujimori, Miméi Ogawa, Kan Eguchi and Hirochiro Maédako, as representative socialistic writers; and no small number of novelists producing popular literature. Similarly, in the circle of drama quite a number of new playwrights appeared: of these, Kichizo Nakamura, Yuzo Yamamoto and Junichiro Tanizaki were the most noted. Shoyo Tsubouchi, aforementioned, opened up a new field in pageant and juvenile plays. Another novel phenomenon worthy of note is the powerful growth of scenario writing. With reference to poetry, the long form gradually developed into prose, while folksongs came to the fore, in Yaso Saijo, Shogo Shiratori, Sakutaro Hagiwara and Ujo Noguchi. The overwhelming vitality of the ever-growing literary movement also lent stimulation to the composition of short poems which, following the revival of Manyōshū study, tried to assimilate nature while giving birth to new verse composed in colloquial style. As to haiku, there is nothing which requires special mention, save the tendency to re-establish itself in couplet form. Summing up all these facts, we arrive at the conclusion that Japanese literature has made wonderful strides and built up a nation-wide sphere of influence that qualifies it to rank with world literary attainment, without forgetting to maintain its own traditions and thereby to create a new and distinct literature of its own.

#### Contemporary Tendencies

Some of the more prominent movements in modern Japanese literature passed through so many critical phases after the middle of the Taisho (circa

1916), that they began to suffer decline at the close of the period; and then new movements began to appear.

**The First Stage** First there is the movement towards proletarian literature. Ohmi Komaki, Yobun Kanéko, Hirabayashi, Aono and Maédako made the first systematic attempt to create literary movement for the proletarian classes with the publication of the "Tané Maku Hito" (the Sower) the first proletarian magazine in Japan and it was in this circle that such promising writers as Hayama, Kuroshima, and Taiko Hirabayashi were brought up.

**The Second Stage** Launched by a few younger writers who gathered around Kan Kikuchi, eminent novelist and dramatist, this group promoted new ideas of sensual beauty by abandoning the old conventions and aesthetic notions. Riechi Yokomitsu, Teppel Kataoka, Kōjirō Serizawa, etc. who were imbued with high artistic motives and were against ideological literature, disclosed a new realm of style in fiction, being much influenced by the French novelist, Paul Morand.

**The Third Stage** In the meantime the old literary men were obliged to change their mind as an effect of a strong movement of the People's Front writers around the "Sower", and the third stage was marked by a powerful appeal from the "Literature for Majority." Kan Kikuchi changed over to this new movement in fiction. In the tenth year of Taisho (1920), "Madam Pearl" was brought out, and this incited the emulation of many other writers.

There were two aspects indicated in the "Literature for Majority." One of these tends mostly to depict modern life struggles in an attractive way; Kikuchi, Kumé, and Kato were included in this circle. Shirai, Maki, Naoki, and Osaragi were mostly concerned in producing historical and biographical fiction, full of fantastic descriptions.

**The Fourth Stage** The proletarian literature which was for a time pushed down underground regained its power and called the attention of the journalistic world by the production of such representative works as "Tayo no nai Machi" (The Sunless Streets) by Chokū Tokunaga, "Tetsu no Hanashi" (A Story of Iron) by Jūji Nakano and "Fuzai Jinushi" (The Landlord) by Takiji Kobayashi, and the group of able proletarian critics and writers was active for some time with their publications. But the time was soon against them and proletarian lit-

erature began to decline rapidly in 1933.

The leading periodicals began to keep the young communistic writers at a respectful distance from the January number of the year and the old writers who had their days in the Meiji Era were reinstated in their place. The tendency of the year was decidedly reactionary in literature, especially in novels.

In the world of drama almost no original work was published, except some translations of Western dramas.

In 1934 religious literature began to flourish, as waves of the so-called Renaissance of religion swept through Japan, while magazines of poetry witnessed a greater circulation.

Introduction of French literature represented by Valéry and André Gide, and a fresh study of Russian literature, which once was most influential in the literary circles of Japan, has given a new mode of thought to young writers.

#### Literature in 1936

**Trend of Thought** The social conditions in the latter half of 1935 and the beginning of 1936 had been comparatively calm, until the sudden outbreak of the February 26th incident threw society into great consternation and uneasiness, exercising not a little influence upon the trend of thought in the country. For nearly four months after the occurrence of the event, the general public was bound to a policy of non-expression of views, and the periodicals were forbidden to give out any criticisms on the Incident. With the easing of tension, after the lapse of some months, however, the Incident became the topic of much severe criticism among the journals, and the seriousness of the situation was sufficiently borne in upon the people. The general opinion was against the violent measures employed by the young leaders of the revolt, who sought to realize their fascist ideals by those means. The Incident gave rise to two distinct and opposite groups of thought, the nationalistic group and the socialistic or liberalistic one. Almost all papers and periodicals were in support of the latter group, and very little appeared in the press in favor of the former. Among the leading contributors of liberalistic thought were the following:—G. Omori, H. Haségawa, H. Yamakawa, T. Baba, T. Morito, T. Miyazawa, K. Arakata, M. Royama, K. Tanaka, E. Kawai, T. Yanaibara, S. Sasaki, H. Arisawa, K. Miki, K. Abe, K. Kiyozawa. The nationalist or fascist thought found few champions among the leading writers, with the exception of the following:—S. Tokutomi, R. Kita, S. Naka-

no, M. Kanokogi, K. Chihara, and H. Kurata. Even these writers were not all agreed in their interpretation of the fascist ideals.

During this critical period of political unrest, yet another movement, the "Front Populaire", was introduced from France and Spain and stimulated the Marxist and radical elements in labour groups, though it achieved no tangible results.

The need for a humanistic mode of thought was advocated by K. Miki who has been endeavouring to make his ideas the guiding principles of the nation, in order to counteract the feudalistic conceptions still prevalent in Japan.

Towards the end of 1936, the leaders of the various groups of thought, radical as well as moderate, paused to consider how far their concepts were in harmony with the traditional characteristics of the Japanese people. This gave an incentive to historical studies of the peculiarities of Japanese national characteristics. The indiscriminate introduction and admiration of Western culture became the object of severe criticism by leading writers. N. Hasegawa contributed a significant article on the "Characteristics of the Japanese Concept of Culture" (The Nippon Hyoron, August), wherein he maintained that the standards of Japanese culture differed fundamentally from those of the West, as, for instance, the ideal of beauty which expresses to the Japanese in the incomplete and the unsymmetrical, as opposed to the complete and the symmetrical which is the standard of beauty to the Westerner.

**Literary Events** In April, 1936, a new association for the protection of the rights of translators of Western literature was organized at the proposal of D. Horiguchi, Y. Yamanouchi, K. Miki, and other translators. The need for this Association arose from the fact that the original authors in foreign countries demanded heavy payments for infringement of translation rights, which the translators were unable to pay, because of the low payment they receive from publishers.

In May, the Bungéika Kyokai (Literary Men's Association) installed Kan Kikuchi in the chair, and made a plan to establish a Literary Men's Club for the propagation and development of literature, and held its first meeting to make preparations for the collection of building funds.

In July, Toson Shimazaki, the chairman of the Japanese Pen Club, left for Argentine to attend the International Conference of the Pen Club held at

Buenos Aires on the 5th September.

A monument in memory of Ichiyo Higuchi, a famous woman novelist of the Meiji Era, was erected in Ryūmenji Temple at Shitaya, Tokyo, on the 28th July, under the initiative of the famous Waka poet Nobutsuna Sasaki, and other writers. Another monument was erected in memory of Doppo Kunikida, a well-known novelist of the Meiji Era, at Yagawara, Kanagawa prefecture.

The year 1936 was marked by the visits of famous Japanese literary men to foreign countries. Yonō Noguchi, a poet of international fame, visited India, at the invitation of the Calcutta University to deliver a series of lectures on Japanese culture; Kyōshi Takahama, the famous Haiku poet went on a trip to the West and the famous novelist, San'atsu Mushakōji visited Germany and France.

The literary world of the country suffered great losses in the deaths of the following eminent men of letters — Choko Ikuta, who translated the complete works of Nietzsche and wrote a historical novel of the life of Buddha; Chisetsu Omori, a versatile writer of Kabuki plays; Miyekichi Suzuki, a prolific writer of stories for children; and Shinkichi Makino, a promising young novelist. (For details see the Japan Year Book, 1937, P.P. 879, 880)

#### Literature in 1937-38

Controversial articles dealing with literature written in the "Japanese spirit" began to appear in literary periodicals in the latter half of 1936. During the first half of 1937, however, these discussions grew more heated and almost all literary critics took part in them. The most ardent advocate of the "literature in Japanese spirit" was Yoichi Nakagawa, a novelist, who called forth criticisms by insisting upon casualism of literature against necessitarianism which prevailed among writers in the leftist camp. Nakagawa was supported by a group of writers connected with the "Nippon Romanticism", a periodical which propagates German romanticism in Japan. The "Bungaku Kai" (Literary World), which is patronized by Kan Kikuchi and has among its contributors such popular writers as Fusao Hayashi, Kōsei Kawabata, Haruo Sato, also upheld the "literature in Japanese spirit," and thus Japanism was the dominant note in literature in the early months of 1937. Those who stood against the current trend were mostly leftists including such critics as Tsunéjiro Kubokawa, Jun Tosaka and Jūji Nakano or such

writers as Yuriko Chūjō and Choku Tokunaga. Opposing the group of writers who gathered round the "Nippon Romanticism" there was a band of literary men who had the "Jinmin Bunko" (People's Library) as their weapon, and who were headed by Rintaro Takéda and the remaining members of the now defunct association of left writers.

As viewed from a detached angle the discussion centring around the "literature in Japanese spirit" resulted in no clear demarcation of what was really Japanese, as was pointed out by Héisuké Sugiyama, a liberal cultural critic, other than expressions of sentiment with reference to the "Japanese spirit" in the writings of its promoters. He also warned its proponents against the absurdity of according unconditioned praise to the literature in Japanese spirit. No one was able to dig sufficiently deeply into the fundamentals of the spirit or Japanese racial characteristics, or to point out clearly why sentimentalism in the literature in Japanese spirit was nonsense.

The nationalistic tendency in literature, therefore, ran its own course with the advance of the times and contributors to the "Nippon Romanticism" even went so far as to advocate a "return to the spirit of the Manyōshū" (An anthology of ancient Japanese poems. See explanation at the beginning of this chapter), and insisted upon banning further importation of Western culture, calling anti-literary all the logical or scientific works of literature. With the occurrence of the China incident in July, 1937, it developed into an earnest nationalism affected by the national spirit in the world of thought and the enthusiastic patriotism among the people. Yoichi Nakagawa, San'atsu Mushakōji, Yoshio Toyoshima and others organized the "Nippon Bunka no Kai" (Japanese Cultural Association) which began activities in unison with the Central Japanese Cultural League. Popular writers such as Fusao Hayashi, Jun Sakakiyama, Shirō Ozaki, Ki Kimura and Miss Nobuko Yoshiya went to China to give literary accounts of battles in the capacity of war correspondents. Their dispatches published in book form were "War and Its Profile" by Fusao Hayashi, "A Thousand Miles in Saï Winds" by Shirō Ozaki, "Shanghai Correspondent" by Ki Kimura and "Through Shanghai in the Battle Fire" by Miss Nobuko Yoshiya. On the other hand the camp of the opponents was compelled to make a

wholesale retreat and the "People's Library" was discontinued, and the activities of the leftist critics and writers Jūji Nakano, Yuriko Miyamoto, Jun Tosaka, and others were prohibited with the Government's suppression of the people's front in Japan.

Other footprints of literature in 1937 which call our attention were as follows: the problems concerning the poor production of polite literature, the separation of polite literature from real life and the standstill of psychological fiction based on the writer's private life were taken up in connection with the discussion on literary thoughts mentioned above, and much journalistic criticism was focused upon them. Special articles which dealt with these problems appeared in magazines or in the columns of the daily press. The subjects discussed were "polite literature and popular fiction," "novels in the first person" or "novelettes and long stories." The articles which called forth public response were "Literary Style and the Writer" by Suékichō Aono and "Self-complacent Criticism, a New Fashion" by Tetsutaro Kawakami, both of which appeared in the columns of the Asahi Shimbun.

As the result of these discussions emphasis was laid on full length stories which depict, in literary form, the real aspects of the life of the masses in modern Japanese society, and short stories went out of vogue as being of insufficient scope and length to accomplish this purpose. The first novel to appear in conformity with these standards was "Mugi shinazu" (A Grain of Wheat Does Not Perish), by Yōjiro Ishizaka, in the "Bungéi" (Literature). The success of this story stimulated journalists and long stories appeared in various literary magazines. Daily papers opened their literary sections to long stories by writers of polite literature and to novels freshly written for the purpose. This was in marked contrast to the former practice of reprinting stories which had once appeared in periodicals or other papers. The principal full length fictions published in the year were "The Frame" by Fusao Hayashi, "Reconstruction" and "Search into Life" by Kensaku Shimaki, "Happiness" by Tomoji Abé, "The Shinsen Band" Tomoyoshi Murayama, "An outline of a Love Affair" by Nobuyuki Tatsuno, "A Young Man" by Yōjiro Ishizaka, and the writings of the literary war correspondents previously mentioned.

The subjects dealt with by literary

critics, other than those already mentioned, were as follows: On Literary Criticism and Critics by Suëo Kobayashi and Ichiko Kamichika, The Relation between War and Literature by Jun Ishiwara and Itaru Nii, Concerning Culture by Kiyoshi Miki and Tetsutaro Kawakami, The Organization of the Imperial Academy of Arts by Tôson Shimazaki, Heisuké Sugiyama, Suëo Kobayashi and others.

The following works were made objects of special discussion: "Man in Fancy Dress" by Shûsei Tokuda, "Episodes in the Bokuto (East Side of Tokyo)" by Kafû Nagai, "Little Steps of the Bereaved" by Toshiko Sato, "Snowbound Country" by Yasunari Kawabata, "The Throng" by Yuriko Miyamoto, "Reconstruction" by Kensaku Shimaki, the works of Yôjirô Ishizaka mentioned above, and "Mother and Son" by Kanoko Okamoto.

As to the translations of Western literary works, the stories by André Gide were most welcomed by Japanese lovers of literature. His "Nouvelles Pages de Journal", "Retour de l'U. R. S. S." and "Retouches à mon Retour de l'U. R. S. S." translated into Japanese obtained a large number of readers. The Japanese versions of the novels written by the late Chinese writer Bo-jin, the complete works of Goethe and selections from the works of Pearl S. Buck were also widely read. Kazuo Watanabe put the "L'Eve Future" by Villier de l'Isle-Adam into Japanese; it was one of the greatest works of translation undertaken, but is well done.

**Dramatic Performances** The China incident caused a depression in the business of commercial theatres. On the contrary "Anna Karenina" performed by the Shin-kyo Geki-dan (The New Association of Actors), drew a full house through scheduled and extended runs, and "The Earth" by the Shin Tsukiji Geki-dan (The New Tsukiji Party) was repeated to satisfy the public thirst for genuine dramatic performance. The success of these new parties well speaks of the universal appreciation of highly artistic dramas in Japanese society despite a year of conflict with China. Other performances by The New Association of Actors were "The Northeastern Wind" in March and May, "The Awakening of Spring", "Wake up and Sing", and "Expelling Science," and those presented by The New Tsukiji Party were "The Gay Wives of Windsor" in January, "The Garden of Cherry-blossoms," "The Ship that Sails on Land" in April, "Tai-

suké Itagaki" (one of the greatest political leaders of Japan) in May and "The Laughing Letter."

Both the "Northeastern Wind" and "The Earth" mentioned above were presentations of the peasants' life in Japan in dramatic form, and greatly impressed the spectators.

**Waka** "Waka" (Japanese Poem) or "Tanka" (Short Poem) which is the oldest style of Poetry in Japan is still alive and flourished in 1937. "Back to the Mannyoshu", (see an explanation of anthology given in the first page of this chapter), was the slogan in the year and it imbued a new spirit to "Waka" poets. In April, the Kaizo-sha made plans for the publication of the series of present "Tanka" collections called "New Mannyoshu", and the first volume of which made appearance in January, 1938. Representative essays on "Tanka" published were "Mannyo Greece, and Japanese Spirit", by Yoichi Nakagawa and "Greece and Mannyo", by Tetsuro Watsujit.

**Haiku** "Haiku", or the 5-7-5 metre one stanza poem, was as popular as before and the "Hototogisu", mentioned above, retained the Kingly position in the Haiku World and it is going to celebrate the publication of the 500th number in 1939. The "500 Haiku" of Kyoshi Takahama the leader of the "Hototogisu" school of Haiku was published in fall of 1937. There were many other books of Haiku published in the year, including a plan for the publication of the "Complete Collection of the Haiku Literature" in 12 volumes.

**Miscellaneous**: The International P.C. Conference, Japan sent Tôson Shimazaki and Ikuma Arishima to the International Pen Club Conference held at Buenos Aires, Argentine in September 1937, and the next conference due 1940 was decided to be held at Tokyo.

**Birth of the Japan translators' Association.** The International Copyright Council which had been organized in Japan in 1936 in relation to the right of translation of the European musical and literary works into Japanese, was renamed and called the Japan Translators' Association and began positive activities for the protection of the Japanese right of translation of European works by organizing translators and publishers into one big body.

The translation of the Mannyoshu. In 1934, The Japan Science Promotion Association asked Kuryo Obata, a translator in the Foreign Ministry and Yuzaburo Ishii, a teacher in Kasuya Middle School, Saitama Prefecture, to put the

Mannyoshu into English, and the translation was completed in December, 1936. A general introduction written by Dr. I. Shimamura and D. M. Anézaki and a biographical notes on the poets in the anthology by Dr. J. Tsuji were attached and it is going to be published at London in two beautiful volumes in the near future.

**Dissolution of the "Bungel Konwakai."** The Bungel Konwa-kai, or literary men's round table council, accomplished its aim in the birth of Imperial Academy of Arts and the creation of the Cultural Order, (see "Decorations", in the chapter on the Imperial Court), and dissolved itself on July 16, 1937, with conferring, as its last work, the konwakai prize on Yasunari Kawabata for his "Snowbound Country" and Shiro Ozaki for his "Human Theatre."

**Akutagawa and Naoki prizes.** The receivers of the Akutagawa and Naoki prizes, which are awarded by the Bungel Shunju-sha in memory of the late celebrated literary men, were as follows:

**Akutagawa prize**: Jun Ishikawa for "Fugen," Uio Tomizawa for "The Mediterranean Sea," Kazuo Ozaki for "Happo-lucky Spectacles," Katsunori Tamai (pen name Ihei Hino) for "A Story of a Night-soil man." This K. Tamai is a soldier sent to China.

**Naoki Prize**: Takataro Kigi for "A Fall in Human Life", Masuji Ibusé for "The Drifting of John Manjiro."

**Birth of "Shin Nippon Bunka-no-kai."** "Shin Nippon Bunka-no-kai" or New Japan Cultural Association was organized on July 17, 1937, by the initiative of Haruo Sato and Fusao Hayashi

patronized by Manabu Matsumoto and with 23 members including Yoichi Nakagawa, Sanetsu Mushakoji, Nobutsuna Sasaki, Hakushu Kitahara, and Nyojékan Haségawa. The tenet of the association is "study on the fundamentals of Japanese literature", and it is the aim of the association to give a compass for the confused world of thought in Japan, by publishing the results of the study and employing no other means of propaganda or movement.

German translation of Japanese literature. The Marion von Schroder, a book store in Hamburg, expressed through the Foreign Ministry their desire for the publication of the works of Japanese women writers, and in compliance with their request the following five stories were selected and the translation into German was begun at the end of 1937, "A River of Mind" by Yuriko Chujo, "A Weeping Boy" by Fumiko, "Lingering Affection" by Chiyo Uno, "Little Brothers" and "The Kaishin Maru" by Yayoiko Nogami.

**Visit of Claude Farrere.** French writer Claude Farrere who is well-known with his "La Bataille" a narration of the Russo-Japanese War, made a visit to Japan, arriving at Tokyo on January 30, 1938. It was 40 years since he had been in Japan last and a most enthusiastic welcome was extended to him on all sides. He gave lectures in meetings and through radio, and after ten days stay in Tokyo and a tour through Osaka, Nara, Kyoto, left Japan on February 25. The main purpose of his visit was to see Japan in the present emergency and to write on Japan as it is for "Echo de Paris" and "Candide."

## Fine Arts

### History

**Pre-Asuka Period** This period, corresponding to what is called the dark age of art, has nothing specially to describe, although it is perhaps the longest period, extending, as it does, from the age of myths down to about the 7th century, A.D.

According to archaeology the ancient Japanese worked in stone, artifacts such as stone images being used in ancestor worship. These are rough hewn sculptures, representing persons clad in armour, wearing a sword, or other arms, all having been used in burial as guardians of the tomb. It was customary, too, in ancient times to have a similar primitive engraving, in the form of a ladder or a wheel,

made on the coffin; the plain, artless impression thus conveyed is expressive of the simple mode of living in that remote age.

The dwellings were also in very simple style, constructed of barked but unhewn timber. Even in this simplest type of building there were two styles, known as the Izumo and the Isé; which implies that the ancient culture of Japan was dual, derived either from Izumo or Isé. The former style of structure is represented by the Izumo Shrine, Izumo province, present Shimané prefecture; and the latter by the great shrine of Isé, although these now give no more than a vague idea of what must have been the prehistoric architecture of the country.

In addition to the above, there are

earthen figures called haniwa which arrest the attention not only of archaeologists but also of artists. According to historical records, the Emperor Suinin, who abdicated in 2 B.C., abhorred the cruel old custom of burying people alive around the grave of a high personage, certain individuals being selected from among those persons who were under patronage of the deceased in life. At the instance of a retainer, Nomino-Sukuné, he caused earthen figures to be interred in place of living persons, when the Empress Hihashi-hime died; and this was the origin of haniwa. It is believable, however, that the haniwa existed before Suinin's time. The haniwa is, from an artistic point of view, by no means of high value. It is, nevertheless, the only art product of Japan before the importation of Buddhism. Moreover, its value rests on the fact that it is a work produced solely by the Japanese before they had been influenced by Chinese art. Besides, it is invaluable in that it gives some idea of the life of the people of its day. The variety of haniwa may be roughly classified into human figures, birds and animals, architectural structures, household articles and arms.

**Asuka Period** As has been stated in the preceding section, for sometime after the foundation of the Empire by the Emperor Jimmu, there was nothing worthy of mention in the realm of art. The Asuka period covers the reign of the Empress Suiko (592-629), when the Imperial palace was in the province of Yamato, Nara prefecture. Already, as early as the time of the Emperor Yuryaku, in the middle of the 5th century, a painter named Isura came over from Chosen, with which country Japan then had frequent intercourse, and through which Chinese civilization had been introduced. Later, during the reign of the Emperor Sushun, towards the end of the 6th century, another painter called Hakka came with carpenters to build temples. But it was not until Shibatatto came over from China, in the reign of the Emperor Keitai (507-531), that Buddhism was introduced into Japan, despite the fact that communication had long before continued with Chosen, then called Kudara.

Shibatatto must have been an expert in the art of sculpture, for he was the grandfather of Kuratsu-kurinotori who cast the large image of Buddha now in the Horyuji temple, in the Empress Suiko's time. Nevertheless, it is evident that the country which contributed most toward founding Japan's fine art technique was Kudara.

The development of art in the Suiko régime was really wonderful. Prince Shotoku, a man of wide learning and an enthusiastic devotee of Buddha, spurred on the ever increasing devotion to art. The leading structures of the period were the Horyuji and Tennoji temples; but those parts of them that have best withstood the wear and tear of time are the two-storied kondo, gate, the five-storied pagoda of the Horyuji temple and the three-storied pagodas of the Horyuji and Horinji temples. No doubt the creative design of the Prince must have been woven into them, but it is nevertheless true that they were modeled after Kudara architecture. It is only from these structures that one can form any idea of what Chinese architecture in those days might have been. The Tamamushi-no-zushi, (a miniature temple) in the Horyuji temple, is valuable not only as a model of ancient architecture but as an example of the structural art and craft of the Suiko régime. The honeysuckle design on the metal fittings of the miniature temple bears close resemblance to similar art motives of Greece. The sculptures of the Suiko period are not all from one source, some coming from China or Chosen, while others are home creations, either from the hands of Chinese sculptors, or the combined efforts of Japanese and naturalized aliens.

The fine art of the Suiko period has thus great depth and width, and at the same time affords invaluable reference for study.

**Hakuho Period** In the history of Japanese fine art, following the Suiko Era comes the Hakuho period which starts in the reign of the Emperor Jomei, terminating in that of the Emperor Mommu, 629-697. In the 15th year of the reign of the Empress Suiko the custom of sending a government envoy to China, then called Sui, was established, followed by increased intercourse between the two countries. Later, in the 2nd year of the Emperor Jomei's administration, the first envoy was despatched to the T'ang Court in China. By the establishment of this custom art products of China came direct to Japan instead of through the Korean Peninsula, as they had done up to that time. Moreover, the Talka Reformation, by which the political system of China came to be closely followed from the time of the Emperor Kotoku, contributed much toward developing Hakuho art.

(1) **Painting.** One of the most outstanding facts in the art of this period is that paintings were imported from the Continent, and Buddhist pictures were

painted by priests from China and India. The mural paintings of the kondo of the Horyuji temple testify to this; its fresco work is further advanced in technique than that of India, and is prized as the leading example of mural painting in any extant wooden building. This and other examples of imported pictorial art technique during the period eloquently speak of the inflow from Indian sources into Oriental countries.

(2) **Bronze.** The most representative work of the period consists in the big bronze images of Buddha and the two disciples at the Yakushiji temple at Nara. Upon their pedestals are engraved a hoshokumon design in lieu of honeysuckle which by that time had ceased to command preference. The hoshokumon design is the art of inlaying or setting jewels in necklaces, armlets, pedestals, and halos around the heads of images. In connection with the Yakushiji temple's three images, it is interesting to notice that, side by side with the hoshokumon, there is an engraving of arabesque design in grapes. This grape pattern also has its origin in the west of India, whence it came to China during the Han dynasty and prospered in the age of Tang.

(3) **Architecture.** The only model of architecture constructed in this period and still extant is the three-storied pagoda of the Yakushiji temple at Nara. Another example of the best architectural technique of the period is to be seen at the Nara Imperial Museum where models of five-storied pagodas of the time are preserved.

**Tempeyo Period** The Nara period (707-780) is called the Tempeyo Era in the history of Japanese fine art. Through the zealous efforts of the Emperor Shomu and Empress Komyo,

who were unrivalled in piety, Buddhist doctrine was thoroughly demonstrated in the capital of Nara, with a consequent development of Buddhist fine art. It was the veritable golden age of fine art in religion. The casting of the Daibutsu (great image of Buddha) at the Todaiji temple and the construction of the temple itself may be pointed out as the greatest examples of art within the period. The Daibutsu has several times suffered from fire, which made it necessary to repair the image; and, in consequence, only the petals of the lotus blossom upon which the image sits retain traces of contemporary art motives. On the surface of these petals are engraved scenes from the sacred world of Buddha, which, from the view point of technique in painting are decidedly excellent. In front of the building occupied by the colossal statue of Buddha there is a bronze-lantern which minutely exemplifies the characteristics of the Tempeyo period. Other remains representing the sculptures of the period include several images in the same temple.

(1) **Shoso-in Museum.** After the demise of the Emperor Shomu all the objects of art and craft he possessed were donated to the Todaiji temple by the Empress Komyo. Nearly all were treasured in the Shoso-in Art Museum of Nara, and have safely been handed down to the present. Perfect preservation of art products from so remote an age could be expected only in such a country as Japan. The national treasures of the Shoso-in not only abound in rare paintings but also in many objects of industrial art, such as textiles, lacquer-ware as well as gold and silver ware, porcelain and writing utensils. Especially noteworthy are

1 The Shoso-in is located in the precinct of the Todaiji temple at Nara. The building is a typical wooden storehouse of old Japanese Azé-kura style. No metal nails are used and no walls of earth. The whole building consists of three separate sections which have no windows but one entrance door for each. In the interior each section is two storied with an attic. The dimensions of the building are approximately 108 feet by 30 feet, the height from the ground to the roof top being 39 feet.

Formerly the treasures were kept out from light, and untouched for a long period of years. Since 1872 the doors are being opened annually for airing for two weeks, from November 1st to 14th. All the precious objects are kept in glass cases. In the northern section are kept treasures of the Imperial House before and at the time of the Emperor Shomu, mirrors, desks, musical instruments, screens, medicine, etc. The middle section contains arms and armour, cases, glass and lacquer wares. The southern section largely contains religious antiques of the Todaiji temple.

The Shoso-in apparently existed in the precinct of the Todaiji temple before 756 A.D. when the Empress Komyo, widow of the Emperor Shomu, dedicated to the Vairocana Buddha or Daibutsu the Imperial treasures as a memorial of the deceased. Weather has beaten it of course. Battles went on around the sacred ground and the Shoso-in itself was once stricken by a thunderbolt. But the wooden storehouse has been mysteriously preserved through 1,179 years, with partial repairs. Most of its contents listed in the "Todaiji Kemmotsu Chō" (catalogue of donations, dated June 21, 8th year of Tempeyo-shōhō (756 A.D.)), have been kept unharmed solely due to the loyalty of the officials and



the Tang masterpieces from the Imperial household of China. In addition to those of Japanese and Chinese production, examples from the East Roman Empire, Persia, India and countries west of China are found in the museum. Thus the Shoso-in Art Museum is representative of the art products covering both East and West from even before the 7th century.

(2) Ganjinwajo. A priest known as Ganjinwajo in Japan with a number of disciples, visited Nara, then capital of the country, not long after the completion of the Daibutsu. He and his followers had drifted ashore in the southern part of Kyushu. These foreigners left an indelible impression on the history of Japanese art, because they belonged to a group of leading artists of the Tang period of China. Their skill in art was woven into the art of the Tempyo period, not only in the fields of painting and sculpture, but also in architecture. That art products from their hands must have been as great in number as in variety is evidenced by the art treasures of the Toshodaiji temple in Yamato province, Nara prefecture. The image of Buddha enshrined in that temple exhaustively represents the characteristics of the art of the Tang-dynasty. Besides these there are several wood-engravings in which, it is surmised, the sculptures of the succeeding period had its origin. Among the foreigners were persons of other than Chinese nationality. Gumporiki, as he was called in Japan, was an expert sculptor, from the country of Kunlunkuo the exact location of which is still a question. Judging by the fact that the Ganjinwajo party included people from the west of China, it is but a matter of course that the engravings at the Toshodaiji temple re-

semble the fresco art of countries west of China. From what remains, there is sufficient reason to believe that some of the descendants of the Persians driven out of the country by the Mohammedans, arrived in Japan with the party.

All kinds of cultural forms and products were imported during this period. These the Japanese could digest and work with a skill not inferior to that of the foreigners. A general impression of the Tempyo period, however, is that there was too much copying of Chinese art and so, too little originality. This one-sided trend of evolution gave rise to a movement in following periods for a revival of art genuinely Japanese in origin.

**Konin Period** The Konin period (782-588) begins about the time that the Emperor Kanmu transferred the capital from Nara to Kyoto, lasting till the reign of the Emperor Koko. The outstanding characteristic of the Konin period lie in the phenomenal rise of native art at the hands of noted priests. Kobodalshi and Chisho-dalshi were priest sages of refined artistic endowment. Quite a number of pictures and sculptures of the period are from their hands. The Toji, Koyasan and Midera temples treasure works of theirs. As one of the prominent painters of the time we may name Kudara Kawanari on whom there are a number of books, but none giving reliable historical information about him. He must have been among those artists summoned by the Emperor Saga to paint the pictures of landscape and rough seas seen on the walls and paper sliding-screens of the Seiryoden Hall of the palace. The custom of painting landscapes and characters on screens of the Imperial palace was thereafter developed setting a fashion in drawings

people to the Imperial House to whom the Shoso-in belongs.

The most important treasures are the "Kemmonsu Chō" (catalogue of donation), letters of the Emperor Shōmu, essays written by the Empress Kōmyō, stung sword of the Emperor Shōmu, Kin-gin Hyomon Kin (gold and silver ornamented Oriental harp), Shitan Genkwan (a stringed instrument), Gogen Biwa (a five stringed lute), Mokusa Shitan Kikyoku (a sandalwood checker board ornamented with wooden mosaic), Toriké Tachionna Byobu (a screen with a female figure who wears feathered garments), Urushi Ko Hēi (a lacquered carafe), Yōraku or diadems and fragments of the crowns of the Emperor Shōmu and Empress Kōmyō, Gingaku Men (masks used in an old performance "gigaku"), bronze mirrors, swords and other arms and armour; Imperial edict engraved on a bronze plate, glass cup, lacquered chest painted with gold and silver dust, gold and silver ornamented leather box, hangings with figures of Buddhas, Mitta Ebon (a painted tray), silver bottle, and censer with a handle.

Priceless documents of the Tempyo period are stored in Shoso-in, 779 in all. They include census registers, maps, official documents, I. O. U. and books, and present indispensable materials for the study of official and civil life 11 centuries ago.

For protection, inspection of the treasures of the Shoso-in is not permitted to the general public, but the pictures of all treasures are published in book form named "Tōyō Zuko," and all the documents may be found in the "Dai Nippon Ko Mon Jo" (Japan's old documents).

which please the eye. In those days screens were popular, and this helped to popularize landscape painting.

The typical sculptures of the period are such sacred images as are seen at the Shingoji temple, Kyoto, known as the Shingoji style sculpture, and others at the Murofuji temple in Nara prefecture, known as the Murofu style. The rise of the art of engraving images of Japanese gods may be mentioned as a memorable event of the age.

As regards architecture the period shows very few examples that now remain, the representative structures being the main hall and five-storied pagoda of the Murofuji temple. The Heian Shrine constructed in Kyoto, closely modelled after the structures of the age under review, offers excellent material for the study of Konin architecture.

**Fujiwara Period** The Fujiwara period (800-1180) covers the three hundred years between the reign of the Emperor Uda and that of the Emperor Antoku. At the beginning of the period the Emperor Uda, at the suggestion of Michizane Sugawara, discontinued the custom of despatching envoys to China, thereby cutting off facility of communications with the continent. During the consequent isolation Japanese art was afforded a chance to cultivate its native genius and its own field of influence. The continental art that had been freely absorbed and adopted up to that time commenced to produce national characteristics as is demonstrated by yamatoyé work in the sphere of painting.

(1) Painting. Kosēno-Kanaoka was probably the most skilled landscape painter of the period. His reputation was such that the horse he painted on a paper sliding-door was credited with getting out of the screen at night to feed on bush clover in the yard. Kosēno-Hirohata, a well-known painter, was one of his descendants. As skilled painters of that age we may mention also Motomitsu Fujiwara, Mitsunaga Fujiwara, Takayoshi Fujiwara and his son Takachika, besides Toba-sojo and Kakuyū, all of whom specialized in painting yamatoyé or native style, which had developed from a school in the Tang period of China, called Karayé. Japanese paper-doors and folding screens were what they selected to paint on.

Besides yamatoyé many other schools of Japanese style paintings were started, as the kamiyé, utayé, ashideyé, and okoyé. The last mentioned was a school of comic genius whose premier artist was Toba-sojo, a noted priest of the day. Three albums of comic pictures from

his brush are treasured at the Kozanji temple. Another important arrival was the yemakimono (paper-scroll) which later developed until reaching its golden age in the Kamakura period. The aforementioned three artists were the most popular masters of the age. Some of their work still survives.

Consequent upon the ever inculcated Buddhist precepts, Buddhist paintings flourished, so much so that specialists in that art were always in evidence. In this religious sphere of painting also national characterization was effected to no meagre extent. The most outstanding of the Japanized Buddhist schools was named the Eshin-fu, started by Eshinsodzu, a priest, first affiliated with the Tendai sect of Buddhism, but who later preached the doctrines of the Jodo sect. Probably this school was second to none at that time in Japanization of technique. Taméto, commonly called Great Takuma, who did the fresco work of the Ho-o-do at Uji, Kyoto, belonged to the Takuma family, producing accomplished painters of the time. The most representative Buddhist paintings are treasured at the Hokkēji, Yamashiro Chohoji, Yamato Horinji, Koyasan, the Toji temples and the Imperial Art Museum of Tokyo.

(2) Sculpture. Remarkable advancement in the realm of Buddhist sculpture was revealed in consequence of effective doctrinal propaganda by the Tendai and Shingon sects. Wood-engraving stood unrivalled, but that art, unlike the same mode of the previous age, was mainly in what is called parquetry work. Sculptors collaborated, and in most cases images were constructed in separate parts, each carved by a different artist, under an accomplished specialist. It is interesting to note that even in the carving of hands, feet, head and body there was a division of labour into smaller parts, and each section was put in charge of one sculptor. When completed, the several parts were put together, painted with lacquer and gilded.

Guilds of sculptors, like the shichijo-bussho, Shichijo-omiya-bussho, Rokujo-marikoji-bussho and Sanjo-bussho, established studios one after another. Especially noteworthy in this field was the Shichijo-bussho started by the famous artist Jocho who was practically supreme in the realm of sculpture in the Fujiwara period. The peculiarity of the Jocho school of his creation lies in its soft, mild features with smooth, elegant textile folds or plaits, which characterize the most glorious period of Fujiwara art. The images of Ami-

tabha enshrined at the Ho-o-do, Ho-kaiji, Saikyōji and Chusonji temples are all representative works of the Fujiwara period.

(3) Architecture. Along with the development of Japanese style painting, a new Japanese architecture, as seen in what is called the Shinden-zukuri (main building of a peer's residence), prevailed. This style gradually encroached on the domain of sacred structures, as is well exemplified in the Ho-o-do and Konjikido, above cited.

Within three hundred years after the country's adoption of a seclusion policy, an indigenous style characteristic of the Yamato race made the fullest possible development in all branches of art.

**Kamakura Period.** Between the Emperor Gotoba and Emperor Godaigo the Kamakura Shogunate assumed the reins of government. The Kamakura period (1192-1337) of political history is at the same time that of Japanese art. During those 140 years traditional Japanese sentiments and thought developed vigorously against the aristocratic culture which had gained influence in the previous period. Such a turn of cultural development could not but react on art; the anti-traditional spirit of the age began to tell on artistic creation. Not only from within but also from without the country a radical change was introduced, because in those days the Yuan period succeeded the Sung in China; and its highly favoured cultural attainments came flooding into Japan. The two movements, of foreign and domestic origin, combined to lay a foundation for modern fine art which started and developed in and after the Muromachi period.

(1) Painting. Continued civil wars, military administration, and war literature, all contributed to the voluminous production of yemakimono (picture-rolls) based on themes from battle scenes. Another kind of yemakimono worthy of special mention was painted for the purpose of propagating the doctrines of newly risen sects of Buddhism, such as the Zen and Jodo. This pictorial demonstration of religious doctrines proved quite effective; for, by depicting the life and work of founders, a more direct appeal was made to prospective converts. For the same reason the yemakimono came to serve also as a means to propagate knowledge of the origin and development of shrines. Quite a number of picture-rolls of the period still remain in perfect condition, those reckoned among the greater works being the History of

the Kitano Tenjin Shrine, Murasaki-shikibu-nikki, Sanjurokkasen, Mokushurai-ekotoba, Honen-shonin-kyōjō-édzu. The last mentioned is a yemakimono depicting the personal history of Honen-shonin, the noted priest who founded the Jodo sect of Buddhism. Among scores of yemakimono painters, Nobuzane Fujiwara, Kéion Sumiyoshi, En-i, Takakané Takashina and Yoshimitsu Tosa were the most popular. A further noteworthy event of the period was the rise of portrait painting. Generally speaking, until this period there was no other method for reproducing figures except by sculpture. The term for portrait was niséyé. But toward the end of this period a new mode appeared. The technique of portrait painting made rapid advance from the time of Takanobu Fujiwara, Tairano-Shigémori, Minamoto-no-Yoritomo whose works are treasured at the Shingoji temple, all rare masterpieces.

With reference to Buddhist painting, the aforementioned Takuma school gradually improved in technique; and with the appearance of Shōga, a descendant of the Takumas, the Takuma school of Buddhist painting was founded, drawing a clear line between the old and the new delineations.

(2) Sculpture. The Kamakura period was also a fecund age in the direction of sculpture. Compared with the work of the preceding period it appeals with more virility. The Shichijō-busshō, the most important sculptors' association or guild, which had been making steady progress, produced a group of consummate artists in Koéi, Unkéi, Jokaku, Kaikéi, Tankéi, Jokéi, Koben and Kōshō, all contemporaries. Among them the most skilled were Unkéi, Tankéi and Kaikéi, who are recognized as the best sculptors since the time of Jocho. Whereas Unkéi and Tankéi excelled in producing the expression of passion, as in statues of nio (Deva kings), Kaikéi specialized in gentle, elegant figures, like those from the chisel of Jocho.

(3) Industrial Art. Lacquer-ware technique, too, made a remarkable advance. The art of engraving also progressed, especially with the appearance of the Kamakura-bori (Kamakura style of engraving). Technique in metal work, also saw much development, inheriting the characteristic virtues of the Fujiwara period. Up to that time the native ceramic art was in so primitive a stage that only unglazed ware could be manufactured. After Kato Shōzaemon-Kagéhisa returned from Sung, marked progress was made in this field

and fine chinaware became a home product.

(4) Architecture. The mansions of nobles had been built in the Shinden-zukuri style, but during the Kamakura period the Buké-zukuri style of architecture started and soon dominated. This is a simple, plain style with an unusual number of sliding-doors to let in light. Though this style of structure has gone out long ago, one can get an idea of it through various yemakimono in which this style of architecture is represented. After the advent of the Zen sect of Buddhism under Eisai-zenshi from China, then called Sung, and the establishment of the Kenninji temple at Kyoto, Zen style of architecture came to attract attention. A good example of this style, still intact, is the Enkakujō temple at Kamakura.

**Muromachi Period.** Succeeding the Kamakura age came the Muromachi period (1337-1573), which, after the two centuries and a half of civil strife, ended with the downfall of the Ashikaga Shogunate. In China the civil disturbances of the late Yuan dynasty had been brought under control by the rise of the Mings, resulting in the advent of the golden age of Ming culture, which exercised some influence on Japan.

(1) Painting. As was customary whenever Chinese culture attained its zenith, communication between the two countries, which had been on the wane, revived again, resulting in the gradual decline of yemakimono, portrait and Buddhist painting, handed down from the preceding Kamakura period, which were unable to cope with the powerful influence of Sung-Yuan style of painting in China. Early in this period there were not a few yemakimono worthy of note such as the Gosannen-gunki by Koréhisa Fujiwara and the Yuzu-nembutsu-engi, joint work of Itroyuki Tosa, Yukihidé Kasuga, Mitsukuni Fujiwara, Ryūko Awataguchi, Jakusai Rokkaku and Eishun Hōgan. The latter still remains in the form of a coloured wood-engraving, perhaps the most widely known as our oldest example of this art.

Typical portrait work of the period is that of the Emperor Godaigo in the Daitokujō temple, Kyoto, and of Yoshimochi Ashikaga, at the Shingoji temple. Far more characteristic of the age, however, are the portraits of Zen priests or so-called "Chinso." The most typical chinso is, perhaps, the portrait of Séichō-kokushi, painted by Mincho, preserved in the Tōfukujō temple. Strictly speaking, chinso has more similarity to the Sung-Yuan style than

to the Tosa school of portraits.

Buddhist painting of the Muromachi period may roughly be adjudged stationary. Copying of old works seemed to have been the only task attracting artists, among whom a priest named Myōtaku-zenshi was known for skill in painting Acala pieces; the principal works of this priest-painter are treasures of the Imperial Art Museum. The most distinguished pictorial artist throughout the period, however, was Mincho. Among his works handed down to the present are the portrait of Séichō-kokushi, above-mentioned, Gōhyakurakan (five hundred disciples of Buddha) in the Tōfukujō temple, and Dainchanzu, known as the largest painting in the country. In his brush work are ample traces of the style of the Sung-Yuan period in China; and he was, moreover, the leading painter of the age by whose art the Continental technique, introduced with the Zen sect in the Kamakura period, was digested, assimilated and consummated.

Special mention should be made of the advent of the Sung-Ming style in yamatoyé work, enhancing the traditional style of that art. This new movement was no doubt made possible by the Ashikaga policy of encouraging trade with China, then called Ming. In consequence, numerous Chinese works of art continued to be imported, greatly stimulating the domestic art world. Among various merits and demerits then inherited from the Continent, kakémono (hanging pictures) and a more advanced technique in painting flowers and birds were perhaps the most outstanding. It is also a fact worthy of special mention that the Sung-Yuan style of sumiyé painting (black and white) became popular throughout Japan, under artists like Jasoku Soga, Sōtō Oguri, Shinno Nakano, Sēsshū and Masanobu Kano. These five sumiyé painters were talented pupils of Shūbun who enjoyed the confidence of the Shogun and occupied an important position under the Shogunate government as a painter.

(2) Sculpture. Images of Buddha continued to be supplied by the Shichijō-busshō of which mention has already been made. But these products gradually lost their artistic value. The aforementioned Shūbun was also a good sculptor. It is said of his skill that the great wooden statue, 40 feet high, of Amitabha, enshrined in the Unkyōji temple, was originally the work of a Nara sculptor, but was retouched by Shūbun's chisel and improved.

(3) Industrial Art. In this epoch the

development shown in industrial art was mainly due to the whimsical enthusiasm of the Shogun. Chanoyu (tea ceremony), a ceremonial etiquette genuinely Japanese, gave rapid rise to various branches of industrial art especially in fine porcelain, the climax of which was reached during the latter part of the period. This progress was not only in works of manual art like tea-cups, trays and so on, but in kakemono and tokonoma (alcove) furnishings of the tea-room, and the building itself, all of which are required for the full ceremony of tea-serving. Most of the tea-cups used for chanoyu in those days were of Chinese make, or imports from the South Seas.

(4) Architecture. The Zen style of architecture greatly improved. This, combined with the cult of chanoyu lent impetus to the construction of simple but tasteful habitations and temples, with gardens and arbours harmonious to the main building, well represented by the Kinkakuji and Ginkakuji temples in Kyoto.

**Momoyama Period** The 25 years from 1574 to 1598 is termed the Momoyama period. During this comparatively short interval civil disturbances stirred up the whole country under the governments of Nobunaga Oda and Hidéyoshi Toyotomi, acting as military dictators.

(1) Painting. Eitoku Kano was perhaps the greatest painter of the period. Nearly all the mural pictures in the castles of Azuchi and Osaka and the mansion at Shuraku are attributed to the brush of this famous artist. The peculiarity of the painting of the period lies in its grand scale and gorgeous, bright colouring. This is especially true of Eitoku Kano's work. Another noted landscape and ukiyoyé painter was Sanraku Kano; in the Sesshu school of sumiyé were Kogan Unkoku and Tobaku Hasé-gawa; the Tosa school had Mitsuyoshi who succeeded to the Tosa school which had by that time been reduced to a school only in name.

(2) Sculpture. The most striking feature of the Momoyama sculpture is its clever adaptation to decoration of architecture. Besides Hidari-Jingoro, whose fame as an accomplished sculptor and engraver still enjoys nation-wide popularity, there were skilled artists like Yuzaémon Miyanihi and Matayémon Okabé. As in the Muromachi period, the art carving "No" masks came into vogue.

(3) Industrial Art. Metal work experienced remarkable improvement. The sword-guard artists evolved novel designs. Also in the technique of bronze

casting no insignificant progress was made by casters like Yashichiro Nagoya, Dojin Nishimura, Yojiro Tawido, Yayémon Nagoya and Echizen-no-Shojé-sansho. The current of the age could not but influence the art of raised lacquer, handed down from previous periods; now works on large scale, fit for the decorative purposes architecture, began to dominate the situation. The Kannon-do of Chikubu-shima Island, Biwa lake, and the Kodaiji temple of Kyoto best represent the technique of this period.

Ceramics also were greatly enhanced in technique. Impelled by the nationwide use of chinaware, due to the popularization of chanoyu, imported articles grew insufficient. As a natural consequence, home industry in this direction was greatly stimulated, resulting in Nagasaké Chojiro's invention of the rakuyaki style and Rokubei Mikazuki's bizenyaki style of ceramic ware. In the realm of textile art, what is to be noted is that in the Tensho Era (1573) a new technique in weaving was introduced from Ming, China, and reached Nishijin, Kyoto, where it appeared in the form of Yamato-nishiki, ito-nishiki, karaori-nishiki, kinran (gold brocade), donsú (satin damask), rinzu, and so on.

In conclusion it may be said of the art of the Momoyama period that, while developing such gorgeous and imposing structures as the Jurakudai and Momoyama Castle, it popularized the exclusive, austere and polite art of chanoyu. Thus two diametrically opposed arts developed all through the Momoyama period.

**Yédo Period** The Yédo period (1603-1867) started with the Tokugawa Shogunate in Tokyo, then called Yédo, and terminated with the downfall of that government just before the Meiji Restoration. During the 260 years of the Tokugawa Shogunate Yédo flourished, cultivating its own culture as against that of Kyoto, giving the country two centres of culture, one in the east and one in the west.

In the early Yédo period communication with countries beyond the sea opened and foreign trade was thereby greatly stimulated. Whereas hitherto Japan had had little or no dealing with Europeans, save Spaniards and Portuguese, Japan now began to be visited by Hollanders and Britons who came to her shores for commercial purposes. Relations with neighbouring countries also increased in intimacy, due to improved communication facilities. Nevertheless, the people were not satisfied with official passivity but extended their trade

with Siam, Cochin, Tonking, Luzon. Furthermore, Iyéyasu Tokugawa, the first Shogun of that line, even attempted to trade with Spain and Mexico, sending envoys for that purpose. By this improved intercourse with foreign countries traditional Japanese art was greatly influenced. In the Kan-éi Era (1644), énosaku Yamada first produced pictures in Western style painting. Fortunately or unfortunately, however, the third Shogun, Iyémitsu, with a view to stamping out Roman Catholicism pursued and imposed an isolation policy by prohibiting the entrance of all foreigners except Hollanders and Chinese. Under this high-handed policy the infiltration of foreign influence was almost completely checked, and domestic genius again came into its own, developing another golden age of fine art.

(1) Painting. The Kanos, who had flourished since the Muromachi period, produced skilled artists like Yasunobu, Naonobu, Tsunéno and Morinobu, all of whom had the honour of serving the Shogunate as official painters. But this special favour proved a cause of decline in the Kano school later. Among the foregoing four principal members of the Kano school, the last mentioned, Morinobu, was the most excellent, known by the pen-name of Tan-yu. Tsunéno ranks next in artistic skill. The Tosa school, which had been waning in influence, recovered its laurels in the days of Mitsuo who was promoted to the Emperor's service. In those days the Sumiyoshi school originated from the Tosa, and became firmly established under Jokéi, younger brother of Mitsunori. Toward the close of this period an attempt was made for the revival of yamatoyé, by Totsugon Tanaka, Ikkéi Ukita and Tamétaka Okada, among whom the latter was pre-eminent. The yamatoyé of the Meiji and Taisho eras started from their work. Yosai Kikuchi is another painter of the group.

One of the greatest painters of the age was Korin Ogata whose art may be traced back to that of Sotatsu school which was originally a style of painting for decorative purposes. Under Korin were Kenzan, Shiko Watanabé and Holtsu Sakai. Their work surprised foreign eyes as a revelation of the peculiar excellence of Japanese art. Being used for decoration the work of the Koetsu school had close relations with textile, dying, ceramic and other technical industries of the time.

Ukiyoyé, which for originality is one of the salient art products of the Yédo period, developed hand in hand with popular drama and popular literature.

It is said that the Ukiyoyé or genre style of picture, was started by Iwasa-Matabé-choi; certainly he and Choshun Miyagawa, Shunsho Katsukawa, Utamaro Kitagawa, Kiyonaga Torii, and Hokusai Katsushika are known as the most accomplished ukiyoyé painters. Of ukiyoyé there are two kinds, namely, hand-painting and colour-print. The latter form was most characteristic of the age. The black and white prints, started by Moronobu Hishikawa, were forerunners of beniyé, which is a coloured print made on coloured wood blocks, an engraved block for each colour. Before this printing process was adopted for mass production, brushes were used for colouring. At first two colours, red and green, were used for printing from engraved blocks, but Harunobu Suzuki later invented an improved process of printing in five colours, starting the nishikiyé which met with popular favour as time went on. Later, in the hands of masters like Utamaro and Hokusai, the process of colour-printing from wood-engravings saw marked improvement, until the finished pieces far surpassed the original hand-painted work in artistic value. Landscape prints in ukiyoyé style were started by the famous Hiroshigé Ando. Some people may look down upon ukiyoyé as vulgar art; but nevertheless it was art most true to the life of the Yédo period. In later years it was not seldom that European collectors of works of fine art were found ready to pay even several thousand yen for a sheet of mere colour-print. This was not without reason.

Special mention should also be made of the arrival of Ifuchieu, a painter of the Ching dynasty in China; for it was through this artist that the Nan-Sung literary school of painting was first introduced into this country. In the early days of the Nan-Sung style of painting, Nankai Gion, Hyakusen Sakaki, Taiga Ikéno and Buson Yosano were its most excellent exponents. Later, with the rise of Chinese classics, the Nan-Sung literary school made great progress and its influence practically dominated the country, producing such noted names as Unsen Kushiro, Daizen Hirose, Kaiseki Noro, Chikuden Tanomura, Kazan Watanabé, Aigai Takaku, Balkan Sugai, Hanko Okada, Chikudo Nakabayashi and Baiitsu Yamamoto, among whom Chikuden Tanomura was reputed the most excellent. Kazan Watanabé and Baiitsu Yamamoto enjoyed popular favour next to Chikuden.

Buncho Tani became the most brilliant artist of the age, both in Pei-Sung and Nan-Sung styles of painting;

he was a pupil of Kangan Kitayama who learned technique from Fei Hun-yuan and Chu Ko-chin who entered Japan during the Ching dynasty of China. There were some other very important painters, too, namely, Rilkyo Yanagisawa, Jakuchū Ito, Sosen Mori and Ganku. Especially popular were the pictures of domestic fowls by Jakuchū, and monkeys by Sosen.

An important event, moreover, was the appearance of the Maruyama school with Okyo Maruyama as its founder. Okyo's style was derived mainly from Ming and Ching paintings, and developed into what resembled sketches. His pupil, Goshūn Matsumura, established the Shijo school, which in later years grew to be as popular as the Maruyama school. By these two styles the Kyo-to world of pictorial art was dominated.

(2) Architecture. The Momoyama architecture of the preceding period developed into a far more elaborate style, and with more elegance. This elaborate rococo style of Yēdo architecture had less value as fine art than as mere decoration. Examples of the architecture of this period are found in the celebrated buildings at Nikko, which, as everybody can recognize, are more worthy to be called an excellent decoration than an excellent example of fine art.

(3) Sculpture. Although there is not much to be said about the sculpture of this period there are yet two outstanding instances that exemplify the use of Chinese carving; there are the Mam-pukūji temple at Uji, Kyoto, by a Chinese, Ingenzenshi, and the art of Zen-shū-chokoku (Zen architecture), by a Buddhist sculptor, Fan Ton-sheng, from Foochoo, China.

(4) Industrial Art. Both manual and industrial art greatly advanced in technique, and metal, textile, dyeing, lacquer and ceramic industries flourished like all sorts and varieties of flowers. A Chinese introduced from Ming the process of decorating ceramics with brilliant colours or in gold or silver. And through the efforts of Kakiemon Sakai and others the famous Arita and Imari potteries were founded. In this field of fine art the name of Jinsai Nonomura should be remembered, for he occupied the highest position. Cloisonné ware also experienced a remarkable promotion in technique, along with other branches of industrial art.

The time arrived at last when the people awoke from their age-long sleep, and the doors that had been closed to foreigners were opened. Besides Hollanders, came Russians, Britons,

Frenchmen and Americans, in spite of the national agitation to keep the country shut against foreign intercourse. Already from Holland Western learning and art had percolated in through Nagasaki. Oil painting in Western style was attempted by Genrai Hiraga. The new style of painting spread far into the country even to Akita prefecture, and reached consummation under Kōkan Shiba later. Thus towards the close of the Yēdo period the urge of Western art reached Japanese shores in great force.

**Meiji Art** The modern age in the history of Japanese fine art started over 60 years ago when the Emperor Meiji established the Imperial government in Tokyo. The Oriental fine art, which first originated in Mesopotamia, made eastward advance blending with Indian and Chinese art until it reached the Far East and established its central influence in Japan.

(1) Architecture. With the Meiji Restoration came a turning point in our history; the country was opened to free foreign intercourse, followed by the inflow of European culture like a flood. Western civilization soon began to exercise an overwhelming influence all over the country, and eventually everything foreign met with enthusiastic popular favour. This phenomenal change in the country directly influenced architecture; and European-style of structures sprang up here and there. Even in the Japanese style of building were mixed Western modes of architecture. These radical changes in the architectural world of Japan had no small influence on other branches of our fine art.

(2) Japanese Painting. In the early part of the period Nan-Sung literary painting still prevailed, supported by Kyou Hoashi, Kosēki Nakanishi, Shoka Watanabé, Gokaku Hirano, Rozan Yasuda, Soun Tasaki, Yukoku Noguchi, Aizan Taniguchi, Kwatēi Taki, Chokunyu Tanomura, Seiko Okumura, Kam-po Araki, Shohin Noguchi and others.

It so happened that in the 11th year of Meiji Prof. Ernest F. Fenolosa, an American professor in the course of philosophy at Tokyo Imperial University, being charmed with Japanese paintings such as the ukiyōe and Kano and Tosa work, proposed to start a movement for the preservation of these schools of art. In conformity with his suggestion, the Government, in the 21st year of Meiji, established the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts. As a result of the movement, the old schools of Japanese style of painting revived and a

number of painters regained influence, of whom the more distinguished were Hogai Kano and Gaho Hashimoto of the Kano school; Kangyo Morizumi, Kangi Yamana, Mitate Kawabé, Fuko Matsumoto of the Tosa school; Zeshin Shibata, Kansai Mori, Bairō Yukino, Gyokusho Kawabata, Keinen Imao of the Maruyama school; Chikudo of the Kishi school; Honen Tsukioka and Gekko Ogata of the ukiyōe school.

In the 40th year of Meiji the first art exhibition was opened by the Education Office; and since that time it has been held once every year, greatly stimulating the resurrection of traditional Japanese art. The Tokyo circle of Japanese style painters was represented by Taikan Yokoyama, Kanzan Shimomura, Kogyo Terasaki, Gyokudo Kawai, Tomoné Kobōri, Jippo Araki, Suim Komuro, Somēt Yuki, Kiyokata Kaburagi, Reika Yoshikawa, Eikyū Matsuoka, Hyakusui Hirafuku and Keigetsu Matsubayashi; while in the Kyoto circle were well-known painters like Kokyo Taniguchi, Hobun Kikuchi, Seiho Takéuchi, Shunkyo Yamamoto, Kako Toji, Keigetsu Kikuchi and Suisho Nishiyama. All of these leaders displayed great activity in nurturing the Japanese style of painting as we see it today.

(3) Western Painting. Towards the end of the Yēdo Era the foundation of the Occidental style in painting had already been laid by Kōkan Shiba and Denzen Aodo; and now came Tōgai Kawakami, Yuichi Takahashi, Horyu Goseda, Hosui Yamamoto, Shinkuro Kunisawa, Chu Asai, Shotaro Oyama, Kiyowo Kawamura and Naojiro Harada, for whom the former foundation work became the basis for a new start. In the early Meiji days, English and Italian painters came to give lessons at the fine art department of the Tokyo Imperial University. Later, in the 21st year of Meiji, the Meiji Bijutsukai was founded for the purpose of enhancing the Western style of painting. It was, however, not until Kiyotaru Kuroda returned from France and opened a department for Western style painting in the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts, that the Occidental mode really became established. Important artists in the new style in those days were Saburosuké Okada, Eisaku Wada, Takéji Fujishima, Kotaro Nagahara, Mankichi Kobayashi, Fūsetsu Nakamura, Kunishiro Misutani, Sanzo Wada and Kunzo Minami. The models set by these great painters still prevail to-day, but will in future be more subjected to the influence of the Japanese style before reaching consummation, just as the Japanese style will

assimilate Western motives and technique as it keeps on its forward march.

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

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

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

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

#### Present Day Art

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

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

**Japanese-style Painting** There are now in this country various exhibitions of Japanese-style paintings held by many institutes, wherein members are always seeking to achieve a more perfect expression of their ideals through traditional form and long-fostered technique. In the earliest stages of modern Japanese art, Kakuzo Okakura and other leaders, entertained this ideal, along with a number of artists and art societies, as well as such pioneers as Hogaï Kanô or Gyokusho Kawabata; and they joined efforts in the development of this school. Western realism, however, instead of the old traditional method, is gaining gradual influence among painters.

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

A new organization of the Imperial Academy of Fine Arts was initiated by the Education Ministry in May, 1935, and the new Academy was organized on May 29, increasing the number of members from 30 to 50, so as to take in

all representative artists who had been divided into three groups, i.e. the Imperial Academy of Fine Arts, the Nihon Bijutsuin and the Nika-kai, and certain improvements were effected in the way of examining the works submitted.

The new Taiten (Imperial Academy of Fine Arts) Exhibition was opened on February 25, 1936, and closed on March 25.

On the other hand, there are other painters who also produce extremely creditable work, bringing out the profundity of the Oriental spirit and rising high above the conflict between Japanese traditionalism and Western realism. They are all grouped in organizations. Sôson Maeda, Yukihiko Yasuda, Usen Ogawa, Sofu Nagano and Reiméi Mamichi belonged to the Nihon Bijutsuin; and Soméi Yuki, Elkyu Matsuoka, Tsusen Ogû, Ren Yamada, Shokin Katsuta, Nanyo Inui, Katsuji Kozumi, Ryuko Tsutaya, Gengetsu Yazawa and Seiten Tamura comprised the Japanese Painting Society (Nihon Gakai).

In the Kansai district, the Free Painting Society of Japan (Nihon-Jiyugadan) was organized by certain artists grouped in Kyoto, which has in itself special significance for lovers of genuine Japanese art. The members were Kôsen Ikeda, Bunto Hayashi, Keigaku Nihi, Kokan Watanabe, Shunki Tayama, Man-shu Ueda and other painters.

**Western-style Painting** It is not too much to say that the striking progress of Western-style painting is chiefly owing to the efforts of the Nikakai members, who, dissatisfied with the purely academic tendency of the Imperial Academy of Fine Arts, freed themselves from its restraint, and organized a society of their own. The Nikakai was organized in 1913 by an active group of rising painters of fresh and advanced ideas, the members being Ikuma Arishima, Yuzo Fujikawa, Hakutêi Ishii, Moriechi Kumagai, Jutaro Kuroda, Tokusaburo Masamuné Katsuyuki Nabé, Kigen Nakagawa, Hanjiro Sakamoto, Shintaro Yamashita, Sotaro Yasui, Haruyé Kôga, Seifu Tsuda, Seiji Togo, and foreign painters, André L'Hôte and Zeffkine. In 1923 was founded the Shun-yokai by Miséi Kosugi, Tokusaburo Kobayashi and other artists who had formerly been associated with the Western-style painting Section of the Institute of Japanese Art, but who had succeeded from it, together with Rinzaburo Umehara. The other members were Hakuyo Kurata, Noboru Hasegawa, Kanaé Yamamoto, Gen-ichiro Adachi, Shohachi Kimura, Tsuruzo Ishii and Ippéi Okamoto. The Pacific Art

Society, the oldest Western-art organization of the Meiji Era, was established in 1905, and with them instruction in Western-style painting was first begun. Toraji Ishikawa, Banka Maruyama, and Kunishiro Mitsutani were conspicuous collaborators.

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

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

In addition to these societies, there are some minor organizations such as the Hakujitsu-kai, the Japanese Painting Society (Nihongakai) the Issuikai, the Shin Sôzakuha Kyokai, the Free Artists Association, the Creative Print Association of Japan, and the National Art Association.

**Sculpture** For the promotion of plastic art, there are many organizations which contain, each of them, sculptors of distinction. Besides the "Bunten" and the "Nikakai" which have also Sculpture Sections, there is the "Kozosha", organized in 1926, for study in the various branches of plastic art. At the time of organization, it was supported by Sogan Saito, Jitsuzo Hinako, Saburo Hamada, Miezo Shimizu, Kanji Yo, Taménari Hirai, Minato Kozu, Takézo Sato and other artists.

**Applied Art** Our applied arts have developed in their own way, giving birth to many works of really admirable craftsmanship, some being of more artistic merit than those of Europe. At every exhibition, various branches of applied art are represented. Many artists, some using all their traditional technique, or others creating wholly new

forms, are striving to satisfy the demands of present-day life. The Fine Art Association of Japan is a leading organization, having Hozuma Katori, Keigi Nakata, Chou Yamazaki, Shunzan Yagioka, Hiromi Minakami, as directors.

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

#### The 1936-37 Exhibitions

Tokyo art lovers were fortunate to have exhibitions of art productions by foreign geniuses such as the French painter Emil Belneral or the German sculptor Georg Kopel in the spring of 1936, besides over 70 exhibitions of Japanese productions which gained press comments during the 12 months, from April, 1936 to March, 1937.

The 23rd Nihon Bijutsuin Exhibition (Inten) was held in the Tokyo-fu Art Gallery in Ueno Park, for a month beginning with September 2, 1936, to which 520 Japanese paintings were submitted for examination and 53 were accepted including 12 works by new painters, while the number of sculptures submitted was 185 of which 50 were accepted including 10 new names.

The 8th Seiryusha Exhibition was held in the same building with the Inten for four weeks from September 1 to 20, and out of the 124 Japanese paintings submitted to this exhibition, 49 were accepted.

The 23rd Nika-kai exhibition was held in the same building with the other two in September, to which 4,224 Western style paintings were submitted, of which 358 were accepted including 92 works by new young painters, while the number of sculptures submitted was 235 of which 59 were accepted, including 16 new names.

The Imperial Academy of Fine Arts adopted a new policy in 1936 and put

an end to the former Teiten exhibition and decided to hold two kinds of exhibitions in the name of the Education Ministry, one for the works accepted after examination and the other for works accepted without examination and those of the members of the Academy. The First Exhibition of the Education Ministry (Bunten) was held in the Tokyo-fu Art Gallery from October 16 to November 3, the exhibits were as follows:

	Works Submitted	works Accepted	Works by New Artists
Japanese paintings	1,561	367	106
Sculptures	415	124	35
Industrial art	769	194	46
Western paintings	3,006	374	174

The first exhibition of the other kind which was called Shodai (invitation) Exhibition was held for about a month beginning with November 6, in which 97 Japanese paintings, 119 Western paintings and 88 sculptures by representative artists of Japan were exhibited.

#### Fine Arts in 1937-38

The year 1937 was one of the busiest years in the fine art history of Japan. The first event was the problem of the reorganization of the art academy under the auspices of the Education Ministry. It did not stop with the birth of the Imperial Academy of Arts (See p. 178, The Japan Year Book, 1937), but caused ideological friction among the members of private art organizations concerning the support of the academic exhibitions and consequent alteration of the organizations themselves. For example, the leading artists of the Nika-kai, namely Hakutēi Ishii, Ikuma Arishima, Sōtaro Yasui, Shuntaro Yamashita seceded from the Society and organized the "Issui-kai", because of their conviction that real promotion of art cannot be realized through governmental art exhibitions, which the seceders regard as being too partial to works of the academic type. Thus the leadership of the Nika-kai passed to a younger group of artists with Sōji Togo as its active leader. In the Dokuritsu (Independent) Art Association younger artists of promise antagonized the elder members and Jugi Hayashi, Katsuzo Satomi and other leaders seceded.

The second factor which caused considerable friction among artists dur-

ing the year was the introduction of a new art theory from France. The theories of abstract art and "Surrealism", both of which belong to the so-called "l'art d'avant-garde", or front-line painting, were translated into Japanese and greatly stimulated the young artists. The founding of the Jiyū Bijutsu-ka Kyokai or Free Artists' Association in May, 1937 was one of the results of the new movement. Among the members of the new association are Saburo Haségawa, Rokuro Yabashi, Masanori Murai and Kaoru Yamaguchi who studied in Paris when the movement of "l'art d'avant-garde" was at its height and who also came into personal contact with the leaders of the movement such as Picasso, Réger and Le Corbusier. The members of the Young Artists' Association are almost a generation younger than the leading painters in the reorganized Nika-kai and the Dokuritsu Art Association, and made public their aim of beginning a new art movement among the younger coterie of artists in Japan. In consonance with the new art movement art journals in Japan devoted considerable space to the study and introduction of the new school of painting. For example, translations of Alfred Barr's "Cubisme and Abstract Art" which is regarded as the standard book on the theory of "l'art d'avant-garde" were published in the "Atelier", a representative art magazine in Japan, as were also the essays of Le Corbusier and Fernand Réger, and the record of the round-table meeting on the "Whereabouts of Painting" held in Paris among outstanding French painters. The "Atelier" also published a special number entitled "Study and Criticism on l'art d'avant-garde." Another art periodical "Mizue" opened an exhibition of the works of the Surrealist painters of the world at the Nippon Salon, and published the "Album Surrealist", a collection of photographs of the paintings exhibited.

The art theories of abstract art which finds a spring of beauty in modern mechanical civilization, and that of "Surrealism" which emphasizes sub-consciousness were like a revivifying stream of fresh air to the Japanese world of painting which had grown weary of academism and realism. The influence of these new theories was discernible in the spring exhibitions of the Kokuga-kai, the Shunyo-kai and the Dokuritsu-ten, especially in that of the Jiyū Bijutsu-ten in July, and the number of small art shows in the street galleries opened by groups of young

painters influenced by these theories. The new painting which unduly prized and exaggerated mechanical civilization ended with the introduction of a new style and gained only a formalism at the sacrifice of basic thought. On the other hand, the trend of Japanese thought in general has undergone a great change with the advance of the China Incident. It has powerfully influenced the minds of artists who, prompted by the prevailing nationalistic ideas began to turn their attention towards their own national heritage and to delve deeply into the racial characteristics. This reactional thought in painting was reflected in the works exhibited in the autumn exhibitions of the Nippon Bijutsu-in, Sairyū-sha, Nika-kai and the new "Bunten" or Art Exhibition of the Department of Education.

The 7th Dokuritsu-ten (art exhibition opened by the Dokuritsu Bijutsu-ka Kyokai or Independent Artists Association), was held at the Art Gallery of Tokyo Prefecture in Ueno Park, Tokyo, for 3 weeks from March 13 to April 4. The number of works submitted was 3,521, of which 343 were admitted and exhibited. The "Fauve" characteristic, which formerly distinguished the works shown at the Dokuritsu-ten, was much less evident at the 1937 exhibition, although the number of ambitious works by young painters was much greater than in other exhibitions. One of the most discussed paintings was "The Double Portrait" by Ichiro Fukusawa, the leader of a rising group of painters. "The Fool" by Kinosuké Ebihara and "The Tree-Peony" by Jugi Hayashi also attracted considerable attention.

The 12th Kokuga-ten (art exhibition held by the Kokuga-kai or National Painting Association) was held at the Art Gallery of Tokyo Prefecture in Ueno Park (popularly known as the Ueno Art Gallery) during April 11 to 27. The number of works sent in reached 2,388, out of which acceptances totaled 279, including paintings, prints, sculptures and applied art. The principal works exhibited were (paintings): "Mount Kirishima" by Ryuzaburo Umehara, "A Landscape" by Sanetsu Mushakōji, "A Respite" by Kōsuké Ōmori, "Still-life" by Hiroshi Nakamura, "The Birth of Venus" by Miss Haruko Hasegawa; and (sculpture): "A Pastorale" by Shin Hongō. There was also a specimen exhibition in which 10 works of Rodin, and one of Picasso, were shown, together with Rodin's "La Victoire de la Jeunesse".

The 15th exhibition of the Shunyo-kai was opened at the Ueno Art Gallery for 24 days, April 11-May 4. The number of paintings submitted was 1,360, 124 of which were accepted. In recognition of their ability Kyōichi Niinuma and Sōichi Hara were recommended for membership in the Association, while "Mr. O's Portrait" by Kinio Kinoshita and "Still-life, Flower" by Yasuo Shibata were honoured with the Association Prize. Other works which aroused considerable interest were "A Window" by Tokusaburo Kobayashi, "A Girl of Taihoku" by Genchiro Adachi, "Washizu" by Issai Nakagawa and "The Camellia" by Hōan Kosugi.

The 1st exhibition of the Free Artists' Association was held at the Hall of the Japan Artists' Association at Ueno Park for 10 days, July 10-19. For a first showing the number of paintings submitted was comparatively large, reaching 675, but owing to strict examination only 49 were accepted. It was the first exhibition of paintings in the newest style of "abstract art". The works of the Association's members such as Saburo Haségawa, Rokuro Yabashi, Kaoru Yamaguchi were exposed to a whirlwind of discussion by people in both the new and old art camps of Japan.

The 20th exhibition of the Nika-kai was opened at the Ueno Art Gallery for a month, September 3-October 4. The Nika-kai is the foremost of the private associations of Western style artists in Japan and received 4,012 paintings and 215 sculptures submitted for examination, of which were accepted. As a result of the seceding of the elder leaders such as Hakutēi Ishii, Ikuma Arishima who organized the Issui-kai, as was mentioned above, the number of paintings submitted decreased by 212 and that of sculptures by 110 as compared with the previous year. The general meeting of the association held on September 4 passed a resolution accepting as its new members Tamiji Kitagawa who returned from Mexico where he had held the position of the principal of an art school, Kenzo Okada, Kōji Shimazaki, and Kōnosuké Tamura. The association had a special room at the exhibition where works were sold for raising funds to be contributed to the military and the results obtained were very satisfactory. Representative works exhibited were "Sennin Bari" (a street scene showing ladies sewing one stitch each on the "girdle of thousand stitches" to be sent to soldiers at the front) by

Tsuguji Fujita, "Three Girls of Mexico" and Festival of Tasco, Mexico" by Tamiji Kitagawa, "Two Girls" by Tsuguro Itô, "A Window" and "The Night" by Jiro Yoshiwara.

The 9th exhibition of the Seiryu-sha was held at the Ueno Art Gallery for nearly a month from September 1 to 28. The association exhibits works by its members only, and the best among them were "The Morning Sun" the first of the quartet "The Life-line of the Land" by Ryushi Kawabata the master of the association, which called attention with its power "The Loochoo" by Issô Sakaguchi, "Woman of the Sea Port" by Niraku Kanô, "A Glimpse of the Training Hall" by Seiran Fukuoka. Prizes were awarded for "Fish Window" by Têi Ichino, "Blue Scales" by Bokusô Sato, "Spring Field" by Naoyoshi Tokita, and "The Hanging Purple" by Masao Yûki.

The 24th exhibition of the Nippon Bijutsu-in was held at the Ueno Art Gallery for nearly a month, September 2-27. This association also exhibits only the works of its members and their pupils, and it was rather in a slump, as it were, because of its support of the new Education Ministry art exhibition, and the works of leading members such as Kokêi Kobayashi, Yukihiko Yasuda, Sêson Maeda, who were elected members of the Imperial Academy of Arts were conspicuously absent. The following works were awarded prizes: "An Old Picture" by Kiyoshi Nakajima, "Archery" by Shigêji Oka and "Spring Lunch" by Mitsuko Sano.

The first exhibition of "Bun-ten" or Art Exhibition of the Education Ministry after the reorganization of the governmental art academy in the spring of 1937 was opened at the Ueno Art Gallery for over a month from October 12 to November 20. The question of the reorganization of the Imperial Academy of Arts and the consequent changes made in the public exhibition of arts under the auspices of the academy formed the subject of frequent discussions in the daily papers and caused a furore in the Japanese art world leading to a schism, and the new Bun-ten was opened with much expectation but the results were disappointing. The number of works submitted was 5,114, including 1,485 Japanese style paintings, 118 of which were accepted, 2,428 Western style paintings, 131 of which were accepted. As regards sculptures 382 were submitted and 63 accepted. In applied arts section 109 pieces were admitted out of 619 sent in. The number

of works by privileged artists accepted without examination was 209, including 81 Japanese-style paintings and 128 in Western-style. The guiding principle of the examining committee was to place emphasis upon the sound technique of classical painting and healthy realism, and paintings in the new style or ideology were rejected, so that the works exhibited were academic in general and no clear cut works were found among any of the Japanese or Western style paintings.

Among the best Japanese style paintings were "The Running Clouds" by Taikaa Yokoyama, "Young Ducks" by Sêihô Takéuchi, "The Barley Crop" by Goûn Nishimura, "The Sardines" by Kiyokata Kaburagi and "The Avalokitesvara" by Inshô Dômoto. These works were of acknowledged merit, although no expression of the spirit of the times was discernible in any of the above works. But on the contrary, "The Ice-bound Trees" by Toyoshiro Fukuda, and "Horses" by Kenji Yoshiooka represented a new field among the works by the privileged painters and both were clear and ambitious—alive in modern sensibility.

As to Western style paintings, the works of leading painters, i.e. the privileged, the members of the judging committee and the members of the Imperial Academy of Arts, were hung in the first 5 rooms. In soundness of design and colour values "A Hill at the Sea Shore" by Motoé Hayashi, "The Portrait of Mr. Elgo Fukal" by Usaburo Dbara, "Autumn on the Shiga Plateau" by Hisashi Tsuji, "The Pavement" by Sakujiro Ôkubo "The Morning" by Kenichi Nakamura, and "A Clean Brook" by Chikuma Suzuki were representative among the Western style paintings exhibited. "Plain Clothes" by Saburô Ôta and "The Spring" by Yaoji Hashimoto were also good works. The effect of the China Incident appeared in the works entitled "Rescue at Tungehow" "Senninbari", or "Sending Soldiers Off", but they were nothing but sketches on the street.

Sculptures fared the worst of the 4 departments. The only sculpture worthy of praise was "Combing" by Koyû Fujii which was a small figure of a woman, and which radiated a feeling of life and warmth. Works reflective of the time were "Ho Talko" (Hidêyoshi Toyotomi who unified Japan just before the Tokugawas) by Chôûin Yamazaki, "Masashigé Kusunoki" (A model patriot warrior) by Masashi Nishimura, "The Refugees" by Sogan Saito comparable with "The Res-

cue at Tungehow" mentioned above.

In the applied art section the lacquered "Suzuribako" (box for oriental ink-stand and brushes), a dextrous piece of work by Shunka Homma was the only exhibit to be awarded the Education Minister's Prize, and the other 2 representative works were the "Golden-figured, Octagonal Fancy Water Jar" by Kitaro Kawamura and the "Dolls of Children at Play on the Sand Bank" by Mitsuhiro Noguchi. The princely House of Ri (of Korea) bought the following works: "Sardines" by Kiyokata Kaburagi, "Ikkyu Zenshi" (a famous monk) by Kyuho Noda, "Yokobue" by Kazumaro Oda, (a print of a woman famous in a historical tale), and two Western style paintings, "Glossing" by Mango Kobayashi and "The Sea-gulls on the Island" by Hiromitsu Nakazawa.

The Tokyo exhibition, which was closed on November 20, proved quite a success despite the conflict in China, and most of the works were sent to Kyoto where the Kansai exhibition was opened from November 27 to December 12.

The first exhibition of the Issui-kai was held at the Ueno Art Gallery for two weeks from November 26 to December 10. The number of paintings exhibited was 238, including 173 which were passed by the examiners from among the 1,289 works sent in.

The 8th International Art Education Congress. "Le Congrès International du Dessin et des Arts appliqués" is held every 4 years under the auspices of "La Fédération internationale pour l'enseignement du Dessin et des Arts appliqués à l'industrie." Japan sent Têiji Okanobori to the 7th congress which was held at Brussels in 1935. The 8th congress was advanced 2 years to

take advantage of the Paris International Exhibition and was held in the auditorium of the Paris City Hall from July 30 to August 5, 1937. The first congress was held in 1900 and Japan has since sent representatives to 5 meetings.

The aim of the international congress of art education is to contribute to the progress of arts and the general advance of culture in the world by the study of art education and the exchange of opinions on the educational methods used. Specimens are exhibited on the occasion and votes are taken on the works presented to the congress by the nations of the world. To the 1937 congress Japan sent 10 representatives headed by Koji Tanabé, a professor of the Tokyo Academy of Arts, and they distributed among the other representatives English and French pamphlets on the conditions of arts in Japan. The works of Japanese children were voted second to that of French children and that of Japanese secondary school pupils second to that of English pupils. But because of the absence of the works of college boys Japan placed third in the international competition.

The subjects discussed in the 1937 congress were (1) the position of fine arts in the general cultural life of a nation, (2) the necessity of harmony between fine arts and artistic industry, (3) the artistic insight of children and its present tendency, (4) the need of training instructors in fine arts, and (5) the establishment of a lectureship on the history of art in schools for training instructors in fine arts.

#### Art Museums

A list of the more important art museums follows:

1. Tokyo Imperial Household Museum: Ueno Park, Tokyo; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.  
Departments: Art and History.  
Officials, President: Eisaburo Sugî; Manager: Nagamitsu Asano
2. Imperial Household Museum at Nara: In Nara Park; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.; closed from Dec. 25 to Jan. 5.  
Departments: History and Art. Director: Ki Yamaguchi
3. Kyoto Onshi Museum: In Shichijô, Kyoto; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.; closed from Dec. 25 to Jan. 5. Departments: Art and History.
4. Chokokan: In Uji Yamada, Mié.
5. Réihokan: At Koya-san, Wakayama.
6. Treasure house, Kanshin-ji: In Kanshin-ji-mura, Minami-Kawachi-gun, Osaka.
7. Treasure house, Koryuji: At Uzumasa-mura, Kadono-gun, Kyoto.
8. Réihokan, Ninnaji: At Omoro, Kadono-gun, Kyoto.
9. Museum of the Faculty of Letters, Imperial University, in Kyoto.
10. Kankokan: In Hiroshima.
11. Treasure house of the Itsukushima shrine; At Miyajima, Hiroshima.

12. Kokuhokan: at Kamakura.
13. Sanda Museum: at Sanda, Arima-gun, Hyogo.
14. Governmental Museum: at Seoul, Chosen.
15. Kéishu Museum: in Kéishu-gun, Kéisho-hokudo, Chosen.
16. Prince Li's Museum: in Seoul, Chosen.
17. Kanto-cho Museum: at Port Arthur, Kwantung Leased Territory.

### Music

#### The First Period

**Primitive Music** The development of Japanese music may be divided into four periods. The first period originates in prehistoric times and ends about the reign of the Empress Suiko (592-629 A.D.). This is the music of the ancient Japanese (Yamato), and is here named, for convenience, primitive music. To regard the music of this stage as primitive may seem inappropriate, because towards the close of the 6th century Yamato civilization had advanced quite beyond primitive culture. The word primitive is applied here because, although music should show some development of artistic form, no such form was known in the music of this period.

#### The Second Period

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

(1) **The First Half.** In the first half of this period imported music was imitated. Music was first introduced from Korea (Chosen), then from India and lastly from China. Of the three, only that from China continued to come freely thereafter. The Chosen music then imported was widely different from the music introduced from China and India, especially in the degree of its evolution. But even such undeveloped music as that of Chosen (then called Sankan), was far more advanced than Japanese music. It is, therefore, but natural that there was a great gulf of difference between the standard of the Japanese music of the early period and that later imported from China and India. Moreover the early models were monopolized by the nobles; the masses could not share the privilege of enjoying the advanced art but had to be content with the same old primitive music.

For two to three hundred years this state of things continued, until the reigns of Emperors Saga and Nimmyo when genuine Japanese Court music, called gagaku, came into vogue. But even this gagaku was of foreign origin too.

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

(a) One group was modelled after foreign music but set to the key of Japanese music of the primitive age; and hence the reconstruction thus effected in ancient Japanese music was only in form. The most conspicuous examples are the kagura, Azuma-asobi, Kumé-uta and Yamato-uta. No doubt the kagura existed in the prehistoric age, as may be inferred from Japanese history, but not until past the middle of the Heian period did it appear in the regular form of music. The kagura is a sacred dance with music, practised on the stage of a shrine at village festivals. The kagura now observed, however, is fundamentally different from that staged in those days; it saw marked development in the Heian period. In the early days of the sacred Kagura dance it adopted so primitive a form of vulgar indecency that it could not be performed today.

During this latter part of the second period all the other three branches of music, namely, Azuma-asobi, Kumé-uta and Yamato-uta, were also practised at shrine festivals. Originally they had no relation with shrines, the first two having developed from folk-songs, and the third from a war-song sung during the triumphant expedition into Yamato under the Emperor Jimmu. The adoption of these folk-songs in the rites of sacred festivals was made possible by the advanced music of foreign origin employed at Buddhist temples; better music also became indispensable at Shinto shrines in

order to rival the advanced Buddhist music. Unlike Buddhist temples, the Shinto shrines hesitated to make use of the imported variety; and so they had no alternative in those days but to improve their music on the ancient models of the country. The principal instruments employed for this purpose were the six-stringed Japanese koto and the six-holed kagura flute, remodelled.

(b) Those modes that come under the category of the other group are the saibara, roei and imayo, which were combinations of imported and Japanese music then in vogue. As regards saibara, it is believed that it was a sort of folk-song that prevailed in the Nara period, but the saibara, a folk melody of the Nara period, can not be compared with the saibara which was an artistic vocal song of the Heian period; in form they are widely apart. The saibara in the Heian period was in fact an artistic product. These branches of music served for the amusement and diversion of nobles, and had nothing to do with religious services. They were exclusively of foreign origin in form.

#### The Third Period

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

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

(2) **The Range of Influence.** Next, the range of influence of each school was narrowed, until such forms as kiyomoto, joruri, shinnai and Itchubushi became representative during the third period,

but each of them was cultivated in a limited locality and time. In this connection joruri was most conspicuous, because, based entirely on the national literature, it appealed only to the people who understand the language used. Kiyomoto music thrived in Yédo, joruri prospered in Osaka, and Itchubushi flourished in Kyoto. Thus none of the music that was born and popularized in the third period was of national, far less of international, character, having been limited to a certain locality. This, however, is by no means a proof of retrogressive tendency in music; for the harmony thus realized between Japanese literature and music was of no meagre advantage. It was natural too, for, in the evolution of art, song is older than speech, poetry than prose.

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

Although civil strife is a great deterrent to the art of music, this was not so true in Japan as in China, for in Japan the Imperial household, whose existence and dignity suffered practically no change on account of the new military government, music was encouraged in Court circles. Then again it was protected and cultivated by priests; new music was fostered especially by Kamakura priests. The Hôkê Itwa originated and developed under priestly auspices; and the shakuhachi (a kind of bamboo flute) music was introduced from China and popularized in the Buddhist domain, and through its efforts. The shakuhachi



music now in vogue had its origin in this period.

**The Muromachi Era** The Muromachi Era, sandwiched in between the Kamakura and Tokugawa eras, corresponds to a middle third period in the history of music. Between the Kamakura and Muromachi Shogunates a striking difference is noticeable in that, while a military administration was possible under the former, it was denied to the latter. Beginning with the Muromachi Era the Ashikagas removed the Shogunate from Kamakura to Kyoto. Since Kyoto was the seat of the Imperial household, the officials who were military men could not do without etiquette in their association with Court officials of the Imperial household. They had to be familiar with the art of flower arrangement, the tea ceremony and the yokyoku music of the lyrical drama, or Noh dance. Thus from the necessity of studying these arts of social etiquette, military men had to approve and promote them. The introducers of the sarugaku dance were priests who returned from China, and used this sort of drama for moral or religious purposes, like the miracle and morality plays in England. The Noh dance was probably derived from primitive forms of sarugaku and other musical dances.

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

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

#### The Fourth Period

**Internationalization of Japanese Music** The fourth period covers the Meiji and Taisho eras (1868-1926) when domestic

music rose to join the world current of music. The people awoke from their long slumber throughout the isolated Yédo Era, and exchanged anti-foreignism for free intercourse with the outside world. With this epochal open-door movement came the Meiji Restoration which eliminated the Shogunate and restored the old Imperial régime. In obedience to the august wish of the Emperor Meiji all welcomed the introduction of the supposedly more advanced European civilization. Music was no exception. European music then imported was enthusiastically imitated all through the period. Production of imitative art was not the only task assigned to that age, for side by side with the movement the reconstruction of native music occupied the serious attention of musicians. A similar tendency is noticeable in and about the Nara period in the 8th century, when advanced ideas, imported from the continent, afforded models on which the ancient music of the country was reconstructed. Yet, a great difference is evident between that and the movement now under review; because, whereas in that day home music still lingered in the primitive stage and imitation of alien models was effected only with extreme difficulty, improvement in the native music of the Meiji Era was so easy a matter that reconstruction could be carried out by mere importation of new staves. This fourth period, which corresponds to the Meiji and Taisho eras, can be studied from three points of view, with reference to the development of the art.

(1) **Innovations in Traditional Music and Revival of Ancient Music.** In the Yédo period the development of music in form was insignificant, because importance was placed on expression of sentiment. People who realized this defect in the traditional Japanese music, agreed on the necessity of introducing radical innovations in this direction. This new movement was responsible for the stimulus given by the extensive introduction of European music, which in form was far superior to Japanese. Up to about the 16th year of Meiji considerable effort was expended towards eliminating this defect. As a practical attempt to attain this object, a movement was created for reconstruction work on the form of sho music which had deplorably degenerated in the Yédo Era, due to the influence of samisen music then at the height of popularity. The rise of the Yamada school in Tokyo is an example. Shakuhachi music likewise could not escape

being influenced by the reconstruction current of the times.

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

(2) **Diffusion of European Music.** One of the outstanding features of musical development in the Meiji and Taisho eras is that Japanese musical education was placed on the foundation of European music. The introduction of European music into Japan can be traced as far back as the entrance into Japan of Christianity. This, however, had been monopolized by the introducers themselves in their respective localities of influence, until in the 2nd year of Meiji it entered the capital for the first time. In this year Japanese soldiers learned military band music from an English naval band master at Yokohama, which is perhaps the first instance of our official use of European music. Soon afterwards, in the 5th year of Meiji, both army and navy bands were inaugurated. Later, in the 12th year of Meiji, an investigation commission on school musical education was established in the Education Office. A commission, headed by Mr. Shuji Izawa, conducted inquiries as to the best method of teaching European music in Japanese schools. In the following year, the Education Department invited an expert from America, and, under his superintendence, made music a part of elementary school education. Three years after, the Tokyo Academy of Music was established. This is but a brief outline of the growth of European music in Japan during the Meiji Era. It was mainly due to Government encouragement that European music was popularized in Japan much earlier than generally expected. But, for sounder and more thorough instruction

in European music we must look to the era of Taisho. Rapid progress of music in the Taisho Era was made possible principally in the following ways:

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

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

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

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

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

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

## Latest Developments

**European Music** (1) Schools of Music. The Tokyo Academy of Music is the only Government institution for education in music in Japan. Since its establishment in 1879 in Ueno Park, it has made a healthy progress and is now engaged in giving instructions not only in the different branches of European music but also in Japanese music such as "Koto," "Nagauta" and "No." Most of the instructors are Japanese, but among the few foreign teachers there are such distinguished virtuosos as P. Weingarten and Leo Sirota for piano, H. Wucherpennig and Maria Toll for vocal music, Moguirewsky and Willy Frey for violin, and C. Fringsheim for composition. The school has an excellent orchestra organized by the students, graduates and teachers, and a chorus composed of students. The orchestra is conducted by Professors C. Fringsheim and Kunihiko Hashimoto, while the chorus is under the leadership of Professors Sadayuki Sawazaki and Tamotsu Kinoshita. The works played by the orchestra are mostly German classic music, and the performances of G. Mahler's Symphony No. 5 in 1932, Beethoven's Symphony No. 9 in 1933 and Bach's "Mathaus-Passion" in 1937 left a great impression among Japanese lovers of music. In 1937 C. Fringsheim left the school after completing his term of office and the chair was succeeded to by Professor Hans Schwiager. There are over 10 private music schools in Tokyo which are turning out able musicians.

(2) Performers (a) Orchestra. Music schools have their own orchestras, but there are several orchestras organized by men outside of these schools. The foremost among them is the New Symphony Orchestra. The Nippon Orchestra Association was organized in the middle of the Taisho Era under the leadership of Viscount Hidemaro Konoé and Kosaku Yamada, but later it was divided into two and the group under Konoé took the name of the New Symphony Orchestra. It was, however, separated from Konoé in 1938, and Joseph Rosenstock was called from Germany to take his place. Under the leadership of Rosenstock the New Symphony Orchestra has made a wonderful progress in but few years, and is making a valuable contribution toward cultivating the Japanese mind in the appreciating of European music, both classical and modern. In 1936-37 the whole set of Beethoven's symphonies was con-

tinuously given by the N. S. O. to the joy of all the lovers of music in Japan. The players of the N. S. O. also perform for the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan under the name of Nippon Radio Symphony Orchestra which broadcasts orchestras through JOAK to listeners all over Japan. A new orchestra of European music was recently created by the Bureau of Court Music of the Imperial Household Department, the conductor being Gaetano Cappelli. Other notable orchestras in Tokyo are the Central Symphony Orchestra and the Concert Populaire. In Osaka there is the Takarazuka Symphony Orchestra conducted by Emanuel Metter.

(b) Brass Bands. The popularity of European music among the Japanese people is simply remarkable and the young people in cities, rural towns and villages decidedly prefer European music to Japanese music, and numerous European style bands are organized by factories, young men's associations, and by groups of people in cities and towns. The best of these bands are the brass bands of the Imperial Army and Navy. The brass band of the Imperial Army is called the Toyama Military School Brass Band composed of 100 members. The Imperial Navy has 8 brass bands with 430 members. The Toyama Brass Band and the Naval Band in Tokyo play every month at Hibiya Park for the entertainment of the general public.

(c) Chamber Music. For chamber music the Jupiter Quartet was organized in 1920, and the Suzuki Quartet in 1929, both of which hold several concerts annually in Tokyo. In March, 1938 a piano trio composed of Professors A. Moguirewsky, Duckson, and Leo Sirota was organized and has been adding much lustre to the musical world of Japan.

(d) Choruses. All the music schools have their own choruses, and there are also a large number of amateur choruses under the direction of able musicians. Moreover, all the universities, professional schools and secondary schools have their own choruses organized by students. Among the more celebrated of them in Tokyo are the Orion Choir, the Tokyo Lieder Tafel Philalinc, and the Vocal Four. In regard to school choruses, the most noteworthy are those of the Seijo Gakuen, the Tamagawa Gakuen and the Seihai Higher School, each chorus being composed of more than 100 members. The Dai-Nippon Federation of Choruses which was organized a few years ago, has been displaying considerable acti-

vity by utilizing the radio broadcasting service.

In the Kansai, there are the famous Glee Club of the Kansai Gakuin, the Kyoto Mixed Chorus and the Osaka Choral Society. All the choruses in the Kansai were united into an All-Kansai League of Choruses in March, 1938, which now makes it possible to have a chorus of more than 2,000 members.

(e) Instrumental Music. The piano is the most popular musical instrument in this country. Its increasing use in modern times is well illustrative of the elevated level of the musical culture of the Japanese nation. In olden times, Japanese girls of society sought accomplishment in Koto and Shamisen but now they are turning to the piano. The number of pianists has therefore become very large and there are not a few excellent ones among them. Particular mention must be made of Miwako Kai, Chiéko Hara, the winner of the first place in the Concours of the Conservatoire de Paris in 1932 as a young girl of seventeen, Sonoko Inoué and Professor Motonari Iguchi of the Tokyo School of Music, all of whom are world-renowned.

Among the foreign pianists in this country are L. Kreutzer, P. Weingarten, Leo Sirota and Maxim Schapiro, who are making a great contribution to the promotion of the musical culture of the Japanese nation by their earnest endeavours as tutors and by frequent public recitals which are attended in large numbers.

Next to the piano, the violin is the most popular musical instrument in this country, and the number of violinists is fairly large. Kôko Ando may be regarded as the veteran of Japanese violinists. She studied under Joseph Joachim and was a member of the faculty of the Tokyo School of Music, but has now retired after a great and useful career. A. Moguirewsky, Willy Frey and Robert Pollak are among the foreign violinists resident in this country. Duckson, cellist, is participating in the endeavours to enliven the rather depressed 'cellist circles here.

(f) Vocal Music. It is in vocal music of the European type that Japanese musicians have made their debut on the international stage. Meritorious services in this direction have been rendered by Tamaki Miura, Yoshié Fujiwara and Toshiko Sekiya. At present, Tamaki Miura is exerting her best to promote the opera in this country. Ayako Ota and Miho Nagato are both skilled in singing lied while Yoji Ota-

guro specializes in French melodies. They give recitals from time to time, besides training students.

(3) Opera. During the Taisho period, Madame Tamaki Miura organized an opera group in the Imperial Theatre under the direction of Professor Rossi. Madame Miura was the first Japanese vocalist to appear on the first-rate stage of the world. After touring various foreign countries with great acclaim as the prima donna in the "Butterfly," she returned home in the spring of 1937 and again organized an opera company. The Vocal Four Chorus is also active in the presentation of operas. The lack of a regular opera-house as yet, however, makes it still impossible to expect a rapid development of the opera in Japan.

(4) Concours. Along with the progress of European music in this country, musical concours of various sorts have been held of late. A Musical Concours, covering various departments of music, was originally held under the auspices of the Jiji Shimpô-sha and is being sponsored by the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun-sha, in recent years, the seventh one of its kind taking place in 1937. The concours enables the presentation of numerous rising stars annually. The New Symphony Orchestra commenced an annual concours for orchestral compositions by the Japanese in 1937 with Rosenstock acting as the judge, which now forms the highest concours for compositions.

The annual Competitive Choral Festival, held under the auspices of the Tokyo Municipality, already passed the 12th anniversary of its inauguration in 1937. Mention also must be made of the Children's Singing Concours, inaugurated under the auspices of the Dai-Nippon Musical Education Association in 1932, which has been stimulating the singing faculties of school children throughout the country by the utilization of the radio broadcasting service.

(5) Composers. The Japanese composers are still in the stage of pioneers. The composers' circles in the country were under the leadership of Kosaku Yamada and Kosuke Komatsu from the beginning of the Taisho period to the early part of the Showa era. During this period, however, there was practically no composition worthy of special mention. The activity of the composers' circles, however, has come to attract greater attention and the number of composers has been rapidly increasing in recent years under the stimulus of concours devoted specially

to compositions.

N. Tcherepnin who came to this country in 1934 founded a prize bearing his name and the first prize was won by an unknown young composer with the result that the rising composers of the country have been greatly stimulated. Again, F. Weingartner, the internationally famous conductor who visited this country in 1937, established a prize for compositions at the time of his departure for home.

Among the rising young composers, Kunihiko Hashimoto, Saburo Moroi, Kishio Hirao and Midori Hosokawa are considered to be the most promising. The tendency of Japanese composers may in some respect be regarded as being based on the German theory of music. They are also devoting their attention to the characteristic features of the various modern French and Russian schools of music and are trying to harmonize them with the folk-songs peculiar to this country. It must be pointed out, however, that harmonization of Japanese folk-songs with European music is an exceedingly difficult work on account of the extremely different elements involved.

1933-1937 Music Friedmann of Poland visited Japan in September, 1933, and his piano recital lasted for five evenings, October 2-6, in the Hibiya Auditorium.

The Tokyo Academy of Music held a special concert in the presence of the Empress on March 17, 1934 in celebration of the birth of the Crown Prince. The programme consisted of the Nô "Takasago," by Uméwaka, Kanze and Hosho; the nagauta "Tsuru-kamé," by Yoshizumi; the koto music, by Michiko Miyagi; Mozart's Coronation symphony, conducted by Pringsheim; Wagner's Imperial March and Bach's Prelude in E Major, by Suéko Ogura.

Leo Sirota gave a piano recital in the Nippon Young Men's Hall at Aoyama on April 23. His programme included Busoni's piece, Chopin's Ballade, Dvorák's Humoresque, Smetana's Polka and Stravinsky's third movement of Petrouchka.

Leonid Kreutzer and Nicolai Tcherepnin visited Japan in 1934 and the former gave concerts on the works of Schumann and Chopin while the latter introduced his own compositions.

Foreign musicians and dancers visited Japan during 1935 and early in 1936, and made valuable contributions to the country's music. Among them were Mr. Chaliapin who caused a sensation among Japanese lovers of music by his brilliant recitations at the Hibiya

Public Hall in January and May, 1936. Other important visitors were as follows: Efrem Zimbalist, Leonid Kreutzer, Siamese dancers, Amelita Galli-Curci, Lili Kraus, Simon Goldberg, Jacques Thibaud, Mischa Elman, etc.

Paul Wiegarten of Vienna who is to give instructions on piano at the Tokyo Academy of Music for two years, arrived in Tokyo in April, 1936, and Joseph Rosenstock who was called by the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan as the conductor of the JOAK orchestra and the New Symphony orchestra reached the capital in August, 1936. Other musicians who visited Japan between April, 1936, and March, 1937, were the German pianist, Wilhelm Kempf, and cellist, Emmanuel Feuermann in April, 1936; the French violinist Jacques Thibaud, and Russian vocalist Chaliapin, in October; violinist Mischa Elman in January, and French cellist Maurice Marchal in February, 1937.

On May 4, 1936, Tamaki Miura and others held a concert at Hibiya Hall in memory and honour of the late Adolfo Sarcoll, their tutor. The concert held at Hibiya on June 20 by the Tokyo Academy of Music, which rendered Hector Berlioz's "Damnation of Faust," was a great success. On June 27 "Madam Butterfly" was performed at the Kabuki-za by Tamaki Miura and other vocalists. An exhibition concert in honour of the new conductor Rosenstock of JOAK was held at Hibiya Hall on the 21st September 1936.

The 5th concours of Japan was held at Hibiya on October 14 and 15, and the first prize winners were as follows: Violin, Hiroshi Hatoyama; Vocal music, Miss Tsuma Yokota; Piano, Miss Toshi Koséki; and Composition, Yasuyoshi Hirai.

The Period of 1937-38 The China Incident which broke out in the summer of 1937 brought about rapid changes in all phases of cultural movement in this country including, of course, the musical world. Since the summer of 1937 no foreign musician has visited this country. Out of their ardent patriotism, however, the Japanese musicians have been holding patriotic concerts and a vigorous movement for patriotic music has also been launched.

The technic of the members of the New Symphony Orchestra has shown a remarkable progress as a result of the strenuous efforts made by J. Rosenstock, conductor of the orchestra since 1936, and substantial programmes of orchestral music such as had never before been presented in this country were offered. In the

meantime, a memorial event occurred in the musical world of the country in the form of a visit from Dr. Felix Weingartner, the king of the baton, who also gave the best sort of test to the New Symphony Orchestra.

In March, all those who had ever studied under Sarcoll, once a great idol of the vocalist world of Japan, gathered together and erected a monument at the tomb of their deceased teacher in the Tama cemetery.

In April, the Toyo Music School gave a concert, presenting the "Iphigénie à Tauris," an opera by Gluck. The concert introducing the okuraulo, a musical instrument designed by Baron Kichiro Okura, was also held in the same month. The okuraulo is a kind of clarinet which skilfully incorporates the blow-hole of the shakuhachi (bamboo flute) and the mechanism of Böhm system, retaining the note peculiar to the shakuhachi.

May and June were memorial months to the musical world in this country on account of their association with the visit of Dr. Felix Weingartner to Japan. Several concerts were given under the direction of the world-famous conductor, the programmes presented being composed of the finest pieces of German music centring around the symphonies of Beethoven.

During May, compositions for two pianos were presented by P. Weingartner and Sonoko Inoué and 9 concerts were given by the Piastro Trio, in addition to a piano recital given by Gilmalchen and the third composition festival held by the Japan Association of Composers. In June, the third concert introducing new compositions of La Société des Compositeurs Contemporains du Japon was held, when the works of young composers were announced. Miho Nagato also gave her vocal recital in the same month while Tamaki Miura presented her favorite "Butterfly."

The Tokyo School of Music held its concert in June under the direction of Professor C. Pringsheim, presenting Bach's Mathaus-Passion. In July, the same school gave a farewell concert in honour of Professor Pringsheim, presenting Beethoven's Symphony No. 9.

On account of the expansion of the China Incident, a marked decrease was recorded in the number of concerts given during the autumn season. In September, there were a vocal recital by Professor Tamotsu Kinoshita and a piano concert by Professor L. Kreutzer, while La Société des Compositeurs Contemporains du Japon held an

evening of German music, presenting the works of P. Hindemith, A. Grimpe, W. Fortner and P. Jarnach, by way of promoting the friendship between Japan and Germany.

The Tenth Competitive Chorus Festival was held in November as usual at the Hibiya Public Hall. The first place was awarded to the mixed chorus of the Tamagawa Gakuen.

The musical week sponsored by the Dai-Nippon Musical Education Association was held under the name of the patriotic musical week in 1937. The programme was composed of a variety of pieces including a chorus by 50,000 students of girls' schools throughout the Kanto district which attracted much attention. The Children's Singing Concours was also held as usual under the auspices of the Dai-Nippon Musical Education Association.

During the same year, Professor Hans Schwieger, newly appointed conductor of the Tokyo School of Music, gave his first public performance in Tokyo at the Hibiya Public Hall, conducting the New Symphony Orchestra for a German-Japanese friendship concert. The programme for the concert included a vocal recital by Yoshiko Beltramelli, besides works of Brahms and Verdi.

Under the influence of the China Incident, various patriotic events were held during 1937. Particularly, a prize contest held by the information department of the Cabinet for the best composition for a patriotic march brought about a sudden change in the conditions of popular music in this country and created an unusual stimulus among music composers. The first prize was won by Tokichi Sétoguchi, father of the military band in this country. At the same time, numberless military songs flooded the entire country. Considerable attention was also attracted by the formation of a Patriotic Musical League embracing various musical organizations.

Outstanding among the concerts given in January of 1938 were a piano recital by Professor Weingartner, another by Sumié Satsuka who had just returned after studying under Sauer, and a presentation of works of Schubert, Beethoven and Albeniz by the Jupiter Quartet.

In February, the recitals given by Maxim Schapira and Leo Sirota attracted the most attention. Mention must be made here of the fact that the New Symphony Orchestra presented a number of foreign compositions for the first time in this country, the most notable among them being Steinberg's

"3rd Symphony," Stravinsky's "Pétouchka," Max Reger's "Variationen und Fuge über ein Thema von Beethoven," M. de Falla's "El Sombrero de tres picos," S. Liapownow's "Piano Concerto in E flat minor" (piano by Leo Sirota), and Bartok's "2 Bilder," etc.

The month of February also witnessed the holding of a concert at which the prize winners in the Concours of Japanese Composers, sponsored by the New Symphony Orchestra, were presented to the public. The prize winners included Toshiji Ogiwara, Kishio Hirao, Kazuo Yamada, Kojiro Kobuné and Isotaro Sugata.

**Native Music (1) The Koto.** The Koto has long been popular in Japan as a domestic musical instrument. It still retains friends among all classes, although it has lost some of its former popularity. Improvements have been attempted by specialists in recent years. An authority on koto music, Michio Miyagi, organized an orchestra with koto, shakuhachi and samisen. Like most koto musicians, he showed more talent than insight on traditional Japanese instrumental piece he composed in European style, but has already attained a fair success. The "Spring Sea," a duet for koto and violin was composed by him and rendered by Madame Renée Chemet, a violinist who visited Japan in 1932.

**(2) Nagauta.** This is samisen music, developed in the Yedo period, and still serves widely as an accompaniment to dances at theatres, and social entertainment in homes. But it has never been able to rise superior to its early development in the gay quarters. Through the efforts of a singer, Kosaburo Yoshizumi, and a samisen play-

er, Rokushiro Kinéya, the nagauta texts are now being revised to suit family taste, now compositions for children being produced and new rhythms introduced. Another pioneer in this field is Sakichi Kinéya, himself a noted samisen player. He once attempted the composition of a concerto for the samisen as a solo instrument with a view to cultivating a new sphere for the samisen. The success or failure of the new attempt remains to be seen. Other noted musicians of nagauta are Ijuro Yoshimura, Wafu Matsunaga; and samisenists, Kangyoku Kinéya, Eizo Kinéya, Isaburo Kashiwa.

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

Noted joruri musicians are: kiyomoto—Enju-dayu, Kiku-tayu, Umekichi (samisenist); tokiwazu—Matsuo-dayu, Mojibeé (samisenist); gidayu—Shikoro-dayu Takémoto, Tsu-dayu Takémoto, Tosa-tayu Takémoto, Kotsubo-dayu Toyotaké and Iwao-dayu Toyotaké.

## CHAPTER XXXVI

### SPORTS

#### Japan in the World Olympics

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

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

At Amsterdam The year 1928 found 63 Japanese competing in the Ninth Olympic Games at Amsterdam. The late Miss Kinué Hitomi was the only girl in the Japanese delegation and the first Japanese woman to take part in the Olympics, made impressive performances. She won a 100-metre heat in 12.8 seconds and took second place in the 800-metre finals by negotiating the distance in 2 minutes 17.7 seconds. Mikio Oda not only scored for the first time but won Japan's first Olympic championship by taking the hop, step and jump event. In the swimming competition, an equally bright success was attained by Yoshiyuki Tsuruta, who took first place and the championship in the 200-metre breast-stroke. Kazuo Kimura placed sixth in the running high jump; Yonétaro Nakazawa placed sixth in the pole vault; Kanésaku Yamada placed fourth and Séichiro Tsuda placed sixth, respectively, in the marathon; Katsuo Takashi won third place in the 100-metre free style swim; Toshio Iriyé came in fourth in the 100-metre backstroke; the 800-metre relay team

placed second. The swimmers won second place in competition with the United States, the championship winner. Japanese took part in the boxing, regatta and equestrian contests for the first time but lost.

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

**(1) Aquatic Meet** Japan dominated the 1932 aquatic meet as no other nation had done in the past. Of 150 official points scored in the six races, 86 went to Japan and only 46 to all other nations together. The result is Japan 86 and America 33, with the rest out-distanced. Only one race was by a non-Japanese champion, the 400-metre free style, in which Clarence Crabbe, of the United States, and Jean Taris, of France, upset expectations and finished ahead of the Japanese trio in new record time. The only team race, the 800-metre relay, went to Japan by a wide margin in almost incredible time, 8 min. 58.4 sec.

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

**(2) Track and Field Events** In the track and field events, the Japanese did not show up so brilliantly as did their team mates in the aquatic events. Thanks to Chuhéi Nambu, however, Japan was able to defend the hop, step and jump championship which Mikio Oda had won at Amsterdam in 1924. With a mark of 15.72 metres, Nambu not only won the championship but established a new world record. Another outstanding performance was turned by Baron Takéchi Nishi, of the Japanese Army,

who won the difficult equestrian contest, the Prix des Nations. By winning this steeplechase, Baron Nishi put Japan's horsemanship on a high plane in the eyes of the world.

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

#### TRACK AND FIELD

100-metre run—Ryutoku Yoshitaka won sixth place in the finals. Time, 10.8s.

400-metre relay—Japan's team placed fifth.

1,600-metre relay—Japan's team placed fifth.

Marathon—Sellehiro Tsuda placed fifth and Onbai Kin sixth. Time, 2h.35m.42s. and 2h. 37m.28s. respectively.

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

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

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

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

#### SWIMMING

100-metre free style—Yasuji Miyazaki won. Time, 58.2 seconds, breaking the Olympic record set by Johnnie Weismuller but Miyazaki had turned in a better record, 58 seconds, in the semi-finals.

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

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

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

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

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

#### WOMEN'S TRACK AND FIELD

400-metre relay—Japan's team placed fifth. Time, 50.2 seconds, which broke Japan's record.

Javelin—Miss Masako Jimbo placed fourth with 39.06 metres.

#### WOMEN'S SWIMMING

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

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

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

#### HOCKEY

Japan's team placed second.

#### EQUESTRIAN COMPETITION

Lieutenant Baron Takekichi Nishi won the Prix des Nations.

Japan participated in the Fourth Olympic Winter Games held at Garmisch-Partenkirchen, Germany, for 11 days, beginning February 6, 1936. The Japanese delegation was composed of a skiing team of 11 men, speed skating team of 8, figure skating team of 3 including Miss Etsuko Inada, and ice-hockey team of 14. It was the biggest winter sports delegation sent by Japan so far. Japan, however, finished 14th place, tied with Italy and Belgium, scoring only 3 points. Shozo Ishihara of Waseda University was the only point getter for Japan, winning fourth place in the 500-metre speed skating race.

Details of the Japanese performances at the Games were:

#### Skiing

18-kilometre run: Kan Tadano finished 33rd with a time of 1:25.26 hour; Shinzo Yamada, 50th; Tsutomu Sekido, 56th; among 75 entrants.

50-kilometre run: Kan Tadano finished 28th in 4:10.23 hours; Tadao Okayama, 34th; among 36 entrants.

40-kilometre relay: Japanese team (G. Yamada, Sekido, S. Yamada and Tadano) finished 12th in 3:10.59 hours among 16 entrants.

Jumping: Shoji Iguro finished 7th with 218.2 points (74.5 metres and 72.5 metres) among 28 entrants.

Combined event: Isamu Sekiguchi finished 28th with 305.9 points among 45 entrants.

Slalom: Isamu Sekiguchi finished 39th in 6:48.6 minutes; Tsutomu Sekido, 44th; Kan Tadano, 47th; among 36 entrants.

#### Skating

500-metre race: Shozo Ishihara finished 4th in 44.1 seconds; Reikichi Na-

amura, 11th; Seitoku Ri, 16th; among 36 entrants.

1,500-metre race: Seien Kin finished 15th in 2:25.0 minutes; Ishihara, 10th; Ri, 23rd; Nakamura, 28th; among 37 entrants.

5,000-metre race: Seien Kin finished 21st in 8:55.9 minutes; Ri and Yushoku Cho, 27th; among 32 entrants.

10,000-metre race: Seien Kin finished 13th in 18:02.7 minutes; Ri, 25th; Cho, 36th; among 33 entrants.

Men's figure skating: Toshiichi Katayama finished 15th with 347.4 points; Kazukichi Oimatsu, 20th; Zenjiro Watanabe, 21st; Tsugio Hasegawa, 23rd; among 25 entrants.

Women's figure skating: Miss Etsuko Inada finished 10th with 368.1 points among 23 entrants.

#### Ice-hockey

The Japanese team was eliminated in the first-round contest, losing its matches to Sweden and England with a score of 2 goals to 0 each.

Japan took part in the Sixth International University Games held in Budapest in August, 1935, sending its all-star student track and field team of Keio University. After one week of competition among the athletic representatives of 29 countries, Japan took third place in the track and field events and second place in the gymnastics. Germany won the track and field contest with 125 points and Hungary was second with 92. Japan was third with 74 and England fourth 47.

In gymnastics, Hungary won first place with 509 points and Japan was runner-up with 478 points. Third place went to Germany which scored 475 points. Ichiro Nozaka was the best in individual scoring for Japan, being placed 8th with 97 points.

Those who won points in various events for the Japanese track team were:

100-metre dash: Monta Suzuki (Keio U.), 2nd, 10.8 seconds.

200-metre dash: Monta Suzuki (Keio U.), 3rd, 21.9 seconds.

1,500-metre run: Hideo Tanaka (Chuo U.), 4th, 4:05.8 minutes.

5,000-metre run: Hideo Tanaka (Chuo U.), 2nd, 15:24.4 minutes.

110-metre high hurdles: Tadashi Murakami (Waseda U.), 3rd 15.3 seconds; Masao Harada (Kyoto Imperial U.), 4th. 400-metre relay: Japanese team, 4th, 42.8 seconds.

1,600-metre relay: Japanese team, 6th, 3:27.2 minutes.

Olympic relay: Japanese team, 4th,

3:35.6 minutes.

High Jump: Hiroshi Tanaka (Waseda U.), 3rd, 1.94 metre; Tadashi Murakami (Waseda U.), 5th.

Broad Jump: Naondo Tajima (Kyoto Imperial U.), 1st, 7.52 metres; Masao Harada (Kyoto Imperial U.).

Pole vault: Shunhei Nishida (Waseda U.), 1st, 4.30 metres; 2nd, Sueo Oye (Keio U.).

Javelin throw: Saburo Nagao (Kwansai U.), 4th 57.70 metres.

At Berlin Japan sent a delegation of 248 athletes and officials, including 19 women athletes, to the 11th Olympic Games held at the Reich Sports Field, Berlin, for 16 days started on August 1, 1936. The delegation was the biggest Japan ever sent to the Olympics, and was an increase of more than 50 athletes compared with the number it despatched to the Los Angeles Olympiad.

The Japanese contingent participated in 13 events; men's track and field, men's swimming, soccer, hockey, rowing, gymnastics, basketball, yachting, wrestling, equestrian, boxing, women's track and field and women's swimming. Japan won six championships, four second places and eight third places, and finished 8th in an unofficial standing which was far better than its performance in the Los Angeles meet.

1 Track and Field. Of the most outstanding success for Japan was the triumph in the marathon race by Son Kitei. Son, a young Korean runner who set an unofficial world marathon record in Tokyo the previous year, won the event with a time of 2 hours, 29 minutes and 19.2 seconds, a new Olympic record. It was the first victory by a Japanese in this event. Naoto Tajima, a Kwansai student, also lived up to his fame by winning the hop, step and jump for the third consecutive time for Japan in the Olympic Games. Tajima's winning leap, 16 metres, was a new world record. Other brilliant performers for Japan were Kohel Murakoso who won fourth place both in the 5,000-metre and 10,000-metre runs, and Shunhei Nishida and Sueo Oye who tied for second place in the pole vault event, after giving hard resistance to Earl Meadows of the United States, the winner. It was the second time Nishida placed second in the Olympic pole vault.

2 Swimming. Japan successfully defended its world supremacy gained in the Los Angeles meet by winning three championships, two second places, and five third places. Three events won by Japanese were the 1,500-metre free style, the 200-metre breast stroke and the 300-metre relay Tetsuo Hamuro, com-

peting in the Olympic Games for the first time, caused a sensation by winning the 200-metre breast stroke in a new Olympic record of 2 minutes and 42.5 seconds. Miss Hideko Maehata was the first Japanese woman to win in the Olympic aquatic event. She won the 200-metre breast stroke for women and set a new Olympic record of 3 minutes and 3.6 seconds.

After the Games, the International Olympic Committee met and awarded Japan the right to sponsor the 12th Olympic Games in Tokyo in 1940.

The Tokyo Olympic Games On account of the Sino-Japanese Conflict in 1937-38 Japan gave up plans for the proposed Tokyo Olympic Games in July, 1938.

Details of the Japanese performances at the Berlin Olympic Games were:

#### TRACK AND FIELD

5,000-metre run—Kohel Murakoso won 4th place.

10,000-metre run—Kohel Murakoso won 4th place.

Marathon—Son Kitei won for the first time for Japan with a time of 2 hours 29 minutes 19.5 seconds, and Nan Shoryu placed third.

Running high jump—Kimio Yada placed 5th with 1.97 metres.

Running broad jump—Naota Tajima won third place with 7.74 metres.

Hop, step and jump—Naota Tajima won and defended successfully the title for the third time in row since the Amsterdam meet. Tajima's leap was 16 metres, a new world record.

Pole vault—Shuhei Nishida and Suetaro Oye tied for second place with 4.25 metres respectively.

#### Women's Track and Field

Discus throw—Miss Ko Nakamura and Miss Hide Minejima won fourth and fifth places respectively.

Javelin throw—Miss Sadako Yamamoto placed fifth.

#### Swimming

100-metre free style—Masanori Yusa won second place, followed by Shigeo Aral and Shoji Taguchi in third and fourth places. Yusa's time was 57.9 seconds.

400-metre free style—Three Japanese mermen finished in first five, namely, Shumpei Udo in second place. Shozo Udo was timed in 4 minutes 45.6 seconds.

1,500-metre free style—Noboru Terada won with a time of 19 minutes 13.7 seconds. Two other place winners were Shumpei Udo who came in third and Sunao Ishiwarada who finished fourth.

800-metre relay—Japan's team won, members being Yusa, Sugiura, Taguchi and Aral. Time, 8 minutes 51.5 seconds.

100-metre back stroke—Shoichi Kiyokawa won third place with a time of 1 minute 6.4 seconds. Kiichi Yoshida placed 5th and Yasuhiko Kojima 6th.

200-metre breast stroke—Tetsuo Hamuro won. Time, 2 minutes 42.5 seconds. Two others who placed were Reizo Kolke, third, and Saburo Ito, fifth.

High diving—Tsuneo Shibahara placed sixth.

Spring board diving—Tsuneo Shibahara took fourth place.

#### Women's Swimming

400-metre free style—Miss Kazuo Kojima placed sixth.

200-metre breast stroke—Miss Hideko Maehata won. Time, 3 minutes 16 seconds.

High diving—Miss Reiko Osawa won 4th place and Miss Fusako Kono finished 6th.

Spring board diving—Miss Masayo Osawa placed sixth.

#### Wrestling

##### Free style

Featherweight—Kozo Mizutani ranked 6th.

Lightweight—Eiichi Kazama ranked 5th.

#### Boxing

Bantamweight—Shumpei Hashioka ranked 5th.

#### Equestrian competition

Steeplechase—Japanese team, composed of Captain Baron Takeichi Nishi, Lieutenant Hiroji Inaba and Lieutenant Manabu Iwabashi, placed 6th with 75 penalties.

#### The Tenth Far Eastern Olympiad

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

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

Results of the Tenth Far Eastern Championship Games follow:

#### BASEBALL

Philippines	25	China	1
Japan	25	China	1
Philippines	7	Japan	0
Philippines	14	China	0
Japan	8	China	0
Japan	2	Philippines	2

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

#### BASKETBALL

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

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

#### VOLLEYBALL

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

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

#### FOOTBALL

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

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

#### LAWN TENNIS

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

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

#### TRACK

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

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

#### FIELD

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

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

#### PENTATHLON & DECATHLON

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

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

## SWIMMING

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

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

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

Results of the games follow:

## TRACK AND FIELD

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

## Baseball

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

## Boxing

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

## Development of Western Sports

The History Young When a Japanese refers to "sports," he usually means Western athletic sports, not the traditional sports of Japan. The tremendous interest of the Japanese in Western sports and the remarkable development that they have made in them have relegated Japan's own sports to the background. One may pay tribute to the athletic prowess of the Japanese and their adaptability and capacity for as-

similation, but one strong reason for the great popularity of the sports from the West may be sought in the fact that most Western sports are played collectively, instead of individually as in the case of Japanese fencing and judo, and they appear to suit the race in their modern mode of life. Western sports, moreover, offer the Japanese an opportunity to compete with other athletic nations and demonstrate their ability. This gives more incentive for their enthusiasm for foreign sports.

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

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

for a closer international friendship.

The Re-organization of the Japan Amateur Athletic Association The Japan Amateur Athletic Association was reorganized as the highest regulating body for sports in Japan, on May 19, 1936. The Association was able to perfect its organization with the affiliation of sixteen other athletic bodies and became the most important sports governing body in Japan. The important work for the Association in 1935 was the sending of the delegation to the 11th Olympiad in Berlin and exerting its best efforts to invite the 12th Olympiad to Tokyo.

As regards the sending of the delegation the Association succeeded in obtaining the fund. A subsidy of ¥300,000 was granted by the Government and public donations amounting to ¥400,000 were obtained these two making a total fund of ¥700,000 for the despatch of the delegation. It was thus possible to send 47 athletes to the 4th Winter Sports Games and also a large and imposing delegation composed of 68 officials and 246 athletes representing 13 events to the 11th Olympiad in Berlin.

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

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

Under Education Minister All sports in Japan are controlled either by the Ministry of Education or the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs. All students' sports are under the jurisdiction of the Education Ministry, and such non-student affairs as Japanese professional wrestling and professional boxing are under the control of the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs. Matters such as the maintenance of peace and order in and around the wrestling amphitheatre or boxing ring are in the hands of the local police.

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

Records Various statistics of records made by Japanese athletes follow:

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

## Running

Event	Japan's Record	World's Record
100-meter	10.3s. Ryutoku Yoshioka (1935)	10.2s. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter	21.2s. Mutsuo Taniguchi (1934)	20.3s. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter	49.0s. Keiji Imai (1934)	46.1s. Archie Williams, U.S.A. (1936)
800-meter	1:54.0m. Kumao Aochi (1934)	1:49.6m. A. Robinson, U.S.A. (1937)
1,500-meter	3:56.8m. Kiyoshi Nakamura (1938)	3:47.8m. Jack Lovelock, New Zealand (1936)
5,000-meter	14:30.0m. Kohei Murakoso (1936)	14:17.0m. Lauri Lehtinen, Finland (1932)
10,000-meter	30:25.0m. Kohei Murakoso (1936)	30:5.6m. T. Salminen, Finland (1937)
Marathon	2:26.42h. Kitel Son (1935)	2:26.42h. Kitel Son, Japan (1935)

## Hurdles

110-meter high hurdles	14.6s. Tadashi Murakami (1935)	13.7s. Forrest Towns, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter low hurdles	24.3s. Iwao Anne (1930)	22.6s. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter low hurdles	54.2s. Toyofji Aihara (1936)	50.6s. Glenn Hardin, U.S.A. (1934)
3,000-meter steeplechase	9:32.8m. Hideo Tanaka (1936)	9:3.8m. V. Isohollo, Finland (1936)

## Relay Races

400-meter	41.4s. Yoshioka, Sasaki, Taniguchi (1935)	39.9s. Owens, Metcalph, Draper, Wykoff, U.S.A. (1936)
800-meter	1:28.0m. Takano, Kondo, Taniguchi, Suzuki (1934)	1:25m. Stanford University, U.S.A. (1937)
1,600-meter	3:16.8m. Nakajima, Masuda, Oki, Nishi (1932)	3:8.2m. Fuqua, Alowich, Warner, Carr, U.S.A. (1932)
3,200-meter	8:20.4m. Kida, Nagatani, Horl, Hamada (1929)	7:41.4m. Martin, Welch, Sansone, Hahn, U.S.A. (1926)

## Walking

3,000-meter	14:1.2m. Kinji Kazama (1936)	12:22.8m. G. Brunn, Norway (1936)
5,000-meter	24:31.2m. Kinji Kazama (1936)	21:49.0m. John Mikaelson, Sweden (1936)
10,000-meter	48:34.2m. Eiiji Wada (1936)	43:25.2m. G. Brunn, Norway (1937)
50,000-meter	4:42.57h. Eiiji Wada (1936)	4:26.40h. Edgar Brunn, Norway (1936)

## Jumping

High jump	2.01 mtrs. Yoshiro Asakuma (1935)	2.07 mtrs. Dave Albritton U.S.A. (1936)
Broad jump	7.98 mtrs. Chuhei Nambu (1931)	8.15 mtrs. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1935)
Hop, step and jump	16mtrs. Naoto Tajima (1936)	16 mtrs. Naoto Tajima, Japan (1936)
Pole vault	4.35 mtrs. Sueo Oye (1936)	4.54 mtrs. G. Sefton, E. Meadows, U.S.A. (1937)

## Weight Events

Putting 16-lb. shot	14.15 mtrs. Shizuo Takada (1934)	17.40 mtrs. Jack Torrance, U.S.A. (1934)
Hammer throw	51.27 mtrs. Isao Abe (1935)	57.77 mtrs. D.J. Ryan U.S.A. (1913)

## Discus Throw

44.76 mtrs. Kosaku Kikumoto (1935) 53.10 mtrs. Willi Schroeder, Germany (1935)

## Javelin Throw

68.59 mtrs. Saburo Nagao (1934) 77.23 mtrs. M. Jarvinen, Finland (1936)

## Decathlon

7,469.595 pts. Tatsuo Toki (1932) 7,900 pts. Glenn Morris, U.S.A. (1936)

## WOMEN'S JAPAN AND WORLD TRACK AND FIELD RECORD

Event	Japan's Record	World Record
50 mtrs. run	6.4s. Kinuye Hitomi (1927)	6.4s. Walasiewicz, Poland (1932)
100 "	12.0s. Kinuye Hitomi (1929)	11.4s. Stephens, U.S.A. (1936)
200 "	24.7s. Kinuye Hitomi (1929)	23.6s. Walasiewicz, Poland (1935)
400 "	1:1.6m. Kiyoko Itoda (1935)	58.0s. Walasiewicz, Poland (1934)
800 "	2:23.8m. Kinuye Hitomi (1928)	2:12.4m. Koukova, Czechoslovakia (1934)
1,000 "	3:32.3m. Michiyo Onishi (1935)	2:52.4m. Lunn, England (1936)
80 mtrs. hardies	12.2s. Michi Nakanishi (1932)	11.6s. Valla, Italy (1936)
400 mtrs. relay	50.2s. Muraoka, Shibata, Nakajima, Watanabe, (1932)	46.4s. National Team, Germany (1936)
800 meters. relay	1:49.2 m. Kato, Nakajima, Manabe, Itoda (1935)	1:45.8 m. National Team, Germany (1932)
1,000 mtrs. relay	2:17.1m. Koya, Ueda, Nakamura, Niibayashi, Yamamoto, Okuno, Sakai, Kawashima, Kawahara, Takino (1935)	2:4.4 m. National Team, England (1929)

Event	Japan's Record	World Record
High jump	1.55 mtrs. Rie Yamanouchi (1936)	1.65 mtrs. Didrickson, U.S.A. (1932)
Broad jump	6.07 mtrs. Kinuye Hitomi (1929)	5.98 mtrs. Kinuye Hitomi, Japan (1928)
Shot put	12.25 mtrs. Fumi Kojima (1936)	14.38 mtrs. Mauermeyer, Germany (1934)
Discus throw	39.75 mtrs. Hide Minejima (1936)	48.31 mtrs. Mauermeyer, Germany (1936)
Javelin throw	44.51 mtrs. Sadako Yamamoto (1936)	46.74 mtrs. Gindele, U.S.A. (1932)

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

## Men's Free Style

Distance	Japan's Record	World's Record
50-meter	25.8s. Shigeo Takahashi (1934)	
100-meter	57.2s. Masanori Yusa (1935)	56.4s. Peter Fick, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter	2:11.2m. Masanori Yusa (1935)	2:7.2m. Jack Medica U.S.A. (1935)
300-meter	3:31.0m. Hiroshi Negami (1936)	3:21.6m. Jack Medica U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter	4:45.0m. Hiroshi Negami (1936)	4:38.7m. Jack Medica U.S.A. (1934)
500-meter	6:7.2m. Gen Ishiwarada (1935)	5:57.8m. Jack Medica U.S.A. (1933)
800-meter	9:55.8m. Shozo Makino (1935)	9:55.8m. Shozo Makino, Japan (1935)
1,000-meter	12:33.8m. Tomikatsu Amano (1938)	12:41.8m. Hiroshi Negami, Japan (1934)
1,500-meter	18:58.8m. Tomikatsu Amano (1938)	19:7.2m. Arne Borg, Sweden (1927)

## Men's Breast Stroke

100-meter	1:12.2m. Reizo Koike (1936)	1:10.0m. John Higgins, U.S.A. (1933)
200-meter	2:40.4m. Tetsuo Hamuro (1937)	2:37.2m. Jack Kasley, U.S.A. (1936)

## Men's Back Stroke

100-meter	1:7.2m. Seiji Kiyokawa (1936)	1:4.8m. Adolph Kiefer, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter	2:31.0m. Kiichi Yoshida (1936)	2:24.0m. Adolph Kiefer, U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter	5:23.2m. Kiichi Yoshida (1936)	5:13.4m. Adolph Kiefer, U.S.A. (1936)

## Women's Free Style

100-meter	1:11.0m. Kazue Kojima (1936)	1:4.6m. Den Ouden, Holland (1936)
200-meter	2:42.8m. Kazue Kojima (1933)	2:25.3m. Den Ouden, Holland (1935)
400-meter	5:49.6m. Kazue Kojima (1933)	5:11m. Ranghild Hveger, Denmark (1937)
800-meter	12:31.8m. Hatsue Morioka (1935)	11:11.7m. Ranghild Hveger, Denmark (1936)
1,000-meter	15:57.0m. Hatsue Morioka (1933)	14:12.3m. Ranghild Hveger, Denmark (1937)

## Women's Breast Stroke

100-meter	1:25.7m. Hideko Maehata (1935)	1:20.2m. H. Hoelzner, Germany (1936)
200-meter	3:0.4m. Hideko Maehata (1933)	2:56.9m. M. Wahrberg, Holland (1937)

## Women's Back Stroke

100-meter	1:25.1m. Misao Yokota (1932)	1:13.6m. Nida Zenff, Holland (1936)
200-meter	3:9.2m. Ai Oda (1936)	2:41.3m. R. Hveger, Denmark (1937)

## Baseball

Baseball is the most popular and most widely played game in Japan. Sumo, the Japanese style of wrestling, had

been known for many years as the national game, but baseball came from the United States and caught popular fancy. The American pastime is now recognized as the de facto national game



of this country. The Japanese are agile by nature and gifted with quick headwork and therefore are fitted to play baseball, although their weakness in batting is admitted. American professional players who have been to Japan and played with the Japanese have said that the Japanese are good pitchers and good fielders, but poor hitters and have recommended that efforts be made to improve batting.

**Its Inception** Like track and field sports, baseball was brought to Japan in the early years of Meiji. It is recorded that baseball was introduced by two American teachers in 1872. Not much progress was made until after 1890. The First Higher School is known as the first school which organized a strong team. Keio University and Waseda University also organized teams. Games began to be played between those schools with much zeal. In 1905, Waseda University sent its team to the United States. It played 27 games and won seven, but the team brought to Japan new tactics, such as winding and bunting, which had been unknown here until that time. Organized cheering was begun about the same time. From then on, American university teams, such as those of St. Louis, Wisconsin, Washington and Chicago Universities, came to Japan. At first, the American invaders were sure to win. As years went by, baseball in Japan developed greatly, however, and now it is admitted that Japanese university teams are on a par with American varsity nines. Hence the almost semi-annual exchange of university baseball teams between Japan and the United States.

**Its Development** The development of baseball in Japan owes much to the visits of American professional players.

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

**The University League** The game was laid on a firm foundation in 1925 when the present Big Six-University Baseball League of Tokyo was organized among Waseda, Keio, Meiji, Hosei, Rikkyo and Imperial Universities. Of the semi-annual league series, the most popular is the Waseda-Keio, series, the interest in which is high, as in the Cambridge-Oxford regatta, because of the historical background. Before the present league was formed, Waseda and Keio had such keen rivalry that blood shed was caused at one of the games and the series had to be abandoned for 20 years. The creation of the league revived the series, and they are now the "World Series of Japan." Each Waseda-Keio game is usually attended by a capacity crowd of 55,000 at the Meiji Jingu (Shrine) grounds, Tokyo.

In the semi-annual league seasons, each university plays a two-game series with the others. The championship winners were formerly decided on the basis of the number of series won, but now the number of games won.

The following tables show the final standing of the autumn season of 1937 and the spring season of 1938:

## 1937 Autumn

	Meiji	Waseda	Rikkyo	Hosei	Keio	Imp.	Won	Draw	%
Meiji	×	1	1.5	2	2	2	8	1	.850
Waseda	1	×	1	1.5	0	2	5	1	.550
Rikkyo	0.5	1	×	1	1	2	5	1	.550
Hosei	0	0.5	1	×	2	2	5	1	.550
Keio	0	2	1	0	×	1	4	0	.400
Imperial	0	0	0	0	1	×	1	0	.100
Lost	1	4	4	4	6	9			

Meiji won the pennant.

## 1938 Spring

	Meiji	Waseda	Hosei	Rikkyo	Keio	Imp.	Won	Draw	%
Meiji	×	0	1	2	2	2	7	0	.700
Waseda	2	×	1	1	1	2	7	0	.700
Hosei	1	1	×	0.5	1	2	5.5	1	.550

	Meiji	Waseda	Hosei	Rikkyo	Keio	Imp.	Won	Draw	%
Keio	0	1	1	1	×	2	5	0	.500
Rikkyo	0	1	1.5	×	1	1	4.5	1	.450
Imperial	0	0	0	1	0	×	1	0	.100
Lost	3	3	4.5	5.5	5	9			

Meiji won the pennant by beating Waseda 4-0 in the decisive game.

**Professional Baseball** Japan now boasts of eight professional baseball teams, four in Tokyo and two each in Nagoya and Osaka. They are Tokyo Giants, Eagles, Tokyo senators and Lions in Tokyo; Nagoya and Golden Dolphins in Nagoya; Hankyu and Osaka Tigers in Osaka. The teams were formed during 1934 and early 1936, all possessing former leading baseball players from colleges and middle schools.

The Japan Professional Baseball League, a governing body for these professional teams, was founded in 1936, with leading men of each team in its official board. The league is headed by Marquis Nobutsuné Okuma, president of the Tokyo Giants. Each team is operated as sister companies of leading newspaper or railway companies, and some of them are financed by a group of business men. The Tokyo Giants is the oldest among them, founded in late 1934, and is backed by the Yomiuri Shimbun, leading Tokyo newspaper. The team made a tour of the United States twice already in 1935 and 1936, each time their trip extending for three months. Most of the professional teams are stronger than those of the Tokyo University League and their future is very promising.

The three championship series among the professional teams were held in Tokyo, Osaka and Nagoya during July, 1936, and resulted as follows:

## Autumn 1937

	Games	Won	Lost	Draw	%
Tigers	49	39	9	1	.813
Giants	48	30	18	0	.625
Eagles	49	28	19	2	.596
Dolphins	49	23	25	1	.479
Senators	48	20	27	1	.426
Lions	49	19	29	1	.396
Hankyus	49	17	29	3	.370
Nagoyas	49	13	33	3	.283

Tigers won the pennant.

## Spring 1938

	Games	Won	Lost	Draw	%
Tigers	35	29	6	0	.829
Giants	35	24	11	0	.686
Hankyus	35	21	13	1	.618

	Games	Won	Lost	Draw	%
Eagles	35	18	15	2	.545
Senators	35	13	21	1	.382
Dolphins	35	13	22	0	.371
Nagoyas	35	11	24	0	.314
Lions	35	9	26	0	.257

Tigers retained the pennant.

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

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

The All Japan team which was specially formed to meet the American stars with the former star players in the Japanese college leagues, the strongest nine Japan could offer then, was beaten by a one-sided score by the visitors in almost every game they played. A total of 47 home runs was recorded by the American players during their sojourn, with Ruth leading with 13. A name of "home run team" was given by the Japanese fans for their heavy and amazing batting works by Ruth, Gehrig, Foxx, Averill and Gehringer, who all hit home run

more than four each.

The American team was composed of the following players:

Eric McNair (Philadelphia Athletics), shortstop.

Charles I. Gehring (Detroit Tigers), second base.

Babe Ruth (New York Yankees), left field and first base.

Lou Gehrig (Yankees), first base.

James Foxx (Athletics), third base.

Earl Averill (Cleveland Indians), centre field.

E.J. Miller (Athletics), right field.

Morris Berg (Cleveland), catcher.

Frank Hayes (Athletics), catcher.

Vernon Gomez (Yankees), pitcher.

Earl Whitehill (Washington Senators), pitcher.

Clinton H. Brown (Cleveland), pitcher.

Edward Casarella (Athletics), pitcher.

Hal Warstler (Athletics), substitute for infielder.

Frank O'Doul (New York Giants), outfielder.

Mr. John A. Quinn, the noted Southern League umpire, acted as chief umpire.

Results of the games follow:

Americans 17-1 Tokyo Club (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 4)

Americans 5-1 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo November 5)

Americans 5-2 All Japan (Yunokawa Grounds, Hakodate, November 8)

Americans 7-0 All Japan (Yagiyama Grounds Sendai, November 9)

Americans 10-0 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 10)

Ruth team 13-2 Miller team, exhibition (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo November 11)

Americans 14-0 All Japan (Jintu Grounds, Toyama, November 13)

Americans 15-6 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 17)

Americans 21-4 All Japan (Yokohama Park Grounds, Yokohama, November 18)

Americans 1-0 All Japan (Shizuoka City Grounds, Shizuoka, November 20)

Americans 6-5 All Japan (Narumi Grounds, Nagoya, November 22)

Americans 6-2 All Japan (Narumi Grounds Nagoya November 23)

Americans 15-3 All Japan (Koshien Grounds, Hyogo, November 24)

Miller team 5-1 Ruth team exhibition (Koshien Grounds, Hyogo, November 25)

Americans 8-1 All Japan (Itatsu Grounds, Kokura, November 26)

Americans 14-1 All Japan (Kyoto City Grounds, Kyoto, November 28)

Americans 23-5 All Japan (Oniya Grounds, Saitama, November 29)

Americans 14-5 All Japan (Utsunomiya Grounds, Tohigi, December 1)

### Track and Field

The birth of track and field sports in Japan dates back to the Meiji Restoration in 1868. In the following year, a physical training course was added to the curriculum of middle schools, which consisted of gymnastics introduced by the Dutch. In the meantime, those who returned home to Japan from abroad, much impressed by athletics in foreign countries advocated the introduction of Western athletics. Several foreign teachers were invited to teach athletics as well as English. Running and jumping were taught, but progress was slow. The first Japanese track and field meet was held in Tokyo in 1884, but the first really systematic athletic meet was not held until 1886. At the latter meet, programmes were printed. It was an epoch-making event. Track and field events about 1889 and 1890 were almost the same as they are now. There were the 100, 220, 400, 850 yards, the 100 yard hurdles, cricket ball throw, the three-legged race and so on. As for records, the best was 10.8 seconds for the 100-yard dash and 18 seconds for the 100-yard hurdles. From that time on, progress was gradual until 1912, when Japan took part in the World Olympic Games for the first time. An outline of the progress of Western sports in Japan in subsequent years is given in the first section titled "Japan in the World Olympics."

At the invitation of the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation, the American track and field stars, captained by Glenn Cunningham, the world famous distance runner, visited Japan in September, 1934, for a series of contests against the leading Japanese athletes. They were the first and strongest athletic force ever came to Japan from the United States, and staged one of the biggest track and field events in this country.

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

### TRACK AND FIELD

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

Members of the American team were: Glenn Cunningham (Kansas University); John Anderson (Cornell University); Robert Clark (Olympic Club); Frank Crowley (Manhattan College); Gordon Dunn (Stanford University); Donald Favor (University of Maine); Phil Good (Bordoin University); Howard Greene (Abilen Christian College); Charles Hornbostel (Indiana University); Walter Marty (Fresno State University); Ralph Metcalfe (Marquette University); Charles Parsons (University of Southern California); Wirt Thompson (Yale University); and Dudley Wilkins (Louisiana State University). Coach—Mr. John Magee, vice-president of the American Athletic Union.

Winners of the first dual meet were:

#### Track Events

100-metre dash, Ralph Metcalfe (United States), 10.5 seconds; 200-metre dash, Metcalfe (United States), 20.2 seconds (new world record); 400-metre run, Charles Hornbostel (United States), 49.2 seconds; 800-metre run, Hornbostel (United States), 1:54.0 minute; 1,500-metre run, Glenn Cunningham (United States), 4:36 minutes; 5,000-metre run, Ryu Choshun (Japan), 15:41.8 minutes; 110-metre high hurdles, Phil Good (United States), 14.6 seconds; 400-metre relay, American team (Clark, Greene, Parsons and Metcalfe), 41.3 seconds; and Swedish relay, American team (Metcalfe, Parsons, Greene and Hornbostel), 1:57.6 minutes.

#### Field Events

High jump, Yoshiro Asakuma (Japan), 1.95 metre; broad jump, Masao Harada (Japan), 7.59 metres; hop, step and jump, Kenkichi Oshima (Japan), 15.28 metres; pole vault, Suyo Oyé (Japan), 4 metres; shot put, Gordon Dunn (United States), 15.26 metres; discus throw, Dunn (United States), 47.42 metres; hammer throw, Iao Abé (Japan), 48.98 metres; and javelin throw, Saburo Nagao (Japan),

62.07 metres.

Points scored:

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

Winners in the second dual meet were:

#### Track Events

100-metre dash, Ralph Metcalfe (United States), 10.3 seconds (tied the world record); 200-metre dash, Metcalfe (United States), 21.4 seconds; 400-metre run, Charles Hornbostel (United States), 49.2 seconds; 800-metre run, Glenn Cunningham (United States), 3:58.4 minutes; 5,000-metre run, Frank Crowley (United States), 16:36 minutes; 110-metre high hurdles, Tadashi Murakami (Japan), 14.6 seconds; and Swedish relay, Japanese team (Yoshioka, Taniguchi, Miyanagi and Imai), 1:57.5 minute.

#### Field Events

High jump, Yoshiro Asakuma (Japan), 2 metres; broad jump, Masao Harada (Japan), 7.59 metres; hop, step and jump, Kenkichi Oshima (Japan), 15.82 metres (new world record); pole vault, Suyo Oyé (Japan), 4.20 metres; shot put, Gordon Dunn (United States), 15.62 metres; discus throw, Dunn (United States), 46.43 metres; hammer throw, Donald Favor (United States), 51.16 metres; and javelin throw, Saburo Nagao (Japan), 62.98 metres.

Points scored:

United States		Japan
7	100-metre dash	3
6	200-metre dash	4
7	400-metre run	3
7	800-metre run	3
5	1,500-metre run	5
5	5,000-metre run	5

United States	Japan
4 High hurdles	6
1 Swedish relay	4
3 High jump	6
4 Broad jump	6
2 Hop, stop and jump	7
3½ Pole vault	6
6 Shot put	4
7 Discus throw	3
5 Hammer throw	5
3 Javelin throw	7
75½	77½

### Tennis

Lawn tennis is the Western sport through which the Japanese nation won international recognition for the first time. The game was introduced into this country more than half a century ago, but real tennis, by which is meant the game as played in the West, began only 20 years or so ago. Until then the Japanese played the game with the "soft ball." Even now the Japanese have two sorts of tennis, the regulation ball and soft ball. Japan distinguished herself in tennis for the first time in 1915, when Ichiya Kumagai and Seichiro Kashio represented her in the Far Eastern Games held in Shanghai. Kashio dropped one singles match, but the rest were won by Japan.

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

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

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

In the singles matches, Johnston beat Kumagai 6-2, 6-4, 6-2; Tilden beat Shimizu 5-7, 4-6, 7-5, 6-2, 6-1; Tilden beat Kumagai 9-7, 6-4, 6-1; Johnston beat Shimizu 6-3, 5-7, 6-2, 6-4. In the doubles, Williams and Washburn beat Kumagai and Shimizu 6-2, 7-5, 4-6, 7-5.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Hennessey and Van Ryn beat Abé and Ohta 6-3, 6-4, 6-2.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Jack Crawford beat Jiro Fujikura, 6-3, 6-3, 11-9, Vivian McGrath beat Jiro Yamagishi, 2-6, 7-5, 6-2, 6-4, Fujikura beat McGrath, 6-4, 5-7, 6-2, 8-6, Oswald Turnbull beat Yamagishi, 6-4, 7-5, 9-7.

In the doubles, Crawford and Adrian Quist beat Yamagishi and Hideo Nishimura, 6-1, 6-0, 4-6, 9-7.

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

In the singles matches, Roderick Menzel beat Hideo Nishimura, 6-3, 6-2,

8-6; Josef Zaska beat Jiro Yamagishi, 6-1, 8-6, 6-3; Zaska beat Nishimura, 6-2, 6-3, 6-8, 6-2; and Yamagishi beat Ladislau Hecht, 6-4, 6-1, 6-3.

In the doubles, Menzel and Josef Malacek beat Nishimura and Yamagishi, 2-6, 6-2, 6-1, 6-1. All matches were played at Prague on June 6, 7 and 8.

In 1936 Japan did not take part due to poor material and lack of fund for sending players to Europe.

1937 (First round of American Zone)  
U.S.A. 5, Japan 0

In the singles matches, Donald Budge beat Fumiteru Nakano, 6-1, 6-1, 6-0; Frank Parker beat Jiro Yamagishi, 6-1, 2-6, 8-6, 6-1; Parker beat Nakano, 6-0, 6-3, 6-2; and Budge beat Yamagishi, 6-2, 6-2, 6-4.

In the doubles, Budge and Gene Mako beat Yamagishi and Nakano, 6-0, 6-1, 6-4.

1938 (First round of American Zone)  
Japan 5, Canada 0

In the singles, Fumiteru Nakano defeated Wilson, 6-2, 6-3, 6-2; Jiro Yamagishi defeated A. Murray, 6-1, 6-3, 6-3; Fumiteru Nakano beat A. Murray, 6-4, 6-3, 6-0; Jiro Yamagishi beat Cameron, 6-4, 6-1, 6-0.

In the doubles, Yamagishi and Nakano beat Wilson and Watt, 6-3, 3-6, 6-3, 7-5.

(Second round of American Zone)  
Australia 2, Japan 2.

In the singles, Jiro Yamagishi beat P. Bromwich, 6-0, 3-6, 7-5, 6-4; A. Quist beat Fumiteru Nakano, 6-3, 4-6, 9-7, 6-1; A. Quist beat Jiro Yamagishi, 6-4, 6-4, 2-6, 9-7; Fumiteru Nakano beat P. Bromwich, 1-6, 6-1, 4-6, 6-3, 12-12 default.

In the doubles, Quist and Bromwich beat Nakano and Yamagishi, 6-2, 6-4, 6-3.

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

The ranking list for 1937 and 1938 follows:

### Men's Singles

- 1937  
1. Jiro Yamagishi (Kelo U.)  
2. Akimasa Miura (Waseda U.)

- 1938  
1. Yasumine Kuramitsu (Kwansai U.)  
2. Takeo Matsumoto (Hosei U.)

1937

3. Shunsuke Hirai (Keio U.)
4. Yasumine Kuramitsu (Kwansai U.)
5. Fumiteru Nakano (Hosei U.)
6. Katsumi Matsuoka (Keio U.)
7. Sakuzo Hasegawa (Senshu U.)
8. Shinroku Hayashi (Tokyo Imperial U.)
9. Junzo Kinoshita (Kwansai Gakuin)
10. Shojiro Tatsuta (Kwansai Gakuin)
11. Masatomo Tsukada (Meiji U.)
12. Mitsuo Kawamura (Kwansai Gakuin)
13. Tamio Abe (Tomon Club)
14. Shizuo Fujii (Kwansai U.)
15. Yasuji Kiyosu (Kwansai Gakuin)
16. Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)
17. Tatsuo Hisano (Eighth Higher School)
18. Masutaro Nakamura (Keio U.)
19. Tatsuke Yokota (Tokyo Imperial U.)
20. Tomigoro Fujita (Waseda U.)

## Men's Doubles

1937

1. Jiro Yamagishi-Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)
2. Masuo Uehara-Haruo Horigoshi (Kwansai U.)
3. Shunsaku Hirai-Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)
4. Junzo Kinoshita-Yasuji Kiyosu (Kwansai Gakuin)
5. Shizuo Fujii-Yasumine Kuramitsu (Kwansai U.)
6. Shinroku Hayashi-Yoshio Takahashi (Tokyo Imperial U.)
7. Keiji Tanaka-Tomigoro Fujita (Waseda U.)
8. Mitsuo Kawamura-Shunji Ikushima (Kwansai Gakuin)
9. Masatomo Tsukada-Koyata Nishioka (Meiji U.)
10. Akimasa Miura-Reijiro Hattori (Waseda U.)

Jiro Yamagishi and Fumiteru Nakano who represented Japan in the 1937 Davis Cup tournaments were not included in the official ranking, because they lacked sufficient data.

## Women's Singles

1937

1. Miss Sadayo Toda (Osaka)
2. Miss Toyoko Kimata (Osaka)
3. Miss Hisako Yamagishi (Denen Club)
4. Miss Kumiko Sasakura (Poplar Club)
5. Miss Hisako Takiguchi (Osaka)
6. Miss Shizuyo Narukawa (Nagoya)
7. Miss Michiko Harada (M.L.)
8. Miss Kiyoko Enotani (Osaka)
9. Mrs. Naoko Matsudaira (Green Club)
10. Miss Mitsuko Iida (Osaka)

1938

3. Tetsuo Takamuku (Fukuoka Club)
4. Shunji Ikushima (Kwansai Gakuin)
5. Yasuo Tsuruta (Keio U.)
6. Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)
7. Yoshio Takahashi (Imperial)
8. Keiji Nakahara (Waseda U.)
9. Keishi Tanaka (Waseda U.)
10. Kokichi Kagitomi (Keio U.)
11. Koichiro Nakayama (Shodai)
12. Shizuo Fujii (Montetsu)
13. Shigeru Kusumoto (Keio U.)
14. Masatomo Tsukada (Meiji U.)
15. Haruo Koderu (Nagasaki H. Commercial)
16. Yasumasa Yamada (Meiji U.)
17. Koyata Nishioka (Meiji U.)
18. Junzo Fuwa (Kyoto Imperial)
19. Tatsuke Yokota (Meiji U.)
20. Yasushi Kimura (Waseda U.)

1938

1. Tamio Abe-Minoru Kawachi (Tomon Club)
2. Reizo Murakami-Yasuo Tsuruta (Keio U.)
3. Masuo Uehara-Haruo Horikoshi (Osawa Co.)
4. Keishi Tanaka-Masanori Takao (Waseda U.)
5. Yasumine Kuramitsu-Kazuo Okumura (Kwansai U.)
6. Yoshio Takahashi-Koki Arai (Imperial U.)
7. Munehiko Miyai-Shunji Ikushima (Kwansai Gakuin)
8. Yasushi Kimura-So Taneda (Waseda U.)
9. Katsumi Matsuoka-Tokuza Tamai (Keio U.)
10. Masatomi Tsukada-Koyata Nishioka (Meiji U.)

## Women's Doubles

1937

1. Miss Kumiko Sasakura-Miss Michiko Harada
2. Mrs. Naoko Matsudaira-Miss Hisako Yamagishi
3. Miss Shizuyo Takigawa-Miss Mikiko Nakamura
4. Mrs. Ewing-Miss Kiyoko Enotani
5. Miss Hisako Takiguchi-Miss Mitsuko Iida

The 16th annual national open championships (Kosen courts, Osaka, November 10-19)

## Singles : semi-finals

Cram (German) beat Y. Kuramitsu, 6-3, 6-4, 6-3.

Jiro Yamagishi beat Henkel (German), 6-4, 4-5, 6-3, 6-3.

## Finals

Cram beat Yamagishi, 7-9, 6-4, 6-4, 6-4.

## Singles

- |      |                   |
|------|-------------------|
| 1922 | Masanosuke Fukuda |
| 1923 | Takachi Harada    |
| 1924 | Tsumio Tawara     |
| 1925 | Tsumio Tawara     |
| 1926 | Yoshio Ota        |
| 1927 | Tamio Abe         |
| 1928 | Hajime Makino     |
| 1929 | Takachi Harada    |
| 1930 | Jiro Sato         |
| 1931 | Takao Kuwabara    |
| 1932 | Ryosuke Nunoi     |
| 1933 | Hideo Nishimura   |
| 1934 | Jiro Yamagishi    |
| 1935 | Jiro Yamagishi    |
| 1936 | Jiro Yamagishi    |
| 1937 | Cram (German)     |

## Swimming

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

1938

1. Mrs. Naoko Matsudaira-Miss Hisa Yamagishi (Kwanto)
2. Miss Toyo Kizen-Miss Miyoko Takeda (Kwansai)
3. Mrs. Keiko Asanaga-Miss Michiko Harada (Kwanto)
4. Miss Kimi Sasakura-Miss Michi Harada (Kwanto)
5. Miss Toki Funahashi-Miss Shizu Seto (Tokai)

## Doubles : semi-finals

Yamagishi and Murakami (Keio) beat Abe and Kawachi (Waseda), 6-3, 2-6, 7-5, 3-6, 6-4.

Cram and Henkel (German) beat Uehara and Horikoshi (Kwansai), 6-3, 6-1, 6-3.

Cram and Henkel beat Yamagishi and Murakami, 8-10, 6-2, 11-13, 6-2, 6-4.

The following list shows the winners in the annual National Tennis Championship tournament which takes place either in Tokyo or Osaka in November every year :

## Doubles

- |  |
|--|
| Tamio Abe and Ryuzo Kawazuma             |
| Tamio Abe and Ryuzo Kawazuma             |
| Iwao Aoki and Taku Ukegawa               |
| Tamio Abe and Kyo Kawajiri               |
| Hisataka Aizawa and Kengo Asoo           |
| Tamio Abe and Masanosuke Fukuda          |
| Seiichi Yamagishi and Hikoshichi Shimura |
| Ichiya Kumagai and Takechi Harada        |
| Seiichi Yamagishi and Hikoshichi Shimura |
| Seiichi Yamagishi and Yasuo Murakami     |
| Jiro Sato and Minoru Kawaji              |
| Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi       |
| Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi       |
| Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi       |
| Jiro Yamagishi and Reizo Murakami        |
| Cram and Henkel (German)                 |

a practical necessity than a healthful diversion.

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

As a partial explanation of the swimming ability of the Japanese, it is said that the race is particularly fitted for prowess in swimming. A modern physician once said that the Japanese show better development than other peoples

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

The second Japan-American dual swimming meet was held on August 17, 18 and 19, 1935, at the Meiji Shrine pool, Tokyo, ending in the former's victory by a close score of 36 points to 27. Climaxing three days of thrilling competition which held capacity crowds spellbound during the meet, the Japanese aces proved their supremacy and marked themselves as foremost contenders for the Olympic water crown at Berlin next summer.

The meet was close throughout. Before the final day, the score stood 22 to 20 in favour of Japan. All predictions pointed to the final relay as the deciding event. But in the 200-metre back stroke, Taylor Drysdale of the United States who finished first, was disqualified for what the judges considered an illegal turn at the 100-metre mark, giving Eiichi Yoshida of Japan first place and the meet to Japan before the concluding event. Japan won seven events out of 12 held. Two world and three Japanese records were bettered during the meet.

Winners were:

200-metre breast stroke: Reizo Koike (Japan), 2:42.6 minutes (new Japanese record).

200-metre free style: Masanori Yusa (Japan), 2:13.2.

1,500-metre free style: Sunao Ishiharada (Japan), 19:12.0.

300-metre medley relay: American team (Drysdale, Kasley and Fick), 3:20.2.

100-metre back stroke: Taylor Drysdale (U. S.), 1:10.2.

100-metre breast stroke: Reizo Koike (Japan), 1:13.6 (new Japanese record).

400-metre freestyle: Jack Medica (U. S.), 4:45.2 (new world record).

400-metre relay: American team (Chrostowski, Lindegren, Wolf and Fick), 3:53.8.

800-metre free style: Hiroshi Negami (Japan), 10:02.4.

100-metre free style: Peter Fick (U. S.), 57.2.

200-metre back stroke: Kiichi Yoshida (Japan), 2:35.6 (new Japanese record).

800-metre relay: Japanese team (Yusa, Ishiharada, Makino and Negami), 8:52.2 (new world record).

Points scored:

Japan		U.S.
5	200-metre breast stroke	1
3	200-metre free style	3
6	1,500-metre free style	0
0	300-metre medley relay	3
1	100-metre back stroke	5
4	100-metre breast stroke	2
3	400-metre free style	7
0	400-metre relay	3
4	800-metre free style	2
3	100-metre free style	3
4	200-metre back stroke	2
3	800-metre relay	0
36		27

Members of the American team were: Coach, Robert Kiphuth; Jack Higgins, Russell Branch and Matt Chrostowski of the Olneyville Boys Club, Providence, Rhode Island; Peter Fick of the New York Athletic Club; Paul Wolf and Art Lindegren of the Los Angeles Athletic Club; Dan Zehr of Northwestern University, Illinois; Jack Kesley, of Michigan; John MacLons of Yale University; Jack Medica of the Washington Athletic Club; Ralph Flanagan of the Greater Miami Athletic Club; and James Gilhula, Taylor Drysdale, Ray Kaye of the Detroit Athletic Club.

The 1937 national swimming championship was held on August 14-16 at the Meiji Shrine pool, Tokyo, 5 American champions taking part.

Winners were:

#### Men's Events

100-metre free style, Shigeo Arai (Rikkyo U.), 58.4 seconds.

200-metre free style, Shigeo Arai, 2:13.2 minutes.

400-metre free style, Masao Makino, 4:50.8 minutes.

1,500-metre free style, Hiroshi Takahashi, 19:37.8 minutes.

100-metre back stroke, Keler (U.S.), 1:07 minutes.

200-metre breast stroke, Tetsuo Hamuro (Nihon U.), 2:40.4 minutes.

Spring board diving, Rute (U.S.), 151.01 points.

High diving, Rute (U.S.), 109.50 points.

#### Women's Events

100-metre free style, Miss Min Rolls (U.S.), 1:09.8 minutes.

200-metre free style, Miss Tsuné Yoshida, 2:52.6 minutes.

400-metre free style, Miss Yuriko Miki, 6:0.6 minutes.

100-metre back stroke, Miss Rolls (U.S.), 1:24.2 minutes.

200-metre breast stroke, Miss Unoko

Tsuboi, 3:16.0 minutes.

Spring board diving, Miss-Rolls (U.S.), 167.07 points.

High diving, Miss Masayo Osawa, 36.15 points.

#### Wrestling (Sumo)

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

Until late in the Meiji Era (1868-1912), Japan had two major wrestling organizations, one in Tokyo and the other in Osaka, but later they merged into one organization. At the end of 1931, however, the Japan Wrestling Association had internal trouble. To be more precise, many wrestlers became dissatisfied with the traditional system of distribution of profits because the retired wrestlers, who acted as officials of the association, took the major part, virtually disregarding the wrestlers on the active list. The trouble divided the wrestlers into three separate groups. In addition to the one which remains in the association, there were the Shinko and Kakushin groups. The latter two groups adopted new rules for wrestling. Of the two the Kakushin group headed by Tenryu and located in Osaka has survived outside of the traditional group in Tokyo.

The semi-annual tournaments of the Japan Wrestling Association are held at the Kokugi-kan amphitheatre at Ryogoku, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 11 days. The wrestlers are all professionals, and the majority of them have unusually well-developed bodies. Victory in a typical Japanese wrestling match is a mat-

ter of a minute or two. Very often it is a matter of a few seconds. The wrestler who forces his opponent to fall or even let any part of the body above the knee touch the ground or to jump out of the ring is declared by the umpire to be the winner. It is said that there are 48 different ways of defeating an opponent. Wrestling is also practised widely in schools, as are jujitsu and fencing.

The list of principal sumo wrestlers, in May, 1938, follows:

In the order of seniority in the East camp, Futabayama (Yokozuna or Grand Champion); Maedayama (Ozeki, or Champion); Banjaku (Sekiwake, or Champion No. 2).

In the order of seniority in the West camp, Tamanishiki (Yokozuna, or Grand Champion); Kagamiwa (Ozeki, or Champion); Nayoriwa (Sekiwake, or Champion No. 3).

The winner was Futabayama.

#### Jujitsu (Judo)

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

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

At present jujitsu is practised in all middle schools and other higher schools in Japan for its value in physical and mental culture. Many schools have teams, and as with baseball and tennis these teams have seasonal clashes. Private clubs and training halls are found in all cities of Japan. Experts receive degrees from the Kodokan.

The list of Japan's outstanding jujitsu experts of the Kodokan includes Nagaoaka and Isogai, both holders of Kudan, the highest rank Itzuka, Samura, Tabata and Mifuné, all holders of hachidan, a rank next to the highest.

#### Kendo (Japanese Fencing)

Together with Judo, the study of Kendo was carried on among the Samurai and several hundred forms of fencing were propagated throughout the country. At the present time, there are about 30,000 people who are taking up this sport, if we include those in the middle schools, colleges, universities, and in private life. This sport is to hold the sword with both hands and to strike the face, forearm, or torso of the adversary.

#### Boxing

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

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

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

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

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

The second national boxing championship tournament was held for eight days, beginning December 20, 1935, under the joint auspices of the Japan Professional Boxing Federation and the Tokyo Nichi-Nichi Shimbun. The final bouts were staged at the Kokugikan wrestling bowl, Ryogoku, on January 6, 1936, resulting in only two champions defending their title successfully.

More than 150 boxers, mostly from Tokyo, Nagoya, Kobe, Osaka and Seoul, took part. The championships were contested in five different divisions—flyweight, bantamweight, lightweight and welterweight. The participants were divided into two classes, A and B. 30 leading fighters who appeared as favourites for championship honours were seeded in A class, and all others were included in B class. The New York Commission rules were applied to the tournament.

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

Flyweight: Yoichiro Hanada (Imperial Club) defeated Isamu Ito (Imperial Club) on points.

Bantamweight: Umio Gen (Imperial Club) defeated Shoichi Otsu (Kyokuto Club) on points.

Featherweight: Sanekatsu Kolke (Dai-Nippon) Knocked out Goro Takatsu (Olympic Club) in the ninth round.

Lightweight: Jihiro Mitsuyama (Imperial) won a technical Knockout over Kotaro Suzuki (Imperial), in the seventh.

Welterweight: Yoshio Natori (Tokyo) defeated Riechi Sato (Toho) on points.

Challenge bouts for three championships, flyweight, bantamweight and featherweight, over 12 rounds each, were

held on September 14, 1936, and March 7, 1937, in Tokyo, and were resulted as follows:

Bantamweight—Shoichi Otsu (Kyokuto Club), 116 pounds, challenger, captured the title by outpointing Umio Gen (Imperial Club), 118 pounds, the champion.

Flyweight—Handa (Imperial Club), 111 pounds, defended his title by winning a decision over Hajime Sakamoto (Tokyo Club), 108 pounds.

Featherweight—Umio Gen (Imperial Club), 124 pounds, won the title by outpointing the defender Sanekatsu Kolke (Dai-Nippon Club), 126 pounds.

The final tryout to select five members of the Japanese Olympic boxing team was held on April 8 at the Hibiya Public Hall participated by those who were qualified in the four districts eliminations, Kwanto, Kwansai, Chubu and Korea.

Winners were:

Flyweight: Chiyondo Nakano (Senshu U., Kwanto) defeated Teichu Kin (Korea) on points.

Bantamweight: Shumpel Hashioka (Kwanto) defeated Hikomasa Tajima (Kwansai) on points.

Featherweight: Sajiro Miyama (Chubu) defeated Katsuo Kameoka (Kwanto) on points.

Lightweight: Eikichi Nagamatsu (Meiji U., Kwanto) defeated Ryutoku Sai (Korea) on points.

Welterweight: Keikan Ri (Korea) knocked out Yasuo Nakada (Kwansai) in the second round.

The 10th national amateurs boxing

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

Waseda won the championship.

The deciding match for the national collegiate title between Waseda, the Kwanto champion, and Doshisha, winner of the Kwansai League, ended in a victory of the former by a close score of 9 points to 8. Waseda scored three tries while Doshisha made one try and a goal. The match was played at the Hanazono stadium, Kyoto, on January 4, 1937.

The 1938 season was fortunate with

championship tournament was held at the Koshien special ring for two days, beginning November 27, 1937, under the auspices of the Japan Amateurs Boxing Federation.

Results of the final round were as follows:

Flyweight: Daijro Hamaguchi (Kwansai) defeated Ōkei Kō (Kwanto) on judgement.

Bantamweight: Meishaku Kin (Corea) defeated Jiro Sai (Kwanto) on judgement.

Featherweight: Nobuo Inada (Kwansai) defeated Jinyo Kō (Kwanto) on judgement.

Lightweight: Ryutoku Sai (Kwanto) defeated Shunzei Bun (Corea) on judgement.

Welterweight: Yushin Sayama (Kwansai) defeated Kyokan Kin (Kwanto) on judgement.

Middleweight: Noritada Amano (Kwanto) won a knockout over Eifuku Kin (Corea).

#### Football

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

Results of the Tōto Inter-Varsity Rugby League, 1937 were as follows:

the visit of the New Zealand universities team which gave excellent performance both in Osaka and Tokyo, winning six matches and drawing one. This was the first time the Japanese college team met such a strong team as New Zealanders and learned much of tactics and kicking. Their matches were witnessed by a large crowd everywhere they played, averaging 10,000 spectators.

The results of the matches were: Jan. 26, won over the All-Kwansai, 31 points to 3; Jan. 30, won over Keio, 23 to 6; Feb. 2, won over Meiji, 13 to 11; Feb. 6, won over Waseda, 22 to 17; Feb. 9, won over the Japanese all-star students, 16 to 9; Feb. 11, won over the All-Kwansai students, 23 to 8; and Feb. 16, drew with the Japanese all-star students, 9 to 9.

Members of the team:

Mr. P. Martin-Smith, manager and coach; G. A. Parsons (captain), R. G. Bush, G. G. Rae, C. C. Gillies, E. Grant, F. J. Wilson, W. R. Laney, H. R. C. Wilde, H. H. Fookes, J. D. Lewis, D. O. Hudson, R. J. Thomas, W. Tricklebank, J. M. Watt, S. G. Eade, O. W. Chapman, J. P. McVeagh, J. J. Mc-

Auliffe, B. U. A. Jones, R. B. Burke, S. W. Simmers, L. S. Drake, I. O. Stance and E. K. Chesterman.

The team arrived in Kobe on January 23, 1936, at the invitation of the Japan Rugby Football Union and left for home on February 17, sailing from Nagasaki on the Kitano Maru.

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

The Tokyo Collegiate Soccer League, formed in 1923, now boasts of 33 members which are divided into six divisions. Results of the first class matches of the League in 1937 were as follows:

	Keio	Imperial	Waseda	Meiji	Bunri	T. Com.	Won	Draw
Keio	x	0	1	0	0	0	4	1
Imperial	1	x	0	0	2	0	3	1
Waseda	2	2	x	0	0	0	3	0
Meiji	2	2	2	x	0	0	2	0
Bunri	2	0	2	2	x	0	2	0
Tokyo Commerce	2	2	2	2	2	x	0	0
Lost	0	1	2	3	3	5		

Waseda won the pennant.

#### Rowing

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

Prior to its participation in the Berlin Olympic regatta, the Japanese Olympic crew, Tokyo Imperial University eight, caused a sensation in England when it defeated the Thames Rowing Club by a length and half in the finals

of the Marlow Grand Challenge Cup race, held on the 1,540-yard course on River Thames on June 20, 1936. The Japanese crew's winning time was 4 minutes 9 seconds, a new course record. It eliminated the Cambridge Varsity crew by three-quarters of a length in the semi-finals on the same day. It was the first rowing victory by Japanese oarsmen abroad.

Later, the Tokyo Imperial University crew took part in the Henley Regatta, started on July 1, and lost to the Zurich crew in the semi-finals on July 3. The Japanese eight lose to Zurich by 6 lengths. Members of the Tokyo Imperial crew were:

Position	Names	Age	Height	Weight
Cox	Tadashi Kirishima	23	5.1 feet	96 pounds
Stroke	Tadashi Negishi	23	5.6	129
7	Katsu Kashiwabara	21	5.6	137
6	Mondo Sekigawa	22	5.9	160
5	Isamu Mita	22	5.9	140
4	Osamu Kitamura	23	5.6	143
3	Haruyoshi Nakagawa	23	5.7	143
2	Takeo Hori	22	5.6	132
Bow	Yoshiteru Suzuki	24	5.5	130
	Average height		5.6 feet	
	Average weight		134 pounds	
	Coach		Mr. Shuhel Seta	

The national eight-oared championship meet (2,000 metres) was held on the Ogu course on the River Ara, near Tokyo, on September 23, 1937, the Waseda University, the Tokyo Imperial University and the Doshisha Commercial College crews taking part. The Tokyo Imperial University team in 5 minutes 50.2 seconds won the championship, beating the Waseda University eight by one length.

The winners in this annual championship meet follow.

1933	Tokyo Imperial University
1934	Keio University
1935	Waseda University
1936	Tokyo University of Commerce
1937	Tokyo Imperial University

#### Horsemanship

Japan's horsemanship won international recognition at the Tenth Olympiad at Los Angeles when Lieutenant Baron Takeichi Nishi, of the Japanese Army, won the Prix des Nations and had the flag of the Rising Sun hoisted. Horsemanship was widely practised by the warriors of the feudal period as a military art. The Japanese army attaches importance to horsemanship and takes great pains in training officers and men. Horsemanship is also gaining popularity among college students and even women. There are at present about 15 clubs in large cities, and many universities and colleges have their own riding societies. Horse racing regained popularity with the use of pari-mutual tickets under strict restrictions in 1923. The Government encourages racing by granting aids. There are more than a score of race clubs throughout the country, most of the races being held semi-annually, that is in the spring and autumn.

#### Golf

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

Name	System	Number of Courses	Prefecture
Tama	Club	18	Tokyo
Komazawa	Public	18	"
Akabané	Club	9	"
Fujigawa	"	10	Chiba
Mutsumi	"	10	"

Name	System	Number of Courses	Prefecture
Abiko	Club	18	"
Kashiwa	Public	9	"
Takanodal	Club	18	"
Sagami	"	18	Kanagawa
Fujisawa	"	18	"
Fujisawa	"	18	"
Merry Golf	Club(ladies)	9	"
Hodogaya	Club	18	"
Sengoku-hara	Public	9	"
Asaka	Club	18	Saitama
Kasumigaseki	"	38	"
Kawaguchi	Public	9	"
Kawana	"	18	Shizuoka
Ohsima course	"	18	"
Fuji course	Club	18	"
Karuzawa	"	18	Nagano
"	Public	9	"
Ibaragi	Club	18	Osaka
Inagawa	"	18	"
Hirono	Semi-public	18	Hyogo
Takarazuka	Club	18	"
Beppu	Semi-public	9	Oita
Unzen	"	18	Nagasaki
Nagoya	Club	18	Aichi
Zenibako	Club	9	Hokkaido
Hakodaté	"	6	"
Tsukisappu	"	9	"
Doyako	Public	6	"
Asahigawa	Club	6	"
Muroran	"	6	"

The following list shows the winners in the annual National Open Golf Championship tournament:

1927	Rokuro Akaboshi
1928	Rokuzo Asami
1929	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1930	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1931	Rokuzo Asami
1932	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1933	Kamekichi Nakamura
1934	Abandoned by storm
1935	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1936	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1937	Seisui Chin

#### National Amateur Championship tournament

1921	Zenzaburo Tanaka
1922	Komei Otani
1923	Abandoned by the great earthquake
1924	Hajime Kawasaki
1925	Hajime Kawasaki
1926	Shiro Akaboshi
1927	Shunkichi Nomura
1928	Shiro Akaboshi
1929	Brown

1930	Rokuro Akaboshi
1931	Kyoichi Nitta
1932	Kihei Narimiya
1933	Naoyasu Nabeshima
1934	Naoyasu Nabeshima
1935	Naoyasu Nabeshima
1936	Giichi Sato
1937	Giichi Sato

#### National Professional Championship tournament

1932	Montess
1933	Montess
1934	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1935	Toichiro Toda
(National professional)	
1936	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1937	Iwakichi Ueno

Ueno beat Seisui Chin on the Takanodai course on September 13.

#### Skiing and Skating

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

Skating is an older game than skiing in this country. As a sport for the general public, an exhibition was first given about 1907 on Lake Suwa, in Nagano prefecture. The All-Japan Skating Championship Meet for speed skating, figure skating and ice hockey is held there yearly. At Nikko, a rink of tremendous size was laid in the winter of 1932 to permit the public to enjoy the pastime. In 1934, Japan invited Miss Bruger, the figure skater and the Canadian Ice Hockey Team. She sent 11 skiers, 7 speed skaters, 3 figure skaters, 15 ice hockey players, and 13 officials who all participated actively in the 11th Olympiad at Garmisch. A list of important ski grounds follows:

Name	Prefecture
(Joetsu line)	
Akagiyama	Gumma
Iwano-hara	"
Mizukami	"
Uzawa-onsen	Niigata
Ojiya	"
Doai	"

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

#### ALPINE SKI GROUND

Shirouma	Nagano
Norikura	"
Kamikochi	"

Most of ski grounds have chance, and such grounds as have complete equipments are as follows:

Akagi, Sankakuyama, Nozawa, Iiyama, Numajiri and Toyohara

The 16th national skiing championship meet, (held on February 8-13, 1938);

Distance: Saburo Takada, 1h, 41m. 58s.  
Jumping: Sakata (47, 47)

The 9th national skating championship meet, (held in January, 1938);

Speed: Ryushin Sai, 45.9s.

Miss Yaeko Ejima, 53.9s.

Ice hockey: Waseda

Figure: Toshichi Katayama (319.96)

Miss Etsuko Inada (342.820)

#### Other Sports

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

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

Results of the games were:

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

Members of the American team were:

William Pierce (U.S.C.), Richard Linticum (University of California), Donald Piper (U.C.), George Brotlemarkle (U.C.), Kenneth Fagners (Oregon State College), George Curtner (University of Pittsburgh), Duane Swanson (University of Iowa) and Victor Larkin (U.C.).

The winners in 1938 of the annual national championship games were Fusesi Semmon team (men's seat) and Post Office Insurance team (women's seat).

**Volley-ball** This sport came to Japan with basketball and is now quite popular among school girls. National championship games are held annually. The championships of 1937 were as follows:

#### Men's Events

Middle school	Hiroshima Daini
In general	Kwansai Gakuin

#### Women's Events

Girl's high school	Hiroshima municipal
In general	Amagasaki works of Nippon Boseki

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

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

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

Tokyo Intercollegiate American Football Conference.

1935	Meiji
1936	Waseda
1937	Waseda

Waseda and Meiji tied for first place with three wins and one defeat, and the former defeated Meiji in the pennant deciding game by 7 to 0.

Twenty selected players from the Conference, toured Hawaii and the United States for a short period in December, 1936, and January, 1937. They played only two games and resulted as follows:

Southern California all-star high school squad beat the Japanese team by 19 to 6.

Japanese team drew with the Roosevelt High School of Honolulu, 0-0.

**Wrestling** Wrestling in Japan has not shown sufficient progress but this country has sent representatives to both the Olympiad in Paris and Los Angeles and they have left excellent records. In 1934,



with the establishment of the Japan Amateur Wrestling Association, this sport has been taken up by many universities and Japan sent 2 wrestlers in the bantam weight, 3 in the feather weight, 2 in the light weight, 1 in the welter weight, and one substitute each for the bantam and the welter weight respectively to the 12th Olympiad in Berlin. The championships of 1937 were as follows: Bantamweight Kuroda (Waseda), Featherweight Oka

(Meiji), Lightweight Kin (Meiji), Welterweight Kazama (Waseda), Middleweight Hatakeyama (Senshū).

**Fencing** This sport is still in the elementary stage in Japan. With Hosei University taking the lead, teams have been formed in other universities and women fencers are increasing in number. The first national fencing championship was won by Shindō (Hōsei) on November 14, 1937.

## CHAPTER XXXVII

### AMUSEMENTS AND CALENDAR OF ANNUAL EVENTS

#### Amusements

##### The Drama

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

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

For centuries the dance remained, as in other countries, a religious rite, being performed in Shinto shrines by virgins. With the incoming of Chinese culture Chinese music came into favour and was introduced into the Imperial Court. At the time of the establishment of the first Shogunate, that at Kamakura in the 13th century, the Buddhist semi-dances and semi-drama made a great appeal to the warrior class, and from them was evolved the "no" drama, in which both actor and playwright are subservient to interpretation. The No is a combination of music, posturing and dialogue, severely bound by conventions, with but little action, appealing to the ear and intellect rather than to the eye. The No found warm patronage among the warriors and feudal lords, continuing to hold its own with them until the Meiji Restoration, when it was identified with the then unpopular Shogunate and

suffered a decline which has only recently been mitigated.

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

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

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

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

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their status immeasurably.

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

The *kabuki* is found to embrace four general classifications: historical dramas, plays of everyday life, fantastic, imaginative improvisations, and music-posture plays or dances. It is often difficult, however, to assign any particular drama to one of these four classifications, for the play with historical characters may also be a play dealing with their very human emotions.

**The Technique** The drama is primarily a picture for the eye, although dialogue is carried on and an orchestra-chorus seated on the stage plays very much the same rôle as was played by the chorus in classical Greek drama, aiding the action with explanations to the audience. The life and thought, costumes and manners of all classes of feudal society are well illustrated on the *kabuki* stage, while skilful colour combinations in costumes, stage architecture and furniture tend to carry the spectators into a land of imagination and romance. In dramatic ability it takes rank with that of any country. In stage settings and mechanics it has much to teach the rest of the world. Its gorgeousness of costuming and pageantry finds no equal. One of the features of the Japanese theatre is the *hana michi*, or flowery way, which usually consists of two long narrow platforms on the same level which stretch through the audience from the stage to the rear of the auditorium. They are chosen by the actors for their best entrances and exists and are extremely effective when processions are used.

**The Kabuki Actors** The profession of *kabuki* actors is in most cases hereditary. Sons of actors succeed their fathers in the profession, and actors without sons usually adopt the sons of other actors or their best disciples and give them the stage names of their families. Kikugoro Onoyé, one of the most accomplished actors, is the sixth Kikugoro

Onoyé, while the late Danjuro Ichikawa represented the ninth generation of the Ichikawa family. *Kabuki* actors are trained from childhood and because of the difficult conventions to which they must conform few men can become actors after the age of 20.

In *kabuki* proper, all rôles are taken by men. The *onnagata*, or woman impersonators, devote years of study to femininity, and in most cases they are more consistently feminine than women.

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

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

On the business side, *kabuki* is controlled entirely by a single commercial organization, the Shochiku Theatrical Company. This company not only has all the first-class actors under contract but owns or leases all of the principal playhouses throughout the country. The largest and most famous theatre is the *Kabuki Theatre*, commonly known as the *Kabuki-za*, situated back of the Ginza, Tokyo. Other well-known theatres in the capital are the *Tokyo Theatre*, *Meiji-za*, *Shin Kabuki-za* and *Shimbashi Embujo*. The *Imperial Theatre*, which once earned fame as a modern playhouse, has been converted into a cinema house. Osaka has the *Naka-za* and *Naniwa-za*, where *kabuki* programmes are given practically throughout the year. The theatres change programmes once a month, and very sel-

dom, if ever, are long runs given, no matter how popular a particular programme may prove, although the pieces which prove popular are repeated from time to time as long as they hold public interest.

**The Typical Programme** A typical *kabuki* programme has three to five offerings of different types and lasts six hours, beginning at 4 o'clock in the afternoon and ending at 10 o'clock. The majority of the spectators take dinner in restaurants in the theatre during intervals. Tickets cost from 50 sen to as much as ¥7 or ¥8 a seat. All the playhouses are of Western style, at least inside, with chairs provided. Seats may be reserved 10 days in advance.

It is wrong to assume that Japanese actors specialize in producing classics alone. From time to time they insert modern plays between those of bygone generations on the programmes. In the past they have even staged plays from Shakespeare with marked success. Some actors specialize in modern plays, such as Masao Inouyô, Takéo Kawai, Rokuro Kitamura and they appear with actresses, such as Yaeko Mizutani, as the latter are essential for the realistic type of plays, plays which are true to life and without the incongruity and exaggeration which characterize the *kabuki*.

A "little theatre" movement in Japan was started about 15 years ago, led by the late Kaoru Osanai, prominent dramatist and stage director. The group which performed at the Tsukiji Little Theatre, Tokyo, produced hundreds of Western plays in Japanese translation, but their performances aroused the interest of only a limited section of the intellectuals. The unexpected death of Mr. Osanai and the business depression that followed dealt a crushing blow to the movement and the company split up into small and unimportant groups.

**The Revue** The revue, a product of the West, is quite in vogue at present in Japan. Imported only a few years ago, it appealed to modern-minded youth, and several revue organizations sprang up. The largest troupe is that of the Shochiku Theatrical Company, with several hundred girls. Another influential organization is the Takarazuka Girls' Opera Troupe, with headquarters at Takarazuka, a hot-spring resort between Osaka and Kobe. It enjoys the distinction of being the oldest in Japan, having been organized nearly two decades ago. The performances of the latter group include operas and revues and are generally more refined than those of the Shochiku Troupe, and they

find warm patronage among young girls. Costumes and scenery in the revues are both Japanese and foreign. The Shochiku group gives occasional performances in Tokyo and Osaka, and the Takarazuka organization set up a new Tokyo Takarazuka Theatre in 1933 at Hibiya, Tokyo.

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

#### No Drama

The *No* drama was as aristocratic as the *kabuki* drama was plebeian, and even now its performance and enjoyment are practically restricted to the upper classes. There are very few theatres or private houses, if any, where strangers are allowed to view *No* upon payment of admission. Most *No* enthusiasts form clubs, and members and their friends see the productions. In feudal Japan, the *No* was the principal form of entertainment among the aristocrats and the warrior class. It was often given in the presence of the Emperor, and at one time it was the custom to invite the common people to performances given in commemoration of some happy event by the Tokugawa Shoguns, who used the *No* on all ceremonial occasions.

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

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

The No pieces, numbering more than 250, are repeated over and over again, but the interest of the spectators apparently never wanes. The pieces are classified into five groups for convenience: (1) "wakino", which generally deal with Shinto or Buddhist deities; (2) "shuramono", which commonly deal with ghosts of warriors; (3) "kazuramono", with noble ladies acting the main parts; (4) "genzaimono", or present-day pieces, dealing with various manifestations of human nature; (5) pieces dealing with demons or goblins as subjects, or those of congratulatory nature with gay and joyous elements.

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

**The Construction.** The construction of the No piece is by no means uniform, but very often it is as follows: A "waki," who plays the secondary rôle, generally a monk or a Minister of State, first appears and tells who he is. Then he walks about the stage a while, singing, to suggest that he is travelling. Coming to a standstill, he announces his arrival at a certain famous spot and takes his place by the post at the front righthand corner facing the stage. Then the "mayé jité" (shité), the principal character in the first appearance, comes in the form of a farmer, fisherman or priest, describing the scenery of the place and telling of heroes connected with it, or relating the origin of the temple or shrine as the case may require, thus furnishing the audience with a necessary background to the play. The "mayé jité" then suddenly retires from view. He was in reality a Shinto or Buddhist deity, or the ghost of a warrior, in disguise. While the "waki" is startled by this sudden dis-

appearance, there come on the stage common farmers or wood-choppers who give in plain language, spoken more or less in the ordinary way, all detailed information concerning the place, generally reiterating what has already been chanted or intoned by the "mayé jité," and then retire. This allows necessary time for the principal character to change for his reappearance. While waiting, the "waki sings," indicating a lapse of time. The song ended, the "nochi jité," the principal character in the latter appearance, in proper form and attire as a Shinto or Buddhist deity or the spirit of a hero, comes to the stage and dances as though wandering at night, revealing some spiritual attributes. In words and in action he recounts his bravery, his death struggle, or his suffering in the underworld, asking for the prayer of the "waki" for the peaceful repose of his soul. The "shité" tells his story as he performs, or he merely dances without any chanting. Generally there is a chorus who intone some verses either alone or with the performers. In the No drama, the action is symbolic, stately and ennobling.

Generally several persons sitting on the side extension sing either in chorus, by themselves, or together with the performer. On the rear extension there are usually four musicians who play on the "fue" or flute, the tsuzumi, which is a small drum struck with the tips of the fingers and resting on the shoulder, the ohkawa, a slightly larger drum struck on the knee also with the tips of the fingers, and the drum beaten with two sticks.

The accessories used on the stage in connection with the play are very simple. A fan is much in evidence in the dance, the studied use of which is very effective with the manipulation of the dancer's big sleeves. The costumes used in the No are marvels of textile fabrics, refined taste being revealed in bold yet harmonious designs and colours. Above all, the mask to be worn by the principal character and the assistant is a very important part of the No performance. There have been great masters among carvers of No masks in his feudal Japan many of whose works still remain.

**Six Schools.** Ever since the great reformation at the beginning of the 15th century, the No has had four main acknowledged schools or houses: Kwanze, Komparu, Hoshō and Kongo, all of which are still thriving. Later, another school, Kita, won official recognition, while still another, Umewaka, also has

many followers, the variation practiced by each school being but slight. On the whole, the No performance may well be compared to a masterful Oriental picture in monochrome, both being guided by highly idealistic aims and artistic aspirations with many points in common, possessing alike great impelling qualities that thrill the devotee but sometimes weary the uninitiated.

#### The Doll Theatre and Joruri

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

The "joruri (Gidayu)", a dramatic recitation, is not only inseparable from the doll show, but enhances its effect. The joruri reciter usually sits on a raised platform at the right corner of the stage and there sings and recites to the accompaniment of the samisen, the player of which sits beside him. Not seldom several reciters and samisen players perform in unison, the reciters speaking their lines for the dolls. Both manipulators and singers are trained from childhood. The joruri recital often accompanies the kabuki performance. The joruri or Gidayu is also sometimes recited independently of the doll show or the kabuki.

#### Yosé, or Story-Telling

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

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

more expensive seats.

The majority of the story-tellers, who are called hanashika, specialize in comic monologue. Those who specialize in stories of heroism and adventure are called koshakushi, or romance readers, and regarded as of a different class. The hanashika use a lot of punning, irony and sarcasm, and each story has a twist at the end. Translated into English, their talk loses almost all meaning, for it is the manner of telling that is important.

#### Cha-no-Yu

Japanese people drink tea during and after each meal and it is customary to serve a cup of tea to callers at any time of the day. Cha-no-yu or tea-ceremony is, however, a peculiarly artistic way of serving tea as an entertainment for guests according to strictly-formulated rules of etiquette. A fine powder of choice green tea is used for it. The powdered tea is put in a bowl much larger than an ordinary tea cup and hot water is poured over it, and the mixture is beaten by means of a bamboo whisk. A party of guests are invited to enjoy this drink. They assemble in the "yoritsuki," a special waiting room for the tea party. The host appears and conducts them to the tea-room. They walk along a garden path to the tea-room, which is about 20 feet away. At a basin filled with fresh water they wash their hands before entering the tea-room. This is usually four and a half mats in area, about three metres square, and is provided with a stationary hearth or portable firebrazier for the kettle. The entrance to the tea-room is so small that the guests have to stoop to enter.

On entering the room each guest kneels in front of the tokonoma or alcove, and admires the kakémono or hanging picture or inscription on the wall of the alcove, and the tiny incense-holder on a side shelf. Then a meal is served as soon as the guests are properly seated. It is called "kaiséki" and is of the simplest dishes. The host waits on them himself not eating with the guests. After the "kaiséki" sweets are served, the first part of the ceremony is concluded.

Then at the host's suggestion the guests retire to the waiting-room or to another place where a bench is provided. A gong announces that the host is ready to serve the tea above mentioned. The formality of purification at the basin is repeated and the guests enter the room. The hanging scroll is gone and a flower arranged in a

vase is in the alcove. The receptacles for fresh water and the tea-caddy are placed in position before the host enters with the tea-bowl. The tea-whisk, tea-cloth and teaspoon are also brought in. The host retires once more to the adjoining room but soon reappears, this time with the receptacle for waste water, the dipper and a stand for the cover of the kettle or the dipper. All these articles are valued treasures which the host is proud of, and the guests are supposed to pass compliments on them in a proper way.

The host puts three spoonfuls of powdered tea in the bowl, then he puts the dipper deep into the kettle and takes it out brimful of hot water. About one-third of the hot water is poured over the tea-powder in the bowl, two-thirds being returned to the kettle. The mixture is vigorously stirred or beaten with the bamboo whisk until it becomes frothy. The host places the bowl of tea thus prepared in front of the principal guest. The guest makes a bow to his fellow-guest and puts the bowl on the palm of his left hand. Supporting one side of the bowl with the right hand he takes one sip, complimenting the host on the excellent flavour, right consistency and so on. After he has taken two or more sips the bowl is passed on to the second guest, thence to the third, and so on until all have partaken. When the bowl comes to the last one, he takes it to the principal guest who then returns it to the host. Then the chief articles of cha-no-yu, the bowl, caddy and spoon, are inspected and their workmanship admired by the guests, and when they are finally returned to the host in the prescribed fashion the cha-no-yu entertainment is over. When the party breaks up and the guests are gone the serious-minded host returns to the tea-room and sits alone in front of the kettle which is now his sole companion and listens to the sound of the boiling water. The whole procedure will take about four hours.

In Japan, tea had been used for centuries, the tea plant growing wild in the western islands. The earliest written record of tea drinking, which is called "Okugi-sho", tells of a tea-party given by the Emperor Shōmu in 729 A.D. to one hundred Buddhist monks. At that time an Imperial gift of tea was made, as a precious drug, to the monks. The use of tea as a common drink seems to have begun with the Age of the Emperor Kammu, when, in 805, the monk Saicho brought seeds of the tea-plant back from China, where

he had spent some years in the study of Buddhism; and the cultivation of tea-plants gradually spread over the provinces west of Shizuoka.

Cha-no-yu or tea-ceremony began with Shukō in 1483. In the north-eastern end of Kyoto there is the famous villa where Yoshimasa, 8th Shogun of the Ashikaga line, indulged in æsthetic pursuits. The historic tea-room built as specified by Shukō, father of the tea ceremony, is still preserved in sound condition in the villa which is called Ginkakuji, better known to foreign tourists as the Silver Pavilion.

The principles of tea-ceremony taught by Shukō were more concretely set forth by Jōwō (1503-1555), and then his mantle fell on Sen-no-Soyōki (1521-1591) who is better known by his court name, Rikyū, granted through the influence of his patron Hidēyoshi Toyotomi. The formula and etiquette instituted by Rikyū still remain the basic practices as taught by the various schools of cha-no-yu that have sprung up since his death in 1591. Many utensils bearing the stamp of his genius have come down to the present day, and those who lay out tea-rooms and gardens still adhere to the canons left by him. There are many schools of tea-ceremony represented by various tea-masters, but one is little different from another in their essentials. Harmony prevails, therefore, when persons of different schools meet at a cha-no-yu party.

Cha-no-yu was a pastime for warlords, monks and courtiers, but now it is enjoyed by all classes of people and taught to young ladies in schools and by private tutors as one of the best means for training them in Japanese etiquette, because it enables them to cultivate poise, grace, tranquillity and urbanity, all qualities making for refinement in manners.

The power to find true beauty in simplicity and enjoy peace and satisfaction of mind in a life of small means may be considered a racial trait of the Japanese as it is seen in the Japanese cult of Shintoism. Social conditions in Japan in the 15th century and Buddhist philosophy, especially that of the Zen sect, which had been introduced from the neighbouring continental countries, prepared the Japanese mind for instituting such a ceremony as cha-no-yu in unison with this racial trait. The love of chaste and refined simplicity which is the keynote of the Japanese cult of ceremonial tea has exercised a wholesome influence upon architecture, pottery, and landscape gardening. Especially the ceramic art of Japan is great-

ly indebted to tea-masters and devotees for its high taste.

#### Flower Arrangement

Japanese flower arrangement is the art of arranging flowers and leaves in different kinds of vases so as to meet the requirements of Japanese taste in decorating their sitting rooms and parlours. The raison d'être of this Japanese floral art is the satisfaction of their instinctive love of nature by a scheme of decoration best fitted for Japanese interval architecture. The beginning and development of Japanese flower arrangement, therefore naturally corresponds to the history of Japanese architecture and way of living.

The Japanese style of architecture which had completely emerged from the Chinese influence in the 14th century, and the comparatively peaceful life of the people in the 14th century under the Ashikaga régime, prepared favourable conditions for the development of flower arrangement which played an important part in enriching the tasteful life of the upper classes of people such as Court nobles, warrior lords and monks.

The Ginkakuji Temple or Silver Pavilion, which was built in the latter half of the 15th century, in the outskirts of Kyoto, is said to have been the birthplace of Japanese flower arrangement as an art, as well as that of the tea ceremony. The Ashikaga Shogun Yoshimasa who lived at the Ginkakuji had several attendants, "chabōzu" or "tea-priests" who looked after the tea ceremony and flower arrangement for him. Among these attendants of Yoshimasa the one who was best versed in the art of flower arrangement was Sōami. One of the oldest documents on the floral art "Gojō Shikimoku" is attributed to his authorship, and it is most likely that the primitive flower arrangement which had been already in vogue took a definite shape with Sōami and schools of the art began to be established. After Sōami came Ikénobō priest of a temple called Rokkakudō, also located in Kyoto, who later so distinguished himself as priest and master of flower arrangement that he became the founder of the priesthood at Rokkakudō and the school of floral art, both bearing his name. The Ikénobō school of floral art has existed for more than four hundred years and is proud of having the longest tradition and probably the largest number of students throughout the country.

During the 17th century the Emperor Gomizunowo took great interest in the

floral art and courtiers, nobles and high officials gathered together at court for the study and occasional exhibitions of flower arrangement. A hall was provided in the court for the tea ceremony to which guests were invited and an exhibition of flowers arranged in vases by different hands was often held for them in a building which was temporarily built for that purpose in the palace garden. Such exhibitions of flower arrangement were held frequently during the following centuries.

There have developed many schools of flower arrangement in Japan during the past four centuries, but they may be roughly grouped into two; one is the "rikkyō" group which is more formal in style and the other is the "nagairō" group which is more natural. The former was in the past regarded as the orthodox style whereas the latter was considered heretic or auxiliary. But to-day both styles have equal standing among the students of the art, each having characteristic merits and uses of its own.

In Japan girls are taught the floral art in schools and under private tutors as one of the accomplishments for ladies and carefully keep their certificates of the art in the "tansu" or Japanese chest-of-drawers for keeping kimono, one of the indispensable pieces of furniture which they take to their new home at their wedding. Japanese ladies find occasions for escaping from their household duties and chatting with their friends in attending flower arrangement parties, for as a rule they rarely go out for picnics or to dances. Men, young and old, occasionally take up the study of the floral art, and though they are much fewer in number than the other sex they occupy the position of leadership in almost all schools of the art. It is no longer a monopoly of the aristocracy, and visitors to Japanese homes are charmed with the sight of flowers and leaves artificially yet most naturally arranged in vases put on the "tokonoma" or alcove shelves. On festival days passers-by are entertained by exhibitions of flowers most skilfully arranged and set in rows in the front rooms of houses facing the street. Modern department stores attract customers with special flower arrangement exhibitions.

#### The Cinema

Cinema theatres are to be found in all parts of Japan, both in cities or hamlets, accommodating from 400 to 3,000 persons. In 1934, there were 1,458 permanent cinema houses and 78,497

buted 1,233,908 sheets of enquiries to its subscribers all over Japan in 1932, out of which 358,039 answers came, and a résumé of the investigation was given out in April, 1934. In the questionnaire there was a column in which the listeners were requested to state what item or items of the programme they most liked and the answers given in percentage were as follows:

Item of Programme	Percentage of Listeners
News and reports	
General news	91.2
Time signal	77.5
Weather forecast	75.8
Radio gymnastics	48.0
Public announcements	42.3
Daily menus	31.0
Industrial news	30.8
Commodity prices	27.8
Stock-market news	23.2
Employment agency	11.0
New cocoon price	8.2
Exposition of current topics	29.4
Educational	
General and moral	28.1
Literature, arts, etc.	22.3
Physical education and hygiene	22.0
The home and women	20.7
Science	13.0
Foreign languages	9.9
Amusements	
Comic stories	57.6
Naniwa-bushi (mostly tragic stories)	57.5
Radio dramas	51.2
Movie picture dramas and stories	49.3
Samurai stories	48.0
Kabuki	43.4
Biwa (Story chanted with biwa music)	39.6
Gidayû	33.4
Foreign and Japanese music combined	33.4
Japanese harp, bamboo flute, and samisen	30.0
Nagauta (long chanting)	28.3
Modern Japanese music	24.4
Opera	24.2
Brass music	22.6
Orchestra	22.6

Name	Race Club	Location
Sapporo		Sapporo, Hokkaido
Hakodaté	" "	Suburb of Hakodaté, Hokkaido
Fukushima	" "	Fukushima City, Fukushima Prefecture
Niigata	" "	Niigata City, Niigata Prefecture
Nakayama	" "	Katsushika-machi, Chiba Prefecture

Item of Programme	Percentage of Listeners
Vocal solos	22.0
Short songs (utazawa and kouta)	22.0
Shinnai (a kind of jôruri)	20.2
Kiyomoto	19.0
Piano, violin solos and duets	18.7
Tokiwazu (a branch of jôruri)	18.6
Chorus	17.6
Jazz	17.3
Yokyoku, kyogen (the No)	14.5
Old Yedo music	8.5
Young folk's hours	
Nursery rhymes	60.1
Short songs	57.0
Dramas for the young folks	52.5
Music	51.5
Stories	49.0

(For the latest development of broadcasting see Chapter XXIV Communications, Radio.)

#### Horse Racing

It was after the Russo-Japanese War that the import of thoroughbred stud-horses and horse racing began to be encouraged for the improvement of horses in Japan. As the result a craze for horse racing suddenly set in. At that time pari-mutuel tickets were sold at ¥5, and unlimited dividends and sweeps were allowed. The result was that many people became bankrupt and abuses were too apparent, so that in 1909 horse races at which pari-mutuel tickets were sold were prohibited. But it soon became evident again that the decline of horse racing had an adverse effect on the improvement and propagation of horses in the country. Ten years later, the Horse Race Bill passed through Parliament and became law in 1923. The law fixed the price of pari-mutuel ticket at ¥20 a sheet, payment being made on wins only, not on places. The number of pari-mutuel tickets a person may buy was limited to one sheet. The dividend was also limited to ten times the cost of the ticket. The race courses permitted under the law are eleven in all, the names and locations of which are as follows:

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

All of these clubs are corporate judicial persons. These eleven race clubs hold race-meetings twice a year, in spring and autumn, each of which lasts from six to eight days. The money paid to the Government, the commission on sales, and the surplus of money are all used for the improvement and propagation of horses in the country as well as for the importation of the thoroughbred, Anglo-Norman and Arab horses. Since the losses of the betters were large with "win" alone, "place" payments were allowed by a change in the Horse Race Law, and horse-racing has been carried on now on that basis since 1931. In all horse races in Japan, clubs themselves undertake the sales of pari-mutuel tickets by the totalizer and do not allow bookmakers. Horse-racing is operated under the complete control of the Department of Agriculture and Forestry.

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

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

The number of horses that ran in the officially-recognized horse-races in 1934 was 1,733.

**The Derby in Japan** The Great Tokyo Derby, which was established in 1932 by the Tokyo Race Club, is modelled after the Derby in Great Britain. The time set for it is the latter part of April. The race course covers 2,400 metres, the horses entered being both males and females of four years old. The prizes offered are the highest in Japan. The regular prizes are ¥10,000 for the first horse, ¥3,500 for the second, and ¥2,000 for the third. In addition to this there are paid about ¥10,000 for the first, ¥3,000 for the second, and ¥2,500 for the third horse in stakes.

In the horse racing in Japan, flat races, steeple-chases, and trotting-

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

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

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

#### Other Pastimes

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

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

**Shogi** Japanese chess (shogi) was introduced from China centuries ago; and though it has diverged to some extent from its prototype, the two games still have a feature in common distinguishing them from all other varieties. It is this. The rank on which the pawns are usually posted is occupied by only two pieces, called hisha and kaku by the Japanese. Also, on either side of the king are two pieces, called kin in Japanese. These perform the duty imposed

on the ferz or visir of the Persian Shatranj, which was the equivalent of the modern queen. Therefore, no queen or piece of similar attributes appears either in Japanese or Chinese chess. There are eighty-one squares on the Japanese board, and the game is played with twenty pieces on each side, distinguished, not by shape or colour, but by the ideographs upon them. Though the movements of the pieces resemble in most respects those followed in the European game, there are certain ramifications unknown to the latter. The most important of these are the employment of the pieces captured from the adversary to strengthen one's own game, and the comparative facility with which the minor pieces can attain to higher ranks.

Chess is understood by all classes in Japan. The very coolies at the corners of the streets improvise out of almost anything around them materials with which to play, and thus while away the tedium of waiting for employment. But it is comparatively little patronized by the educated classes, who hold its rival "go" in much higher esteem. O is the king, keima the knight, hisha the rook, and kaku the bishop—or pieces having movements like them. Fu is the pawn. The movements of the yari also resemble those of the rook, but are confined to the single rank on which it stands. Gin (silver) and kin (gold) are not found in Western chess. Gin moves one square diagonally only. The kin, besides having similar movements, has also the power of moving one square on each side of itself, but it cannot return diagonally. The fu advances one square forward, and captures as it moves. When any piece moves into the adversary's third row, it may become a kin. This is indicated by turning the piece over. Every piece so promoted loses its original character, except the hisha and kaku to which the movements of the kin are added. As already indicated, a captured piece may be employed at any time for either attack or defence. To checkmate with the fu is a thing vetoed—or at least considered "bad form"—in this non-democratic game, neither is stalemate permissible in Japanese chess. You wait until the adversary makes a move which admits of a free action on your part. The object of the game is to check-mate the king.

Go Go, often with little appropriateness termed "checkers" by European writers, is the most popular of the indoor pastimes of the Japanese,—a very different affair from the simple game

known to Europeans as Goban or Gobang, properly the name of the board on which the go is played. Clubs and professors of the art are found in all the larger cities, where, too, blind players may occasionally be met with. Go may with justice be considered more difficult than chess, its wider field affording more numerous ramifications. The game was introduced into Japan from China by Kibino-Mabi, commonly known as Kibi Daijin, who lived in the reign of the Emperor Shomu (A.D. 724-756). In the middle of the seventeenth century, a noted player, called Hon-Imbo, was summoned from Kyoto to entertain the Chinese ambassador then at the court of the Shogun, from which time forward special go players were always retained by the Shoguns.

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

the first in getting five stones in a row in any direction.

Hanagaruta (Japanese Playing Card) The Japanese flower-cards developed from the classical "flower contests" which were originated far back in the 9th or 10th century A.D. by the elegance-loving ladies and gentlemen of the Kyoto Imperial court. At first the game was played by each contestant choosing a spray of some flower and writing a thirty-one syllable poem on a piece of coloured paper in praise of this flower and tying it to the twig. Then the flowers were collected and judged from the artistic, literary and various other points of view of the flower, poem and general colour effect.

These sprays of flowers came later to be represented in pictures, and probably under the influence of the Western card games introduced to Japan by the Portuguese of the 16th century, our flower-cards came into being. They present sprays of various flowers in the simplest but the prettiest design and colouring so characteristic of the art of the Tokugawa period, but at the same time they preserve all the poetic sentiments and associations of the courtly game of the flower contests.

A pack of the flower-cards consists of 48, and every four of them make a set presenting a flower. That is, there are 12 sets of fours presenting 12 different flowers or plants, as follows: young plum, plum blossoms, cherry blossoms, wistaria, iris, tree peony, lespedeza, grass hill, chrysanthemum, maple leaves, willow, and paulownia, one for each month of the year in the order given.

Among the 48 cards, there are 5 "glory cards", each counting 20 points, and 9 10-point cards. These high-valued ones are at once distinguished by the various objects of classical associations presented together with the flowers. Each set, except the Grass Hill and the Paulownia, has a card with a poem strip on it, either of a red colour with letters written on, or of a red or blue colour in blank. These cards always count 5 points. The rest, 24 in number, are simple chips and each counts one point. To sum up, there are 48 cards in a pack and in all these cards count 264 points.

There are several ways of playing games with Hanagaruta: solitaire, hachi-hachi or "Game of Eighty-eight," "Six hundred," Sudaoshi, Mushi, and Kabu. But the most popular and the most interesting of these is hachi-hachi. As in the case with bridge, the game may be played according to quite simple or elaborate rules.

Theoretically, a party of from two to

six can play the game, it is most enjoyable when between three and half a dozen players are at the table.

The winner in the last round shuffles and deals the card. He deals 7 cards to each member and places 6 cards in the "pool" face up. The remaining cards are placed in the centre of the pool in a pile, face downward. Each player then inspects his hand and declares if he will play or drop out. The hands of those who have dropped out are mixed in the cards in the pile. The player who dealt the cards has the first option to declare and the others in turn. In case three players declare to go, the remaining players are obliged to drop out, for not more than 3 can play each round. In case all but two drop out, the two play against each other, and should all but one drop out, the last remaining is the winner and so he shuffles and deals the cards for the next round.

The leader first plays one of the cards in hand the flower of which matches with that of one of the six cards in the pool, taking care to score the highest count possible. He then takes the topmost card in the pile and turns it over. In case the card so taken does not match with any in the pool he leaves it in the pool, but if the card matches with one in the pool, he scores that pair too. All cards thus matched are kept separate by the player who made the tricks. His next player is the one sitting on his right. Thus, in Japanese card playing, we go "against the sun" always.

Each player plays seven times and then all the cards will have been matched and taken. Then the scores are counted. There being 264 points in all, as explained before, one who scores 88 is at par. Hence the name, the "Game of Eighty-eight."

Besides the scores, honours are awarded according to an arrangement agreed on at the beginning of the game.

First of these is the "Four Glories": namely, the "glory cards" Pine, Cherry, Moon and Paulownia, which in one hand count 144 points. The "Three Good Reds"—the 5-point cards of Pine, Plum and Cherry—in one hand as also the "Three Blues"—the 5 point cards of Peony, Chrysanthemum and Maple—in one hand are another honour of the same value, namely, 84 points. Any seven of the 5-point cards in one hand makes another honour and scores 144 points, and also sixteen or more of single-point cards in one hand is an honour worth 144.

In case there are two cards of the same flower in the pool, the player may

take only one of them if matched with a card from his hand or with one turn up. But should there be three such cards, the player either matching it from hand or by the turnup takes the whole batch.

When only two players are in the game, the turnup after playing of the last card from hand ends that game and the cards that remain in the pool and the pile are discarded.

In case a player either plays a card from his hand or turns up a card that matches with any in the pool, it is compulsory for him to take that pair. In case a player who has his turn finds no card in the pool with which he can make a match, he is obliged to play blank. It is also permissible to play blank even where a match is possible.

Twelve rounds complete one set and each round is sometimes referred to by the name of the month following the natural order. Twelve months or one year can be played in twenty minutes or less.

Whenever a player finds a prospect of making an honour, he should make his tricks of the honour cards before anything else. In turn, should any player be noticed to be trying to make an honour, his opponents should do their best to prevent his making the tricks he wants.

The rules described above are those for the simplest possible way of playing this most absorbing and pretty game of Eighty-eight. Those enticed by the lure of Japanese card-playing are recommended to refer to a regular handbook of Eighty-eight and learn about sundry other honours, handicaps and penalties which have not been pointed out in the foregoing brief explanation of the game.

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

**Cormorant Fishing** Cormorant-fish-

ing always takes place at night and by torch-light. The method pursued is as follows: There are four men in each of several boats, one of whom, at the stern, has no duty but that of managing his craft. In the bow stands the master called ujo, distinguished by the peculiar hat of his rank, and handling no fewer than twelve trained birds with the surpassing skill and coolness that have earned for the sportsmen of the Nagara River in Gifu prefecture their unrivalled pre-eminence. Amidships is another fisher, of the second grade, who handles four birds only. Between them is the fourth man, called kako, from the bamboo striking instrument of that name, with which he makes the clatter necessary for keeping the birds up to their work; he also encourages them by shouts and cries, looks after spare apparatus, etc., and is ready to give aid if required. Each cormorant wears at the base of its neck a metal ring, drawn tight enough to prevent marketable fish from passing below it, but at the same time loose enough—for it is never removed—to admit the smaller prey, which serves as food. Round the body is a cord, having attached to it at the middle of the back a short strip of stiffish whale-bone, by which the great awkward bird may be conveniently lowered into the water or lifted out when at work; and to this whalebone is looped a thin rein of spruce fibre, twelve feet long, and so far wanting in pliancy as to minimize the chance of entanglement. When the fishing-ground is reached, the master lowers his twelve birds one by one into the stream and gathers their reins into his left hand, manipulating the latter thereafter with his right as occasion requires. No. 2 does the same with his four birds: the kako starts in with his volleys of noise; and forthwith the cormorants set to at their work in the heartiest and jolliest way, diving and ducking with wonderful swiftness as the astonished fish come flocking towards the blaze of light. The master must handle his twelve strings so deftly that, let the birds dash hither and thither as they will, there shall be no impediment or fouling. He must have his eyes everywhere and his hands following his eyes. Specially must he watch for the moment when any of his flock is gorged,—a fact generally made known by the bird itself, which then swims about in a foolish, helpless way, with its head and swollen neck erect. Thereupon, the master, shortening in on that bird, lifts it aboard, forces its bill open with his left hand, which still holds the rest of

the line, squeezes out the fish with his right, and starts the creature off on a fresh foray,—all this with such admirable dexterity and quickness that the

eleven birds still bustling about have scarce time to get things into a tangle, and in another moment the whole team is again perfectly in hand.

#### Calendar of Annual Events

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

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

#### January

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

The Imperial Household observes a religious ceremony called Shihohai (worshipping in four directions) at the Imperial Sanctuary according to Shinto rites. The Emperor usually officiates in person, offering prayers to the gods for the peace and prosperity of the Empire. New Year's Day is one of the four most important National Holidays of Japan, the others being the Imperial Birthday celebration, the celebration commemorating the anniversary of the accession of the Emperor Jimmu, the first Emperor of Japan, in 600 B. C., and the celebration of the

Emperor Meiji's Birthday on November 3.

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

**2nd Beginning of Work**—This day is known as 'shigoto hajimé,' or beginning of work and is marked with ceremonies for the beginning of all sorts of activities which are to be executed properly and well in the right spirit, in the hope that everything will go on in the same happy way for the rest of the year. Young school children study calligraphy for the first time in the year. Carpenters begin the day by using their professional tools. Geisha tune up their samisen and practise a piece or two of music. The first delivery of goods is undertaken by all wholesale stores in a spirit of celebration. The last named is called hatsu-ni, or first merchandise. Cars on which goods are to be delivered on this day are fully decorated, and the carriers and delivery men, usually drunk, enter into the spirit of the thing, although this custom is observed in recent years with less ostentation than formerly.

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

**3rd Genshi-sai**, a national holiday, celebrating the auspicious origin of the Imperial Throne at the beginning of the year, is observed on the third day before the Imperial Sanctuary in the Imperial Palace. The ceremony is attended by the Emperor, members of the Imperial family, Princes and Princesses



of the Blood, high officials of the Government and members of the peerage. In the morning the front of the Nijubashi, the bridge at the main entrance to the Imperial Palace, presents a glittering scene as the dignitaries of the nation arrive at the palace in their State uniforms to participate in the court function. The New Year holidays come to an end on this day.

**4th Beginning of Politics**—All normal functions of the State are resumed on this day and government and private offices re-open. The Ministers of State make various important reports to the Emperor, and the Minister of the Imperial Household also gives an account of the ceremonies performed at the Grand Shrine of Isé and the other government-protected shrines on the occasion of the New Year.

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

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

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

**Cold Season begins**—The so-called 'kan,' or cold season, begins its conventional period of four weeks. The cold season is divided into two stages, the period of 'shokan,' or lesser cold, and the period of 'dalkan,' or greater cold. During the period many male apprentices and artisans devoted to their work go out thinly clad in the evening to worship at their favourite temples, having the traditional belief that divine power invoked by their enthusiasm will make them proficient in their callings. They go to the well in the

temple compounds and pour cold water over their bodies to purify themselves before worshipping at the temples. The rite is practised for the whole period every evening without a break, irrespective of weather conditions. Such enthusiasts, dressed in white clothes and usually with tinkling bells hanging over their loins, can be seen in the streets during the cold season, running from temple to temple.

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

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

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

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

**11th The Kodokwan, the celebrated judo training institution in Koishikawa, observes the ceremony of beginning judo practice for the year.** The greatest experts in the art of self-defence participate in the ceremony, at which the finest matches of the year are seen.

**12th Sumo (Japanese wrestling)**—The semi-annual tournaments of the Japan Wrestling Association are held at the Kokugi-kan amphitheatre at Ryōgoku, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 13 days. (See Chapter XXXVI.)

**15th and 16th Extra holidays for apprentices and servants**—In old days apprentices and servants were given only two day's holidays a year, January 15 or 16 and July 15 or 16. Nowadays they are given at least one holiday a month in many cases, but in addition the old holiday-dates are still adhered to.

#### February

**February 1st Country people, who still go by the lunar calendar, celebrate the New Year on this day.**

**3rd or 4th The Bean-throwing ceremony**—This day is called 'Sōtsubun' or change of season, on which winter

comes to an official end and spring begins according to the lunar calendar. 'Mōchinaki,' or the bean-throwing ceremony, is widely practised throughout the country. People scatter beans in an attempt to drive out all the evil spirits in the house and call in good luck. The priests of leading shrines and temples observe this custom in the presence of thousands of worshippers. Usually popular actors and wrestlers are employed as bean-throwers.

**11th Commemoration of the Accession of the Emperor Jimmu**—This national holiday, Kigensetsu, commemorating the accession in 660 B.C. of the first Emperor of Japan to the Throne, is one of the most important in the Japanese calendar. The Emperor observes elaborate ceremonies in front of the Imperial Sanctuary, attended by the Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, court functionaries and high officials of the Government, and peers. An Imperial luncheon is given at the Homéi Hall of the Palace, to which are invited the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, State Ministers, members of the foreign diplomatic corps, etc.

#### March

**March 3rd Girls' Doll Festival**—This is sometimes known as the peach festival, because it is associated with the peach blossoms which begin to open about this time. This day is a great day for the girls of Japan. All families, except the poorest, place decorated doll shelves in the guest rooms or alcoves with a set of dolls and accessories on them. Very often the dolls are taken out from the closets and displayed for the enjoyment of the young girls of the family. The set of dolls is supposed to represent a miniature Court of ancient days with the Emperor, Empress, and their retainers. Some of the sets in wealthy families are very valuable, costing several hundred yen each. Dolls are displayed for sale at department stores and stalls for some weeks before the arrival of this festival. Considerable religious significance was originally attached to the doll festival, but later it became a mere pastime for children. It is said by some that the custom encourages happy family life, and by others that it encourages the spirit of filial piety and loyalty. Scholars declare that the custom originated during the reign of the Emperor Tsuchimikado (1189-1207).

**5th The Empress's Birthday**—This day is known in Japanese as Chikyu-sōtsu, and is a holiday for girls' schools.

**18th Higan, the Week of the Equi-**

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

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

#### April

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

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

**18th Festival of the Tokugawa Shōgunate Shrine**—a festival is held at the Toshogu Shrines at Uéno park and Shiba park, which are dedicated to the Tokugawa Shōguns.

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

the Government and foreign diplomats are invited.

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

#### May

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

**5th Boys' Festivals**—Just as March 3 is for girls to celebrate their doll festival, so this day is dedicated to the boys of Japan. All Japanese families having sons observe this classic festival. Appropriate dolls are on display in the alcoves of the guest rooms of the families, the festival being intended to bring health, success and prosperity to the boys. The sets of dolls displayed represent popular heroes of the Empire. The custom is of several centuries' standing and originated in a desire to encourage a martial spirit in boys. Large paper or cloth carp, often several yards long, are hoisted above the houses, symbolizing the idea that the sons of the families will be as strong as the spirited carp trying to swim up a waterfall.

#### June

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

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

**17th Annual Festival of the Great Shrine of Isé, Miyé prefecture, and the Itsukushima Shrine at Miyajima, Inland Sea.**

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

#### July

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

**7th Feast of Tanabata**—This evening the Weaver or the Star Vega meets her lover the Cow-herd or the Star Altair on the other side of the Heavenly River (Milky Way) on the only occasion in the whole year, according to tradition. This festival of the seventh eve of the seventh month is celebrated by some although the custom has of recent years been more or less neglected in Tokyo and other cities.

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

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

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

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

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

#### August

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

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

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

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

#### September

**September 1st Memorial Service for the Earthquake Dead**—to comfort the spirits of those who were killed in the

great earthquake and fire of 1923 services are held at the Earthquake Memorial Hall in Honjo on the banks of the Sumida River, Tokyo.

**5th Suitengu Shrine Festival in Tokyo.**  
**11th Festivals of Kanda Myojin and Hikawa Shrines in Tokyo.**

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

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

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

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

#### October

**October 10th Annual fête of the Kotohira Shrine at Kotohira, Kagawa prefecture and also of similar shrines in Tokyo and elsewhere.**

**11th Anniversary of the death of St. Nichiren**—One of the most elaborate Buddhist demonstrations in Japan is held on the evening of the 12th, and the following day at the Honmonji temple at Ikegami, Tokyo, to commemorate the anniversary of the death of St. Nichiren, founder of the Nichiren sect of Buddhism. Thousands of believers and others march in groups to the temple, many beating drums so as to keep time, shouting all the time the Buddhist sutra, "Namu-Myoho-Renge-kyo." Large paper lanterns, all lighted, are carried at the head of these processions.

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

**17th Kannamesai (first Harvest festival)** on this national holiday the Emperor makes an offering of the new grain harvested to the Sun Goddess enshrined in the Great Shrine of Isé and to the

Imperial ancestors. A special service is held at the Imperial Sanctuary, while the Emperor despatches a messenger to the Great Shrine to offer prayers on his behalf.

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

#### November

**November 1-12 Festival of Oh-tori shrines**—the annual shrine festival known as 'tori-no-ichi,' is observed on the "Tori no Hi", or the day of birds, that may fall on one of the first 12 days according to the old calendar which counts days by the names of 12 animals, at various shrines of Oh-tori, a winged god of fortune and wealth in Tokyo and elsewhere. There are the second and third 'tori-no-ichi' in the month.

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

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

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

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

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

square kilometres. The classified ownership at the end of 1935 follows:

Ownership	(In square metre) Area
Total	486,110,200
Imperial household	6,391,833
State	74,235,307
Tokyo prefecture	975,368
City	13,791,763
Private persons	390,715,929

#### Tokyo Enlarged

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

Socially and economically the towns outside the city area have been closely connected with the city itself. The position regarding Tokyo during the 10 years ending 1930 was that the 82 adjoining towns and villages increased in population by 1,720,000, while the city of Tokyo lost 100,000 within the same period. In road construction, extension of communication facilities and in the execution of various municipal regulations the city experienced enormous difficulties due to the existence of over 80 different self-governing bodies surrounding the city area.

As is generally the case with great

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

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

The enlarged Tokyo now covers 570-337 square kilometres divided into 33 wards.

#### Commerce and Industry

**Retail Business** At the end of July, 1936, the number of retail shops in the city was 164,439. Sweetmeats shops numbered 18,225, rice shops 8,054 and vegetables and fruits shops 6,853. Retail price index numbers based on the prices of December 16, 1929, as 100 follow:

#### RETAIL PRICE INDEX NUMBER IN TOKYO

(Of 100 Kinds of Commodities)

(The average retail price on Dec. 16, 1929 taken as 100)

	Foodstuffs	Clothing, etc.	Fuel	Building materials	Miscel- laneous	Gross Average for Tokyo	Average for 13 cities
1930	90.9	87.5	92.0	89.3	91.9	90.2	91.0
1931	79.6	74.1	84.9	85.9	80.4	79.3	79.4
1932	81.0	74.6	82.1	87.6	79.8	80.1	79.7
1933	85.6	85.0	91.3	104.1	92.2	87.8	87.1
1934	86.9	87.9	91.9	104.9	90.6	89.1	88.8
1935	90.0	87.7	92.3	100.7	89.7	90.4	90.5
1936	96.2	89.5	93.4	103.9	89.2	94.5	94.8

**Wholesale Price** The whole-sale average price index number for 100 kinds of commodities in 1936 was 102.3 against

100 of the average wholesale price index of December, 1929. Below are given detailed figures:

#### WHOLESALE PRICE INDEX NUMBER

	Food- stuffs	Textile goods	Metals	Building materials	Chemi- cals	Fertili- zers	Fuel	Miscel- laneous	Aggre- gate aver- age in Tokyo	Aver- age in 13 cities
1930	90	84	87	91	95	89	90	93	88.7	87.7
1931	73	70	72	86	82	71	77	83	75.4	74.0
1932	78	80	87	84	76	86	75	93	81.8	81.0
1933	86	98	114	99	105	92	88	116	97.5	95.4
1934	86	100	112	98	93	89	90	118	97.2	96.3
1935	96	96	109	93	87	99	90	116	98.7	97.4
1936	103	98	114	96	72	103	94	118	102.3	101.2

**Banks** At the end of 1936 there were 24 banks domiciled in Tokyo and 234 branch offices. Three were special banks, i.e. semi-governmental banks. The number of ordinary commercial banks was 16, with 175 branches in the city. Savings banks numbered 5 with 57 branches. The aggregate capital of the special banks was ¥225,275,000 of which the amount paid up was ¥166,151,062. The aggregate of deposits was ¥762,640,485 and the aggregate amount of advances and discounts was ¥2,457,916,853. The aggregate capital of the ordinary banks was ¥510,488,500, the amount paid up was ¥341,147,000, deposits ¥4,762,690,179 and advances and discounts totalled ¥2,720,116,917. The aggregate capital of savings banks was ¥15,535,000 of which ¥11,922,500 was the total sum paid up, deposits ¥861,523,801 and advances ¥160,214,962. There were 93 branches of banks domiciled in other cities, and the total number of banks and branches in the city was 351, with an aggregate deposits of ¥3,954,923,444 and advances of ¥3,009,138,140.

**Industry** At the end of 1936 there were, in Tokyo, 29,544 small working shops, where less than 5 operatives were employed, with 47,279 workers, and 13,326 factories, where more than 5 operatives were employed, with 329,439 workers.

#### FACTORIES IN TOKYO

(At the end of 1936)

Kind of Industry	Fac- tories	Opera- tives	Produc- tion (In yen)
Textile	2,460	39,007	174,370,075
Metallic	5,555	61,044	343,252,277
Machine and Tool	7,360	131,160	464,977,851
Ceramics	720	9,828	19,983,780
Chemical	2,263	40,438	377,581,735
Sawing and Wood-work	2,873	12,770	34,356,265
Printing and Book-binding	3,346	29,456	120,199,054
Foodstuff	14,234	24,118	180,630,498

#### TRAFFIC SERVICE OF STATE RAILWAYS FOR TOKYO

Year	Stations	Passengers Who Got in	Passengers Who Got off	Earnings (In Yen)
1930	63	343,997,611	339,973,445	50,119,289
1931	64	333,885,569	332,022,462	48,242,225
1932	63	335,659,845	334,105,799	47,353,680
1933	66	359,549,090	357,644,525	51,364,964
1934	65	374,591,543	373,004,109	54,050,989
1935	65	394,021,234	393,414,451	56,503,686
1936	65	420,627,220	419,349,144	59,823,498

Kind of Industry	Fac- tories	Opera- tives	Produc- tion (In yen)
Gas and Electric	7	858	32,233,354
Others	4,052	28,039	82,632,565
Total	42,870	376,718	1,830,217,454

**Companies** At the end of 1936 there were 16,904 companies in Tokyo, with an aggregate capital of ¥10,734,735,959 of which ¥8,023,539,609 was paid-up, and their net profits in 1935 amounted to ¥625,336,385.

#### COMPANIES IN TOKYO CLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRIES

(At the end of 1936)

Industry	Number	Paid-up-Capital (In Yen)
Agriculture	113	78,991,222
Aquatic	30	102,153,000
Mining	304	788,940,462
Manufacturing and Banking	6,376	3,689,576,851
Traffic	9,589	2,905,058,794
Total	492	458,819,280
Total	16,904	8,023,539,609

#### Transportation

**Roads** At the end of 1936 the total mileage of public roads in the city was 8,414,676 metres covering an area of 48,005,106 square metres or 8 per cent of the total city area.

**Railway Service** In the fiscal year ending March 31, 1937 there were in aggregate 420,627,220 boarding passengers and 419,349,144 alighting passengers at 65 different governmental railway stations in the city, and the earnings in these 65 stations totalled ¥59,823,498 which was ¥3,300,000 more than in the previous year. The business results of 15 private railway companies in the year under review, exclusive of their bus services, were: the aggregate number of passengers, 288,014,194 and the aggregate amount of earnings ¥19,116,547, and the total length of lines in operation 239 kilometres.

**Tramway Service** The business results of municipal tramways in the fiscal year ending March 31, 1937 over the average daily mileage of 280,328 kilometres were: the total number of

#### TRAFFIC SERVICE OF THE MUNICIPAL TRAMWAYS

Year	Passengers	Daily Average	Fees (In Yen)	Daily Average	Year	Passengers	Daily Average	Fees (In Yen)	Daily Average
1931	320,496,563	875,674	21,115,404	57,692	1934	287,459,000	789,000	18,024,000	49,301
1932	287,829,840	788,574	18,810,840	51,537	1935	294,189,758	803,000	18,475,817	50,479
1933	283,307,515	776,185	18,483,203	50,639	1936	309,841,146	848,880	19,079,203	52,272

**Motor Bus** Motor bus service in the city is being rendered by 36 firms be-

side the Municipal Bus Service and Tokyo Bus Company. 141 of which were of stone, 457 concrete, 1,060 reinforced concrete, 537 iron, 5 iron and wood, and 2,002 wood.

#### BUS SERVICE IN TOKYO

(1936-37)

	Mileage in K.M.	No. of Buses	Passengers	Fees (In Yen)
Municipal	179.3	1,035	93,667,990	6,196,696
Tokyo Bus	67.0	544	71,178,482	4,288,539
Others	953.8	—	132,172,819	7,867,137
Total	1,200.1	—	297,019,291	18,352,372

**Underground Railway** The urgent need of a high speed underground communications to relieve the congestion and pressure of surface traffic has long been felt necessary. A private company opened its first section of an underground railway, from Asakusa to Ueno, in the latter part of 1927, and is pushing forward its line under the very centre of the city to Shinagawa. It completed the construction of the line to Shimbashi in June, 1934, and the distance in operation now is 8 kilometres. In 1935 it carried 27,986,367 passengers. The municipal authorities have under contemplation the construction of other lines totalling 65 kilometres and have completed geological survey borings in 367 places.

**Bridges** The city of Tokyo has a network of rivers and canals and the beauty of the city is greatly enhanced by the bridges of manifold designs which traverse them. Before the earthquake the bridges under municipal management numbered 668, of which 426 were of wood. At the earthquake 239 bridges collapsed or were reduced to ashes. By the co-operation of the Reconstruction Bureau of the Government and the Municipality new bridges were built in their place. At the end of March, 1937, there were 5,207 bridges in Tokyo, 1-

141 of which were of stone, 457 concrete, 1,060 reinforced concrete, 537 iron, 5 iron and wood, and 2,002 wood.

**Rivers and Canals** The city is served with a veritable network of canals and rivers many of which are used for transportation purposes. Dredging has to be carried out continuously to keep them navigable. In 1935 there were 29 rivers with the total length of 88 kilometres.

**Harbour** At the time of the great earthquake in 1923 the city of Tokyo keenly felt the necessity of better facilities for maritime transportation, and when rebuilding of the city took place it was decided to construct a pier, sheds and warehouses at Shibaura, Tokyo. A sum of ¥18,000,000 was appropriated for the work and construction was completed in April, 1935. The length of the reinforced concrete Hinodecho pier is 564 metres and six steamers of 1,000 to 3,000 tons can be moored alongside at a time. Another pier of Shibaura has a length of 910 metres and can moor 7 steamers of 5,000 tons. Furthermore, there are 12 mooring buoys and 8 sheds. The total area of the harbour is 8,591 square kilometres. Steamers outgoing from and incoming to Tokyo and goods carried out from and into Tokyo follow:

#### MOVEMENT OF VESSELS IN TOKYO HARBOUR

(in 1934 and 1935)

Kind	1934		1935	
	Number	Tonnage	Number	Tonnage
Steamers	{ In 22,430	8,353,542	22,412	9,159,265
	{ Out 22,439	8,375,241	22,415	9,159,984
Sailing Vessels with engines	{ In 8,982	486,562	8,843	453,462
	{ Out 8,991	487,522	8,851	454,046
Sailing Vessels	{ In 112	6,100	110	4,678
	{ Out 112	6,100	110	4,678
Total	{ In 31,524	8,846,204	31,365	9,617,405
	{ Out 31,542	8,868,863	31,376	9,618,708

#### GOODS CARRIED OUT FROM AND INTO TOKYO

(In metric tons)

##### Outgoing Goods

Year	By R'y	By Steamers	Through Rivers	Total
1933	2,647,049	102,415	61,960	2,811,424
1934	2,967,012	105,437	64,874	3,137,323
1935	3,385,452	62,773	69,002	3,517,227
1936	3,583,885	1,634,327	95,330	5,313,542

##### Incoming Goods

Year	By R'y	By Steamers	Through Rivers	Total
1933	6,342,816	58,675	57,306	6,458,797
1934	6,573,974	90,054	79,642	6,743,670
1935	6,614,397	55,619	81,844	6,751,860
1936	7,380,876	9,086,196	107,409	16,574,481

#### GOODS BY RAILWAYS IN 1936

(In metric tons)

	Outgoing goods	Incoming goods
Animals	1,755	54,049
Plants	—	—
Cereals & seeds	263,268	690,362
Comestibles & tobacco	385,549	760,884
Hides, horns, etc. and manufactures thereof	1,399	1,657
Oil tallow, wax, etc. and manufactures thereof	33,021	75,137
Chemicals and dyestuffs	60,975	57,379
Threads, cordages etc.	29,294	29,310
Piece goods & manufactures thereof	11,010	34,054
Cloth & Necessaries	—	—
Pulp & paper	64,839	179,422
Minerals & manufactures thereof	421,280	2,803,627

Outgoing goods

	Outgoing goods	Incoming goods
Metals & manufactures thereof	391,186	231,064
Pottery, and glasses and manufactures thereof	21,616	70,701
Vehicles, clocks & machinery	74,627	27,896
Fertilizers, etc.	548,299	72,577
Wood, bamboos, etc. and manufactures thereof	89,658	1,216,308
Miscellaneous	1,186,109	1,076,449
Total	3,583,885	7,380,876

#### Waterworks

The construction of modern water reservoirs was first commenced in 1890 and it was twenty years before the Yodobashi water reservoir was completed. But this proved inadequate to meet the ever growing water consumption and the Murayama water reservoir was constructed in 1916. It consists of two reservoirs, upper and lower, and the upper reservoir has a capacity of 3,576,000 cubic metres while the capacity of the lower one is 12,148,000 cubic metres. In 1934 another reservoir at Yamaguchi-mura was completed and it has a capacity of 18,824,000 cubic metres. The total volume of water which can actually be maintained by these reservoirs at any given moment reaches 30,050,000 cubic metres. The total number of hydrants in Tokyo in 1933 was 589,396, the total population dependent on public waterworks 3,801,292 and the total quantity of water distributed 234,555,888 cu.m. In March, 1935, the city bought all rights of the Tamagawa Waterworks which had been supplying water to the six southern wards.

#### Sewerage Works

General Conditions Until half a century ago waste water used to be

### TEMPLES, ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT SECTS

(at the end of 1935)

Sect	No. of Temples	Priests	No. of Believing Families
Tendai	145	320	11,126
Shingon	401	784	49,567
Jodo	423	895	50,829
Rinsai	99	244	10,256
Soto	215	611	26,807
Obaku	10	20	1,120
Shin	240	510	54,845
Nichiren	341	1,060	62,006
Ji	7	15	1,145
Total	1,881	4,459	267,701

#### Social Work

**Child Welfare** At the end of March, 1936 there were 26 maternity hospitals including three municipal-owned, and

### BUSINESS RESULT OF LABOUR EXCHANGE

(at the end of the fiscal year 1935)

Kinds	No. of exchange	Persons wanted		Applicants		Persons who secured work	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Municipal:							
General	39	213,330	131,282	222,895	101,498	66,584	32,061
Private:							
General	10	98,980	69,212	95,794	72,133	21,920	20,036
Total	49	312,310	200,494	318,689	173,631	88,504	52,097

#### Administration and Government

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

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

**Legislative Body** To control municipal business the city has a city council and board of aldermen with a mayor as the head. Further, there are several

in 1935-36 there were 25,248 in-patients of expectant mothers, and 552 patients treated in travelling and the number of births given was 21,897 of which 1,022 were still births. In the same year there were 100 relief nurseries where working mothers and fathers can leave their children when going to their daily work. The total number of babies and children who were brought into these nurseries in the year was 7,593.

The total number of facilities for child protection was 310 which included 100 for baby protection, 11 nurseries, 17 for juvenile protection, 37 health consultation rooms, 104 for the education of the poor and deformed, 31 children's play grounds and libraries, and 10 for special protection of children.

**Labour Exchanges** Activities of municipal and private labour employment offices which number 49 in all can be seen from the following:

departments, bureaux, sections, etc., for the execution of municipal affairs and office work.

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

**Executive** From 1889 till 1898 the function of the mayor of Tokyo was entrusted to the governor of Tokyo pre-

lecture, but on October 1, 1898 the city became self-governing. The mayor is elected by the city council. Under the mayor there are three deputy mayors, a city councillor, a treasurer, directors

of departments, chiefs of bureaux, ward heads and other numerous offices. There are various kinds of committees as consultative bodies. The organization of the municipality is as follows:

### THE DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION OF THE TOKYO MUNICIPALITY

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

#### Finance

The 1937-38 municipal budget was ¥239,728,780 for revenue and ¥238,455,096 for expenditure. The following table

shows the settled accounts for 1928-29 to 1935-36 and budgets for 1936-37 and 1937-38. Among the enterprises tramways, bus, gas, and water works are included.

### REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF TOKYO

(In Yen)

Fiscal Year	Total		Ordinary Account	
	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure
1928-29	228,247,949	239,645,562	131,272,239	140,067,289
1929-30	203,838,221	205,390,255	91,852,580	93,260,470
1930-31	194,198,827	200,962,772	69,432,528	61,167,598
1931-32	129,076,605	134,096,981	59,600,321	47,011,904
1932-33	152,745,263	159,343,763	81,277,116	66,237,673
1933-34	165,576,185	173,344,002	95,073,326	71,827,992
1934-35	210,754,644	215,615,254	108,255,864	70,971,473
1935-36	196,497,423	180,086,912	107,457,241	78,877,884
1936-37 (Budget)	224,763,566	225,373,009	112,387,843	79,143,596
1937-38 (Budget)	239,728,780	238,455,096	124,657,897	97,942,072

Fiscal Year	Enterprises		Others	
	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure
1928-29	75,821,286	67,833,706	21,154,424	31,944,567
1929-30	79,140,773	68,757,071	32,836,868	43,372,714
1930-31	65,797,406	56,846,693	58,968,893	62,948,481
1931-32	55,418,045	53,043,107	14,058,239	34,041,970
1932-33	62,676,471	57,482,765	8,761,676	35,623,325
1933-34	56,239,866	52,616,290	13,361,993	48,899,720
1934-35	94,383,118	89,649,688	8,115,662	54,994,093
1935-36	81,370,835	36,590,431	7,669,347	64,618,597
1936-37 (Budget)	95,511,388	59,356,975	16,864,335	87,372,438
1937-38 (Budget)	97,501,889	61,983,377	17,568,994	78,529,647

#### The International Exposition of Japan

Tokyo is actively engaged in making preparations for the International Exposition to be held in Japan in 1940. The actual work was begun early in 1938 by the sending abroad of special commissions for inviting foreign participation; and the first lot of admission tickets with lottery coupons amounting to ¥10,000,000 was issued for advance sale in March of this year.

The Exposition has the honour of having H.I.H. Prince Chichibu as Patron and Prince Fumimaro Konoé, Premier, as Vice-Patron. Hon. Shinji Yoshino, Minister of Commerce and Industry, and Baron Yoshiro Sakatani are its Honorary Presidents. Hon. Ginjiro Fujihara is the President, Hon. Sempachi Soejima is the Director-General, and Hon. Naokichi Matsunaga is the Assistant Director-General. The Exposition is to be held for 5 months from March to August, 1940, in commemoration of the 2,600th anniversary of the accession of Jimmu Tenno, Japan's first Emperor. The site is on the reclaimed grounds along the waterfront of Tokyo Harbour, 10-minute drive from Ginza, the shopping centre of Tokyo, with the auxiliary site on Yamashita-cho along the water-front of Yokohama Harbour. The total area covers 900 acres including 400 acres for buildings and amusement grounds, 500

acres for aquatic sports. The construction motif of the Exposition will be the blending of the Eastern and Western modes of architecture. The exposition is estimated to cost ¥95,000,000, including ¥44,500,000 on items of direct expenditure and ¥50,500,000 for the reclamation of the grounds and civic improvements. All kinds of vehicles will be at hand for conveying guests with transportation facilities capable of handling 80,000 persons per hour and a parking accommodation for 6,000 automobiles. The total attendance is estimated at 45,000,000 with a daily average of 266,000 and a daily maximum of 532,000.

The Exposition hopes to exhibit the best products of the world with the sympathy and co-operation of all the nations of the world and to contribute to the cultural advancement of the Japanese people, and hopes, as the first international exposition to be held in Japan, to be instrumental in bringing the Oriental and Occidental civilizations closer together to give a stimulus to world industries, and to create a better understanding between Japan and other countries of the world.

The year of opening of the exposition has been postponed on account of the present international conflict, but it will be decided upon later.

## CHAPTER XXXIX

### FIVE BIG CITIES

#### Osaka

##### General

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

the most famous being the Dotombori Canal.

**Area** The area of the city of Osaka is 187 square kilometres which means it ranks third so far as the area is concerned exceeded by Tokyo and Kyoto, but in point of population it is the largest, next only to Tokyo. Its city limits were extended twice in its history, the first time in 1897 and the second in 1925. The city is divided into 15 ku (wards) which are: Kita, Nishi, Minami, Higashi, Konohana, Minato Taisho, Tennoji, Naniwa, Nishiyodogawa, Higashiyodogawa, Higashinari, Asahi, Sumiyoshi, and Nishinari.

**Population** The population of Osaka was on Oct. 1, 1936, 3,101,900, men numbering 1,654,900 and women 1,447,000 and the households numbering 655,900, according to the Cabinet Bureau of Statistics. The comparison of the last three years follow:

##### Population, 1934-1937.

	Men	Women	Total	Households
1934 (Oct. 1)	1,445,000	1,277,700	2,722,700	—
1935 (Oct. 1) (Census)	1,594,151	1,395,716	2,989,866	630,232
1936 (Oct. 1)	1,654,900	1,447,000	3,101,900	655,900
1937 (Oct. 1)	1,715,100	1,497,900	3,213,000	—

Each of the 15 ku (wards) is inhabited by a population of more than 100,000, with the Minato-ku 341,800 Higashinari-ku 343,000 and Sumiyoshi-ku, 319,300, according to the investigation of 1936.

The population of Japan could be dividable in 1935 between 22,666,307 (32.7%) of urban districts and 46,387,841 (67.3%) of rural districts and the population Osaka was 13.2% of the entire urban population.

In 1935 births numbered 87,417 (29.24 per 1,000 of population) of which 44,916 were male and 42,500 female, 84.91% of the 87,417 births were lawful and 15.09% unlawful. In the same year deaths numbered 47,459 (15.87 per 1,000 of population) of which 25,080 were male and 22,379 female. Women between 25-29 years of age ranked first as lawful birth-givers, while women be-

tween 20-24 ranked first as unlawful birth-givers.

In the same year still-births totalled 5,731 (1.92 per 1,000 of population) of which male numbered 3,098 and female 2,527, and 31% of the still births were of the parents unmarried.

Mortality in 1935 totalled 47,459 (15.87% of 1,000 of population) of which men numbered 25,080 and women 22,379. Deaths occurred most numerously in December and the least in September. 38.1% of the deaths took place in the ages between 0-4 and 39.1% in persons between 15-59.

As for the causes of deaths, 96.4% were illness and 1.2% suicide. Of the diseases 13.0% were pneumonia and 12.3% tuberculosis.

Residents from Overseas territories and Foreign Countries, Koreans residing in Osaka at the end of 1935 were 202,-

311 (121,400 being men and 80,911 women), an increase of 67,886 over 1934. Formosans numbered 995 (49 being men and 46 women). Foreign nationals run as follows: Manchoukuo 93; China 2,969; British India 49; the United States 35; France 25; Great Britain 24; Russia 20; and others 42, totalling 3,256 and Chinese occupying 91%.

#### FACTORIES IN OSAKA IN 1936

Principal Industries	No. of Factories	No. of Employees	Production (in ¥1,000)
Textile	1,436	44,824	181,157
Metallurgical	2,287	65,764	442,795
Machinery	2,661	76,532	313,428
Ceramics	362	15,724	47,976
Chemical	877	30,621	247,546
Milling and wood work	771	9,728	31,569
Printing and book binding	583	12,808	53,238
Foodstuffs	787	10,577	65,619
Gas and electric work	10	1,453	—
Miscellaneous	2,259	29,696	89,549
Total	12,033	297,727	1,473,290

Excluding those factories where less than 5 workers are employed which numbered 37,775 in all in 1935.

#### Commerce

**Business Companies** At the end of 1936 there were 10,300 business companies domiciled in Osaka, an increase of 726 over the previous year. The aggregate paid-up capital amounted to ¥3,016,749,000 against ¥2,793,488,000 of the previous year, an increase of ¥223,261,000. Of these companies 2,586 (23.4%) were joint stock companies of limited liability. The rest was in the co-operative basis either of names or funds.

**Banks** At the end of 1936 there were 7 banks domiciled in Osaka, and 95 banks domiciled in cities other than Osaka were found represented in the city by their branches. The aggregate paid-up capital of the 7 Osaka banks was ¥168,700,000, the aggregate deposits ¥2,202,249,000 and advances ¥1,653,849,000. Bills cleared at the Osaka Clearance House in 1936 amounted to ¥24,979,292,283, and increase of 10.2% over 1934.

**Exchanges** In Osaka there are 4 exchanges, viz., Osaka Stock Exchange, Osaka Dojima Rice Exchange, Osaka Sanpin Exchange and Osaka Sugar Exchange. The Osaka Stock Exchange is a rival of the Tokyo Stock Exchange in the transaction of stocks. The Osaka Rice Exchange is the forerunner of rice exchange business in Japan. In the Osaka Saipan Exchange were cotton

#### Industries

Osaka is an important industrial and commercial centre in Japan surpassed by none but Tokyo and excelling the latter in many respects. The aggregate 1936 production (excluding gas and electric production) in the factories where more than 5 operative are employed, was valued at ¥1,473,290,891. Further particulars follow:

yarn and raw cotton only could be transacted, in February, 1933, artificial silk was admitted for the clearance transaction.

The Osaka Sugar Exchange is operated upon membership basis, but the other three are joint stock companies of limited liability. Transactions made at the Osaka Stock Exchange in 1936 were valued at ¥7,960,888,000. Rice was transacted up to 29,600,000 koku for ¥928,977,000. Cotton yarns were contracted up to 5,721,000 bales valued at ¥1,212,330,000. Rayon was transacted for 980,000 bundles against ¥60,169,000. Sugar dealings were booked for 6,402,000 sacks valued at ¥116,392,000. Transactions made at any of these Osaka Exchanges in 1936 exceeded those in any of the 5 other big cities.

**Warehouses** At the end of 1936 stocks in all the warehouses belonging to the 7 leading warehousing companies were found to be 5,035,671 units valued at ¥127,176,893, stocks brought in during the year being 24,892,880 units valued at ¥571,591,094 and those taken away 25,991,741 units valued at ¥565,262,646.

**Commodity Movements** The aggregate quantity of commodities taken away from Osaka in 1935 was 13,199,271 tons for ¥3,999,979,000 and those brought into 22,955,364 tons for ¥3,542,476,000. The net result was the excess

of influx in quantity by 9,766,093 tons but the excess of out-going movements by ¥457,503,000. The following table shows this trend in the 5 classified leading commodities:

#### PRINCIPAL INCOMING & OUTGOING COMMODITIES

	1935		1935	
	Quantity (1,000 tons)	Value (¥1,000,000)	Quantity (1,000 tons)	Value (¥1,000,000)
Foodstuffs	993	196	2,735	470
Raw materials	2,852	358	11,726	575
Manufactures as raw materials	3,001	562	4,831	803
Finished manufactures	6,303	2,897	3,422	1,669
Others	50	5	199	23
Total	13,189	4,000	2,955	3,542

**Central Wholesale Market** The aggregate amount of sales made at the Osaka wholesale market in 1936 was valued at ¥76,618,869, the average daily sales being ¥218,287. This market was inaugurated in 1931, and it deals only in daily necessities of life such as fish, meat, eggs, vegetables and fruits, and there are six more central wholesale markets in the whole country.

**Municipal Retail Markets** There are 44 retail markets operated by the Municipality. Sales made at these municipal markets in the whole city of Osaka in 1936 totalled ¥22,847,966, a decrease of ¥142,359 from 1935. The steady declining tendency in the amount of sales at the Municipal retail markets is chiefly explained by the effect of the uniform price system at work and the in-

creased number of private markets. The average monthly sales in 1936 resulted in ¥1,903,997 and the average sales per market in the same year ¥430,559.

#### Foreign Trade

The 1936 foreign trade returns of Osaka showed ¥672,232,979 in export and ¥593,263,783 in import, the excess of exports resulting in ¥78,969,196. In tonnage, however, the result was adverse up to 3,021,170 tons, a strong evidence that Osaka is an efficient manufacturing centre. Against the aforesaid export valued at ¥672,232,979 was an increase of ¥52,090,464 (8.4%) in export, and ¥46,513,642 (8.5%) in import, and of the excess of exports amounting to ¥5,576,822 (7.6%). Particulars follow:

#### FOREIGN TRADE OF OSAKA, 1936 AND 1937

Kinds	Exports		Imports		Excess of Exports or Imports (-)
	(In yen)				
Foodstuffs	7,205,301	13,490,834	(-) 6,285,533		
Raw materials	8,374,954	389,588,602	(-) 381,213,648		
Manufactures for further manufacturing	115,337,012	143,958,101	(-) 28,601,089		
Finished goods	523,223,514	41,801,818	481,421,696		
Miscellaneous	8,612,417	2,284,069	6,328,348		
Re-shipments	9,459,761	2,140,350	7,319,422		
Total	672,232,979	593,263,783	78,969,196		
1937 total	853,105,000	835,183,000	17,922,000		

As shown in the above total of exports amounting to ¥672,232,979, finished goods accounted for ¥523,514 (77.8%) and of the total imports raw materials accounted for ¥389,588,602 (65.7%) and materials for further manufacturing ¥143,958,101 (24.3%).

A further study shows that the ex-

cess of exports was due to increase in trade with the Asiatic Continent, Europe and America. Osaka is the third important foreign trade port city, Kobe ranking first and Yokohama second.

#### Transportation

**Roads** At the end of 1936 the total

road area of Osaka was 13,051,061 square km., 7.0% of the entire area of the city compared with 6.7% of 1935, and the total road length was 2,522,231 metres. The total area of paved roads was 5,537,493 sq. metres, 12.4% of the entire road area.

**Rivers, Canals and Bridges** Osaka is the Venice of Japan in that there are many canals, and to that fact she owes much of her development as a big commercial and manufacturing center. Rivers that run through the city number 12 and canals four which are serving the city as effective means of transportation.

**Tramway and Bus Lines** At the end of March, 1936 the business kilometerage of street tramways was 106.5 kilometres, the number of passenger cars in use counting 765. The total number of passengers in 1936 was 263,031,378 (0.4% increase from 1935) and the total revenue ¥14,729,190 (0.2% increase from 1935). All tramway lines and some bus lines are operated by the Municipality.

The subway work was first started in 1930 and its operation between Shinsaibashi and Umeda was inaugurated in 1933, and then the line was extended southward from Shinsaibashi to Nanba in October, 1935, the total business kilometerage on December 31, 1935 being 4.1 and the number of cars 23. The total number of passengers in the whole year of 1936 was 17,624,257 with fares totalling ¥1,506,651. The subway lines are also operated by the city.

**Suburban Electric Railways** On March 31, 1936 there were 9 private companies operating suburban electric lines to various suburban points with a total kilometerage of 839.4 carrying 1,059,280 passengers per day in average and an aggregate total number of passengers being 38,696,000 in the whole year of 1936.

These Companies are Nankai Railway Company, Hanshin Electric Railway Company, Hanshin Express Railway Company, Keihan Electric Railway Company, Osaka Denki Kido Company, Sangu Electric Railway Company, Osaka Railway Company, Hankyu Electric Railway Company, Hankai Electric Railway Company, Hamaden, Kishiwada, Wakayama, Nara, Yoshinoyama, Ujiyama and Kinuana and chief points that are reached by those electric railways.

**Sea Transportation** The Osaka Harbor is one of the three largest ports in Japan and steamships that entered the port in 1935 numbered 23,966, the aggregate tonnage being 35,822,282 tons. Sail boats numbered 167,931, with an aggregate tonnage of 4,836,441. The in-

crease in the number of calling steamships compared with 1934 was 12.6%, another evidence of the growing prosperity of Osaka.

**Airways** Osaka is an important airway point in Japan. The Nippon Air Transportation Company is operating its regular airway passenger service with Osaka as a center-point, Tokyo to Osaka and Osaka to Fukuoka, thence to various points of Chosen and also southward to Taiwan. In 1936 passengers who left from the Kizugawa airport numbered 2,051 and those who arrived 2,097. The Nippon Air Transport Institute is operating the air way service between Osaka and Beppu and between Osaka and Shirahama. In the business year ending March, 1936 passengers who utilized the Institute's service totalled 645.

#### Education

On March 1, 1936 there were Kindergartens and schools in Osaka totalling 767 against 666 of the previous year; teachers, professors and nurses numbering 17,966 against 12,790 of the previous year; and pupils and students 466,842 against 446,751 of 1935. Schools and kindergartens established by the Municipality numbered 511; schools alone established by the Prefecture and the Municipality 30; and private schools and kindergartens 226.

Kindergartens numbered 119 on March 1, 1936, children enrolled numbering 15,086 and nurses 527. Attendants in elementary schools totalled 6,570, on March 1, 1936, with their teachers numbering 6,916. Middle schools and schools of the same grade totalled 71, with pupils numbering 57,575 and teaching forces 2,435. Institutions for higher and university education were 10 in number, faculties totalling 781 and students 7,937.

Furthermore, there were on March 1, 1936, Young Men's Schools numbering 148 in all, with teaching forces of 1,281 and pupils counting 29,271.

Educational expenditure of the Municipality for 1935 was ¥15,789,097 an increase of ¥2,657,203 (20.2%) over 1934. Of this expenditure for education ¥7,962,075 was for salaries.

Universities and colleges in Osaka are the Osaka Imperial University (governmental), the Osaka University of Commerce (municipal), Osaka Higher School (governmental), the Osaka School of Foreign Languages (governmental), the Kansai University (private), Naniwa Commercial College (private), Osaka Girls' College (prefectural), etc. Libraries. At the end of March, 1935 there

were 13 libraries, 1 being under governmental maintenance, 6 under municipal maintenance and 6 of private ownership. In the governmental library there were 671,265 books on March 31, 1936.

#### Social Welfare Works

**Relief of the Poor** Since the issuance by the Government in 1874 of the relief regulation, the municipality of Osaka has active interest in the relief of the poor, old-aged and deserted children. More recently it has undertaken to institute various social works directed for the prevention of poverty. In 1935 three municipal maternity homes received 6,135 expectant mothers of small means and births numbering 5,155 were obtained, still-births numbering 307, and daily average births 47.

**Protection of Infants & Children** At the end of 1935 there were 34 nurseries, poor children educational homes; 3 blind and deaf protection homes; 9 minors protection houses; and 16 children health consultation offices. Infants who were received in the 34 nurseries totalled 2,700.

**Employment Exchanges** The municipality also maintain 21 employment exchanges and 1 training place for work-seekers. The employment exchanges gave work to 40,532 men and 106,299 women during 1935.

**Medical Relief** On March 31, 1936 there were 63 relief hospitals. The total number of patients treated in all the relief-hospitals was 12,950 in 1935.

**Social Education Work** In 1935 there

were 18 institutes for the social education work, of which 7 were under municipal management. Protection of infants and children, assistance to advice-seekers on matters of health, law, etc. and holding of necessary lectures for social educational purposes etc. are the works that are being carried on by the 18 institutes.

**Unemployment** In 1936 there were 28,105 unemployed per day in average including 7,328 Koreans, according to the Municipal Social Bureau. This unemployment number was 0.91% of the entire population of the city and a reduction of 14.2% from 1935. Though there was a reduction of 19.67% in Japanese there was an increase of 5.9% in the Korean unemployment.

#### Municipal Finance

The fiscal year 1937 budget was formulated, taking into consideration the need of meeting all that was urgent for the healthy expansion of the city and the promotion of the welfare of the citizens and it was balanced at ¥355,181,126, an increase of ¥47,719,788 over the previous year. The main items for which the expenditure was allotted cover the following: ¥1,351,764 for the 4th road improvement work; ¥3,235,006 for the 3rd city planning work; ¥6,221,232 for the 5th school equipment; ¥8,776,342 for extension of equipment work for the supply of electricity; and ¥2,500,000 for the extension of water work.

The municipal loans aggregated ¥527,933,555 on May 31, 1936, which means ¥177 per capita.

#### Kyoto

Kyoto, known in antiquity by the name of "Heian" (the city of peace), was for about a thousand years the metropolis of Japan. At the Restoration, the Emperor Meiji moved his capital to Tokyo, but Kyoto retained its position as a cultural centre, and today it is looked upon as "the classic city" and the leader of culture in the western part of the country. The city, lying in what is called the Kyoto basin, is surrounded by many famous hills and mountains such as Arashiyama, Atagoyama, Kurayama, Hieizan and Higashiyama. The area of the city is 288.65 square kilometres, the greatest length from N. to S. is a little over 26 kilometres and the greatest breadth is about 25 kilometres, the form being roughly rectangular. Osaka lies 43 kilometres to the south-

west.

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

**Population** The population grew from 717,100 in 1927, to 736,000 in 1928, to 755,300 in 1929, and due to the above mentioned extensions in the boundaries, was found in 1930, to be 952,397. On October 1, 1935 the total number of population in Kyoto was 1,080,593, that of households was 224,663, the estimat-



ed number of population in October 1, 1936, was 1,108,400, that of households was 230,238, and population 1,133,900 in 1937.

#### Industry and Commerce

In 1935 the conditions of factories which employed more than 5 persons in Kyoto were as follows:

	Facto- ries	Opera- tives	Produc- tion (In yen)
Textile	1,020	30,606	92,814,395
Metallurgical	133	2,682	13,179,150
Machinery	185	7,792	22,929,879
Ceramics	51	983	3,466,576
Chemical	70	1,877	13,963,871
Saw milling & wood work	133	1,291	5,918,966
Printing & binding	79	1,570	6,568,332
Foodstuffs	294	4,605	28,070,978
Electric & gas	27	360	5,953,440
Miscellaneous	101	1,650	4,711,467
Total	2,020	53,416	197,577,154

#### TOTAL INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION OF KYOTO (1935)

Kind of Industry	Amount in yen
Agriculture	4,638,741
Livestock	4,490,184
Forestry	439,589
Mineral	247,504
Fisheries	52,756
Factories (including all petty shops)	388,892,931
Total	298,761,715
1934	264,126,150
1933	233,713,699

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

	1932	1933	1934	1935
Exports	22,334	28,270	38,984	42,490
Imports	4,317	5,315	8,198	9,528

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

(In ¥1,000)			
At the end of	No. of Banks	Deposits	Loans
1932	88	453,702	156,344
1933	85	474,504	178,553
1934	80	494,295	208,386
1935	80	535,339	179,773
1936	80	529,131	237,932

**Commercial and Industrial Corporations** At the end of 1935 there were 3,246 companies in Kyoto. Their paid-up capital amounted to ¥293,870. The Kyoto Stock Exchange sold, in the short term section, 14,982,960 shares with the value of ¥1,750,446,000 and delivered 1,500,560 shares with the value of ¥143,972,000.

#### Transportation

**Vehicles** At the end of 1935 the number of vehicles was 205,813, including 231 rikisha, 2,766 automobiles and 150,595 bicycles.

**Municipal Tramways** In 1935-36 the total length of the lines was 65.0 km., and carried 101,441,478 passengers, while the bus ran on 41.4 km. of the lines and carried 10,675,571.

**State Railways** In 1935-36 the number of passengers who moved through Kyoto and other seven stations in the city was 19,454,053.

**Suburban Electric Railways** On the north the Eizan Electric Railway extends from Demachi Bridge to Kurama and Mount Hié; on the north-west the Arashiyama line starts Shijō-omiya and goes to Arashiyama and connects with the Atago Electric line. To the south Kyoto is connected with Osaka and Nara by three electric railways, i.e. Kei-han Electric, Shin (new) Keihan Electric and Nara Electric. The Kei-han line extends to the east from the terminal of Sanjō to the city of Otsu by Lake Biwa.

#### Rivers, Water-Power Works

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

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

The waterworks were started in 1908 and completed in March, 1912, at the

cost of ¥3,000,000 of which ¥750,000 came from the State treasury. The water is drawn from Lake Biwa by means of the second canal mentioned above and supplies water to 500,000 people. Further work, to cater to the needs of 200,000 people, is on the way. The supply in 1935-36 was 41,359,087 cubic metres to 147,114 households.

#### Education

Governmental and Prefectural: Kyo-

to Imperial University, the Third Higher School, Kyoto Higher Industrial and Art School, Kyoto Higher Sericultural School, Kyoto Sangyo Koshujo (School of Sericulture).

Municipal schools: Kyoto Painting School.

Private schools: Ritsumeikan University, Doshisha University, Ryukoku University, Otani University, Shingonshu University, Buddhist School, Military Arts School.

#### NUMBER OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTES

(March 1, 1936)

	No. Instruc- tors	Students		No. Instruc- tors	Students		
Kindergartens	53	160	4,331	Technical schools	13	472	11,217
Elementary schools	135	2,937	127,787	Normal schools	2	94	828
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	2	51	363	Higher schools	1	62	772
Girls' high schools	18	533	11,702	Colleges	16	626	6,203
Middle schools	13	370	7,509	Universities	6	1,084	9,336
				Total	259	6,415	180,138

**Libraries and Museums** There are also in Kyoto other institutions for educational purposes as the Imperial Gift Museum, Kyoto Municipal Library, Kyoto Fine Arts Museum, and the Memorial Zoological Garden.

**Shrines and Temples** In 1935 the numbers of Buddhist temples and Shinto shrines for which Kyoto is famous

were 403 shrines, 334 preaching places of sectarian Shinto sects, 1,413 Buddhist temples, while Christian churches numbered 52.

#### Social Work

Conditions of social undertakings under municipal management in 1935-36 were:

	No. of establishments		
Public markets	13	Sales account	2,487,226
Housing	5 places	No. of houses	250
Public baths	4 houses	Bathers	1,400,551
Labour exchanges	3	{ Cases handled	26,593
Lodging houses	2	{ Employed	11,413
Lunch-room	1	Lodgers	32,790
		Meals	91,504

#### Finance

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

Fiscal Year	Revenue (In ¥1,000)	Expendi- ture
1931-32	40,548	40,444
1932-33	37,517	37,002

Fiscal Year	Revenue	Expendi- ture
1933-34	26,083	36,302
1934-35	27,453	37,884
1935-36	28,527	42,869
1936-37	30,608	43,945

Municipal debts outstanding on May 31, 1936 totalled ¥56,866,161 or ¥51.351 per capita of population.

#### Nagoya

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

is always mild. Nagoya castle, with its famous golden dolphins, speaks of the glorious history of the city, but one cannot live on the past, and old and historically important as the city may be, she fills today a more important rôle than of old, for she is a distributing and industrial centre for the middle part

of Honshu, a rôle that will grow in importance as time goes on.

#### Area and Population

The increases of population and area during the past 10 years, 1928-37, are shown in the following table :

On October 1	Population	No. of Households	Area (sq. km.)
1928	869,900	182,752	148.929
1929	904,700	190,063	148.929
1930 (census)	907,404	190,379	150.733
1931	934,400	198,000	151.044
1932	961,800	203,700	151.044
1933	989,600	209,700	151.044
1934	1,017,700	215,600	151.044
1935 (census)	1,082,816	219,737	151.093
1936	1,119,500	231,200	151.210
1937	1,186,900	245,200	151.268

Buildings Number of buildings at the end of 1936 was as follows :

Concrete buildings	554
Brick buildings	307
Wooden buildings	270,466
Others	28,810
Total	300,137

#### Commerce and Industry

**Companies and Banks** At the end of 1936 the number of business corporations in Nagoya was 3,534 with an aggregate authorized capital ¥680,104,000, and that of banks 7 with 80 branches. At the end of 1936 their deposits amounted to ¥530,544,000 outstanding loans to ¥230,355,000.

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

	EXPORTS	IMPORTS
Home trade (In yen)		
1933	41,596,840	122,252,842
1934	47,397,255	137,081,837
1935	57,205,175	149,122,814
1936	65,839,589	168,466,005
Foreign trade		
1933	89,420,348	91,178,124
1934	115,515,093	88,526,006
1935	129,478,126	95,528,520
1936	131,500,961	108,777,074
1937	147,909,000	148,329,000
Totals of home and foreign trades (In yen)		
1933	131,017,188	213,430,966
1934	162,912,348	225,607,843
1935	186,683,301	244,651,334
1936	197,340,550	277,243,079

In 1936, in home trade, shipments of rice, other cereals, wheat flour, sugar, confectioneries, cotton tissues, timber, wooden board and boxes, knitted goods, chemicals, ceramics, iron, coal and fertilizers exceeded million yen each, ceramics heading the list with ¥6,417,708; receipts of rice amounted to ¥23,220,381, sugar ¥24,793,874, lumber ¥12,661,366, coal and charcoal ¥24,977,890, and iron and manufactures ¥20,219,529. In foreign trade, exports of wheat flour amounted to ¥766,457, beer ¥895,818, cotton tissues ¥42,435,113, ceramics ¥37,235,464, iron manufactures ¥3,186,850, boards for box and casks ¥2,496,075, veneer boards and other planks ¥3,219,791, rolling stocks ¥5,429,115, toys ¥3,897,196, spinning machines ¥3,314,412 and woollen tissues ¥6,188,675. Imports of wheat amounted to ¥3,054,431, wool ¥48,472,917, cotton ¥3,672,586, timber ¥6,720,415, coal ¥5,358,964, and machines ¥1,670,001.

**Exchanges** Nagoya has three exchanges, i. e. the Stock Exchange, Rice Exchange and Cotton Yarn Exchange. In 1936, the turnover of the Stock Exchange was 141,580 shares long term transaction valued at ¥11,890,058. The Rice Exchange handled 3,524,400 koku while the Cotton Yarn Exchange handled 1,653,470 bales.

**Industry** Commodities that are brought into city are foodstuffs and raw materials such as rice, sugar, timber, coal, ginned cotton, iron, wool, etc., while those sent out are mainly lumber, coal, cotton piecegoods, porcelain and pottery, beer, cement and other manufactures. Nagoya has been from olden times a famous place for porcelain and pottery and in 1935 the output totalled as much

as ¥25,342,000. It is only since the growth of the cotton spinning industry in the city that the value of the annual output of pottery has been challenged. The total production of the cotton spinning industry reached ¥164,617,000 in 1936. An equally significant development is that of the machine and machinery. In

1936 the total output of machine industry reached ¥109,854,000, an increase of 14.0 per cent as compared with the previous year.

**Number of Factories and Production** Number of factories employing more than 5 operatives and productions of various industries in 1936 follow :

Kind of Industries	Factories		Operatives		Output (in ¥1,000)	
	1935	1936	1935	1936	1935	1936
Textile	577	605	27,748	27,373	153,127	164,617
Metallic	362	384	5,600	6,290	15,813	17,770
Machine and tool	815	853	32,674	37,515	96,346	109,854
Pottery and porcelain	194	228	11,268	12,155	21,819	25,342
Chemical	150	142	3,852	3,677	24,840	25,421
Saw mills and wood works	588	599	7,070	7,712	25,735	28,602
Printing and bookbinding	173	203	2,632	2,840	9,717	13,237
Comestibles and beverages	415	420	3,959	4,012	43,796	45,470
Gas and electric	3	3	198	262	7,196	9,155
Others	731	737	5,747	6,290	20,541	27,305
Total	4,008	4,173	100,748	108,126	418,930	466,773

#### Transportation

**Railways** Lying as it does between Kyoto, the old capital, and Tokyo, the present capital, Nagoya is known as Chukyo (middle capital). It is an important intermediate city on the Tokaido highway. The Kwansai line, which starts from Osaka, passes through Nara and Miyé prefectures and connects at Nagoya with the main Tokaido line to Tokyo. The Chuo line, which runs through Gifu, Nagano, Yamanashi and other prefectures to Tokyo, has Nagoya as its other terminus. Nagoya is thus one of the most important railway centres of Japan. The railway station and the harbour are directly connected by rail and the importance of the city as a distributor of goods is thereby enhanced. There are 8 stations, viz., Nagoya, Nagoya-Minato, Atsuta, Chikusa, Ozoné, Hattá, Shiratori, and Horikawaguchi. The annual passenger traffic passing through these 8 stations is estimated at about fifteen million persons, and goods traffic amounts to approximately four million tons. The city is provided with an extensive network of electric railway lines to connect with outlying districts. Since 1935 the city bought several private electric railways, and now only two private ones are left, i. e. the Seto Electric Railway Co. and the Nagoya Electric Railway Co., and most of elec-

tric car business is run by the municipality, the total mileage being 113,497 kilometres.

At the end of 1936 the total length of roads in Nagoya extended to 3,192 kilometres, the number of bridges 545, that of vehicles 191,395 in 1936 and 211,118 in 1937.

**Harbour Works** Nagoya has a splendid harbour well protected by Chita Peninsula from typhoons. Construction of the harbour was started in 1896 and the third stage of the entire plan was completed in 1928 after a total outlay of ¥15,490,000. The area of the wharves is 1.52 square kilometres, with anchoring space for thirty-eight steamers of ten thousand tons or so. The fourth stage of construction was undertaken at an estimated expenditure of ¥10,120,000. When the work is finished the area of the wharves will be increased to 2.23 square kilometres and there will be anchoring space for fifty-two steamers of ten thousand tons. At present direct trade is carried on with the American continent, Europe, China, the South Sea Islands, Australia and Africa. The number of ships which entered the Nagoya harbour in 1936 was 51,431 with an aggregate tonnage of 17,678,269.

#### Education and Social Work

**Social Work** Social undertakings in the city in 1936-37, were as follows :

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#### Education and Social Work

**Social Work** Social undertakings in the city in 1936-37, were as follows:

	Establishment	Beneficiaries
Lodging houses	7	190,534
Public pawnshops	4	{ Persons 53,137 Loans ¥266,977
Labour exchanges	9	Cases handled 671,281
Public markets	14	Amount of sale ¥2,811,619

**Educational Facilities** In March, 1937 the number of schools and pupils in Nagoya was 398 and 229,991 respectively classified as follows: 41 kindergartens with 3,836 children; 118 elementary schools with 158,624 pupils; 172 secondary schools including the young people's schools with 56,021 pu-

pils; 7 collegiate schools including one university with 3,225 students, 2 blind and deaf-mute schools with 342 pupils; and 58 miscellaneous schools with 7,943 students.

Among the above mentioned schools those belonging to the municipality in 1936 were:

Kind of schools	No.	Classes	Instructors	Pupils
Elementary schools	109	2,686	2,977	6,520
Girls' high schools	3	—	85	2,676
Commercial schools	3	—	99	2,594
Technical school	1	—	40	605
Young peoples' schools	100	—	1,056	12,810
Business continuation schools	29	—	417	2,517
Kindergartens	4	23	24	687

Total educational expenditure including others ¥6,639,509

#### Finance

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

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

Year	Revenue		Expenditure		Total
	¥	¥	Ordinary	Special	
1928-29	19,438,161	11,663,553	7,275,835	18,939,388	
1929-30	25,390,085	18,219,390	7,034,796	25,254,186	
1930-31	31,477,355	23,545,976	6,878,659	30,424,635	
1931-32	37,963,011	28,946,961	7,126,598	36,073,559	
1932-33	45,421,218	36,644,010	7,163,058	43,807,068	
1933-34	84,689,082	76,511,764	7,578,021	84,089,785	
1934-35	35,894,410	25,738,008	10,156,402	35,894,410	
1935-36	54,043,639	44,205,138	7,838,501	54,043,639	
1936-37	66,689,000	25,639,000	41,050,000	66,689,000	
1937-38	59,442,000	19,435,000	40,007,000	59,442,000	

**Municipal Loans** At the end of March, 1937, the total indebtedness of Nagoya city amounted to ¥105,807,000 or ¥94.57 per capita of population.

#### Yokohama

##### General

**History** Yokohama, in the Bunroku Era, about 1587, was a hamlet of twelve families and by the time it became an open port, July 1, 1859, it was only a small fishing village of one hundred families or 350 people. The real growth began with the arrival of the foreigners. The commercial treaties Japan entered into with the United States of America,

the Netherlands, Russia, Great Britain, and France stipulated that Kanagawa should be an open port, because it stood on the open harbour nearest Tokyo, then known as Yedo and the seat of the Shogunate Government, but as that village was already very crowded the Tokugawa Shogunate opened up the village of Yokohama instead.

In the beginning four streets were laid out, but as more and more Western,

Chinese and Japanese merchants gathered there the area was quickly extended. The population in 1877 was 30,000, five years later it had grown to 52,000, and five years after that there were more than 94,000 in the town. At the end of September, 1932, the population was 661,500. Yokohama received the status of a municipality on April 1, 1889. In 1901, the once thriving port of Kanagawa and other adjoining villages and towns were absorbed by the newly risen Yokohama, and in 1911 and 1927, further extensions took place.

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

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

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

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

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

**Area and Population** At the end of March, 1937 the area of Yokohama was 173.18 square kilometres. The population of Yokohama was 759,700 on October 1, 1937, of which 387,500 were male and 372,200 female.

#### POPULATION

October 1.	Men	Women	Total	Households
1925 (Census)	214,341	191,547	405,888	95,377
1930 ( " )	321,415	298,891	620,301	135,929
1931 (Estimate)	331,300	309,500	640,800	140,338
1932 ( " )	341,300	320,200	661,500	144,923
1933 ( " )	351,500	331,100	682,600	149,531
1934 ( " )	361,700	342,200	703,900	154,181
1935 (Census)	360,363	343,927	704,290	148,545
1936 (Estimate)	377,200	361,200	738,400	155,785
1937 ( " )	387,500	372,200	759,700	—

**Foreign Residents** Foreign population in Yokohama numbered 5,484 at the end of December, 1936, against 5,088 in 1935, the increase being 396. Chinese increased by 169 during the same period, Hindu 78, German 45, American 19 and English 18.

But this foreign population of 5,484 is still a big decrease if compared to 7,492 in 1922 which at the end of 1923 diminished to almost a few hundreds on account of the great earthquake.

## FOREIGN RESIDENTS IN YOKOHAMA

	(1936)			
	Households	Men	Women	Total
Britain	261	294	307	601
America	151	194	156	350
Germany	107	239	108	247
France	44	50	57	107
Russia	66	84	84	168
Switzerland	30	36	29	65
Italy	16	15	18	33
China	935	2,215	1,272	3,489
India	40	96	24	120
Other & Total	1,771	3,288	2,198	5,484

## Commerce

**Banks** At the end of December, 1936, the number of banks in Yokohama including branches of those banks having their head offices in cities other than Yokohama counted 16 of which 3 were foreign banks. The banks which are carrying on foreign exchange business extensively are Yokohama Specie Bank, Dai-ichi Bank (branch), Mitsui Bank (branch), Sumitomo Bank (branch), Bank of Taiwan (branch), Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation (branch), Bank of India, Australia & China (branch) and National City Bank of New York (branch). The banks domiciled in Yokohama numbered 5 in December 1936, the most powerful one being the Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd. The 16 banks showed the following accounts in aggregate as outstanding on Dec. 31, 1936:

Deposits ¥370,950,000,000, discounts & advances ¥203,788,000. 12 out of the 16 banks were on Dec. 31, 1936, member banks of the Yokohama Clearance House.

**Companies** At the end of 1936 there were 1,476 commercial and industrial companies in Yokohama of which 936 were for trade and 438 for industries.

**Warehouses** At the end of 1936 Stocks in all warehouses in Yokohama were balanced at ¥79,465,534 as against ¥113,366,674 at the end of 1935. Stocks stored in during 1936 were valued at ¥62,900,988 and those withdrawn ¥67,677,236.

**Foreign Trade** Goods exported from the port of Yokohama for foreign countries in 1937 amounted to ¥800,002,000 and goods imported in the same year were valued at ¥1,047,600,000 the adverse balance being ¥247,598,000.

## FOREIGN TRADE THROUGH YOKOHAMA

	(In ¥1,000)			
	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of
1931	370,662	305,637	676,299	ex. 65,025
1932	400,659	355,358	756,017	" 45,031
1933	500,888	456,354	957,242	" 44,534
1934	490,201	537,316	1,027,517	im. 47,115
1935	626,017	616,588	1,242,605	ex. 9,429
1936	678,323	687,012	1,365,335	im. 8,689
1937	800,002	1,047,600	1,847,602	im. 247,598

## EXPORTS

	(In ¥1,000)				
Articles	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Wheat flour	11,011	22,701	19,805	27,173	14,112
Canned Crab	10,377	17,726	13,945	18,362	15,753
Raw silk	262,252	274,691	204,640	283,771	296,601
Silk crepe	7,671	13,935	20,632	17,550	13,001
Electric lamps	9,026	7,750	6,935	5,763	8,330
Toys	9,360	15,184	17,498	17,945	20,285

## IMPORTS

	(¥1,000)				
Articles	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Wheat	26,809	27,414	25,040	30,789	21,912
Crude oil & heavy oil	21,568	29,305	38,193	47,751	63,797
Rubber	3,267	5,705	12,571	11,944	17,781
Cotton	31,601	41,898	48,601	52,210	50,632
Wool	19,584	39,595	43,763	40,715	49,169
Coal	7,334	9,145	10,845	11,785	12,303
Automobiles & parts	9,226	6,988	19,073	20,581	20,020
Lumber	10,907	11,819	11,169	14,483	16,861
Soya beans	—	—	8,375	13,393	13,596

## RAW SILK EXPORTED TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES FROM YOKOHAMA, 1936

Countries	Quantities Bale	Value ¥	Countries	Quantities Bale	Value ¥
U. S. A.	329,778	255,712,142	Australia	3,593	2,956,500
Canada	818	642,352	Other countries	7,456	4,414,488
Great Britain	20,338	16,527,531	Total	392,753	296,600,978
France	20,770	16,347,965	From all Japan	503,382	392,808,919

## TRADE BOATS ENTERED YOKOHAMA DURING 1936

	Number of Ships	Tonnage
Japanese	1,686	6,341,808
Foreign	1,298	5,930,153
Total	2,984	12,271,961

## Industries

**Factories and Production** At the end of 1936 there were 152 factories for the spinning industry, 61 for the metal-

lic industry, 169 for the machine and tool manufacturing industry and 75 for the chemical industry, all showing expansion compared with 1935, the most conspicuous one being the machine and tool which increased from 107 to 169. Both the number of workers and the amount of production also showed a corresponding increase, workers increasing from 47,625 to 57,600 and production from ¥374,409,880 to ¥433,616,100, an increase of 16 per cent.

## FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION IN YOKOHAMA

	(in 1936)		
Kind	Factories	Workers	Production (in yen)
Spinning	152	7,032	14,809,296
Metallic	61	8,914	68,586,385
Machine & tool	169	24,500	163,849,458
Ceramics	16	1,839	17,628,904
Chemical	75	5,990	104,486,005
Wood works	79	1,213	4,178,823
Printing & book binding	55	847	1,862,979
Commodities	128	3,881	47,739,704
Gas & Electricity	4	392	—
Miscellaneous	203	2,992	10,474,546
Total	942	57,600	433,616,100

Note: This table excludes small factories operated by less than 5 workers.

## Transportation

**Ships** The total tonnage of vessels

that entered the port of Yokohama in 1936 reached 29,896,663. Details follow:

## FOREIGN RESIDENTS IN YOKOHAMA

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Note: This table excludes small factories operated by less than 5 workers.

## Transportation

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## SHIPS ENTERED AND WENT OUT THE PORT OF YOKOHAMA IN 1936

	Clearance		Entrance	
	No. of Vessels	Tonnage	No. of Vessels	Tonnage
Total	72,132	29,987,669	72,071	29,896,663
S. S. { Foreign lines	3,009	20,157,022	2,970	19,927,154
{ Domestic lines	3,034	7,495,212	3,059	7,637,330
	1,640	80,711	16,41	80,739
Small S. S.	223	2,933	224	2,946
Motor boats	24,568	644,111	24,540	644,131
Sailing boats { Foreign lines	15	23,830	11	23,366
{ Domestic lines	6,413	220,984	6,411	220,209
Lighters	32,930	1,362,866	32,915	1,360,786
1935	67,377	29,060,369	66,860	29,073,880
1934	66,176	26,294,086	65,989	26,396,672

Passengers Passengers by ocean-going vessels who landed and called at Yokohama in 1936 totalled 66,559 of whom 23,409 were those whose sea journeys ended at Yokohama and 43,150 were those who just called.

Below are given the nationalities of the passengers:

Nationalities	Number	
	Those who landed	Those who called
Japanese	12,261	6,388
Chinese	1,823	15,974
British	2,673	3,331
French	121	118
German	442	396
American	4,809	12,053
Other foreigners	1,280	4,890
Total	23,409	43,150

Railway Passengers In 1936 the Government railway passenger who left and arrived at Yokohama, Sakuragichō, Tsurumi, Higashi-kanagawa and Hodogaya stations numbered 52,269,890.

Electric Tramways Tramways were first installed in July, 1904, by a private company and later were purchased by the municipality. There are now over 92 kilometres of lines and carried 45,443,591 persons in 1936. There are five private tramway companies attending to the suburban services, viz., the Keihin Electric Tramway, the Tokyo-Yokohama Electric Ry., Tsurumi-Rinko Ry. Co., Shonan-Electric Ry., and the Jinchu Electric Ry. The number of passengers of these private tramways for 1935 was 45,123,969.

Miscellaneous In 1936 the area occupied by the roads was 8,643,311 sq. m. of which 1,574,234 sq. m. was paved.

In March, 1934, the total number of vehicles was 97,523, of which automobiles numbered 1,405 while bicycles totalled 78,713.

## Education

Schools and Colleges At the end of April, 1936, there were 71 elementary schools, of which 68 were maintained by the municipality. The number of children at these schools was 104,980.

There were 22 kindergartens with 1,239 children.

The number of middle grade, higher, and special schools and their pupils follows:

	No.	Students or pupils
Middle schools	6	4,608
Girls' high schools	9	6,067
Technical schools	13	6,715
Yonug people's schools	41	8,450
Blind, deaf and mute schools	3	195
Colleges:	5	3,373
Prefectural normal school	1	230
Miscellaneous schools	41	6,929

Libraries The library statistics as of March 1, 1936 were as follows:

	No.	Books	Visitors
Prefectural	1	10,012	1,580
Municipal	1	42,515	260,547
Private	2	22,560	10,654
Total	4	75,087	272,781

Religion At the end of 1936 the number of Shinto shrines was 159, Buddhist temples 229, and Christian churches 33.

Social Works In 1936 the conditions of social works in Yokohama were as follows:

	Establishments	Beneficiaries
Employment exchanges	4 { cases employed	372,153
Lunch halls	5	46,568

	Establishments	Beneficiaries	Finance
Pawnshops	12	Loans ¥713,885	Revenue and Expenditure The totals of revenue and expenditure of the city of Yokohama for the past 5 years were as follows:
Dwelling houses	2,014	Households 1,536	
Lodging houses	2	91,016	
Poor relief		17,568	

	Total	Ordinary Account (In yen)	Enterprises	Miscellaneous
Revenue				
1937-38 (estimate)	30,534,552	16,390,679	11,911,246	2,232,627
1936-37 ( " )	28,878,427	14,896,733	11,993,104	1,988,590
1935-36 (settled)	33,816,790	15,241,966	9,647,703	8,927,121
1934-35 ( " )	24,239,521	13,281,806	8,964,237	1,993,478
1933-34 ( " )	31,674,569	40,025,159	10,149,905	1,499,505
Expenditure				
1937-38 (estimate)	31,060,760	16,985,676	11,492,955	2,582,129
1936-37 ( " )	29,651,333	15,360,666	11,762,604	2,528,043
1935-36 (settled)	33,414,266	15,131,298	9,534,025	8,748,944
1934-35 ( " )	25,755,770	15,200,874	8,779,472	1,775,424
1933-34 ( " )	27,962,442	16,613,875	9,809,917	1,644,021

In 1937-38 budget of Yokohama the total amount of ordinary expenditure was estimated at ¥17,106,991. Itemized details follow:

Items	Amount in yen	Percentage	Items	Amount in yen	Percentage
Municipal office	1,112,157	6.5	Public works	2,134,244	12.4
Education	3,617,249	21.1	Loans	8,301,149	48.5
Industry	247,419	1.4	Miscellaneous	585,248	3.4
Hygiene	642,918	3.8	Total	17,106,991	100.0
Social works	466,607	2.7			

Note: The total differs from that given in the preceding table because of some overlappings with other accounts.

Bonded Indebtedness At the end of 1936, the total bonded indebtedness of Yokohama city amounted to ¥176,968,346.

## Kobé

## General

Located between the Osaka Bay and the Rokko mountain range, Kobé covers an area of 198 square kilometres, stretching 18 kilometres from east to west and 13.5 kilometres from north to south. With a population of 912,179 including about 9,122 foreigners, Kobé is one of the six largest cities in Japan. It is the "City of Wonders", as an international trade centre in the world. It ranks second in the revenue of bill-of-lading freight, London coming first.

Before the Restoration of Meiji in 1868, there were less than a thousand houses in Kobé, fishermen's village. In 1867 Hyogo harbour (Hyogo village) was first opened to foreign trade and then the foreign settlement came into existence

near the East Recreation Ground in Kobé village and Kobé harbour has since been gradually turned to advantage. Since then Kobé has increased in population. Accordingly, Kobé village grew into the "Town of Kobé" in 1868. Hyogo and Sakamoto villages being annexed to it in 1879, the city of Kobé was born in 1889. Recently neighbouring villages being annexed again, Kobé has become a "Prospering Greater Kobé".

Geographical Position and Area The city of Kobé lies on the south-west coast of Hyogo prefecture in the Kansai district of Honshu, situated at 135° 5'-15' E. long. and 34° 33'-45' N. lat. The greatest length from west to east is 14.47 kilometres and the greatest breadth from north to south is 13.5

kilometres, the total area being 83.06 square kilometres, of which about 60 per cent is occupied by mountains and hills, and the rest by farms and the city proper. The form of the city is like a long band, and is divided into eight wards known as Nada, Fukiai, Kobé, Hyogo, Soto, Minato, Hayashida, and Suma.

**Climate** The city of Kobé has an exhilarating climate at all seasons of the year on account of the advantage of its geographical position. It is backed by the Rokko mountain-chain and faces the Chibu Sea in Osaka Bay. The average temperature is 15° C (59° F). During summer the temperature sometimes runs up to 36° 4' C (97.5° F), but the average temperature of August and September is 25° 4' C (77.7° F). In winter the thermometer sometimes ranges about 4° 4' C below zero (24.1 F) but snow is rarely seen. The highest temperature in 1935 was registered at 36.4° C (97.5° F), and the lowest temperature 3.8° below zero (27.0° F) the average of the year being 15° C (59° F). The precipitation in the same year was 1,759.9 mm.

**Population** The following are the results of the national census for the year 1935:

Families	198,018
Population	912,179

As compared with the results of the general census taken in 1930, the population has increased 124,563 (15.8%), and the families 19,693 (11.0%) during the interval of five years.

The estimated population of the city was 964,000 on October 1, 1937.

**Foreign Residents** According to the statistics taken by the police office of Kobé, at the end of 1935, the total number of foreign residents in Kobé was 9,147.

**Houses** With the exception of public and municipal buildings and the

houses of foreign residents, the total number of houses in the city was registered as 88,615 at the end of 1927, among which one-storied houses numbered 44,473, two-storied ones 41,185, and three-storied ones 957. There were 84,507 buildings of wood, 98 per cent of the total number; of brick 1,651; of concrete 402; and of stone 11.

**Waterworks** The waterworks were at first designed in 1909 to supply 3 cu. ft. per capita a day to 250,000 inhabitants, but the plan was later altered to provide for 100,000 families, 25 cu. ft. a day. The work lasted until 1923 and cost ¥12,858,720, of which state grants amounted to ¥3,403,000. In 1926, the municipality increased its water supply by laying pipes in the eastern suburbs to draw water from the Sengari pond behind Mt. Rokko. In 1935 the city supplied 52,803,380 cubic metres to 167,578 households and other uses.

**Police Stations** The total number of police stations in the city at the end of March, 1935 was 10. Police boxes numbered 185, and policemen 1,800.

#### Commerce and Industry

**Movement of Commodities** The movement of commodities through the Kobé harbour and railway stations in 1934 within Japan proper and Chosen was as follows:

	Tonnage (in 1,000 tons)	Value (in yen)	
		Japan proper	Chosen
Outgoing	2,436	477,315,042	32,191,212
Incoming	4,916	357,710,973	57,128,612
Total	7,352	835,026,015	89,319,824

**Foreign Trade** The grand total of exports and imports in 1937 reached ¥2,227,067,000 and, Kobe stands first among all ports open for foreign trade in Japan proper either in exports and imports.

#### EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF KOBÉ IN 1929-1937

Year	(In 1,000 yen)			
	Exports	Imports	Grand total	Excess of
1929	701,893	882,331	1,584,206	im. 943
1930	523,172	563,649	1,086,821	im. 40,476
1931	409,011	457,740	866,751	.. 48,729
1932	499,303	535,647	1,034,950	.. 36,344
1933	650,539	641,122	1,291,661	ex. 9,418
1934	790,601	791,544	1,582,145	im. 943
1935	910,899	821,641	1,732,540	im. 89,258
1936	970,784	958,220	1,929,004	ex. 12,564
1937	1,107,552	1,119,515	2,227,067	im. 11,963

**Warehousing** At the end of 1936 number of principal warehouse companies in Kobé was 9 and the aggregate floor area covered by the warehouses was 146,803 (subo). In 1936, goods received by these warehouses were valued at ¥13,410,635, while ¥682,664,177 worth of goods were delivered. Goods stored at the year end amounted to ¥127,696,298.

**Electricity and Gas** At the end of 1934 the number of electric lamps in the city was 836,176 and electric motors 2,354. In the same year the municipality which undertakes the electric business got ¥12,391,978 from it.

In 1934, gas was supplied to 133,448 families with 347,633 spouts.

**Banks and Business Firms** At the end of 1935 the total number of banks and branches was 65, i. e. 3 banks, 15 branches thereof, and 40 branches of banks in other cities including 7 branches of savings banks. The deposits of ordinary banks and branches outstanding at the end of 1936 amounted to ¥30,208,000 and advances and loans ¥420,597,000.

In 1936 the clearing houses turned over 3,288,483 bills with the value of ¥6,669,755,772.

At the end of 1936 the number of companies was 4,041 with the paid-up capital amounting to ¥658,758,953.

**Factories and Their Workers** At the

end of 1936 there were 1,180 factories. The total number of the staff was 7,140, that of workers 80,126, and the total production was valued at ¥476,660,189.

#### Transportation

**Roads** At the end of 1936 the total length of roads in the city reached 703.61 km.

**Sea Transportation** In 1935 the number of steam ships which entered the Kobé harbour was 105,642 with 52,359,980 gross tons, of which registered tonnage was 28,334,334 tons.

Of the total number 101,224 were vessels sailing home waters and 4,418 on international courses. The foreign vessels numbered 1,272 Great Britain heading the list with 543 (2,907,690 tons), followed by the U.S.A. with 231 (1,497,666 tons).

#### VESSELS ENTERED KOBÉ

Year	Number of vessels	Tonnage
1933	89,478	46,382,542
1934	97,170	49,481,808
1935	105,642	52,359,980

**Vehicles** At the end of 1935 total number of vehicles of various kinds was 72,879. The itemized table follows:

March 31 of	Rikisha	Wagons and Carts	Automobiles	Autocycles	Bicycles
1931	1,046	15,338	1,549	694	65,379
1932	601	12,527	1,549	771	68,847
1933	654	12,151	1,584	862	71,609
1934	489	10,792	1,598	989	74,030
1935	302	8,591	1,656	973	72,614
At the end of 1935	334	6,652	2,333	1,572	61,988

**Railways** In 1934 the total number of passengers who left from and arrived at 12 stations in Kobé was 46,075,637.

**Electric Tramways** The tramways within the city limits are operated by the municipality, the total open mileage being 62,746 km. at the end of 1934. Attending to the suburban service, there are private companies, the Sanyo Electric Tramway (Hyogo-Himeji), Han-Shin Electric Ry., (Kobé-Osaka), Han-Shin Express Electric Ry., (Kobé-Osaka), and the Shin-Yu Electric Railway (Kobé-Arima). Han-Shin Kokudo Ry. was laid along the national road between Osaka and Kobé in 1927 and opened business in 1932, forming a parallel line to the state railway.

#### Education, Religion and Social Works

**Schools** In 1935 the number of elementary schools was 67, including 64 municipal schools, with 2,406 teachers and 113,782 pupils. Middle schools numbered 5, of which 3 were prefectural schools and 2 were private schools, with 180 teachers and 4,935 boys. The number of girls' high schools was 17, and pupils 11,437. The number of business schools was 15, of which 8 were commercial, 2 were technical, 4 were business and 5 were young people's schools. The total number of teachers was 452 and students 10,636. There is a government university of commerce and



a technical college. In 1935 Kobé expended ¥6,464,926 for educational purposes.

**Shrines, Temples and Churches** At the end of 1935 there were 100 Shinto shrines, 152 Buddhist temples, 397 Tenrikyo and Shinto churches, 254 Buddhist halls, and 55 Christian churches.

**Social Welfare Work** At the end of 1935 municipal establishments for social welfare work were as follows:

Markets, 11; cheap eating-houses, 6; employment exchanges, 4; public nurseries, 2; lodging-houses, 4; child consultation offices, 1; municipal dwelling-houses, 2 places; municipal pawnshops, 3; relief houses, 2; peoples' hospitals, 3; sanatorium, 1.

#### Finance

In 1933-34 Kobé received ¥44,305,647

and expended ¥42,652,765. The ways and means of the municipality for the past 7 years follow (in yen):

	Revenue	Expenditure
1930-31	44,818,597	44,991,844
1931-32	39,993,340	40,897,568
1932-33	40,362,920	41,566,310
1933-34	44,305,647	42,652,765
1934-35 (estimate)	49,306,906	50,161,030
1935-36 (estimate)	52,421,173	53,928,579
1936-37 (estimate)	53,903,396	56,174,874

The total amount of the city loans standing at the end of March, 1936, was ¥107,273,938. The loans and the sum borrowed in cash in the fiscal year 1935-36 was ¥112,712,700 while the sum refunded was ¥5,438,762.

## CHAPTER XL

### CHOSEN (KOREA)

#### General Description

Chosen, a peninsula extending southward from the north-eastern side of the continent of Asia, is washed on its eastern and western coasts by the Sea of Japan and the Yellow Sea respectively, and borders Manchoukuo and the Maritime Province of Siberia on the north, from which it is separated by the two rivers, the Yalu or Oryokko and the Tumen. Between the upper waters of these two rivers there is a mountain range which separates and turns them in opposite directions, the former flowing through Antung into the Yellow Sea. On the south the peninsula faces the Island of Kyushu and the western coast of Honshu, across the Korean Straits, with the islands of Tsushima and Iki about midway. It lies between the parallels of 33°06' and 43° north and 124°11' and 130°56' east, having a total area of 220,740.72 square kilometres which is about one-third of the area of the whole empire.

Surrounded thus by sea on three sides, Chosen has a long coast line extending in all to 6,674 kilometres. It has many good harbours on the south and west coasts, such as Fusan, Reisu, Mop-po, Jinsen and Chinnampo. The tides rise far higher on the west coast than on the east, the difference between the highest and the lowest tide-mark on the former reaching over ten metres, while on the east coast near Gensan it is less than half a metre. The country is as a whole mountainous, the eastern side steep and rocky, but sloping down more gently on the western side toward fertile plains traversed by large rivers such as the Daldo, Kan, Kin and Rakuto. The northern half of the peninsula is comparatively level and fit for agricultural work, whilst the southern half is rich in timber and minerals indicating good possibilities for future industrial development. The climate in Chosen is continental running to extremities of both heat and cold, the spring and autumn seasons being very short though highly delightful. One needs hardly add that the climate is decidedly rigorous in the north and milder in the south. Moreover, the eastern coast has on the whole

a milder climate than the western, the average temperature being some 2° C. higher, except in the middle of summer.

**Flora and Fauna** Plants in Chosen are classified into 160 families, 883 genus, 3,070 species and 550 varieties. Of these five genus and 500 species are peculiar to the country. The pine, larch, spruce, juniper, oak, willow, maple, alder and birch trees are found over the whole peninsula, the spruce, larch and birch mainly in the north, and the pine, oak, maple and alder in the south. Large specimens of old sophora, ginkgo biloba and spruce are also scattered over the country, especially in the central district; they are remnants of ancient forests and old temple sites. The poplar tree of Korean type exists, but the Lombardy poplar and the acacia have been imported and both are found widely scattered as aids against erosion. Flowering shrubs such as azalea, cherry lilac, syringa and spiraea are numerous and grow profusely on hill sides. The beech, maple and paulownia found on Dagelet Island are peculiar to that place. The soil and climate of Chosen have proved most suitable for the cultivation of fruit trees, and large orchards for imported apples, pears, peaches and vines have been set up. The walnut, chestnut, pignut and persimmon are indigenous and yield good crops.

Fauna of Chosen is of the Palaearctic geographical distribution. Animals commonly found are the boar, deer, wildcat, wolf, hare, weasel, tiger and leopard, (the number of the last two is now much reduced). Native horses are small, but strong and wiry; the cattle are large and useful and are widely distributed. Among birds are the crow, magpie, jay, kite, heron, crane, oriole, lark, sparrow, robin, tits, pheasant, and quail, while the goose, bustard, duck, teal, swan and snipe are migratory, passing Chosen in spring and in autumn. The variety of aquatic animals is extensive, comprising the mackerel, sardine, herring, sea bream, plaice, cod, pollack, whale, oyster, crab and lobster. Various kinds of the snake are

found everywhere, but few are venomous. Insect life has been well studied, as many are harmful to trees and crops. Among butterflies over two hundred species have been identified.

### Population

According to the report of the Ministry for Overseas Affairs, the population of Chosen in 1936 was as follows:

POPULATION OF CHOSEN (Dec. 31, 1936)

Province	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign (incl. the Chinese)	Total
Keiki	153,723	2,225,379	13,194	2,392,296
North Chusei	8,598	897,736	721	907,055
South Chusei	26,314	1,454,830	1,819	1,482,963
North Zenra	35,844	1,502,380	2,462	1,540,686
South Zenra	44,154	2,370,853	1,334	2,416,341
North Keisho	49,887	2,402,970	1,418	2,454,275
South Keisho	96,926	2,115,553	1,927	2,214,406
Kokal	20,582	1,614,738	3,930	1,639,250
South Heian	39,094	1,390,298	5,148	1,434,540
North Heian	22,363	1,578,605	19,914	1,620,882
Kogen	15,019	1,513,276	776	1,529,071
South Kankyo	51,052	1,544,883	6,243	1,602,178
North Kankyo	45,433	762,071	6,369	813,873
Total	608,989	21,373,572	65,275	22,047,836
1935	583,428	21,248,864	58,888	21,891,180
1934	561,384	20,513,804	50,639	21,125,827
1933	543,104	20,791,321	42,626	20,791,321
1932	528,452	20,037,273	39,151	19,599,876
1925	424,740	18,543,326	47,460	19,015,526
1920	347,850	16,916,078	25,031	17,288,959
1910	171,543	13,128,780	12,694	13,313,017

The following is the classification of the population of Chosen according to occupation:

POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION (Dec. 31, 1936)

Occupation	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign	Total
Agriculture, forestry, stock-raising, fishery, etc.	44,820	16,811,448	13,482	16,869,750
Industry	91,974	594,739	10,942	607,655
Commerce and transportation	176,055	1,463,461	29,347	1,668,863
Public service and profession	245,571	638,237	2,159	885,967
Miscellaneous occupations	26,556	1,490,645	8,933	1,526,134
Others	24,013	375,042	412	399,467
Total	608,989	21,373,572	65,275	22,047,836

In 1935 the density of the population average was 104 per square kilometre, ranging from 172.6 in the thickly inhabited south-west to 36.5 in the north-east. The average is 77 per square kilometre less than in Japan proper.

Only ten per cent of the people live in towns and cities where population numbers more than 8,000 and eighty per cent or 16,400,000 live in the country or seaside occupied in agriculture, forestry, stock-raising and fishery.

Among the foreign population the Chinese and Manchu predominate who numbered 41,266 at the end of 1933. Next came 721 Americans, 239 British,

96 Germans and 73 French.

### Origin of the Korean Race

Though no conclusive opinion has ever been given as to the origin of the Korean people, it is evident that they are of the Mongolian family, and it is generally admitted that their cradle was in the neighbourhood of Changchun, Manchoukuo, in and around the place now called Petna on the River Sungari. It seems, therefore, but natural that they should have a profound liking to emigrate and settle in those parts of Manchoukuo. From various historic relics it appears that they were of the

same stock with the Manchurians and those Japanese dwelling in the western half of Japan. In course of time much intermingling of blood seems to have taken place among the Koreans and the Chinese ever since Chinese colonies were first established along the north-western coast. But the latter did not supersede the native Korean race to any appreciable degree. This is clearly seen from the fact that the two races today have a distinctly different facial appearance, though both alike have black straight hair, dark oblique eyes and a tinge of bronze in the skin. The Korean language belongs to the Turanian group; it is poly-syllabic and possesses an alphabet of 11 vowels and 14 consonants, and a script known as Eunmunn. In grammatical construction it is almost identical with Japanese, though in sound and vocabulary it is quite dissimilar. From all these and other facts and evidences it is beyond any doubt that these two peoples were akin to one another from very remote times.

### Administrative Organization

Chosen is administered by the Government-General which was inaugurated on August 29, 1910, and has 8 main administrative offices, viz., (1) Governor-General's Secretariat, (2) Home Affairs Bureau, (3) Financial Affairs Bureau, (4) Industrial Bureau, (5) Agricultural and Forestry Bureau, (6) Judicial Bureau, (7) Educational Bureau, and (8) Police Bureau. There are also 5 affiliated offices which are (1) Central Council, (2) Communications Bureau, (3) Railway Bureau, (4) Monopoly Bureau, (5) Provincial Office, (6) Custom House, etc.

**Position of Koreans** For a number of years since the establishment of the Government-General in Chosen all Koreans in government service were placed under different regulations from those applying to Japanese officials. Gradually, however, almost all discriminative features in treatment and salary have been wiped out and in October, 1919, Korean officials were finally placed on the same footing as the Japanese and came under the same regulations. Moreover, prior to March, 1920, in the courts Korean judges were allowed to try only those civil cases in which both parties were Koreans and the criminal cases where the accused were Koreans, but now they are allowed to try all cases in which people of any nationality may be involved. Moreover, prior to 1919 the freedom of the press had been rigidly restricted. No newspaper except the few already in ex-

istence was allowed to be issued. Now, however, more daily papers are issued, and the restrictions placed on the holding of public meetings have been partly removed.

**The Central Council** As the highest consultative body there is the Central Council which is convened by the Governor-General several times a year to discuss such measures as may be presented by him. This Central Council consists of 5 advisors, 65 councillors, 1 chairman and 1 vice-chairman. One of the characteristic principles by which the Japanese administration in Chosen is guided is respect for the old Korean customs and manners, and the work of investigating these old customs so dear to the native people is entrusted to the Central Council. Koreans attach great importance to their ancestral tombs as a form of ancient worship, and the selection of a burial site is always made with great care. This, coupled with their age-old superstition that the fate of one's family would be greatly affected by the position of its grave, has resulted in the devastation of a large area of land; wherefore the Government-General in 1912 issued an order requiring all people to use the public cemeteries for the disposal of their dead. This order, however, was revised in 1919 so as to allow the people to follow their old customs.

### Local Autonomy and Suffrage

In establishing local administrative system due consideration was given to the system obtaining under the old régime and also to Korean culture and customs. Revisions have been made from time to time to suit changes in local conditions, and the system has finally developed into what it is at the present day.

The main principle upon which revisions were made was to prepare the way for laying foundation for local autonomy. The establishment of advisory organs in the revision of the local administrative system effected in 1920 had this object in view. During ten years after that progress in the preparation for self-government was made to such an extent that the time was considered ripe to effect further important reforms in the local system. An ordinance was, therefore, promulgated on October 1, 1930, the substance of which was as follows:

**Administration of Province** The former provincial advisory council (Do-Hyogi-Kwai) was changed into the provincial council (Do-Kwai) which is vested with administrative power. Two-thirds of members of the council are

lected by members of the municipal councils, *yu* councils and men councils in each province, and one-third appointed by the Provincial Governor.

The Provincial Governor acts *ex officio* as Speaker of the council and the Vice-Speaker is elected from among members of the council. The term of members of the provincial council is four years.

**Municipal System** Each municipality has two bodies of the first and second educational sectional councils. The former is composed of Japanese and the latter of Korean members of the municipal council.

**Yu-Men System** The "men" (township) system (*men-sei*) has been substituted by the *yu-men*-system, and the *yu* (town) council was established in each *yu* and made an executive organ. The "men" council, composed of elected members, remains as an advisory body. The term of members of the *yu* and men councils is four years.

**Administration of County and Island** Counties and islands have county and island councils, the councillors of which are elected by the members of the *yu* and men councils. The term of the councillors is four years.

**Supervision of Local Bodies** As in Japan proper the right to reverse, to cancel, or to reconsider any decisions reached by local administrative organs is reserved to the Government-General, which may suspend or dissolve meeting when necessary.

Those portions of the ordinance that apply to the municipal system, *yu-men* system, county and island councils were enforced on April 1, 1931 while other parts which apply to the administration of provinces on April 1, 1933.

**Suffrage** Since conditions have not yet adequately improved and the sense for civic responsibility is not yet sufficiently strong or wide-spread to abolish the franchise qualification, which is payment of local rates of five yen the subject is still left untouched. This may be reduced, as conditions improve, to one yen for the *yu-men* council election. A course in civics has lately been added to school curriculum which will aid in impressing upon the people the importance and benefit of franchise.

#### Finance

**Budgetary System Introduced** Under the old Korean régime there was no clear distinction between the court and the government in the use of money col-

lected from the people in the form of various taxes. Moreover, most of the state revenue was from the ginseng monopoly, leasing of state lands, and granting of concessions of various sorts. Accordingly, therefore, there was no means of framing a yearly budget. This state of affairs, more than anything else, called for speedy remedies. When, therefore, a Japanese financial adviser, Baron Megata, took up his duties in August, 1904, his first task was to bring order out of this financial confusion and his work was quickly done during the protectorate period. He drew up necessary plans for introducing the modern budgetary system, and the gold standard with a central bank to act as a state treasury and empowered with a right to issue convertible notes. A rigid taxation system was brought into existence, with the burdens of the people more equitably distributed. The former method of tax collection which gave rise to many serious abuses was quickly corrected. All the monopolies, such as that of ginseng, were turned over from the Imperial court to the government, and a clear distinction was marked between the finances of the court and of the state.

**Japan in Chosen** Upon the establishment of the Japanese hegemony in Chosen the Government-General took on its shoulders the heavy task of developing the country in every possible way so as to promote the welfare of the Korean people to the utmost extent. It necessitated starting new enterprises and increased expenditure, and the government outlay for the year 1911 reached over ¥48,740,000, an amount twice that of the preceding fiscal year. Since that time the tendency had always been upward, till it reached ¥246,852,843 in 1929, the highest mark ever seen in the budgetary history of Chosen. In 1930 a slight decrease was seen; the figures fell to ¥239,729,783, with a further slight reduction in each year until it reached ¥219,132,671 in 1932. Mention must be made of the fact that the determination of the Government-General to do its utmost for the economic development of the country and the promotion of the welfare of the people is shared by the Japanese government at home, for the latter is yearly advancing a subsidy of more than ¥15,000,000 from the national treasury to the Government-General. The budget again took an upward turn in 1933, and in 1937 it reached the highest mark of ¥422,837,690. Be-

low is given a budget table showing the trend of steady expansion of expenditure:

BUDGETS 1911-1937		
	Revenue	Expenditure
	(In Yen)	
1911	43,741,282	48,741,782
1920	124,798,469	114,316,860
1921	162,474,208	162,474,208
1922	158,124,617	158,124,617
1923	146,007,225	146,007,225
1924	142,700,159	142,780,159
1925	178,082,382	178,082,382

	Revenue	Expenditure
	(In Yen)	
1926	194,487,914	194,487,914
1927	210,910,111	210,910,111
1928	222,746,979	222,746,979
1929	246,852,843	246,852,843
1930	239,729,783	239,729,783
1931	238,923,617	238,923,617
1932	220,140,627	220,140,627
1933	232,026,949	232,026,949
1934	278,284,452	274,634,642
1935	290,267,414	290,267,414
1936	329,003,042	329,003,042
1937	422,837,690	422,837,690

#### BUDGET FOR 1938-1939 (In Yen)

##### REVENUE

Items	
Ordinary Revenue	
Taxes	77,383,740
Stamp receipts	20,622,581
Receipts from government undertakings and properties	258,153,535
Miscellaneous	3,910,716
Total	360,070,572
Extraordinary Revenue	
Proceeds from the sales of government properties	26,209
Contributions	81,793
Temporary profit tax	1,142,706
Special tax for China Affair	563,113
Grants from home national treasury, etc.	12,909,115
Loans (public or otherwise)	106,000,000
Part payment for the improvement of rivers and harbours	222,750
Brought forward	24,142,707
Total	145,088,393
Grand total	505,158,965

##### EXPENDITURE

Ordinary expenditure	
Shrines	74,240
Prince RI's household	1,900,000
Government-General office	6,803,828
Courts and Deposits Bureau	4,488,309
Prisons	6,527,048
Provincial offices	29,136,630
Keijo Imperial University	2,073,256
Schools and museums	2,632,156
Police training school	297,776
Agricultural experimental stations	619,510
Cattle disease serum manufacturing plant	245,021
Central Experimental Institute	220,690
Breeding horse and sheep pastures	302,786
Cereals inspection office	2,067,165
Fishery experimental station	215,914
Aquatic products conditioning house	256,190
Forestry experimental station	191,767
Monopoly office	38,672,039
Railways	108,488,823
Forestry Bureau	10,103,499

Items	
Communications	21,219,519
Taxation superintendence and tax offices	4,506,331
Customs Office	1,608,619
Social works	301,846
Leper sanatorium	778,727
National debt readjustment fund	31,709,269
Pension	7,952,939
Miscellaneous	571,471
Reserve	5,500,000
Total	289,365,168
Extraordinary Expenditure	
Pension for the old Korean soldiers	37,246
Investigation and experimentation	1,510,620
Subsidies and encouragements	33,481,519
Buildings and repairs	6,380,428
Communications	3,673,714
Civil engineering works	19,017,944
Railways	104,392,180
Protection against shifting sands	1,100,000
Control of the native land	117,166
Adjustment of the cadastre	160,718
Encouragement of Korean language	53,988
Improvement of land	1,570,113
Disposition of State property	170,276
Customs at frontiers	50,630
Instruction of volunteer soldiers	90,344
Measures for the Koreans abroad	1,781,567
Compilation of the Korean history	35,000
Temporary supervision	2,492,403
Adjustment of the road cadastre	42,428
Supervision of local public works	139,378
Construction of salt fields	850,000
Development of northern Korea	2,202,709
Promotion of gold production	11,005,112
Improvement of farm districts	1,094,065
Fisheries	626,967
For research works of students abroad	40,598
Promotion of foreign trade	285,962
Supervision of foreign exchange	6,536
Economical redjustment	15,880
Control of cereals shipped to Japan proper	705,743
Levying Special Profit Tax	9,927
Levying special tax re North China Incident	37,318
Anti-aircraft facilities	531,665
Military relief	38,781
Special addition in salary	376,807
Against calamities	1,621,353
Against thought crime	219,320
To the Special Account for Military Affairs	18,025,795
To the Chosen Railways	500,000
Purchase of land	1,301,607
Total	215,793,797
Grand total	505,158,965

Below is given the latest statement of receipts from domestic taxes.

Description	1933	1934	1935	1936
			(In yen)	
Land Tax	15,853,598	14,738,162	13,767,731	13,313,477
Income Tax	1,325,503	5,114,319	9,201,971	12,239,059
Exchange Tax	367,129	497,040	617,029	984,383

Description	1933	1934	1935	1936
Liquor Tax	13,529,196	16,583,050	19,590,314	21,755,668
Non-alcoholic Beverage Tax	—	180,258	243,239	325,417
Sugar Consumption Tax	2,419,309	2,643,066	3,077,106	3,217,677
Business Tax	1,329,090	1,563,447	1,848,423	2,250,949
Unearned Increment Tax	483,919	447,760	476,216	483,737
Inheritance Tax	—	61,930	280,268	441,669
Mining Tax	1,009,772	1,390,773	1,796,976	2,147,375
Bank of Chosen Note Emission Tax	—	55,079	34,196	145,086
Temporary Profit Tax	—	—	437,949	1,085,658
Total	36,317,516	48,389,803	51,371,418	58,390,155

## RECEIPTS FROM CUSTOMS DUTIES

(In Yen)			
1910	3,606,000	1934	13,348,909
1932	7,966,104	1935	13,855,925
1933	11,157,771	1936	16,814,351

Investments by Japan Proper At the twenty-fifth anniversary of administration the sum disbursed by the home Government to Chosen was estimated

at ¥300,000,000, exclusive of military and naval expenditures. Investments by private interests during the same period are estimated at ¥3,000,000,000 which have been utilized for the completion of communications, the development of national resources, promotion of industries, etc.

The following table demonstrates the remarkable progress attained in the course of twenty-five years.

Item	1910	1934	Ratio of Increase
Population	¥13,313,017	¥21,125,827	1.6 times
Government-General Budget	48,741,782	262,978,776	5 times
National debt	21,175,422	489,830,524	24 times
Total production	296,500,000	1,287,000,000 (1933)	4 times
Agricultural products	241,721,000	704,678,000 (1933)	3 times
Forestry products	19,240,000	55,069,000 (1933)	3 times
Cocoon products	431,861	21,865,000 (1933)	56 times
Mining products	6,067,000	48,301,000 (1933)	8 times
Fishery products	9,410,000	89,911,000 (1933)	9.5 times
Industrial products	19,639,000	367,236,000 (1933)	19 times
Exports	19,913,843	465,367,435	25 times
Imports	39,782,756	519,149,930	13 times
Exports of rice	544,000 koku	7,571,000 koku (1933)	14 times
Total import and export	59,696,519	984,517,365	17 times
Bank deposits	18,355,000	367,460,000	20 times
Rural Credit Association deposits	68,044 (1914)	139,417,000	2,000 times
Railway construction	1,080 k.m.	3,078 k.m.	2.9 times

## Government Monopolies

Several industries are being carried on as monopolies by the Government-General under direct control of the Financial Affairs Bureau; they are the manufacture or preparation of ginseng, tobacco, salt and opium.

Ginseng This medical herb is regarded as a wonderful cure for many diseases in China and Korea. The drug is obtained from the root of the plant carefully tended for six years. The principal customers for this plant are the Chinese, who are ready to pay a high price for it. Figures relating to its production follow:

	Area (tsubo)	Raw root (kin)	Prepared product (kin)	Receipts (yen)
1911	14,345	7,719	2,300	119,000
1919	195,620	103,989	26,002	2,082,000
1920	319,321	116,508	29,694	2,544,000
1921	371,328	136,066	36,266	2,102,000
1922	475,339	163,053	40,571	1,269,000
1923	419,788	166,282	46,022	2,225,000
1924	397,850	141,983	38,546	2,152,000
1925	303,713	112,988	31,629	2,658,000
1926	230,368	109,759	29,369	2,768,000
1927	332,102	154,237	41,540	2,444,000
1928	327,491	197,340	50,901	3,067,000
1929	334,479	165,897	54,099	2,482,000
1930	336,918	170,709	62,097	2,449,463
1931	350,243	161,952	59,302	2,039,541

Year	Area (tsubo)	Raw root (kin)	Prepared product (kin)	Receipts (yen)
1932	365,090	165,172	58,789	2,099,819
1933	350,623	142,686	49,525	1,339,941
1934	357,600	142,577	49,829	1,367,061
1935	357,947	142,662	52,125	1,703,788
1936	—	152,063	55,368	1,832,462

Tobacco As practically all Koreans smoke, the tobacco industry is a great source of income to the government.

#### AREA, PRODUCTION & SALES OF TOBACCO

Year	Area (cho)	Production of leaf tobacco (kwan)	Sales in yen		
			Korean product	Imported	Total
1930	14,227	4,026,914	31,693,010	123,100	31,816,110
1931	15,232	4,384,183	31,149,374	99,751	31,249,125
1932	13,637	5,309,823	32,076,449	91,290	32,167,739
1933	13,558	4,414,268	35,227,038	87,148	35,314,186
1934	14,692	4,107,358	38,941,646	84,030	39,025,676
1935	16,367	5,845,627	42,835,698	90,588	42,926,286
1936	17,533	5,500,360	47,575,664	230,170	47,805,834

Salt The salt consumption in Chosen amounted to 350,000,000 kg. in 1936. Production capacity in Chosen is 200,000,000 kg., so that 150,000,000 kg. has to be imported. The demand for industrial use has increased recently and about 300,000 kg. is imported to supply the need. The Chosen Government-General is making efforts to bring about the time when it can supply the total demand of 350,500,000 kg. with domestic production. The following shows production and the area of salt-fields in 1936:

#### PRODUCTION AND AREA OF SALT-FIELD IN 1936

	Area (cho)	Production (1,000 kg.)
Koryowan	1,649	92,474
Shusan	1,471	63,667
Nanshi	483	19,305
Total	3,603	175,446

Opium Owing to the strict control of the Government-General the number of opium smokers has in recent years greatly decreased, but at the same time the number of those indulging in morphine-injection has increased. The use of morphine has of course been prohibited by the government, but owing to the activity of cunning dealers all the efforts of the government to put an end to it have been fruitless. The

Three kinds are grown in Chosen, namely, Korean, Japanese and American. There are four tobacco manufacturing centres, these being Keijo, Heijo, Tai-kyu and Zenshu, the annual production reaching over 5 million kwan valued at 6 million yen.

In 1936 the output of cigarettes was 5,911,511 pieces, and that of cut-tobacco 4,523,893 kwan. Tobacco amounting to ¥230,170 was also imported from Japan and foreign countries.

government thereupon has come to the decision to monopolize the manufacture and sale of morphine so as more effectively to control the spread of its use. Accordingly, in March, 1933, the government's manufacture of morphine was started at Keijo, its production being sold to certain designated pharmacies to be used for medical purposes only, and in 1936 no morphine for opium smokers was produced.

#### MORPHINE MANUFACTURE IN 1936

Raw opium	27,305 kg.
Manufacture	
Morphine (salt)	0
Diacetyl morphine (salt)	0
Opium for medical use	11,900 g.
Total	11,900 g.
Sale	
Morphine (salt)	54,765 g.
Diacetyl morphine (salt)	2,560 g.
Opium for medical use	11,300 g.
Total	68,625 g.

#### Overseas Trade

Prior to its annexation by Japan the overseas trade of Korea amounted to about 50 millions of yen a year. Now it is approximately put at ¥1,300,000,000 as per figures for 1936 show. The following figures indicate its developments:

#### OVERSEAS TRADE

Year	Exports (¥ 1,000)			Imports (¥ 1,000)		
	Foreign countries	Japan	Total	Foreign countries	Japan	Total
1912	5,616	15,369	20,985	26,359	40,753	67,112
1917	20,236	64,726	84,962	31,396	72,696	104,092
1918	18,697	137,205	155,902	43,151	117,273	160,424
1919	22,098	199,849	221,947	98,158	184,918	283,076
1920	27,639	169,381	197,020	106,174	143,112	249,286
1921	20,884	197,393	218,277	75,698	156,483	232,381
1922	17,489	197,915	215,404	95,798	160,247	256,045
1923	20,403	241,262	261,665	98,338	167,452	265,790
1924	22,379	306,060	328,039	97,776	211,817	309,593
1925	24,341	317,288	341,630	105,388	234,623	340,011
1926	24,779	338,175	362,954	123,933	248,235	372,169
1927	28,133	330,791	358,924	113,943	269,473	383,417
1928	32,147	333,829	365,974	118,181	295,839	414,020
1929	32,773	309,891	342,664	107,767	315,325	423,092
1930	25,852	240,694	266,546	88,854	278,194	367,048
1931	12,771	294,027	261,798	52,696	217,770	270,466
1932	29,210	282,144	311,354	61,686	258,670	320,356
1933	52,773	315,854	368,627	64,368	339,817	404,185
1934	57,674	407,693	465,367	79,527	439,622	519,149
1935	64,903	485,893	550,796	44,185	558,813	659,403
1936	75,265	518,047	593,313	114,499	647,918	762,417
1937	113,098	—	—	126,052	—	—

#### OVERSEAS TRADE BY COUNTRIES

Countries	Exports (¥ 1,000)				Imports (¥ 1,000)			
	1933	1934	1935	1936	1933	1934	1935	1936
Japan proper	315,854	407,693	485,893	518,047	339,817	439,622	558,813	647,918
Kwantung Peninsula	4,975	5,104	8,009	9,901	3,689	4,128	4,932	6,642
Manchoukuo	40,588	48,358	50,034	55,533	40,765	46,681	49,015	59,403
China	1,590	2,007	3,312	3,702	5,857	7,796	16,448	15,148
The U. S. A.	2,746	312	546	993	2,195	12,935	7,547	9,151
Dutch Indies	—	—	—	265	2,137	1,431	—	9,726
Asiatic Russia	—	—	—	34	1,144	113	—	335
Great Britain	—	—	—	197	988	975	—	5,457
Germany	—	—	—	10	423	380	—	1,042
Others	2,869	1,891	2,998	4,631	7,170	5,083	14,847	7,595
Total	368,627	465,367	550,796	593,313	404,185	519,149	659,403	762,417

#### PRINCIPAL EXPORTS (¥ 1,000)

Commodities	1934	1935	1936
Rice	224,267	244,083	250,954
Beans	18,160	17,571	23,474
Fish	13,816	12,398	10,562
Laver	3,708	2,197	4,075
Sugar	1,511	3,146	4,019
Fish-oil	1,183	5,519	8,261
Timber	7,331	8,121	7,447
Foreign-style paper	4,353	3,776	—
Cotton	8,142	13,475	11,469
Cocoons	789	1,183	1,400
Raw silk	11,473	14,189	15,420
Graphite	1,395	2,246	2,264
Coal	6,168	6,723	6,628
Gold ore	2,427	6,481	6,497
Iron ore	985	1,231	1,105
Cattle	4,120	4,631	4,328

	1934	1935	1936
Fertilizers	25,258	32,152	40,427
Copper	11,041	21,607	20,499
Iron	16,579	23,291	18,144

#### PRINCIPAL IMPORTS (¥ 1,000)

Commodities	1934	1935	1936
Rice	3,066	7,034	5,017
Millet	15,773	20,272	22,702
Beans	3,460	2,610	5,086
Flour	5,405	10,952	7,832
Sugar	6,315	7,581	9,046
Saké	1,514	1,656	1,252
Beer	1,542	857	803
Salt	2,560	2,681	2,247
Woolen cloth	9,915	10,583	13,247
Silk tissue	24,950	31,994	36,564
Rubber shoes	2,173	4,678	—

	1934	1935	1936
Paper	10,270	12,355	13,970
Coal	13,167	14,594	17,230
Cement	5,472	4,916	7,400
Ceramics	3,936	5,281	436
Iron	28,251	42,364	46,425
Machines	18,667	35,602	45,786
Timber	9,801	12,868	15,581
Petroleum	6,069	5,063	5,406
Matches	1,144	1,433	1,254
Ginned cotton	14,115	16,824	25,332
Cotton yarn	10,329	9,915	6,028
Wild silk	6,679	6,563	4,463
Cotton cloth	44,166	36,328	32,147
Hemp cloth	1,766	1,510	1,473
Fertilizers	20,494	26,162	41,391
Gasolene	6,908	9,804	9,901

#### Banking

Banking on a modern system was first introduced into Chosen in 1878 when the Dai Ichi Ginko of Tokyo established a branch office at Fusan. Later on, the Juhachi Ginko of Nagasaki opened branches at Jinsen and Gensan. After the China-Japan War these banks opened their branches in Keijo and other centres, while two native banks, the Chon-Il (later renamed the Korean Commercial) and the Hansong, came into being in Keijo.

In 1902 the Dai Ichi Ginko was authorized to issue bank notes for circulation within Chosen. In 1906, to promote economic development in the provinces agricultural and industrial banks were formed in several of the principal towns, the Government taking shares in them or granting them loans free of interest, and in the same year a third native bank called the Han-il was founded in Keijo.

In 1909 the Bank of Korea capitalized at ¥10,000,000 was founded in Keijo as a de jure central institution, and to it was transferred all the functions belonging to a central bank hitherto performed by the Dai Ichi Ginko. After the Annexation the bank was renamed the Bank of Chosen and branches were opened by it one after another in important places. Nor was its sphere of

activity confined to the peninsula, for many branches were opened in Manchuria where it enjoyed free circulation of its notes, and its activity even penetrated North China and East Siberia. The Bank also made loans to China, and opened an agency in New York with a view to facilitating exchange operations and to utilizing the American money market for the development of Chosen and Manchuria. Stimulated by the steady expansion of its business, the Bank increased its capital to ¥40,000,000 in 1918, and to ¥80,000,000 in 1920, while authority was given to increase its maximum limit of note issue as occasion demanded; but owing to continued business depression the Bank suffered severe losses and was compelled in 1925 to reduce its capital by one-half. (See Chapter IX, the Bank of Chosen.)

Since then, encouraged by the economic development in general, and especially influenced by the war-time boom, many local banks were established in the country. During this time, however, the agricultural and industrial banks in existence were found much too weak to cope with the increasing demand for funds, their capital all told being only ¥2,600,000, so in 1918 they were all merged into the Industrial Bank of Chosen under special government protection, with a capital of ¥10,000,000, which has since been increased to ¥40,000,000.

The first clearing house was opened in 1910, and banks in Keijo became its members. Later additional clearing houses were established in Jinsen (Chemulpo) and other large commercial centres—the total number being nine at the present time.

In 1911 there were in Chosen 11 banks with 59 branches. The total aggregate capital was then ¥12,350,000, with total reserve funds amounting to ¥366,000 and the deposits totalling ¥18,335,000. At the end of 1936 the number of banks was 10, together with branch offices of 3 banks in Japan proper. The following gives a more detailed account of the 10 banks:

	1925	1930	1933	1934	1935	1936
	(¥1,000)					
Capital subscribed	102,275	101,425	101,075	100,675	99,175	99,175
Capital paid-in	58,850	60,991	61,871	61,731	65,912	65,881
Reserve funds	7,024	14,464	21,358	22,673	23,829	27,276
Deposits	217,597	226,563	456,159	567,754	609,028	360,191
Loans	429,361	457,557	730,614	1,047,339	1,013,146	712,380

The banking institution which is utilized most by the Korean masses is

the Post Office Savings Bank. In 1931 there were about one million and a half

depositors at this bank, their aggregate deposits reaching ¥18,726,338. In 1936 the number of depositors increased to 3,861,105, with the aggregate deposits expanding to ¥60,422,961. The following figures show the annual expansion:

March, 31	Number of depositors	Amount (yen)
1922	1,416,325	18,726,338
1923	1,590,470	19,875,093
1924	1,694,087	21,040,342
1925	1,606,740	21,029,849
1926	1,711,590	21,531,122
1927	1,795,858	22,466,126
1928	1,910,289	26,961,217
1929	2,023,977	30,787,502
1930	2,078,602	30,286,417
1931	2,118,178	38,852,866
1932	2,263,871	41,432,670
1933	2,494,062	40,939,591
1934	2,840,656	44,807,154
1935	3,156,074	52,631,553
1936	3,571,237	54,820,710
1937	3,861,105	60,422,961

Local Credit Associations Local credit associations were first organized in 1907 by virtue of the Local Credit As-

Year	Associa-tions	Members	Paid up capital	Deposit (in ¥1,000)	Advance	Reserve fund	Govern-ment grant
1926-27	547	446,576	6,510	54,505	76,082	8,144	3,417
1927-28	575	489,720	7,064	63,614	85,177	9,620	3,542
1928-29	597	530,407	7,509	74,089	91,381	10,889	3,662
1929-30	621	588,560	8,561	76,892	104,931	12,295	3,777
1930-31	622	606,813	9,010	80,128	123,368	13,131	3,777
1931-32	663	726,322	9,279	88,755	123,842	13,556	3,970
1932-33	674	831,805	9,362	103,752	127,832	14,316	4,027
1933-34	685	1,003,648	9,871	124,284	133,897	15,647	4,092
1934-35	692	1,178,769	10,580	139,417	150,107	17,779	4,132
1935-36	698	1,363,537	11,496	153,417	179,325	19,070	4,162
1936-37	709	1,563,391	12,462	162,355	228,464	20,809	4,217

#### Agriculture

Chosen, though mountainous, is essentially an agricultural country. In 1936, more than 73 per cent of its entire population is engaged in agricultural pursuits. Though the soil is not very fertile, it is sufficiently so to produce enough foodstuffs to support its entire population.

In 1910, the year of annexation, the value of production scarcely reached ¥250,000,000, but in 1936 it more than doubled the above figure. Of all agricultural produce rice is the most important, production in 1936 reaching 19,410,763 koku and 8,470,000 koku of which was exported bringing in ¥250,950,000.

Grains In 1910 the rice fields covered

a total area of 1,350,000 cho, yielding 10,400,000 koku, which rose in 1936 to 1,601,334 cho and 19,410,763 koku, its export during the same period increasing from 798,000 koku to 8,470,000 koku. This wonderful development has been achieved by the improvement made in cultivation, in the selection of seeds and manure, and in irrigation and reclamation. Next in importance come barley, wheat and rye, which are, however, mostly cultivated for home consumption. In almost every province these grains are raised in the paddy fields, after the rice crop is harvested, production of these in 1936 being 6,813,696, 1,605,235 and 1,962,778 koku respectively. Owing to the help in various ways given by the authorities to aid in the cultivation

sociation Regulations promulgated in the same year. The object of the organizations is to assist the Agricultural and Industrial Banks in the capacity as their auxiliaries, accommodate small Korean farmers with funds, and look after their interests in several other ways so as to ensure a healthy development of agriculture. Membership is confined to those who engage in agriculture, and each association is organized as a corporate juridical person. The Government endows each association with ¥10,000 as foundation fund or grants subsidy to encourage its development.

Principal business of the associations is to loan funds to the members, and store crops for them. In addition they distribute and loan seeds, seedlings, and fertilizers to their members, and also undertake consignment sales of products for the members.

At the end of 1936, there were 709 associations with 1,563,391 members and an aggregate paid capital ¥12,462,000. The progress of these associations is illustrated in the table below.

of these three cereals, their production has been on the increase year after year. Third in importance comes soy bean. In earlier times it was far from being an important produce owing to ignorance on the part of Korean farmers of the proper method of preparation, such as drying and assorting. It is now, however, in high esteem on the Japanese market where there is a demand for it not only as food, but for chemical industrial purposes, and thus the amount exported to Japan is yearly on the increase. In 1936 the total area under cultivation was 787,437 cho and the amount produced reached 3,784,215 koku, and 1,250,000 koku of which was exported for ¥23,470,000. Millet is for most Koreans what rice is for the Japanese people. They depend more upon it than upon rice on account of its cheapness in price. The Korean farmers sell their rice, but use their millet crops for their daily diet, so that the supply of the grain hardly suffices to meet the entire demands of the Korean people. They, therefore, import much of it from Manchoukuo, its import from that region reaching 1,340,000 koku, worth ¥22,700,000 in 1936, native production amounting to 5,065,000 koku.

**Cotton** Cotton is another important agricultural produce in modern Chosen. The present scale of its growth is owing to the encouragement given by the Government-General. It was in 1906 that the first trial plantation of American cotton was carried out in the neighbourhood of Moppe. As its superiority over the old native cotton was sufficiently demonstrated, soon its cultivation was vigorously encouraged in all parts of southern Korea, so that the cotton acreage was increased from 1,200 cho in 1910 to 147,643 cho in 1935, and the crop expanded from 660,000kin in 1910 to 169,948,818 kin in 1935. If the production of the native plant is added, the total cotton production in 1935 amounted to 213,749,967kin from the total area of 209,567cho, as against 21,000,000kin from 60,000 cho. in 1910. But the 1936 crop was much reduced because of unfavourable weather conditions, amounting to 137,375,212 kin.

**Fruit Farming** Fruit farming has also become a thriving industry of the erstwhile hermit kingdom. Soil and climate alike are suitable, especially for the growing of apples, and the government authorities are extending their assistance in this direction likewise, with the object of improving the quality of the fruit and gaining for it a world-wide market.

Many new varieties of apple, superior to the old native ones, are now cultivated, the quality being in some cases better than that of the fruit grown in Japan, the 1935 production reaching as much as 16,050,000 kwan, followed by pear 4,040,000 kwan and grapes 730,000 kwan.

**Sericulture** By 1910 the Government-General had done everything in its power to improve the native methods of cultivating the mulberry trees and raising silk-worms after the Japanese fashion. In 1919 a new system was instituted for carrying on a compulsory examination of egg-cards and for giving adequate care to the growing of good mulberry trees. All this paternal care and effort on the part of the Government-General for the advancement of the economic welfare of the Korean farmer was by no means thrown away. In 1910 the cocoon production was 14,000 koku and the number of households engaged in the work was figured at 76,000. In 1936 the number of households was 826,100 and the output was 723,200 koku. The production of raw silk amounted to 502,590 kwan valued at ¥16,976,925.

**Stock Farming** As Korean beef is very palatable, the demand for it is rapidly increasing in Japan and Manchoukuo as well as in Siberia. In 1910 the cattle in all Chosen numbered only 700,000 head, which in 1935 increased to 1,703,000. The export of cattle and hides totals from ¥5,000,000 to ¥8,000,000 a year. The raising of both pigs and poultry has been greatly encouraged by importing from Japan animals and birds of superior quality, with the result that in 1936 the former totalled 1,570,000 and the latter 7,120,000, both more than doubling the numbers found in 1910. Sheep were unknown in the old days in Chosen. Efforts were made since 1919 to raise them but the results were not satisfactory. Since, however, it is of great importance to make Japan self-sufficient in respect to supply of wool a new plan for encouragement of sheep was formed in 1934. Carriedale, which suits to the climate and soil of Korea, has been decided upon as a kind to be raised in Korea. Subvention will be given to private undertakings, and the national sheep breeding grazing ground has been located at Ama, Meisen county of North Kankyo Province.

**Conditions of Farm Households** The type and size of farm households in Chosen vary to a large extent. The average size of farm land is about one cho six tan (about four acres), which is larger than the average in Japan

proper where the size is just over one cho (2½ acres). However, in Chosen, due to poor methods of cultivation, the yield per tan is only slightly over one koku (5 bushels) while it is two koku in Japan. Supplementary products are as yet hardly worth mentioning. The large ownership of farm land by a few landlords is one of the roots of the difficulties. The majority of farming population have to hand over a greater portion of crops as interest at rates ranging from 3% to 4% per month on borrowed foodstuffs or money in addition to farm rent which is also high.

A farmer working one cho eight tan is regarded as a fairly good farmer in the central or southern Chosen. His annual cash income is, however, as small as ¥100. A farmer less favourably fared obtains ¥48 per year. Majority of farmers are in similar conditions and

they form a poverty-stricken community.

Expenditure is always greater than income, as is shown in the table below. The farm household generally suffers from shortage of foodstuffs. It will be seen that deficit is ridiculously small but even a shortage of ¥10 or ¥20 is a great burden to a petty farmer who is altogether unable to make out any plan for covering it.

Eighty per cent of the farming community may be regarded as having debts, bearing interest at 3% or 4% per month.

A Korean farmer works from 70 to 100 days a year while a farmer in Japan works from 200 to 250 days. The margin of difference is too great and might be made good use of by Korean farmers.

#### CONDITIONS OF REPRESENTATIVE KOREAN FARMERS

Name of farmer	A.—	B.—	C.—
Number of family	6 persons	5 persons	5 persons
" capable of work	2.9 "	2.1 "	2.4 "
Kind of farming	Partly landed	Tenant	Tenant
Area of cultivated land	1 cho 8 tan (4½ acres)	1 cho 2 tan (3 acres)	3 tan (2 acres)
Cash income per year	¥ 98.50	¥ 52.70	¥ 48.40
Expenditure " "	¥121.70	¥ 69.60	¥ 59.20
Deficit " "	¥ 23.20	¥ 16.90	¥ 10.80
Debts " "	¥ 130,000	¥ 49.00	¥ 52.00
Shortage of foodstuff	{ 8 "to" of unhulled rice 2 "to" of millet	1 koku of rice 3 to of millet	1 koku of unhulled rice 6 to of hulled rice 4 to of millet
Number of days open for further work	290	260	240

In 1936 the total cultivated area was 4,941,584 chobu (a chobu=2.45 acres) including watered field 1,718,486 chobu, upland 2,785,368 chobu and "fire field" (farm land in the mountains) 437,730 chobu. This total area represents 22 per cent of the total area of Chosen. The average area of farm land for each household is 1.42 chobu. It is larger than in Japan proper, but the productive power of land is much less.

**Rural Revival** To alleviate the severe agricultural depression, the Government-General devised a plan in 1932 for recovery of the farm through the effort of farmers themselves. The results have so far been good and farmers regained hope. With improved economic conditions the relation between the Korean and Japanese became more harmonious, the industry more active, and living conditions of farmers as a whole improved. The concrete result

of the plan has been that 4,695 villages comprising over 120,000 households have enlisted in the movement.

#### Measures Taken for Improvement of Condition of Farmers

Since 1912 steps have been taken to prevent possession of large estates by individuals. Uncultivated state-owned lands were leased to farmers who were willing to personally cultivate it and if the land were properly reclaimed it was given to these gratis. These measures were taken with a view to increase the number of independent farmers.

Tenant farmers, of course, predominate and form bulk of farmers. Their lives are miserable, and they have been driven into poverty, by their landlords and their agents. In view of this fact ordinances were put in force in 1920 with a special reference to the method of

payment of rent. The ordinances were revised in 1933. In the new ordinances provisions were made for lease contract, farm rent payment, transport of crop, payment of taxes, improvement of yield, supervision of landlords' agents, etc. In 1932 regulations on mediation on tenancy disputes which had as their aim quick settlement of such disputes and lowering of the cost of law suit through simplification of the procedure were issued. Finally in 1934 the Chosen Farm-land Ordinance was promulgated by which the safety of tenure of a tenant farmer and the right of his family or heirs were ensured. In accordance with provisions in the Ordinances local tenancy committees settle all questions regarding matters on tenancy, and actions of agents of landlords are subjected to control. This ordinance provides for: (1) the appointment and dismissal of "Saom", or landlord's agent to obviate abuses these agents make of their power; (2) the term of lease, which has been made three years at the minimum for ordinary crops and seven years for perennial crops like mulberry, fruit, China grass, paper mulberry, etc.; (3) inheritance of privileges and liabilities of the lease by heirs of a tenant; (4) protection of the landlord against sub-lease; (5) payment of farm rent, and reduction of its payment on its postponement in case of crop failure; (6) appointment of tenancy committee and its duties, etc. The Ordinance was put in force on October 20, 1934.

Agricultural experimental stations have been established with staff of experts and their assistants. Many model villages have been selected and they are shown to farmers in other villages as model. Many young men have been trained also to get best out of their farms and to employ their own time most profitably.

Special agricultural courses are now given in common schools to infuse love of work in the mind of young people. Lastly the widespread self-help movement for the improvement of agriculture has been launched to make farmers endeavour to improve their conditions on their own account.

Korean farmers are still obliged to sell their produce during harvest time on account of poverty and the lack of warehouses. Large quantities of Korean rice are exported to Japan Proper in a rush for the period of four or five months after harvest. This has caused great difficulties to the Japanese farmers and rice merchants, and the price of rice falls heavily, with great loss to the Korean farmers them-

selves. The Government-General established agricultural warehouses to aid the producers from selling their crops at harvest time, to encourage them to wait for more favourable prices, and to stabilize the exportation of rice. In 1930 the warehouse plan was enlarged, and in addition to the agricultural warehouses in places of production, export warehouses were established at the ports. In 1935 there were 63 agricultural warehouses and 8 export warehouses with a capacity of about one million koku respectively. It is hoped that these warehouses will be instrumental in safeguarding the interests of the rice producers, and in regulating the export.

#### Forestry

The area of forests in Chosen covers 16,340,000 cho which corresponds with 73 per cent of the entire area of the land. But there existed before 1910 nothing like a forestry policy in Korea, and except a few protected ones, all forests were allowed to be devastated by ignorant and superstitious people. Therefore before 1910 nearly all the mountains in Chosen were treeless. As a matter of fact, only one-third of the so-called "forest" areas was covered with standing trees, the remaining two-thirds being only thinly wooded, although in the basins of the northern rivers, the spruce, birch, larch, etc., are to be found, and in those of the central and southern part the red and black pine, oak, alder, bamboo etc.

Afforestation Work Undertaken In 1908, however, the Korean government, by the advice of the Japanese, promulgated a forest law aiming at the protection of forests, and when the new régime was established the Government-General issued a new forest law providing, among other things, for the letting of forest lands to any interested party for the purpose of afforestation and, if the work were successfully carried out, the ultimate transference of them to the lessee. The total area thus leased now reaches 1,385,000 cho, of which about a half has been transferred to the successful planters. Approximately 5 million cho of the entire forest lands is owned by the state, and 120,000 cho is reserved for university research and as national parks, the rest being owned by private persons. The number of seedlings planted by 1936 reached 1,200,000,000, on the private owned land. Nor is this all. Schools are given suitable pieces of ground whereon to plant trees, and the Third of April, the anniversary of the death of Jimmu Ten-

no, the first ruler of Japan, is fixed as Arbour Day, a day on which universal plantation of trees is encouraged throughout Chosen. In short, in the past twenty years more than a million cho have been planted with over 4,000,000,000 trees, and thus the mountain scenery in every part of Chosen is steadily undergoing a change with the accompanying effect of diminishing floods. The value of the timber and lumber sold by the Government-General in 1936 amounted to ¥8,812,592.

The Forest Districts There are several forest districts which escaped the almost wholesale denudation by kadenmin before 1910, the most important of which is the forest along the upper reaches of the Yalu and Tumen Rivers on the frontier. In 1906 the first systematic exploitation of the region was conducted by a joint undertaking organized by Japanese and Koreans and assisted by both the Korean and the Japanese governments with a capital of ¥1,200,000. This, combined with a similar enterprise financed by a group of Japanese and Chinese industrialists, forms one of the largest timber-supplies in the world. Since 1932, the government started the work of developing these forests with an expenditure of ¥12,183,000 to be operative for 15 years. The work consists of (1) development and utilization of forests, (2) education of kadenmin, and (3) protection of the forests.

#### Fisheries

Since 1910 all sorts of encouragement have been given to the Korean fishermen for the development of the fishery industry in Chosen, with the result that improvements in one way or another have been introduced in the building of fishing-boats and in the method of catching. Thus, while before 1910 the total value of catches was only about ¥8,000,000 a year, by 1936 it increased to ¥79,879,137, and other aquatic products in the meantime advanced from 2,650,000 to ¥79,377,283. The first fishery law in Chosen was issued in 1909, and this was replaced three years later by a new law providing for the definite establishment of fishing rights over a certain area of waters, the prohibition of certain actions harmful to fishing in specified areas and the prevention of individual monopolization of any fishing area. Trawling within special zones was also prohibited, and certain restrictions were made to the number of whaling-boats and to the diving apparatus carried. Mention should be made in this connection of famous "hanyo" (woman

divers) of Quelpart Island. There are 7,000 of these women and they are engaged in catching sea-ears and many kind of shellfish, and gathering laver and other sea-weeds by diving into the deep sea. The total earnings of these women amount to one million yen a year.

The following shows the marine products for two years, 1934 and 1935, the value of each of which exceeds ¥2,000,000:

Kind	1935	1936
	Value	Value
	(In yen)	
Mackerel	5,438,000	4,780,815
Sardine	16,638,000	26,811,275
Sciæna	3,635,000	4,754,776
Herring	2,539,000	3,000,075
Hair-tail	1,912,000	2,201,312
Shrimps	2,345,000	2,552,237
Mintal (Alaska pollack)	4,191,000	5,769,259

Besides these, there are sea-bream, plaice, cod, isinglass, yellow-tail, glue, shark, grey, mullet, rays, oyster, sea-eel, conger-eel, etc., valued each at between ¥500,000 and ¥2,000,000. The important manufactures of sea products in 1936 were sardine-oil ¥24,224,000, sardine-cake ¥18,786,000, dried mintal ¥4,349,000, and dried laver ¥4,234,000.

#### Mining

The present mining law, enacted in 1916, provides that mining rights can be granted only to Japanese citizens or to legal corporations under the Japanese law, and mining rights are treated as a form of real estate. As for mining rights secured by foreign citizens under the old régime, they are well respected. Of all minerals produced in Chosen gold occupies by far the most important position, the largest gold mine being the Unsan Mine operated by an American syndicate called the Oriental Consolidated Mining Company. Next in importance are the Shojo Mine worked by Frenchmen, the Sulah Mine by Englishmen, and Sansel and Koyo Mines by Japanese. Formerly the mining industry in Chosen was carried on in a very primitive way except in those mines operated by foreign concerns. Soon after Chosen had been brought under Japanese protectorate rule in 1905 the Government tried hard to induce Japanese capitalists to invest capital in the mining industry of Chosen, but it was only in 1910 that Japanese capitalists began to display their energies in that lucrative undertaking. As, however, most of the more promis-



ing gold fields were already under operation by foreign capitalists, Japanese capitalists turned their attention to the exploitation of other minerals such as iron and coal. Iron ores in Korea hitherto found were mostly of hematite and limonite, the former being found in South Kankyo and Kokai provinces and the mixture of the two in South Heian and Kokai provinces. The amount of these ores stored, the purity of which is about 50 per cent, is estimated at about 20,000,000 metric tons. In 1933 about 570,000 metric tons of these ores were mined, of which about 394,000 metric tons were sent to the Kenjiho Iron Works and the balance of 176,000 metric tons to Japan proper. Fortunately a much greater store of

magnesite ores is found in North Kankyo province. The purity of these magnesite ores is about 40 per cent on average.

As regards coal, almost unlimited quantity of brown and anthracite coals are stored in Korea, the quantity of the latter stored being especially large. Anthracite is mostly produced in the Heijo coal-field, and in South Kankyo, North Keisho and South Zenra provinces.

It must be mentioned that in Chosen nearly all kinds of minerals except sulphur, petroleum and asphalt are found in more or less abundance, gold, coal, and iron preponderating. The following shows the value of the mineral products of Chosen:

#### MINERAL PRODUCTION

(In 1,000 yen)

	1911	1921	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Gold	3,744	2,992	17,809	26,066	33,214	38,320	49,909
Pig iron	—	4,819	4,114	5,605	7,722	7,321	7,866
Coal	388	3,192	5,970	7,205	9,940	11,925	13,300
Iron ore	421	1,716	749	1,207	1,123	1,279	1,429
Copper	—	17	307	417	933	1,535	3,272
Gold and silver ore	262	584	944	1,906	2,511	6,502	9,373
Graphite	153	208	255	465	524	1,207	1,010
Placer gold	821	359	1,823	3,327	5,323	7,136	9,443
Silver	6	4	552	721	1,468	2,558	2,850
Lead	—	—	64	120	306	388	793
Tungsten ore	—	—	29	117	734	1,388	2,293
Zinc ore	21	4	—	97	85	80	240
Steel	—	—	—	—	4,178	6,764	6,533
Others	21	374	487	961	1,111	1,636	2,212
Total	6,069	15,767	33,746	48,301	69,172	88,039	110,303

#### Manufacturing Industry

It is only since 1916 that there has been any manufacturing industry worthy of the name in Chosen, and in 1936 the total value of manufactures reached ¥730,805,000, being over 24 times as large as that in 1911, in which year the total output was valued at ¥30,000,000. As the land has abundance of materials and a good labour supply, Chosen may be looked upon as a promising land for the future expansion of various industries. In 1911 there were in all the land only 252 manufacturing plants employing about 14,575 workers, but in 1935 the number of factories was 5,935 and the total number of employees 135,797.

Total of industrial production of Chosen for the year 1936 was as follows:

#### INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION

FOR 1936.

(In 1,000 yen)

Textile industry	99,477
Metalic industry	33,735
Machinery and tool	13,503
Ceramics	21,076
Chemical industry	195,430
Wood works	9,935
Printing and book binding	13,133
Gas and electric	39,988
Foodstuffs	199,883
Others	103,042
Total	730,806

Of the total 730 million yen, ¥229,200,000 was the production by the so-called household industries, outside factories managed by industrial companies or

where more than five operatives are employed.

#### Justice and Police

Chosen has now a judicial system similar to that of Japan. That is to say, in addition to the supreme court there are courts of appeal and local courts, the last-named having detached and sub-detached courts widely located. Both civil and criminal cases are first tried by local courts, while appeals against the decisions of local courts are made to the courts of appeal. The supreme court handles those appeals made against judgements rendered by the local courts or complaints against decisions or orders rendered in the second instance by the courts of appeal. Grave crimes of one sort or another have greatly diminished owing to the improvement in the work of maintenance of order and security. On the other hand, what might be called intellectual crimes such as fraud, forgery, and perjury have yearly increased. Prior to the establishment of the Japanese administration

flogging was a common form of punishment. In 1912 its application to aged persons, women and children was prohibited, and in 1920 it was finally abolished as it was unsuited to modern ideas of penology.

**Police** The police service in Chosen had been under Japan's direction for some years even prior to the establishment of Japan's protectorate in 1906. But the system which had been in force at that period proved unsatisfactory. Accordingly, in June, 1910, a new system was introduced by which the commander-in-chief of the military police was appointed chief of police, and gendarmes and civil policemen were separately stationed as local needs required. In 1919, however, that semi-militaristic police system was displaced by the one now in force. This new and present police system is modelled on that in Japan proper, with its headquarters entrusted with the entire administration of police and sanitary affairs. The police force in 1937 was 20,636.

#### CRIMINAL CASES

	1934	1935	1936
Robbery { Cases	804	829	750
{ Arrests	864	704	645
Theft { Cases	60,833	64,060	64,893
{ Arrests	50,446	51,572	49,402
Fraud { Cases	22,190	22,060	23,558
{ Arrests	23,368	22,407	23,922
Blackmail { Cases	875	800	756
{ Arrests	883	812	754
Dispossession { Cases	11,049	11,170	12,436
{ Arrests	11,644	11,680	12,628
Others { Cases	99,194	100,791	95,011
{ Arrests	99,549	100,914	93,906
Total { Cases	195,025	199,720	197,404
{ Arrests	186,754	188,170	181,267

#### Education

In the old days Korean children were taught in school nothing but Chinese writing and classics, but soon after the new régime was introduced they began to receive a more modern education, with such new subjects as arithmetic, geography and the Japanese language. The parents at first objected to the introduction of these revolutionary methods, and specially to the forcible teaching of the Japanese language, believing that this was a deliberate attempt on the part of the government to deprive the Korean children of their national and inherited traditions. It was due to this misconception held widely among the Korean people that the educational authorities found much difficulty in en-

rolling pupils despite the fact that no tuition was charged and all textbooks were supplied to the pupils free of charge. In 1930 the Government-General, animated by a desire to respect the wishes of the native race and to foster oriental morals developed by Confucius, reopened the old Meiringaku-in (Confucian Institute) at the Keigaku-in (formerly known to Koreans as the "Songkyun Kwan"), the oldest and highest seat of learning in the country for the study of the Confucian classics.

**Important Reforms** But many more reforms of far-reaching importance were made in 1920, when the present educational system was introduced. By it not only was the standard of educational attainment raised, but the principle of

equality was laid down firmly though no compulsory features were adopted with regard to elementary education, as in Japan. The following differences, however, were made and are maintained out of respect for Korean sentiment.

(1) The Korean language is made an obligatory subject in schools for Korean children exclusively, while it is optional in schools for Japanese children in Chosen.

(2) The teaching of Korean history and geography is to be particularly emphasized in schools for Korean children.

(3) Different text-books, though of an equal standard, may be used in view of the difference of language and customs of the two races. That is to say, schools for Japanese children may use text-books compiled by the Education

Department of Japan, but schools for Korean children those compiled at the Education Bureau of the Government-General. Koreans are mostly educated in common schools, higher common schools and girls' common schools. The term of the Common school is six years while that of the higher and girls' higher common school is two years. Korean children who prefer to receive education at the Japanese school may enter the elementary or the middle school as they chose. The system proved very efficacious in developing the education in Korea. While there was only 100 common schools before 1910, they number now 2,105 with 565,000 pupils. The table below shows clearly the development of educational work in Chosen since 1910:

	1935		1936		1937	
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students
Elementary schools	451	84,395	501	86,775	505	89,881
Common schools	2,362	720,757	2,504	802,976	2,509	861,389
Middle schools	12	6,715	15	7,124	16	7,778
Higher common schools	26	14,504	27	14,982	27	15,629
Girls' high schools	28	10,525	28	11,173	30	11,924
Girls' higher common schools	19	6,047	20	6,514	22	7,148
Normal schools	4	2,434	5	3,172	6	3,758
Business schools	63	17,072	67	18,264	—	—
Elementary industrial schools	97	4,163	116	5,942	—	—
Colleges	15	4,501	15	4,250	—	—
University preparatory schools	1	309	1	448	—	—
University	1	621	1	542	—	—
Total	3,079	872,043	4,440	1,087,387	—	—

Christian mission and other private schools are included in this table.

There are still a large number of Sohtang, which are old fashioned Chinese style schools where Chinese classics and brush-writing are taught. The number reaches 5,944 with 169,999 pupils. These schools are now utilized by the Government as agencies to foster public education and are controlled by regulations on Sohtang.

**Short Course Elementary School** Two million Korean children of school age are still unable to attend school, most of them living in remote agricultural and mountainous districts where it is not yet possible to provide educational facilities. To give some education to these children the Government introduced a plan to establish short course elementary schools with a two year course, which was put into force in April, 1934. The plan has been very popular in the country districts and the number of these schools established was very great. In 1937 they numbered

927 with 60,077 pupils.

**Korean Students in Japan** The Korean students in Japan proper numbered 6,397 in October, 1936, most of them being in Tokyo. Those sent by the Government-General are comparatively few. The students sent by the Government-General are not only supplied with necessary funds by the Government during the period they stay in the colleges to which they have been sent, but are on graduation given official or educational positions.

#### Religion

**Buddhism** Buddhism first entered Korea about 370 A.D. It was introduced from China by a priest who brought with him a Buddhist image and the "sacred books", and it flourished greatly in the peninsula during the days of Silla and Koryu. Under the dynasty of Yi, however, it met with persecution. The number of priests was limited and

members of good families were forbidden to enter the priesthood, with the consequence that it soon lost its hold among the masses to a large extent. Things remained so until Japan extended her rule throughout the country. Then in September, 1911, an ordinance on religions was promulgated giving freedom of preaching and full protection to temples, and also raising the status of the priesthood. Since then Buddhism has been revived to a marked extent, so that there were, at the end of 1936, 1,335 temples and preaching places, 6,620 monks and nuns and 175,700 Korean adherents. There are several native religions not recognized by the Government-General, among which the most influential one is the Tendokyo, which in nature is a mixture of Confucianism, Buddhism and Taoism. This religion has followers numbering 22,200. Apart from Korean Buddhism and allied sects, we find Japanese forms of Buddhism lately established in the peninsula, priests of the Shin sect being the pioneers. Later three others, Jodo, Soto and Nichiren sects, entered the new religious field in competition with other sects and religions. At present nine sects of Japanese Buddhism are working among the resident Japanese as well as among the Korean masses, and at the end of 1935 there were 115 temples, 517 preaching houses, 659 priests, and 285,000 believers including 14,700 Koreans.

**Shintoism** At the end of 1936 there were in Chosen 52 Shinto shrines, while 10 Shinto sects had 291 preaching halls, 371 priests and 104,600 adherents including 18,000 Koreans.

**Christianity** Christianity in Chosen was first brought by an official mission sent to Peking, China, by a Korean king in the latter half of the 18th century. This mission brought back with them a Bible and other Christian books. As its teaching, however, ran counter to the deep-rooted custom of ancient worship, King Selseo in 1784 issued an order prohibiting its preaching which was followed by a severe persecution. Though later occasionally the persecution was more or less relaxed, nothing for a time indicated a revival of Christianity. In 1833 a French missionary named Pierre Maubant came to Chosen to preach the Gospel. He was the first foreign missionary to tread the soil of the hermit kingdom. His energetic and devoted evangelistic work was not fruitless, but it alarmed the government officials, who in 1839 issued a prohibition edict. But it failed to suppress the spread of Christianity, and in 1863 there were as

many as 18,000 converts. In 1856 the persecution against Korean converts was renewed with vigour, which cost the lives of 30,000 people. In 1882, however, freedom of worship was fully recognized in the country as a result of diplomatic pressure brought upon its government, and in 1885 several American missionaries came to Korea. This was the first time for Protestantism to be preached there, and it gained influence among the masses as time went on. When in 1906 Prince Ito, the foremost Japanese statesman at that time, was appointed first Resident-General, he pursued a policy of friendliness toward these foreign missionaries, this policy being pursued up to the present day under various Governors-General. The following table gives an idea on the situation of Christianity in Chosen in 1935:

	No. of Missionaries	Number of Members
Presbyterian	138	261,067
Roman Catholic	120	107,452
Japan Episcopal Church	27	8,341
Independent Church	—	8,727
Holiness	—	2,247
Methodist	67	54,023
Salvation Army	19	7,262
Others	—	14,280
Total	—	463,399
1933	2,647	422,580
1934	2,653	441,419
1935	—	463,399
1936	3,195	477,100

#### Communications and Transportation

**Highways** Highways existed in Korea in olden times. The Peking highway, which was one of them, connected Peking with Gishu and Keijo, and through that way embassies were exchanged between the old Korea and China. But in later years they were left in ruin. Under the Residency-General work for new ones was started with a sum of ¥1,500,000. As the first stage plan construction of four new lines aggregating 254.80 km. in four provinces was commenced in 1907, and in 1908 on another 196 km. highway in various provinces. In 1909 construction of three more highway totalling 188.16 km. in length was started, together with widening and readjusting works of streets in Keijo, Taikyu and Jinsen. In 1910 construction of twelve roads extending 164.64 km. in length was also commenced.

Since 1910 the Governor-General devised a plan to improve highway facilities through a construction of 23 roads ex-

tending over 2,263.60 km. with a sum of ¥10,000,000. The work was to run for five years consecutively, beginning with the fiscal year 1911.

At the end of 1936, the total highways in Chosen extended 27,771 km., including 38 first class roads 3,223 km., 96 second class roads 9,899 km., and 507 third class roads 14,649 km.

**Railways** The construction of railways as a civilizing agency is being vigorously carried on in accordance with the 12 year programme laid in 1927. The programme covers the construction

of a Tumen River line and four other lines totalling 1,384 kilometres and the purchase of five lines including the Zenshu-Riri Railway, totalling 330 kilometres. At the end of 1936 the total government-owned railway mileage reached 3,575.9 kilometres in active operation. The capital invested in the railways amounted to ¥467,700,000, and 16,557 persons are now employed in it. The following gives some idea of the development of railways in Chosen up to 1936.

	Length k. m.	Passengers	Freight (tons)	Receipts (yen)
1931	3,009	19,673,704	6,025,150	36,300,512
1932	3,142	20,591,638	6,248,863	40,154,101
1933	2,935	22,238,338	7,254,859	43,611,142
1934	3,078	25,614,000	7,681,000	51,148,000
1935	3,389	29,344,188	8,667,642	56,477,697
1936	3,575	33,708,178	9,980,227	65,036,058

As the through traffic between Tokyo and Europe is now established, the two main lines, Keijo-Fusan line and Keijo-Gishu line, form an important part of the railway system connecting Europe and Japan. Of all the lines now under construction the most important one is the line between Heijo and Gensan, 213 kilometres in length. When completed it will serve as an important traffic link between North China and Japan.

As for the private railway enterprises in Chosen, regulations were issued in 1912 so as to provide adequately for effective supervision and protection. In 1921 new regulations were issued by which increased state aid was extended to private railway undertakings. These have in consequence made rapid progress, and in 1936 their total mileage reached 2,108.7 kilometres operated by 8 companies, carried 8,035,041 passengers and 2,064,867 tons with the receipts of ¥7,422,229.

**Tramways** The main tramway lines now in operation are 6 with aggregate mileage of 63 km.

**Bus** In October, 1937, there were 179 persons engaged in bus business with business lines extending 26,331 km.

**Navigation** There are now 870 steamships with the total tonnage of 64,641 tons, their routes being interport, Korea-Japan and Korea-China-Russia. The following table shows the progress in this method of transportation in recent years:

	Steamers		Sailing-boats	
	Number	Tonnage	Number	Tonnage
1925	147	44,520	627	21,075
1929	185	47,181	694	23,003
1930	196	53,998	692	22,911
1931	202	52,302	745	24,778
1932	223	57,512	756	24,839
1933	235	57,920	796	26,573
1934	259	53,547	851	28,429
1935	870	64,641	10,502	134,306
1936	1,134	70,184	11,730	150,473

**Navigable Rivers** The most important river in Chosen is perhaps the Yalu or Oryokko which, forming the boundary line between Chosen and Manchoukuo, rises in the Paktusan or "Ever-white" Mountains (2,744 m.) and empties into the Yellow Sea. Its length is about 800 km. of which about 700 km. is navigable by air-propeller boats under governmental subsidy. Timber felled on the mountain slopes is made into rafts and floated down until it reaches the lumber-yards at Shingianu or Antung. Another river of importance is the River Daido which flows through Heijo and empties into the Yellow Sea in the neighbourhood of Chianampo. The river is 400 km. long, navigable for a distance of 245 km. There are also four other rivers wide enough for navigation by sailing boats and motor boats. These are Rakuto (flowing into Chosen Channel) 344 km. (Navigable course), Kanko (flowing into Yellow Sea) 300 km., Kinko 130 km.,

and Tumen 85 km.

**Airways** There are at present three airports established in Chosen. These ports are located at Urusan, Keijo and Heijo. Besides that in the following places ground marks are set up: Urusan, Kwokan, Taiden, Tenan, Sharin, Heijo, Teishu and Shingishu. Moreover, in Urusan and Keijo there are now built wireless stations for keeping in communication with the airways. At the airport of Urusan there is installed a meteorological observatory for forecasting weather conditions in the interests of air navigators. Most of the air traffic between Chosen and Japan is being done by planes belonging to the Japan Air Transport Company.

**Post, Telegraph and Telephone** Prior to 1905 there were 516 postal offices in the peninsula. In September, 1937 they numbered 1,070, including 133 offices engaged for telegraph and telephone service exclusively. Number of mails accepted and delivered in 1936 amounted to 344,443,185 and 382,264,790, that of parcels to 2,593,277 and 3,923,342 and that of cables to 8,232,021 and 8,151,005 respectively. In November, 1926, a Radio Broadcasting Office was established in Keijo and opened to business in February, 1927. Fusan Office was opened in 1935, Heijo Office in 1936 and Seishin Office in 1937. In October, 1937 there were 100,729 subscribers.

#### Public Hygiene

Prior to 1906 Chosen was a land practically without access to any medical service worthy of the name and the sick were simply placed under the care of unqualified practitioners of the old Chinese school or of witches or magicians. The situation was made worse by an entire lack of sanitary equipments and pure water, the consequence being frequent outbreaks of various infectious diseases. As soon as the protectorate was brought into existence in 1906 the first step taken by the government with a view to giving the nation the benefit of sanitation was the establishment of a modern hospital in Keijo. Since 1910 further steps have been taken to extend modern medical and sanitary benefits among the masses, even among those in very remote regions. The construction and extension of waterworks is another work pushed on by the government with vigour so as to provide the people with good drinking water. The Government-General has also taken efficient and energetic measures for the prevention of epidemics: in consequence, small-pox

which was formerly so virulent in Chosen, has almost died out. Moreover, sanitary regulations relating to food-stuffs, drinks, and drugs are rigidly enforced. Medical and hospital equipments have been greatly improved. At the end of 1936 hospitals numbered 140 including government institutions, and there were 2,565 licensed medical practitioners which meant that there was only one physician for every 8,430 of population. Dentists numbered 802. The number of deaths caused by infectious diseases was 3,321 out of 17,869 patients.

**Prohibition of Opium Smoking** Soon after its inauguration the Government-General made a serious effort to deal with opium-smoking. The habit of opium-smoking among the Korean people had been quite strong, specially among those in the frontier regions, many deaths resulting therefrom. The Government-General's drive for the abolition of this vicious habit was a thorough one. The following is the policy being pursued by the Government-General since 1929 in its effort to conquer the evil of opium-smoking:

1. Efforts shall be made to cure all morphine addicts within ten years.
2. All addicts shall be registered and a fixed quantity of morphine administered.
3. The Government-General shall monopolize the manufacture and sale of morphine which is supplied to the registered addicts above mentioned.
4. Stricter control of morphine shall be enforced and no morphine be used by persons other than registered addicts, and heavier punishments be provided for smugglers and secret sellers of morphine.
5. Schools and other institutions of social culture shall educate the public in order to prevent the development of addicts and to assist the already cured to avoid relapse.

On March 3, 1930, the Government-General issued an order forcing all addicts to be registered and in 1935 the Ordinance of Control of Narcotics was issued the result of which was very good and the number of registered addicts was only 315 at the end of 1935 as against 3,278 in 1930.

#### Principal Cities and Places of Interest

**Keijo (Seoul)** In 1392, A.D. at the old palace in Songdo Yi Taijo, the founder of the Yi Dynasty, ascended the throne after a stormy coup d'état against the former Wang Dynasty, and selected Seoul as his new seat of government.

His palaces were surrounded with great walls. Seoul became the scene of the Hideyoshi Invasion of 1592 and the Ching Conquest of 1636. More recently the Chino-Japanese War was fought around it.

The age-old lofty peaks of "Hokkansen" (Pukhan) on the north and the green-clad slopes of "Nansan" on the south, permanent sentinels of the old capital, look down on the transformed city. The Kan (Han) River which encircles the site of the town tells mysterious tales of the past, but its course is now spanned by modern heavy steel bridges over which run steam trains, electric trolley cars and hooting motors. Under these fussy motor launches thread their way through drowsy sails of the tenaciously enduring junks. A glimpse from the sky reveals the city changing to modernity, but with the historical palaces and gates remain to draw attention and provide a panorama combined of the old and new.

Keijo Station is the main entrance to Seoul. Every day ten thousand passengers rush in and out of this station. It is located outside of the South Gate between main streets of Keijo and the suburb of Ryuzan.

The Commercial Museum was built in 1929. Visitors can readily get here the first hand information on agricultural products and manufactured goods of the peninsula as well as on its methods of commercial transaction.

The Nandalmon (the South Gate) is the largest and most beautiful of eight gates on way to Keijo. During the reign of the Yi Dynasty, the gate served as the main entrance to the capital. Then, when the great bell installed at the heart of the city rang in the evening the gate was closed and traffic stopped. The walls have gradually been removed and broad paved roads laid in their place. Their remnants still exist on mountain slopes nearby. The old gate was built in 1396 under the reign of King Yi Taljo and there it proudly stands with its splendor today, a flower of the oriental art, challenging modern buildings that surround it.

The Chosen Jingu. To the right towards "Nansan" from the "Nandalmon" by the broad asphalted road and still higher through the stone "Torii" by the granite stairway of 394 steps, the threshold of the grand Chosen Jingu is reached. This shrine is dedicated to the spirits of the great Amaterasu Omikami, Sun Goddess, and of the late Emperor Meiji as Guardian Deities of the peninsula. The construction work started in May, 1920 and completed after

five years and six months at the cost of two million yen.

The Great Bell. In the heart of the city at Shoro (Chongno), a red painted belfry in Korean style towers which contains the Great Bell, ten feet high with a circumference of twenty feet. Though silent now, it rang twice a day under the old régime before day-break and at sunset. The early morning bell announced opening of the eight gates of the city, while the evening bell ordered their closing and instructed men to withdraw from the streets so that women could go out. This bell was cast in 1469 by order of King Seicho, and at first it was placed in a belfry at the Nandalmon.

The North Palace (the Keifukukyu) was built in 1395 immediately after the removal of the capital from Songdo (Kaifo) to Seoul, but was burned in 1592. According to the old records, the original architecture bore splendid works of art which have been proved by archaeological discoveries made among the ruins in later years. In 1887 the Regent, Taiwonkun, started repair works on the palace, which was completed in two years. The Royal family then moved to it from the East Palace.

In the Audience Hall (Kinselden) of the palace coronation and other important official ceremonies were performed and the King used to give audience to the princes of the blood and other high dignitaries. "Keikaire" means the "Pavilion of Happy Meeting," and here luxurious court banquets and other classical entertainments were given. The two storied pavilion is supported by forty-eight solid stone pillars, fifteen feet high. In 1909 most of palace buildings of lesser importance were dismantled and in 1919 the buildings which contained the royal bed chambers were also moved to the East Palace. The total area of the North Palace is 130,000 tsubo. The wall that surrounded the original palace was twenty two feet in height and extended more than three kilometres.

Government-General Office. The magnificent white building, with the old North Palace at the background, is the Office of the Government-General. Begun in the summer of 1916, it was finished in the winter of 1925, at the total cost of nearly seven million yen. The art museum is located between the modern Government-General Office and the old classical "Keifuku" palace.

The East Palace (Shotokukyu). The royal residence of Her Highness the Dowager Princess Yi was built as de-

tached palace, but has since been twice burned. The present palace was built after the Hideyoshi Invasion.

The Throne Room (Jinselden or "the Hall of Benevolent Rule") and royal dwellings are located in the inner court. Here are the art museum of the Prince Yi household, and the zoological and botanical gardens. An old palace called the "Meiselden" (The Hall of Bright Rule) belongs to the architecture of the later period of the "Koryo" Dynasty. Because it is facing the east contrary to all other palaces which are facing the south and because it is one of the oldest buildings in Keijo, this palace is the object of admiration for those who are interested in archaeology.

The Keigaku-in (Temple of Confucius). This solemn classical edifice is rich in Chinese colouring and is surrounded by ginkgo biloba and other venerable old trees. In this temple sacrifices are offered to the spirits of Confucius and other sages at festivals held twice a year, in the spring and autumn. Attached to the temple is a Confucian Institute known as "Meiringaku-in" where young men are trained in the principles of Confucian teachings.

The Tokujukyu (Toku Palace). Beyond a large red gate known as Taikanmon (Taihanmoon) are a group of palaces. Those which are built in Korean style stand on one side and European-styled granite palaces at the farthest end of the royal ground.

Pagoda Park was laid out in 1905-1907 over the buried ruins of an ancient Buddhist temple. The pagoda itself was erected in 1464 under the reign of King Seicho, together with the old temple. In the park there is also a huge stone tortoise with a stone tablet on its back—a memento of an old temple. The bronze statue in the park is a monument dedicated to the late Baron Megata, financial adviser to the Korean Government, who rendered meritorious services to the Government and who was greatly interested in having the park enlarged and improved.

The Chosen Hotel. One of the most palatial, yet most homelike hotels in the orient and is built on the site where the Emperor Yi held his coronation in 1897. As a souvenir of the ceremony a wooden pagoda known as the "Temple of Heaven" still stands in the centre of the "rose-garden" behind the hotel.

The Dokuritsu-mon (Doknip-moon or Independence Arch) bears inscription, "Independence". The arch was built commemorate the virtual Korean Independence from China as the result of

the Chino-Japanese War. In front of the arch there was once a gate known as "Geion-mon" which literally means gate of inviting favour from the celestial empire. Now only the lonely pillars remain.

Shochu-dan Park and Prince Ito Temple. To the east of the park across a stream stands Prince Ito Temple in the Kamakura age style, a magnificent two storied reinforced concrete building. The temple was erected to the memory of the late Prince Ito, the first Resident-General of Korea.

Jinsen (Inchun or Chemulpo) Until fifty years ago Jinsen was only a small fishing village lying on the coast of the Yellow Sea at the mouth of the Han River. It is a big port to-day. About 25 miles in distance to Keijo it stands in something like the same way as Yokohama stands to Tokyo and railway connection between the two is good. In its inner harbour lies Getsubito while in its outer harbour are Yeisoto and a large group of smaller islands. The difference in the height between mean high and low tides in the harbour is ten metres which used to cause a great inconvenience for steamers in anchoring, and loading and discharging cargoes. To overcome this difficulty a lock-gate dock was constructed with electric control. The dock is 454.5 metres long and 218.1 metres wide with the minimum depth of water of 8 metres, and was finished in 1918 after seven years' work.

Getsubito, meaning literally "Moon-Tail Island," is known to foreigners as Roze Island, where amusements of various kinds are provided. Kokato or Kangwha Island in the mouth of the Han River is rich in historical remains and is beautiful to look at. Kangwha was a shelter of refuge for the Korean royal families in turbulent days.

Kaifo, or Songdo Songdo is an interesting place full of historical remains and scenic beauties, and is also a land of ginseng. In the tower of the South Gate is a big bell six hundred years old, which bears artistic designs and wonderful inscriptions in Sanskrit. Songdo was the capital of the Koryo Dynasty. The Wangs ruled there for 460 years till it was destroyed by Yi Talcho in 1392. In the environs of Songdo mausoleums of kings and queens of the Koryo Dynasty are found. At these mausoleums are some of the best products of art of the Koryo Period. To the north from Kaifo Station is the famous Park Yun waterfall, above which is an elegant pavilion arch, which was the north gate of an old castle formerly used as a detached palace of kings of the

Wang Dynasty.

**Heijo, or Pyengyang** Heijo, now the greatest city in the northwest Chosen is situated on the extensive fertile plain watered by the Daido River and is a great industrial city.

There is an evidence that the people of the stone age made their dwellings along the Taitong River. A few miles north of Pyengyang are found remnants of this age, such as axes, knives, hammers, daggers, and arrow-heads. Tanguon was believed to be the father of Korea and the name Chosen was given it by him probably in 2,333 B.C. Tanguon must have ruled Chosen and made Pyengyang his capital and made it, too, one of the oldest cities in the world. Pyengyang became later the capital of Naknang Province and flourished until the Kokuryu people, migrated here from Fuyo district north of the Yalu River, invaded and took its possession about 314 A.D. The tombs and remains of these people show that the degree of culture which they attained was high. About 20 miles to the west of Pyengyang, at Oohulli, are three great mounds, 50 feet high, 170 feet in diameter and 500 feet in base circumference. They are built of granite with an unusual skill.

**Kongosan or Diamond Mountain** Of all places of interest in Chosen Kongosan is most famous and is always the centre of admiration and praise of tourists.

The mountain group is a portion of the main range which extend from north to south of Chosen and stretches along her east coast. It extends over 65 kilometres and the precipitous peaks are said to number twelve thousands. It is only six hours' comfortable trip by train to get there from Keijo.

The best season for visiting the mountain is mid-autumn when the land enjoys an unbroken spell of fine weather ideal for outings. Then the entire mountain is agleam with gorgeous tints of autumn foliage. Another season which is good for visiting will be April and May when lilacs, magnolias and azaleas are in glorious bloom. It is also a good summer resort for those desiring to escape the heat in that season.

#### Koreans in Manchoukuo

**History of Emigration** The emigration of Koreans to Manchuria across the Yalu and Tumen Rivers has a historical background in addition to geographical reasons. According to popular traditions, there were Korean farm villages already dotted in the district of Chientao (Kanto) during the reign of "Kiang

Hsi" (1662-1723). In early days there was no frontier line defined by the Governments of China and Korea for Chientao which was sparsely inhabited though the soil was very fertile. It was therefore perfectly natural for many Koreans to cross the Tumen River. In 1690 there was a record outflow of the northern Koreans who attempted to escape from privations of a terrible famine. After the establishment of a branch office of the Residency General in Chientao in 1907 there was a further increase. According to the official statistics for 1936, these immigrants, who number now 472,666 and occupy about 80 per cent of the total population of Chientao, are mostly farmers who have turned the wild soil into the present fertile land. More than half of the arable land in Chientao is owned by the Koreans while a portion of the rest, though under Manchou ownership, is cultivated by Korean tenants. So Chientao has appearance of being a portion of Chosen.

Other groups of Koreans crossed the Yalu River and advanced to the interior of Manchuria. After the Russo-Japanese War still greater number from the north and south of Korea swarmed into Manchuria through Antung, and many have settled in the regions now traversed by the North Manchuria and the Kirin Tunhua Railways. According to the official returns for 1937, they number about 412,490, but the actual figure may be twice as large. These Korean farmers have transformed vast dreary wilds into 100,000 chobu of rich paddy fields, which form a good economic resource to Manchoukuo. The Government-General, in conjunction with the Imperial Government and the South Manchuria Railway Co. are making efforts to promote education, public health, quarantine, banking industries, relief work, police affairs, census registration, etc. for these people. With the birth of Manchoukuo the general conditions have changed and the Koreans in Manchuria are now fared well, so that the Koreans at home began moving afresh to the new state in increasing number.

In order to provide permanent settlements for new immigrants the Government-General established between 1931 and 1934 within safety areas of north and south Manchuria four large farm villages. At the same time various facilities to look after their health, education, economic welfare, etc. have been installed. Conditions of these farm-villages follow:

(1) The Tieh-ling farm-village is on the

upper basin of the Liaohe, about three miles from Lan Hsieh-Shan Station on the South Manchuria Railway line. The total area of the village is 1,019 chobu of which 916 chobu are paddy fields. At present the village has 383 Korean families with 1,909 people.

(2) Wuchimiho farm-village is near a tributary of the Sungari River lying to the east of Harbin six miles to the north-east of Wuchimiho Station on the North Manchuria Railway line. The total area is 2,538 chobu, of which 1,660 chobu are paddy fields and 800 chobu dry land. There live in this village 683 Korean families with 2,995 people.

(3) Yingkow (Newchwang) farm-village is at the mouth of the Liao River opposite Yingkow harbour. The total area is 3,000 chobu near which a vast grassland of 15,000 chobu extends along the right bank. There are 1,857 Korean families with 9,517 people.

(4) Sulka farm-village is about twelve miles to the east of Chin Chia on the Hulan-Hallun Railway in north Manchuria across the Sungari River. The total area is 1,551 chobu with 2,124 people

in 450 families.

The Chientao district has long been a nest for Korean malcontents and communist bandits. They used to incessantly harass Korean farmers, especially after the Manchurian Incident. In 1932 and 1933 the Government-General set about establishment in Chientao of twenty five special farming groups. Each group organized its self-defence corps and fortified their village. These groups enlarged their safety zones, and succeeded in establishing them at various strategic points, which play an important rôle in the preservation of peace in Chientao. The Government-General provides there all means to further prosperity of the farmers and assists them in making the farms ideal ones. An agreement was also made with the Oriental Development Company in 1932 with a view to installing 2,500 families of independent farmers with a grant of ¥2,000,000 spread over five years. At the end of July, 1937, 2,800 families have been settled on an area of 13,078 cho, and the expenses needed for the purpose reached ¥1,494,633.

## CHAPTER XLI

## TAIWAN (FORMOSA)

## General Description

**Area and Topography** Taiwan (Formosa) forms the westernmost part of the Japanese Empire. It is washed by the Pacific on the east, and is separated from China on the west by the Formosan Straits and on the south from the Philippines by Bashi and Balintang Channels. It extends from 119° 18' to 122° 6' E. longitude, and from 21° 45' to 25° 39' N. latitude. The Tropic of Cancer bisects the island, which is about 394.28 km. long, its greatest width being 122.31 km. The Pescadores (Bokoto) and other outlying islands form a political division of the Taiwan Government-General. They cover 126.86 sq. km. The area of Taiwan, including the Pescadores, is 35,973.55 sq. km., being about 5.3 per cent of the total area of Japan, a little smaller than Kyushu, and about one-sixth the size of Chosen (Korea). As regards its topography, Taiwan is an island which rises from the sea to a height of 3,950 metres, reached at the summit of Mount Nittaka (Mount Morrison). It consists of a mountain range with narrow valleys on both coasts which are the population centres. The valley on

the west coast is the principal population centre. That on the east coast is little developed and is capable of but slight further development. The rivers are not long and their current is very swift; in the rainy season they flood the surrounding country, causing much damage. The climate is semi-tropical. In summer the north is visited by rains; in winter the south. The temperature rarely falls below the freezing point.

**The Inhabitants** The territorial system of Formosa was organized during five years, 1898 to 1902, by a large land-investigation enterprise made by the Government-General. The island is inhabited by Japanese, natives and foreigners. The Japanese went there after the occupation of the island by Japan, and the foreigners are mostly Chinese. The number of Western people is small. The native Chinese are mostly Mins from Fukien province and Cantonese from the China coasts across the Formosan Straits, composing 94 per cent of the total population. The aborigines consist of savages and semi-civilized tribes. The following figures show total number of the population at the end of 1934-1936:

	1934	1935	1936
Japanese	262,964	269,798	282,012
Koreans	1,316	1,604	1,694
Natives	4,882,288	4,990,131	5,108,914
Aboriginal savages	148,472	150,489	152,350
Chinese	48,193	53,900	59,015
Foreigners	219	209	228
Total	5,194,980	5,315,642	5,451,863

Including the savages, the total population at the end of 1936 in Taiwan was 5,451,863, showing an increase of 136,221 over that at the end of 1935 and 2,405,008 over the end of 1905, when the first census-taking results were announced. This means a yearly gain for

the 30 years of 75,626.

The areas, population, number of counties and districts and number of towns and villages of five provinces, three districts and nine cities at the end of 1936 follow:

	Area sq. ri	Population	No. of counties or sub-districts	No. of towns and villages
Taihoku province	297.8	1,070,096	9	39
Shinchiku ..	296.3	747,834	8	42
Taichu ..	478.6	1,218,754	11	57
Tainan ..	351.5	1,385,210	10	66

	Area sq. ri	Population	No. of counties or sub-districts	No. of towns and villages
Takao province	371.0	770,687	7	43
Taito district	228.0	73,637	3	11
Karenko ..	300.1	117,032	3	9
Boko ..	8.2	68,613	2	5
Total	2,331.6	5,451,863	53	272
Taihoku city	3.0	292,340	—	—
Keelung ..	3.0	89,690	—	—
Shinchiku ..	2.3	55,015	—	—
Shoka ..	4.2	54,304	—	—
Taichu ..	1.4	74,839	—	—
Tainan ..	3.4	116,451	—	—
Kagi ..	3.6	77,093	—	—
Takao ..	2.7	94,017	—	—
Heito ..	4.0	46,398	—	—
Total	27.9	900,147	—	—

**The Climate** Being in the semi-tropical zone, the summer time is long and the winter is short. The highest temperature, however, is not very much higher than in Japan proper, but the weather is warmer during the winter time. Frost is very rare and water has been known to freeze over only twice since Taiwan came under Japanese rule. The island lies in the highway of typhoons, and is yearly visited by them, terrible damage being sometimes caused.

During a 38-year period ending in 1934, Formosa was hit by severe typhoons no less than 91 times; of these, as many as 7 occurred in the year 1914.

Typhoons originate generally in the offing northeast or east of Luzon Island of the Philippines, and cross the island or enter the Chinese mainland, passing the southern or northern extremity of the island. Taiwan forms a part of an earthquake zone connecting Kyushu, Okinawa Islands and the Philippines and naturally it is very often visited by seismic shocks. The number of earthquakes registered in the island or the neighbouring seas during 25 years ending 1933, was 8,502, which means 327 a year or nearly one every day.

## Administration System

When Taiwan came under Japan's rule in April, 1895, the Japanese Government established the Taiwan Affairs Bureau in June of that year and then in August of the same year the Taiwan Government-General Act was promulgated in connection with the introduction of military administration. This was replaced by the civil administration in March of the following year. The Taiwan Government-General came under the supervision of the Minister of

Overseas Affairs with the establishment of the Ministry in June, 1929. The Governor-General invested with authority to require military assistance from the commanders of the army and navy in the territory under his jurisdiction, when he deems it necessary to do so for the maintenance of peace and order in Taiwan. If the Governor-General is either a soldier or a naval man, he is able simultaneously to assume the command of the Formosan Army. The Governor-General also is invested with authority to supervise officials under him, promote them in rank, retire them from service, or recommend them for honours through the Minister of Overseas Affairs and the Premier, and to suspend or cancel orders and administrative measures of provincial governors under him, when such are deemed damaging to public interest or overstepping the sphere of their authority. The Taiwan Government-General consists, besides the secretariat to the Governor-General, of five bureaux, that is, the Home Affairs Bureau, Educational Affairs Bureau, Financial Affairs Bureau, Colonial Development Bureau and Police Affairs Bureau. The chief of general affairs, or civil governor, directors of the five bureaux and many other officials are under the supervision of the Governor-General. There is an Advisory Council to the Governor-General, which serves as a very important organ for the administration of the island. Not only does it give advice to the Governor-General on laws or regulations but also on general important business. The members consist of Government-General officials and leading persons in private circle in the island. The provincial administration extends over 5 provinces, 3 districts, 9 cities and 51 counties.

There are the same number of provincial governors, district superintendents, city administrators and county chiefs, all under the Government-General.

#### Aboriginal Administration

The Taiwan aborigines are the oldest inhabitants of the island and are classified into semi-civilized aborigines and savage head-hunters. The former have now settled down as ordinary peaceful citizens and differ nothing in culture and general status from the natives who belong to the Han (Chinese) race. The head-hunters, on the other hand, live in mountainous districts and still adhere to their traditional habits and manners, their culture being very low. The Taiwan Government-General is concerned in its aboriginal administration mostly with these savage tribes. These savages lead a very primitive life, their dwelling-places being so difficult of access, and they still deter other tribes from settling near them by their traditional custom of head-hunting. Since Japan's occupation of Taiwan great efforts have been directed by the authorities to their subjugation and cultural improvement, and at the present time head-hunting is rapidly becoming extinct, and these savages are entering the first stage of civilized life. Some of them living along the mountain zone in west Taiwan, and those living on the sea coast in east Taiwan, pay taxes. These aborigines have a close resemblance to the Negratoes in the South Sea Islands and are supposed by anthropologists to be of a Malay-origin. They may be classified into seven tribes: Taiyal, Saiset, Bunun, Tsuwo, Paiwan, Ami and Yami, and are entirely different in countenance, physical build, language and habits from the Han race who came over from continental China. These savages are distinguished by their extreme hatred of other tribes, and have a habit of combining together in an offensive and defensive alliance against any enemy. The number of these savages at the end of 1936 was 152,350, of whom 76,453 were male and 75,897 female. They lived in 25,194 houses in 458 villages. Their population in 1935 and 1936 was:

Tribes	1935	1936	Increase or decrease
Taiyal	35,639	36,128	489
Saiset	1,482	1,486	4
Tsuwo	2,168	2,167	(-1)
Bunun	17,757	17,910	153
Paiwan	43,460	43,987	527
Ami	48,237	48,898	661

Tribes	1935	1936	Increase or decrease
Yami	1,695	1,713	18
Others	51	61	10
Total	150,489	152,350	1,861

Note: (-) shows decrease

**The Four Tribes** The savages of the Taiyal and Bunun tribes are known as the most ferocious of all. Occasionally they quarrel with and even kill their own comrades. The Tsuwo tribe abolished the custom of head-hunting many years ago. The Saiset tribesmen are the gentlest of all, and are quickly losing their savage proclivities. The Japanese authorities have cudgelled their brains how to bring these wild people under control. When Holland occupied the south of Taiwan and Spain the north, they tried to pacify them principally through the medium of religion and medicine. During the time when the Cheng family from south China ruled the island, force and conciliation were adopted in turn, but the results were not satisfactory. Conciliation has dominated Japan's policy toward these savages in the island since her occupation of Taiwan. When the campaigns against rebels came to an end in 1902, attention was given to the aboriginal control policy. Owing to the stubborn resistance offered by the savages, the Governor-General, General Viscount Samata Sakuma, drafted a five-year plan for dealing with the aborigines and established the campaign headquarters in the Government-General in 1909 to start the enterprise on an elaborate scale. The fundamental policy was based on conciliation, and training the savages to become law-abiding people on the one hand, and chastisement of the insubordinate on the other. The confiscation of their arms was one of the important tasks. All arms were given up to the Japanese authorities by the northern aborigines in 1914. This completed the task of aboriginal pacification in January, 1915. Occasional raids on police stations and head-hunting of innocent people were committed after that, owing to the instigation of malcontents. The worst outbreak that took place was the Musha Incident in October, 1930, which culminated in the sending of troops. Many of them are engaged in farm work and pay taxes. Some of them receive special education. Policemen are stationed at various points of vantage in the savage districts and peace maintenance, job-finding, education, medical care, traffic, public works and sundry other affairs are being looked after by them.

Since the occupation of Taiwan to the end of 1936 rifles confiscated numbered 21,433, of which 14,286 rifles were confiscated in 1914, when the five-year campaign plan came to an end. Spades replaced rifles. During the 41 years which ended in 1936, 7,080 people lost their lives at the hands of savages and the largest number of them in a single year was 761 in 1912. In 1930, 158 deaths were reported. This is due to the Musha Incident. Of the total of 7,080 victims during those 41 years, those of police, Japanese and native, numbered 2,206 and those of officials and ordinary people together 4,877. During the same period 4,116 were wounded in connection with the campaign against savages. A change, however, is beginning to be made in the lives of these people in recent years. They are emerging from their primitive condition into an economic existence. They are glad to work on paddy fields and take up other sorts of labour. They are now pretty well initiated into money-saving habits. Their postal savings deposits at the end of 1936 amounted to ¥331,335, representing 16,916 depositors, the highest single deposit being ¥2,000 and the average deposit ¥19.58 per head. At present the aboriginal administration consists mainly in finding work for the aborigines and giving them education.

**Occupations of Aborigines** The work in which the aborigines are mainly engaged is cultivation of paddy fields, stock-raising, sericulture and other kinds of farming. They raised 27,212 koku of unhusked rice in 1936 (one koku being 3,116 bushels), showing a gain of 1,850 koku over 1935. The authorities also encourage stock-raising. At the end of 1936 the natives had 31,844 pigs, 7,662 buffaloes, 3,699 cattle, and 3,623 goats. The value of their cocoon crop for 1936 totalled ¥42,152. They also raised sundry other farm products valued at ¥112,715 for the same year. Education is gradually spreading among the aborigines. At the end of April of 1937 there were 9,000 aboriginal children attending 187 schools maintained at the expense of the Government-General specially for these tribes. The Government-General authorities also are directing their energy to cultural enterprises for them. The aborigines have their own social organizations, such as the chiefs' societies, women's societies, young men's associations, school children's patron societies, and others. Members of these societies numbered 41,254. Also there were about 24,920 at the end of 1936, who were able to understand Japanese to the extent to perform some simple

work. Superstition is being gradually eradicated from among the aborigines, as medical attention is being increasingly given them. Free dispensaries provided exclusively for them numbered 228 at the end of 1936. The Government-General established 110 "exchange" houses for them to sell their products. The sales at these houses in 1936 totalled ¥739,265.

#### Police and Judicature

**The Police** The Taiwan police consist of men appointed from among Japanese, natives and semi-civilized aborigines. Their services are divided into the ordinary service and aboriginal police service. The police in aboriginal districts are reinforced by police assistants appointed mostly from among natives. These are features of the police services of Taiwan. What is known as the tithing system of Taiwan provides a feature of peace preservation in the island. This system is of Chinese origin and was first adopted as an auxiliary to the police system in 1899. Owing to the satisfactory results attained, it also was extended to the lower grades of the administration in 1909. One tithing group consists of 100 houses and it looks after the peace of the group. In case these groups organize an association, the matter has to be sanctioned by provincial governors or district superintendents. Each group has its chief, who is elected and sanctioned by governor or superintendent. His duty is to maintain peace and order in his tithing district. Members of groups consist of men ranging from 17 to 50 years old and must be of good character. They offer their services free. The number of groups involved in the tithing system of Taiwan was 5,536 at the end of 1936. Many pirates infest the coast of Taiwan, mostly coming from south China. They attack junks during the summer time. The police on duty against these sea raiders are attached to provincial or district governments.

**Judicature** The judicature of Taiwan consists of two grades of courts, viz., the supreme court and three district courts, the latter having five branches in all—all under control of the Governor-General. The functions of the various courts are practically the same as those of the courts in Japan proper.

#### Religion and Education

**Religion** There are 39 Shinto shrines in Taiwan. The Taiwan Shrine is a first-rank Government shrine and is the

central shrine of worship for the Japanese people in the island. It is located in a suburb of Taihoku, the capital of the island, and is dedicated to Okuninushi, Oanamuchi and Sukunahikona, all legendary leaders of the early Japanese race, and to His Imperial Highness General Prince Yoshihisa Kitashirakawa, who died in the island when commanding the Japanese expeditionary force in Taiwan during the Sino-Japanese War. Shintoism, Buddhism and Christianity have been propagated by the Japanese since 1895. Confucianism is observed among the natives and Chinese people in the island.

**Education** The continuous efforts of the Government-General have been rewarded to such an extent that the na-

tives have been receiving education since 1922 together with Japanese in the classes of middle-school grade and in higher institutions, although the elementary education is still given both in the vernacular and Japanese languages. Besides numerous elementary schools, Taiwan had at the end of April, 1937, 1 kindergarten, 12 middle schools, 13 girls' schools, 9 business schools of middle school grade, 4 normal schools, 4 colleges and 1 Imperial University. The Taihoku Imperial University was founded in March, 1922. It consists of two departments, one literature and politics and the other physics and agriculture. The educational expenses for the last six years are:

	Total amount	State expenses	Provinces and districts	Cities, towns and villages
	(In ¥1,000)			
1932	16,289	4,820	7,842	3,627
1933	16,723	4,895	7,842	3,985
1934	18,026	5,042	8,301	4,593
1935	21,264	5,839	9,179	6,245
1936	23,549	6,315	10,043	7,191
1937	28,565	6,945	11,862	9,757
Average	21,625	5,807	9,463	6,354

#### Agriculture

Agriculture is the most important industry of Taiwan. Since the island came under Japan's control, it has made a rapid development and the total farm production in 1936 was worth ¥393,000,000, composing about 50 per cent of all the industrial production of the island. The area under cultivation in 1899 was 363,290 ko (one ko being 2.377 acres or 2,934 tsubo). It increased to 872,258 ko at the end of 1936, more than double that of 36 years ago. The cultivated land is more than 20 per cent of the island's total area. The area of cultivated land since 1899 has been as follows:

Year	Paddy field	Dry land	Total
	(In 1,000 ko)		
1889	211	151	363
1907	328	345	674
1912	346	364	711
1917	330	412	742
1922	376	397	773
1927	399	422	821
1929	406	423	830
1930	408	428	836
1931	411	424	835
1932	439	400	839
1933	482	362	845
1934	463	388	851
1935	493	363	856
1936	533	338	872

People engaged in agriculture are about 53 per cent of the total population. At the end of 1936 their number was 2,854,733 of whom tenant-farmers were 875,628, landed farmers 1,061,118, and landed tenant-farmers 917,987.

**Rice Crops** The climate is very well suited to rice cultivation especially in the western district, where crops are harvested twice a year. The production in 1936 was about 9,550,000 koku with a value of over ¥210,000,000. Rice forms the chief of the three most important farm products of Taiwan, that is, rice, sugar cane and potatoes. Rice known as Hōrai rice is grown heavily in recent years. Its plantation area for 1936 totalled 702,685 ko and the crop amounted to 9,558,390 koku for two crops a year. The plantation areas and rice crops since 1899 follow:

	Plantation areas	Crops
	(In ko)	(In koku)
1899	360,922	2,052,970
1912	495,128	4,046,611
1917	480,642	4,833,813
1922	527,096	5,445,814
1927	603,153	6,898,672
1928	603,058	6,795,005
1929	579,274	6,480,762
1930	633,444	7,370,516
1931	653,380	7,479,846
1932	684,828	8,949,216

	Plantation areas	Crops
	(In ko)	(In koku)
1933	696,423	8,361,839
1934	687,664	9,088,886
1935	699,675	9,122,152
1936	702,685	9,558,390

**Sweet Potatoes** Sweet potatoes also are extensively produced almost everywhere and all through the year in the island. The chief producing centres are Potatoes serve as fodder for cattle besides being used as ordinary foodstuff. Dried potatoes are shipped to Japan as material for producing alcohol and starch. The export value of dried potatoes for 1935 totalled 44,332,580 kin (one kin being 1.3 pounds), worth ¥1,290,529. The crop of sweet potatoes for 1902 amounted to 501,160,292 kin and the amount has been increasing yearly since. The 1936 crop totalled 2,868,965,607 kin. The plantation area of 63,147 ko for 1902 increased to 144,455 for 1936.

**Tea** Tea is one of the principal exports of Taiwan. The export totalled once as large as ¥11,500,000, though somewhat declined in recent years. The tea production amounted to 20,808,765 kin (in plantation area of 28,308 ko) for 1902 and that for 1936 amounted to 18,-

081,426 kin (in the area of 46,068 ko). Tea plantation was introduced there by immigrants from China. In 1868 some amount of tea roughly made in Taiwan was exported to Amoy, where it was refined, but later the Taiwan producers, bringing tea operators from Amoy and Foochow, began to export refined tea, and in 1869 as much as 280,000 pounds of refined tea were exported to New York. This was the first export of Taiwan tea to America. Then tea production developed considerably year after year. Export tea is classified into varieties, viz., Oolong, Pouchong, green and black. Oolong and Pouchong teas are most abundantly produced; the former, appreciated by Americans, and the latter, preferred by the people of the South Sea Islands, is exported to Java and Siam. Black tea extending its markets, and, although not as good as Ceylon tea, it is better in quality than Japanese black tea.

**Other Products** Other agricultural products are peanuts, beans, wheat, sesame, longan, (otherwise known as "dragon's eye") and vegetables. The yielding areas and production of these farm products for 1936, as compared with those for 1900, follow:

	Yielding area		Production	
	(In ko)		(In koku)	
	1900	1936	1900	1936
Peanuts	11,958	31,688	120,838	590,185
Beans	11,365	18,949	50,281	78,887
Barley	1,479	593	11,460	4,314
Wheat	1,857	680	11,282	4,084
Sesame seeds	6,889	3,502	36,279	12,102
Jute	1,155	5,510	1,481,548 (kin)	14,973,565 (kin)
Hemp	1,654	2,070	1,022,063 "	2,296,706 "
Tobacco	240	1,254	363,900 (kg)	2,216,010 (kg)
Oranges	.317	4,850	2,025,965 (kin)	57,705,000 (kin)
	(1905)		(1909)	
Pineapples	—	7,969	—	110,156,884 (pieces)
Longan	—	534,458 (trees)	—	4,223,399 (kin)
		(1935)		(1935)
Vegetables	—	—	—	¥13,940,000

The export of raw pineapples for 1936 totalled ¥162,383 and that of canned pineapples ¥7,244,262.

Bananas are Taiwan's representative fruits. They are planted everywhere in the island, but are produced most heavily in Taichu province, where 52 per cent of the total production is got. They occupy the third position in the export list of the island, the first being rice and the second sugar. Bananas exported during 1936 totalled 3,050,000 baskets, one basket being 75 kin, worth ¥14,000,-

000. In 1909 the plantation acreage was 560 ko with a crop of 10,536,062 kin, which increased in 1936 to 22,500 ko with a crop of 339,500,000 kin.

**Live-stock** The live-stock raising industry in Taiwan is flourishing. The number of cattle at the end of 1935 was 370,955, of which buffaloes numbered 292,326. Buffaloes play the most important rôle in agriculture. Hog-raising industry is widely maintained and hogs are kept by almost all native farmers. Their number at the end of 1936 was



1,813,049, having increased three-and-half times since the cession of the island to Japan. Poultry consists of chickens and geese, their total number at the end of 1936 being 9,003,878. It was in 1912 that sericulture was started in the island. Before that year no sericulture existed there. It took nearly 10 years before native farmers appreciated it as a side-line. This industry is becoming important among farmers. In the first year the cocoon crop amounted to only 84 koku and it increased to 1,210 koku in 1936. One of the unique features of sericulture in Taiwan is that silkworms can be raised at any time of the year, since even during the winter-time mulberry leaves are grown. Moreover, no insect ravage is experienced in the island. The cost of production is scarcely half of that in Japan.

**Agricultural Equipment** The Taiwan Government-General has taken every possible measure to encourage the rice cultivation and improve the quality of rice. "Hōrai rice" is a Japanese variety, and after many years' experiment the island succeeded in raising rice of good quality. The inspection of rice has been made under control of the Governor-General since July, 1926. Silkworms are raised and distributed by the Sericultural Experimental Station of the Colonial Development Bureau in the Government-General. The Government-General also is adopting all possible steps for improvement of tea cultivation and for this purpose is training tea-raising experts at its Tea Institute. The Pineapple Experimental Station is maintained under control of the Government-General for promotion of this industry. Agricultural warehouses, numbering 101, are doing business upon Government subsidy. The immigration of the Japanese into Taiwan so far has failed to realize satisfactory results. Farm settlers from Japan proper numbered 5,292 at the end of June of 1936. They maintain an area of paddy fields covering 1,183 ko and farms covering 1,641 ko. Fundamental farm investigation is being constantly carried on by the authorities. The investigation involves that of land management, tenancy, farm economy, farm production, demand and supply of products and fertilizers, land utilization, farm labour, market prices of farm products, etc. Irrigation work also is pursued on an approved plan. The Landlord and Tenant-Farmers Harmonization Society was established in 1927 with government aid for the improvement of relations between land-

lords and tenants.

#### Sugar Industry

Taiwan is the centre of the sugar industry of Japan. The industry has existed since the coming of the Han race to the island and, when the Dutch occupied the island in 1624, sugar had already become one of the staple products of the island. It has maintained the topmost position of Taiwan's industries. At the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan the annual output was only about 80,000,000 kin, one kin being 1.323 pounds. Japan proper consumed more than 300,000,000 kin of sugar, most of which had to be imported from abroad.

**Dr. Nitobé's Plan** Alive to this situation, the Taiwan Government-General concentrated its energy on the increased production of sugar by means of business improvement and expansion, and this has resulted in the present industrial prosperity. Not only has this prevented the import of foreign sugar, but it has contributed a great deal to the exploitation of natural resources and the financial and industrial development of the island. The late Dr. Inazō Nitobé was engaged by the Government-General to work out a sugar-industry development plan. He proposed several measures for industrial development, namely, the improvement of kinds of sugar cane and their cultivation, improvement of pressing and manufacturing methods, the application of artificial irrigation, increased land cultivation and expansion of sugar plantations, the establishment of sugar experimental stations, and the organization of sugar production guilds, as well as other measures. These formed the basic policy of the Taiwan sugar industry. The sugar encouragement regulations were issued in June, 1902. According to these regulations, the Government-General would give a subsidy to sugar-cane planters or sugar manufacturers for cane plantation, fertilizers, cultivation, irrigation, and manufacturing machines, or, if necessary, implements will be lent or given. The subsidies given in this connection up to the end of the fiscal year of 1931-32 totalled ¥12,908,698. The Government-General is adopting a policy of reducing the subsidy with the progress of the sugar industry. With the establishment of sugar mills the competition for the acquisition of canes became severe.

**Upon Consolidated Basis** In order to prevent evils arising out of this competition, the authorities issued regula-

tions restricting the spheres of cane plantations in 1905. This caused sugar-makers to work on a consolidated basis yearly. As it was impossible for sugar manufacturers to get material from districts other than those designated for them by regulations, the makers took great care of the planters working on their fields. Planters also were placed on a definite basis of economy by the regulations, because the canes raised by them could be sold to the mills to which they belonged. When the sugar policy was established, the Extraordinary Taiwan Sugar Affairs Bureau was organized, but it was later replaced by the Sugar Refinery Section of the Colonial Development Bureau. The Government-General first established the Young Cane Seed Experimental Station in Taichu province in 1913. Seeds raised there were distributed to intermediate experimental yards, where they are further grown. Manufacturing companies are bound by duty to distribute these seeds free to farmers within their plantations. Thus the improvement of canes was realized. Young plants distributed till the end of March, 1935, totalled 600,519,040.

**The Sugar Experimental Station** The Taiwan Government-General Sugar Experimental Station was reorganized and was founded in Taiwan city in March, 1932, as the central organization for the promotion of sugar plantation. At first, the Hawaiian "rose bamboo" canes were adopted for the Taiwan sugar cultivation and canes of this kind occupied 66 per cent of all grown in 1913. Due to lack of adequate measures to keep the quality unchanged, and also to the fact that these canes had little power of resistance against storms they finally deteriorated. Then they were replaced by Java canes. At the end of March, 1932, the land under irrigation totalled 112,416 ko. The following are figures showing the area of sugar plantations and crop per ko since 1902:

Fiscal year	Plantation area (In ko)	Cane crop (In kin)	Cropper ko (In kin)
1902-03	16,526	683,157,902	41,338
1905-06	35,156	1,690,200,794	48,078
1908-09	39,035	2,219,471,541	56,858
1910-11	75,329	3,159,598,569	41,944
1914-15	85,150	3,933,805,780	46,199
1917-18	150,450	6,817,535,709	45,314
1919-20	108,376	4,382,506,262	40,438

Fiscal year	Plantation area (In ko)	Cane crop (In kin)	Cropper ko (In kin)
1920-21	142,032	6,752,838,826	47,544
1921-22	123,233	7,793,688,518	63,243
1923-24	130,480	8,825,841,621	67,641
1925-26	123,426	8,615,430,295	69,802
1926-27	101,531	7,411,962,535	73,002
1927-28	108,318	9,697,644,651	89,529
1928-29	120,046	12,291,944,205	102,394
1929-30	109,397	11,618,358,936	106,204
1930-31	99,094	10,944,669,505	110,447
1931-32	109,496	13,415,197,477	122,518
1932-33	83,680	8,782,001,849	104,835
1933-34	91,163	8,883,801,544	97,449
1934-35	121,628	13,477,260,178	110,807
1935-36	128,329	13,190,389,434	102,785

#### Production of Sugar

The sugar industry at the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan was very primitive. Out of about 1,100 sugar mills, not a single mill had adopted the modern mechanical method of manufacturing, and all of them used animal power. Owing to insufficient pressing power, a large percentage of sugar-substance was wasted during the manufacturing process and, moreover, the product was inferior. By 1934 there were only 92 mills of this kind, as the majority of them were gradually eliminated. In these primitive mills two stone wheel cars or three metal wheel cars are employed for grinding by animal power. Improved mills use pressing machines and motors. Brown sugar is also manufactured. Such mills numbered only 6, with a total productive capacity of only 910 tons for 1934. The modernly-equipped mills have pressing capacity ranging from 300 to 3,000 tons a day and are able to produce in great quantity. The Taiwan Sugar Manufacturing Company founded in 1901 was the first of its kind. During the financial boom following the Russo-Japanese War many sugar-manufacturing concerns were established, and Japan finally leaped into a prominent position among the world's sugar-producing countries. In 1934 there were 50 mills with the daily productive capacities of 28,150 British tons and 13,400 American tons. Most of them produce crude sugar known as centrifugals. Some of them turn out white sugar by a change of milling operation. Sugar-cane pressing capacity and production of white sugar follow:

Companies	Cane pressing capacity (In tons)	Production of white sugar		
		1934	1935 (In kin)	1936
Taiwan Sugar's Taihoku mill	Brit. 500	3,636,984	3,210,450	—
Taiwan Sugar's Sharokan mill	Amer. 1,200	22,807,903	25,633,887	30,107,409
Taiwan Sugar's Kibi mill	Brit. 1,200	22,063,274	19,848,625	25,211,965
Meiji Sugar's Shoryu mill	" 750	—	—	—
Meiji Sugar's Nansel mill	" 1,000	15,467,001	12,130,350	15,559,383
Meiji Sugar's Ujuria mill	" 750	11,359,024	22,386,047	26,765,275
Dai Nippon Sugar's Toroku mill	" 500	16,000,000	23,410,850	21,020,103
Ensuiko Sugar's Shinei mill	" 1,000	29,090,444	48,998,596	43,067,770
Ensuiko Sugar's				
Kishinai No. 1 mill	" 550	37,679,436	57,052,616	55,533,410
Kishinai No. 2 mill	" 700			
Total	" 6,950			
	Amer. 1,200	158,102,766	250,004,926	247,374,552

Summary Summarizing the status of the sugar industry, the caneplantation area at the beginning of 1902 was 26,167 ko, and there was only one mechanically-operated mill with a daily capacity of 200 tons and capitalization of only ¥1,000,000. In 1927 such mills numbered 45 with a daily productive capacity of 39,414 American tons and total capitalization of ¥290,520,000, although this drop-

ped to ¥233,520,000 in 1936, owing to mergers or readjustment of business. But the capacity increased to 43,520 American tons for 1935. The total production in 1902 was only 90,000,000 kin, but in 1927 it rose as high as 1,315,540,000 kin and further to 1,648,440,000 kin in 1932. It increased to 1,690,420,000 kin in 1935.

Companies	Head offices	Capital		No. of mills
		Subscribed	Paid-up	
		(In ¥1,000)		
Taiwan Sugar	Helto, Takao province	63,000	43,080	13
Shinko Sugar	Taiyo, Takao province	1,200	1,200	1
Meiji Sugar	Mato, Tainan province	48,000	39,200	7
Dai Nippon	Sunamachi, Tokyo city	61,970	56,333	9
Ensuiko Sugar	Shinei, Tainan province	29,250	21,375	7
Téikoku Sugar	Taichu city	27,000	20,250	6
Showa Sugar	Goketsu, Taihoku province	10,000	10,000	5
Taito Sugar	Taito	1,750	1,750	2
Sango Sugar	Nirinsho, Taichu province	3,550	3,550	1
Total		245,720	196,738	51

Production of sugar for the 1935-36 | fiscal year follows :

Companies	Materials used (In kin)	Sugar production Production of molasses	
		(In kin)	(In kin)
Taiwan Sugar	2,959,610,480	392,825,471	70,169,531
Shinko Sugar	134,247,660	16,982,839	5,362,828
Meiji Sugar	2,367,595,140	304,470,739	56,428,568
Dai Nippon Sugar	2,848,701,950	356,679,069	63,354,611
Ensuiko Sugar	1,803,537,410	216,172,428	44,988,509
Téikoku Sugar	817,126,940	104,819,360	21,561,527
Showa Sugar	425,152,160	53,628,867	10,879,910
Taito Sugar	101,541,540	12,979,024	2,582,708
Sango Sugar	84,008,320	9,028,789	2,653,435
Total	11,541,521,620	1,467,586,586	284,001,697
Improved mills	119,906,292	17,336,027	—
Primitive mills	171,051,006	17,875,478	—
Grand total	11,832,478,918	1,502,798,091	284,001,697

Sugar production in Taiwan since 1905 | has been as follows :

Year (Nov.-Oct.)	Mechanically-operated mills	Improved mills Primitive mills		Total
		(In kin)	(In kin)	
1905	7,558,418	641,533	74,432,707	82,632,658
1913	105,047,715	7,266,608	6,034,921	119,149,244
1915	313,064,988	18,609,895	15,771,514	347,446,398
1917	681,942,099	44,267,332	37,280,842	763,490,273
1919	435,905,228	17,226,885	33,224,850	466,356,963
1921	401,948,211	8,695,462	10,579,932	421,223,605
1923	581,460,227	3,766,752	7,093,274	592,320,253
1925	778,774,392	8,040,111	12,418,544	799,233,047
1927	671,018,437	5,571,867	8,643,715	685,234,019
1928	952,868,631	6,475,108	7,517,395	966,861,134
1929	1,296,552,378	9,627,008	9,366,152	1,315,547,538
1930	1,330,505,897	11,750,135	8,549,854	1,350,805,886
1931	1,311,805,427	9,584,858	7,458,389	1,328,796,674
1932	1,628,731,287	11,240,564	8,441,111	1,648,415,962
1933	1,028,066,503	16,784,410	11,356,418	1,056,207,331
1934	1,057,338,553	7,669,235	13,107,643	1,078,405,431
1935	1,571,106,721	16,656,732	21,577,230	1,609,420,683
1936	1,467,506,586	17,336,027	17,875,478	1,502,798,091

#### Forestry and Afforestation

The surface of Taiwan is covered by mountains to the extent of almost two-thirds of its entire area, and the island is rich in thick forests of immense depth. Forest protection and afforestation are done on an approved system by the Government-General. The great mountain ranges running north to south with numerous peaks provide vegetation peculiar to temperate as well as to tropical and sub-tropical regions. The most renowned of the natural forests of Taiwan are those on the mountains in the central ranges, from Taibysan in the south to the peninsula of Koshun; those on famous Mt. Arisan; those on Mt. Rokujodalsan in the north; and those on Mt. Seiran. Besides these, there are also extensive forests in the valleys of the River Dakusui and in some districts of Karenko. The total forest area in Taiwan in 1936 was 2,066,749 ko, of which 2,215,314 ko government owned forests. Building-timber, sleepers and other forest products turned out in the same year amounted to ¥1,257,852. When the Portuguese first discovered the island, they were impressed with the immense expanse of forests and cried "Formosa!" signifying "beautiful." Reckless cutting of trees was done by Chinese immigrants and this, combined with the lack of adequate forest administration of the Manchu Dynasty, resulted in the devastation of forest districts. The Forest Bureau was established in 1915 and since then forest protection has been carried on in an approved manner by the Government-General.

**Timber Industry** The timber industry of the Arisan group is controlled by the Government-General. This famous mountain group is located east of Kagi in Tainan province and is on the Tropic of Cancer. It stands 8,240 feet high. It is covered with red cypress, Mongolian oak and hemlock. The former two kinds of wood are highly valued. There are many trees aged more than 3,000 years. Even the Imperial forest at Kiso in Nagano prefecture has few oaks of such great age. Timber used for the building of important shrines such as the Kashiwabara Shrine, dedicated to the memory of Jimmu Tenno, the first Emperor of Japan, the Imperial Mausolea at Momoyama for the Emperor Meiji and Empress Shoken, and the Meiji Shrine was grown on these mountains. The two great pillars constituting the torii of the Meiji Shrine are estimated to be 1,900 and 1,090 years old respectively. Both came from these mountains. The number of these valuable trees was originally estimated at 1,468,416 with 6,073,976 cu.m. But as the result of cutting down since the actual volume of trees at the end of 1934 was found at 1,481,000 cu.m. The Government-General spent ¥4,898,212 as initial outlay for the five years ending in 1912. This included ¥2,643,015 for railway construction, ¥1,200,000 as subsidy for Fujita Gumi, Osaka, which temporarily undertook the enterprise for the Government-General. ¥1,052,869 as general expenses, and ¥2,327 for other purposes. Lumbering work started in 1912. Sales of lumber amounted to ¥1,061,852 for 1932; ¥1,139,310 for 1933; ¥1,138,437 for 1934; ¥1,158,043 for 1935; and ¥1,239,272 for 1936.

The lumber industry on Mt. Taihei near Rato town in Taihoku province is considered one of the most promising of all in the island. Until 1913 the mountain was not exploited, because it was a stronghold of the most savage aboriginal tribe. The quantity of timber on the mountain is estimated at 14,159,000 cubic metres, nearly four times that of Mt. Arisan. Work started in 1915 and has so far realized satisfactory results. Sales of lumber totalled ¥905,705 for 1932; ¥1,024,507 for 1933; ¥1,079,090 for 1934; ¥1,138,998 for 1935; and ¥1,313,071 for 1936.

How Disposed Taiwan wood is not only used for shrine and temple construction, but for building of warships and merchant-ships. Demand from naval arsenals and dockyards is yearly increasing. Taiwan wood is exported to Japan proper, Korea, China, British India, South Africa, Australia and other places. Sales to the market in the island, Japan proper and foreign countries from 1916, when the sales began, to 1933, follow:

	Amount (In cubic m.)	Value (In Yen)
1916		
Sales in islands	42,296	835,098
Sales to Japan	17,728	385,900
Sales abroad	911	24,556
Total	60,935	1,245,554
1932		
Sales in island	78,130	1,833,316
Sales to Japan	18,269	699,575
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	96,399	2,532,891
1933		
Sales in island	86,408	2,002,383
Sales to Japan	21,560	769,037
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	107,968	2,771,420
1934		
Sales in island	90,853	2,126,751
Sales to Japan	19,381	710,969
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	111,233	2,837,747

	Catches	Manufacturing (In yen)	Cultivated fish production	Total
1923	9,030,651	3,303,756	1,943,565	14,277,972
1927	10,822,119	2,505,311	3,920,591	17,248,021
1928	12,670,180	2,706,623	3,401,779	18,778,582
1929	14,446,265	2,775,420	3,734,684	20,956,369
1930	11,771,144	1,793,273	3,142,981	16,707,398
1931	8,482,776	1,524,869	3,047,254	13,054,899
1932	9,197,468	1,545,164	3,130,800	13,873,432
1933	10,806,670	1,908,982	3,223,632	15,939,484
1934	11,452,341	2,290,923	2,890,340	16,633,604
1935	13,639,986	2,290,741	3,483,582	19,414,309
1936	14,934,405	2,500,298	4,207,178	21,641,881

	Amount (In cubic m.)	Value (In yen)
1935		
Sales in island	86,852	2,221,900
Sales to Japan	19,707	789,618
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	106,559	3,011,518
1936		
Sales in island	83,574	2,430,005
Sales to Japan	19,815	827,847
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	103,389	3,257,852

#### Aquatic Products

The seas about Taiwan are rich in various kinds of fish and shell-fish, and catches are especially abundant in spring and autumn. Fishing is to a great extent still conducted in a primitive manner. There are, however, now 39 fishing companies of which 2 have their head offices in Japan proper and the rest in the island with capitalization of ¥101,500,000 for the former and ¥5,224,500 for the latter. There were 94 fish markets in the island at the end of 1936, and the total fish sales there during the year amounted to ¥5,662,739 and showed an increase of ¥4,042,000. The Takao Fish Market led the list. The Taiwanese are a fish-eating people, but the annual catch is so great that a large quantity is exported to Japan proper and other countries. Taiwan's marine product trade for 1936 amounted to ¥16,928,124, exclusive of salt, showing an increase of ¥117,690 over the previous year. Trade figures include exports abroad totalling ¥1,492,412, imports from abroad totalling ¥788,473, exports to Japan proper totalling ¥4,191,951 and imports from these districts totalling ¥10,455,288. The making of dried bonito is the largest marine products industry. The annual output of dried and canned marine products is worth about ¥2,500,000, great part of which goes to the dried bonito production. The marine production of Taiwan follows:

#### Mineral Products

The principal mineral products of Taiwan are gold, silver, placer-gold, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, zinc, coal, petroleum, sulphur and phosphorus. The mine-lots at the end of March, 1936, numbered 666 with a total area of 201,013,968 tsubo, one tsubo being six feet square. Mines in operation numbered

238 covering an area of 106,870,000 tsubo. Of these 238 mines, 1 was gold mine, 2 gold and silver mines, 2 gold-copper mine, 24 placer-gold mines, 179 coal mines, 7 sulphur mines and 21 oil fields. The mineral production for 1936 totalled ¥28,726,978 showing an increase of ¥5,888,227 over 1935. The mineral production during the past five years, 1932-1936 inclusive follows:

	1932	1933 (In Yen)	1934	1935	1936
Gold	722,733	1,681,592	1,581,828	3,494,040	4,223,712
Gold-copper ores	3,027,792	3,709,157	3,773,194	3,995,854	5,881,080
Placer-gold	11,611	57,017	94,730	62,477	159,509
Silver	10,003	16,632	8,472	21,542	16,746
Copper	174,419	294,388	274,484	376,072	469,830
Gold ores	70,750	—	66,633	2,330,178	2,076,851
Quicksilver	2,488	—	—	—	—
Coal	7,164,598	6,571,195	7,681,609	9,868,193	11,364,943
Sulphur	51,290	37,148	62,075	85,553	87,034
Phosphorous ores	647	—	—	365	851
Petroleum	263,631	245,944	424,677	384,860	312,159
Gasolene	1,797,275	994,003	574,857	490,383	456,396
Carbon black	43,552	205,527	341,079	516,125	291,554
Others and total	13,337,790	13,950,866	14,196,250	22,838,751	28,726,978

The Government-General conducted a mineral and geological investigation for eight years over the island following the introduction of civil administration in 1896. As a result, oil distribution was found almost all over the island. Subsidies were granted to those who had proper equipment for boring for oil to a depth of more than 2,000 feet. The subsidy was given from 1901 to 1924. It was then suspended, owing to financial reasons, but was resumed in 1930. Metal ores are found exclusively in the extreme north and the eastern district, coal in the northern and central parts and oil all over the island, especially in the central and southern districts. The mineral production in 1897 was only ¥112,000, but in 1907 it increased to ¥2,255,000, and in 1936 to as much as ¥15,196,250. Of this more than 50 per cent was coal, gold-copper ores 25 per cent; gasolene 4 per cent; gold 10 per cent; other minerals in smaller amounts in the following order: petroleum, carbon black, copper, placer-gold, gold ore, and sulphur.

Gold and Silver, Placer-gold was first discovered by Japanese invaders in

Taiwan over 400 years ago, when Japanese pirates infested the neighbouring coasts of China. It was then got at Takikiri Gorge in Karenko district. In later years placer-gold was found in several localities, but at present the mining is conducted along the Keelung and other rivers. When the mining was most prosperous in 1903, the annual output reached 161 kan, one kan being 8.267 lb., valued at ¥610,000, but since then the industry has been sinking. The 1931 output was only 3.165 kan. A gold vein was first discovered at Mt. Kubu in 1893. In the following year gold deposits were found at Kinkwaseki and in 1891 another vein was discovered at Butanko. The gold mining interests at Butanko and Kinkwaseki were merged in 1913. The mining operation is done at Zuiho and Kinkwaseki. The Kinkwaseki mine is located about 10 miles east of Keelung. It is managed and operated by the Tanaka Mining Company, Ltd. The mining area at the end of 1931 was 4,053,000 tsubo. It has its own refinery.

Production at the mine for four years ending 1936 follows:

		1933	1934	1935	1936
Gold	Output in g.	32,301	—	—	—
	Value in yen	80,049	—	—	4,223,712
Silver	Output in g.	52,466	—	—	—
	Value in yen	1,886	—	—	16,746

Gold-silver ores	Output in m.t.	115,693	—	65,085	—
	Value in yen	3,773,194	—	2,330,178	2,076,851
Gold-Silver	Output in m.t.	—	130,297	104,384	—
-Copper ores	Value in yen	—	5,008,812	3,995,854	5,881,080
Gold ores	Output in m.t.	805	624	232	—
	Value in yen	66,633	56,286	20,127	—
Precipitated copper	Output in kg.	1,365,780	2,299,168	2,411,204	—
	Value in yen	274,484	327,970	376,072	469,830
Precipitated gold and silver	Output in kg.	7,802	12,710	11,121	—
	Value in yen	250,716	445,794	623,118	2,087,020
Total value in yen		4,446,962	5,838,862	7,345,349	14,755,259

Fujita Gumi, Osaka, first operated the Zuiho Mine in 1898, but the enterprise was transferred to the Taiyo Mining Company in 1920. Business has failed

to realize satisfactory results. Its gold and silver output for four years follows:

		1932	1933	1934	1935
Gold:	Output in g.	569,749	566,907	1,002,928	1,131,862
	Value in yen	1,238,051	1,501,279	3,169,393	3,494,040
Silver:	Output in g.	180,968	178,666	296,941	329,212
	Value in yen	4,774	6,586	15,085	21,542
Total value in yen		1,242,825	1,507,865	3,184,478	3,515,582

Oil Oil in Taiwan was discovered by a Chinese about 80 years ago at Shukotan, near the Koryu valley, over an area covering 599,670 tsubo. Since 1905, 71 oil wells have been sunk. Well No. 18 is the best of all. From 1913 to 1925 the oil output from this well totalled 53,205 koku, by the Nippon Sekiyu Kaisha (Japan Oil Company, Ltd.). Owing, however, to the concentration of energy on the exploitation of the Kinsui Oil Field by the company, the output has gone off from the daily output of 300 koku. Lamp oil, gasoline, light oil and paraffin are manufactured from crude oil obtained here. The oil refinery is in Eyoritsu.

The production from the crude oil is gasoline, 5 per cent, lamp oil 85 per cent, heavy oil 8 per cent and wax.

The kinsui oil field is the most important one in Taiwan. It is operated by the Japan Oil Company. A government subsidy was paid to exploit wells No. 1 to No. 5. It took eleven years for well No. 5 to realize satisfactory results. Well No. 10 produced an enormous output of 30,000,000 cubic feet a day in March, 1930, and a gasoline plant was installed there in November of the same year. When the capacity of the gasoline plants is fully developed, the daily output of gasoline will be 1,000 koku.

#### Other Industries

Prior to the World War, industries other than sugar and tea developed very

little in the island. Since the War, however, chemical, spinning, machinery and other miscellaneous industries have developed to a considerable extent. The more important of them for 1935 follow:

Metal Industry:	(In yen)
Tin plates	2,132,894
Gold and silver works	1,892,767
Machinery Industry:	
Sugar refining machinery	4,287,555
Agricultural implements	—
Ceramics Industry:	
Bricks	2,914,168
Tiles	887,619
Cement	3,638,892
Chemical Industry:	
Chemicals	783,082
Bean cake	1,688,359
Vegetable oils	1,700,014
Papers	1,473,830
Mixed fertilizers	3,886,391
Food Stuff Industry:	
Soy sauce	2,314,295
Flour	2,452,285
Sugar	164,068,191
Confectioneries	5,230,503
Canned pineapples	7,828,282
Macaroni	3,504,448
Ice	1,330,203
Polished rice	3,442,969
Miscellaneous Industries:	
Woodworking	4,484,272
Hats	3,336,955
Others and total	293,000,000

Overseas Trade The overseas trade of Taiwan, although it has experienced temporary setbacks from time to time, has made remarkable progress in recent years. The bulk of overseas trade is, however, with Japan proper, the rest being chiefly done with China, the United States, the Straits Settlements, the Dutch East Indies, the United Kingdom, Germany, British India, the Kwantung Leased Territory and Hongkong. The trade is carried on principally through the four large ports of Keelung, Tamsui, Anping and Takao. As Keelung is the most important port of trade in the north, so is Takao in the south. The trade volume for 1898 amounted to ¥30,-

000,000 which increased to ¥50,000,000 in 1906, and, owing to the phenomenal growth of the sugar industry and import of sugar milling machinery, the amount went up to more than ¥100,000,000 in 1910. In 1917 the amount recorded a further gain to ¥234,000,000, due to active trade in sugar, alcohol and rice and heavy transit trade with China. An all-time record of ¥680,634,926 was made in the trade volume for 1935. The amount gained ¥66,770,507 over the year before. In 1929, the trade figure amounted to ¥476,000,000, but declined to ¥366,000,000, affected by a great economic depression. Taiwan's overseas trade since 1910 has been as follows:

#### OVERSEAS TRADE VOLUME

	Exports abroad and exports to Japan proper and its colonies	Imports from abroad and imports from Japan proper and its colonies	Total	Index
		(In yen)		
1910	59,962,255	48,923,289	108,885,544	349
1913	62,791,679	62,632,416	125,424,095	401
1916	112,347,948	65,021,600	177,369,548	568
1921	152,438,500	133,954,458	286,392,958	916
1925	263,214,651	186,295,340	449,609,991	1,439
1926	251,425,070	183,412,450	434,837,520	1,392
1927	246,676,284	186,948,387	433,624,671	1,388
1928	248,417,285	190,653,933	439,071,218	1,406
1929	271,893,268	204,910,084	476,803,950	1,526
1930	241,441,304	168,258,310	409,699,614	1,311
1931	220,672,866	145,622,123	366,494,989	1,173
1932	240,727,988	164,497,770	405,225,758	1,298
1933	248,413,329	185,388,938	433,802,267	1,389
1934	305,928,680	215,021,701	520,950,381	1,668
1935	305,744,673	263,119,746	613,864,419	1,965
1936	387,948,978	292,685,948	680,634,926	2,178

#### TAIWAN'S FOREIGN TRADE

	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of imports
		(In yen)		
1911	14,960,228	19,307,126	34,267,354	4,346,898
				(export excess)
1916	31,652,474	15,430,037	47,082,511	16,222,437
1921	23,541,621	40,433,250	63,974,911	16,891,669
1925	47,965,844	56,489,060	104,454,904	8,523,216
1926	49,315,467	62,007,666	111,323,153	12,692,179
1927	44,597,707	65,840,396	110,438,103	21,242,689
1928	33,895,688	58,335,729	92,231,417	24,440,041
1929	33,187,977	64,541,012	97,728,989	31,353,035
1930	22,807,963	45,131,193	67,939,159	22,323,230
1931	19,448,759	30,858,816	50,307,575	11,410,057
1932	18,045,250	31,040,823	49,086,073	12,995,573
1933	17,666,418	35,142,961	53,142,961	17,810,125
1934	26,518,409	38,030,977	64,549,386	11,512,568
1935	36,544,190	44,978,909	81,523,099	8,434,719
1936	29,053,980	48,854,419	77,908,399	19,800,439

## LIST OF PRINCIPAL EXPORTS

	Oolong tea	Pouchong tea	Camphor	Coal	Sugar	Cotton textiles	Dried and salted fish
	(In ¥1,000)						
1912	4,057	2,563	4,409	117	1,719	379	—
1916	3,936	2,323	4,669	400	11,327	419	—
1921	3,534	4,386	280	6,582	2,068	435	—
1925	5,220	6,172	3,609	7,448	5,887	497	—
1926	5,407	6,771	1,949	8,437	3,177	499	—
1927	5,102	6,454	1,895	6,174	2,550	496	3,746
1928	4,315	5,493	3,215	3,964	1,252	314	—
1929	3,423	5,765	1,653	3,308	453	230	2,993
1930	2,608	5,785	1,085	2,872	67	111	1,436
1931	2,350	4,489	1,586	2,295	2,356	80	428
1932	2,802	1,836	1,547	1,315	3,174	1,054	544
1933	2,894	1,816	2,962	1,530	563	363	602
1934	3,117	2,641	2,381	1,387	122	1,055	1,495
1935	3,814	2,814	—	1,334	5,555	2,082	1,603
1936	2,954	2,279	—	1,216	2,621	901	570

Of the above, tea deserves special mention. In 1936 production of unrefined tea amounted to 18,081,426 kin, worth ¥7,421,599, and that of refined tea 17,485,783 kin, worth ¥11,486,009. Refined tea included ¥3,571,499 of Oolong tea, ¥3,394,389 of Pouchong tea, ¥4,517,631 of black tea, and ¥2,490 of green tea. The tea is almost exclusively produced in Taihoku and Shinchiku provinces. Oolong tea is appreciated by Britishers and Americans. The largest amount goes

to the United States and the second largest amount to Great Britain. Pouchong tea is shipped to the South sea islands. Tea exports for 1936 show that the exports of black tea greatly increased amounting to ¥3,985,040 against ¥2,285,040 for 1935. Exports of Pouchong and Oolong tea for 1935 totalled ¥5,234,061, a decrease of ¥1,395,203 as compared with the previous year. Details follow:

	Exports abroad		Exports to Japan Proper and colonies		Total	
	Quantity (In kin)	Value (In yen)	Quantity (In kin)	Value (In yen)	Quantity (in kin)	Value (In yen)
Oolong	4,668,245	2,954,716	5,602	6,648	4,673,847	2,961,364
Pouchong	3,907,290	2,279,345	504,554	203,583	4,411,844	2,482,928
Black tea	5,079,406	3,174,103	703,543	810,937	5,782,949	3,985,040

## LIST OF PRINCIPAL IMPORTS

(In ¥1,000)

	Opium	Leaf tobacco	Lamp oil	Gunny bags	Lumber	Matches	Bean cake
1909	2,379	650	785	307	428	346	422
1912	3,093	890	756	100	608	496	1,962
1916	3,724	460	554	448	330	746	3,073
1921	1,504	821	1,947	395	2,119	574	6,352
1925	2,816	810	1,307	2,794	1,711	1,233	16,777
1926	987	754	1,107	2,485	2,332	897	13,744
1927	837	910	1,395	2,411	2,692	596	12,289
1928	451	345	1,130	2,050	2,978	524	12,326
1929	1,081	283	1,484	2,884	2,946	689	12,757
1930	1,122	343	1,014	2,407	1,499	511	10,252
1931	1,128	275	636	1,652	1,103	527	7,354
1932	707	318	669	1,327	556	488	10,342
1933	148	582	534	2,718	283	501	11,593
1934	120	—	375	3,270	118	—	12,204
1935	449	—	2,379	3,566	176	1,982	14,613
1936	133	—	—	3,360	643	—	14,793

## TAIWAN'S TRADE WITH JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

(In yen)

	Exports	Imports	Total	Balance
1909	36,309,500	24,006,803	60,316,303	12,302,697
1912	47,831,451	43,325,290	91,156,741	4,561,161
1916	80,695,474	49,591,563	130,287,037	31,103,911
1920	181,091,635	112,070,364	293,161,999	69,021,271
1921	128,896,879	93,521,168	222,418,047	35,375,711
1925	215,248,807	129,906,280	345,155,087	85,342,527
1926	202,109,583	121,404,784	323,514,367	80,704,799
1927	202,078,577	121,107,991	323,186,568	80,970,586
1928	214,521,597	132,318,204	346,839,801	82,203,393
1929	238,705,289	140,369,672	379,074,961	98,335,617
1930	218,633,341	123,127,117	341,760,458	95,505,224
1931	201,424,107	114,763,307	316,187,414	86,660,800
1932	222,682,738	133,456,947	356,139,685	89,225,791
1933	230,746,911	149,912,395	380,659,306	80,834,516
1934	279,410,271	176,990,724	456,400,995	102,419,547
1935	314,200,483	218,140,837	532,341,320	96,059,646
1936	358,894,998	243,831,529	602,726,527	115,063,469

## LEADING EXPORTS TO JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

(In ¥1,000)

	Rice	Sugar	Canned pineapples	Camphor	Camphor oil	Alcohol	Bananas
1909	8,779	33,001	—	—	1,610	111	155
1912	10,260	28,134	—	1,008	1,561	1,502	336
1916	6,960	51,685	—	1,602	2,313	7,686	1,054
1920	19,294	84,709	—	1,517	1,976	5,801	4,156
1925	72,110	105,651	—	2,087	2,468	3,854	9,096
1926	63,092	98,375	—	1,618	2,976	4,081	10,900
1927	67,885	96,430	3,145	1,078	1,887	3,616	8,616
1928	53,229	121,413	2,604	1,572	1,757	3,602	8,614
1929	49,320	142,601	4,407	2,612	3,040	3,505	8,419
1930	38,695	141,865	3,481	1,255	2,422	2,592	8,369
1931	41,097	120,475	4,157	766	1,824	3,054	8,329
1932	63,074	121,718	5,151	963	2,062	2,975	6,982
1933	64,627	118,614	4,791	1,174	1,554	5,455	7,899
1934	101,816	122,321	4,537	2,175	1,902	5,950	8,137
1935	105,545	145,977	7,306	—	—	6,767	9,475
1936	124,309	163,495	5,856	—	—	5,637	10,586

## LEADING IMPORTS FROM JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

(In ¥1,000)

	Wheat flour	Dried and salt fish	Iron	Cotton and silk tissues	Paper	Lumber	Fertilizers
1909	—	1,567	—	2,586	492	1,662	1,060
1912	—	3,053	—	5,016	838	2,939	1,524
1916	—	3,667	—	5,775	1,157	1,158	3,990
1920	—	4,920	—	7,736	2,363	3,066	4,355
1925	—	5,905	—	15,708	3,422	2,194	6,691
1926	—	6,056	5,764	19,805	3,065	3,395	4,745
1927	2,983	6,135	8,126	14,942	2,989	4,044	4,138
1928	2,985	5,498	8,695	15,077	3,237	4,822	4,692
1929	3,126	6,547	9,087	16,873	3,567	5,807	5,170
1930	2,374	4,032	7,901	13,394	3,254	4,535	5,832
1931	2,011	3,412	7,343	13,596	3,233	4,216	4,319

	Wheat flour	Dried and salt fish	Iron	Cotton and silk tissues	Paper	Lumber	Fertilizers
1932	2,716	3,253	8,013	13,358	3,470	5,491	7,745
1933	2,710	3,535	10,458	15,105	3,970	6,276	11,225
1934	3,413	3,956	2,517	17,250	4,515	7,271	16,582
1935	4,530	4,734	—	20,265	5,061	10,211	22,771
1936	5,511	4,902	—	19,324	5,413	11,948	28,491

### Finance

The Bank of Taiwan is invested with authority to issue notes. This bank was founded in September, 1899, replacing the Taiwan Agency of the Bank of Japan. The bank was capitalized at ¥5,000,000 when it was founded. After 1920 its capitalization was increased to ¥60,000,000, but in September, 1925, it was cut to ¥45,000,000 and further to ¥15,000,000 in November, 1927, due to its readjustment following the great financial panic of the spring of 1927. The head office is in Taihoku and it has 32 branches and one agency in Japan and abroad. The Japan Hypothec Bank maintains its real estate business in Taiwan and the outstanding balance of its loan in the island at the end of June of 1937 amounted to ¥94,940,000. The aggregate capitalization of banks having their head offices in the island at the end of June of 1937 was ¥29,300,000, of which ¥20,670,000 was paid up. The balance of deposits at the end of June of 1937 was ¥182,940,000, of which savings deposits totalled ¥11,910,000 and the outstanding balance of loans totalled ¥271,980,000. Exchange deals for the 1936-1937 fiscal year totalled ¥1,325,880,000 for income and ¥1,274,330,000 for payment. The average amount of note issue of the Bank of Taiwan at the end of June of 1937 totalled ¥75,400,000.

**Government-General Finance** The finance of the Taiwan Government-General has become independent from subsidization by the general accounts of the Central Government since the 1905-06 fiscal year, owing to favourable income following the Russo-Japanese War. In 1897 the revenue was about 11 million yen. In 1907, 10 years after the establishment of special accounts in Taiwan, the revenue increased to three times that amount; in 1917, after 10 more years, to six times; in 1927, to 12 times; in 1929 to 13 times the first figure. Revenue and expenditure follow:

	Revenue (In yen)	Expenditure
1897	11,283,265	10,487,610
1917	65,425,496	46,166,558
1927	138,626,830	101,533,285

	Revenue	Expenditure
1929	150,420,607	122,295,226
1930	129,757,760	109,970,881
1931	115,972,147	98,060,013
1932	120,303,279	97,240,295
1933	130,612,152	102,220,615
1934	141,617,595	112,176,683
1935	156,549,367	123,943,864
1936	175,771,836	133,938,968

**Bonds** Expenses required for enterprises such as the railway construction, land investigation, Keelung harbour construction, building of government offices, river work, Takao harbour construction, and purchase of private railways were raised by bonds. The outstanding balance of bonds in 1900 was ¥1,200,000, which increased to ¥34,465,399 in 1910, ¥94,213,038 in 1925, ¥106,946,733 in 1927 and ¥128,202,287 at the end of 1935.

### Monopolies

The products of Taiwan, opium, salt, camphor, tobacco, and saké are placed under monopoly of the Taiwan Government-General.

**Opium** The Taiwan Chinese, mostly natives, were addicted to opium smoking when Japan assumed ownership of the island. It was found impossible to eradicate the habit at once, and in order to limit the use of the drug a government monopoly, controlling the manufacture, sale and retail distribution of opium, was established. Smokers are registered and have to obtain a licence to buy the drug. In this way and also through education of the rising generation the vice is being gradually eliminated. The total names registered in September, 1900, reached 169,064, to whom the licences were granted. The number of licensed smokers at the end of 1932 had decreased to 19,532, of whom 16,532 were males and 3,254 females. The Chinese people who smoke opium on licence at the end of 1932 numbered 191, of whom 174 were males. Japan, in conformity with the spirit of the League of Nations' International Opium Treaty, has been endeavouring to stamp out the bad habit of opium smoking and has realized satisfactory results so far.

There are two forms of opium, viz.,

"treacle-opium" for smoking, and powder; the latter is sold only for medicinal purposes. Raw material obtained from poppies is imported from British India, Persia and Turkey. The Persian products are widely used now. Sales to licensed smokers are made by the Monopoly Bureau to specially designated wholesalers through provincial and district governments. The sales price to these wholesalers is ¥1.61 per 15 grammes, that from wholesalers to retailers is ¥1.63 and that from retailers to consumers is ¥1.77. 15 grammes is the maximum amount that one smoker is permitted to buy at one time; this must last him for three days.

Sales have been decreasing yearly as follows:

	Quantity	Total sales
1906	87,690,750 grammes	¥4,359,497
1910	80,320,875	4,844,534
1913	86,326,500	5,289,405
1918	76,326,750	6,650,764
1923	51,558,000	5,449,345
1930	38,095,125	4,010,655
1931	31,535,625	3,320,071
1932	26,136,075	2,819,388
1933	21,553,200	2,350,363
1934	19,668,600	2,146,692
1935	18,975,600	2,071,934
1936	17,434,800	1,903,880

**Salt** This was monopolized in 1899 by the Government-General. In former days the fields were only 197 ha. producing about 10,800,000 kg. a year, but in 1934 they were increased to 1,878 ha., producing 191,340,000 kg. Sales of salt in 1905 were only ¥557,876, which increased to ¥3,108,000 for 1935.

**Camphor** Taiwan maintains a monopoly on the cutting, distillation and selling of camphor. The island is rich in camphor trees, particularly in what are known as the "savage districts", and is the greatest camphor-producing place in the world. For many years after it came into Japan's possession, the production of camphor was a free industry, but the necessity of improving the quality compelled the Government-General to assume monopoly in 1899. The camphor production amounts to about 3,000,000 kilogrammes a year, which represents 70 per cent of the world's production. The manufacturing of camphor and camphor oil used to be entrusted to the Taiwan Seino Kaisha, but in July, 1934, the Government-General purchased it and now places the production and sales of their ar-

ticles under its direct control. The improved B-quality camphor is sold by the monopoly bureau as material for refined camphor or celluloid. Refined oil is directly sold by the bureau in Taiwan, but in Japan it is sold to industrialists through the Japanese Government Monopoly Bureau. It is exported abroad on consignment mostly to the United States, Great Britain and other countries. The United States is the largest consumer. The sales price of improved B-quality for 1932 was ¥145.-50 per kilogramme f.o.b. Taihoku and ¥148 f.o.b. Kobe. By-products are widely used for making insecticides. As the demand for camphor increases yearly, the Taiwan Monopoly Bureau is carrying out a camphor-tree plantation plan covering an area of 135,246 acres, for the production from natural-grown trees is expected shortly to become too small to meet the future demand. The proceeds from the camphor monopoly for 1935 totalled ¥7,710,000. The United States used to buy about ¥2,400,000 of camphor a year, but the export amount has decreased somewhat in recent years, owing to the invention of synthetic camphor.

**Tobacco** The tobacco monopoly in Taiwan dates from 1905. At the beginning of the monopoly the quality of tobacco grown in Taiwan was so poor that the leaves had to be imported from China. Efforts were made by the authorities for the improvement of native-grown leaves. Now tobacco cultivated in Taiwan is not inferior to Chinese tobacco. In addition to the Chinese variety, a successful experiment has been made in the cultivation of an American yellow variety for cigarettes, and another for cigars. The area of tobacco plantation in Taiwan was about 776 ha. in 1923 and the crop of leaves about 1,535,689 kg. The proceeds of tobacco monopoly for the fiscal year 1906-07 totalled ¥1,492,284, which increased to ¥11,531,650 for the year 1921-22, ¥16,275,916 for the year 1929-30, but declined to ¥14,465,962 for the year 1931-32, advancing to ¥16,552,070 for the 1934-35 year, further to ¥20,375,058 for the 1936-37 year.

**Saké and other drinks** These have been placed under monopoly since 1922. The sales of saké and other alcoholic drinks under the monopoly are not restricted to those made in Taiwan only, but include all drinks imported from Japan proper and other countries. Drinks now brewed in Taiwan are of 30 kinds besides saké. The saké monopoly furnishes a large source of revenue for the

Government-General and brought in ¥24,151,028 for 1936.

#### Railways

At the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan there was a 62-mile railway be-

tween Keelung and Shinchiku. Railway construction was undertaken by the Government-General subsequently and now the total mileage is 881 km. The railway receipts are as follows:

Fiscal year	Passenger fares	Freight receipts (In ¥1,000)	Others	Total	Indices
1906-07	1,062	1,138	9	2,209	643
1916-17	2,575	3,544	44	6,163	1,455
1926-27	7,488	9,711	—	17,199	3,008
1927-28	8,002	10,644	—	18,646	3,429
1928-29	8,277	11,420	—	19,697	3,735
1929-30	8,349	11,915	—	20,264	3,900
1930-31	7,720	11,391	—	19,111	3,564
1931-32	6,897	11,367	—	18,264	3,317
1932-33	7,109	11,742	—	18,851	3,488
1933-34	7,468	11,862	—	19,331	3,628
1934-35	7,966	13,458	—	21,425	4,238
1935-36	9,578	14,625	—	24,204	5,047
1936-37	9,722	16,353	—	26,076	5,592

#### PRIVATE RAILWAY STATISTICS IN TAIWAN

	Mileage (in km.)	Passenger fares (in yen)	Freight receipts	Others & total	Indices for income
1926-27	525	986,557	2,060,641	3,089,685	3,627
1928-29	551	993,761	2,302,948	3,326,098	3,904
1929-30	554	929,023	2,345,612	3,308,648	3,884
1930-31	542	775,164	2,168,499	3,001,102	3,534
1931-32	530	544,704	1,752,781	2,332,097	3,737
1932-33	534	460,706	1,913,548	2,406,931	2,825
1933-34	502	453,595	1,499,054	1,998,246	2,346
1934-35	504	451,595	1,643,378	2,121,833	2,491
1935-36	505	521,561	1,963,034	2,540,608	2,982
1936-37	506	546,965	1,845,578	2,455,949	2,883

#### Light Railways

	Mileage (in km.)	Passenger fares (In ¥1,000)	Freight receipts	Total	Indices for income
1926-27	1,022	962	1,543	2,505	751
1928-29	1,162	945	1,652	2,597	778
1929-30	1,329	867	1,551	2,418	727
1930-31	1,327	688	1,357	2,045	613
1931-32	1,367	562	1,096	1,658	497
1932-33	1,325	520	1,049	1,569	470
1933-34	1,247	521	1,129	1,650	494
1934-35	1,232	514	1,149	1,663	496
1935-36	1,218	463	1,138	1,601	479
1936-37	1,182	345	1,953	1,298	640

#### Formosa Development Company

In connection with Japan's economic expansion in the island, the Formosa Development Company was founded by virtue of Law No. 43 of 1936 upon approval at the Imperial Diet on May 26

of the same year. The company is capitalized at ¥30,000,000, a half of which is invested by the Government in the shape of Government-owned property, consisting of fields, farms, forests, pastures, land and other real estate. The other half was invested by private per-

sons. The Government organized an establishment committee of 81. Formal sanction of the company's establishment was given by the Overseas Minister on August 27. Its virtual establishment took place on November 25 of the same year. The company's paid-up capitalization to ¥18,750,000. Its head office is in Taihoku and a branch in Tokyo. Its president and vice-president are appointed by the Governor-General of Formosa on sanction of the Overseas Minister. The company is authorized to issue Formosa Development debentures three times its paid-up capitalization.

Because of its nature as a special business institution, the Government is vested with authority to issue necessary instructions for supervision to the company. The company is not bound by duty to pay any dividend to the Government's investments until it is able to declare an annual 6 per cent dividend rate to shareholders other than the Government. When it can declare a 7 per cent dividend, it will have to pay a 4 per cent dividend to the Government, and, when it can declare more than 8 per cent dividend, it will have to pay the same dividend to the Government. Mr. Kyohel Kato is its president.

The company has a mission to do the following enterprises: land management, cultivation of agricultural and forest lands, mass emigration of farmers, financing and investments in promising enterprises overseas.

The company adopted a 10-year plan for the industrial development of Formosa. The plan calls for investment of ¥1,000,000,000. First-period enterprises in the 10-year plan include raw cotton cultivation, colonial development and industrial emigration. These enterprises

are expected to require for the first year about ¥4,500,000, which will be supplied by the company. The company has authority to issue debentures to raise necessary funds. Later, the company will develop plantations of cinchona and cacao trees and medicinal herbs. The company has decided to found a Formosa Raw Cotton Company with a capitalization of ¥3,000,000, making it its subsidiary. Its factory will be built at Kagi. Eventual object of the cotton company is to raise 100,000,000 kin of cotton a year on a plantation covering 100,000 chobu. This amount is expected to be raised 10 years hence. Total expenditures will be about ¥30,000,000. The first year's cotton crop is estimated at about 8,000,000 kin.

#### Electricity

The Taiwan Electric Power Company, Ltd., was established in April, 1919, under ordinance of the Taiwan Government-General. The Government-General appraised all of its electric assets at ¥12,000,000 and offered them to the company. The Government-General owns the company's shares to that amount, being the largest shareholder. The company started a gigantic power-generating undertaking, utilizing the water of Lake Jitsugetsuan, in August of the same year, but, owing to the subsequent financial depression, the work was suspended. In 1929 the resumption of work was decided on and the necessary amount, ¥22,800,000 (¥45,737,211) was raised in America in July, 1931, on Government guarantee. Work was actually resumed in October of the same year on a three-year plan. Taiwan's electric enterprises at the end of 1934, are summarized as follows:

Companies	Capitalization	Lamps fitted	Power supplied kw.	Fans fitted
Taiwan Electric Power	¥34,495,000	646,994	20,822	25,934
Taiwan Electric Light	1,500,000	81,272	2,213	2,592
Taiwan Godo Electric	2,000,000	28,664	779	340
Karenko Electric	1,240,000	10,806	365	202
Koshun Electric	100,000	1,408	—	—
Nansho Electric	8,500	204	—	—
Total	39,343,500	769,348	24,179	29,068

#### Principal Cities

Taihoku Taihoku or Taipeh is the capital city of Taiwan. It is situated on the Tamsui River, near the northern extremity of the island. Formerly it consisted of three districts, Jonal, Daitotei and Manka, but with the introduction of

the municipal system in 1920, all the surrounding villages were included in the greater Taihoku, and at present the city covers an area of about 15 square miles, embracing a population of 292,340. In Jonal are found the important public buildings, such as the official residence of the Governor-General,

and many governmental buildings. Most of the Japanese residents live in this district. Daitotai is the commercial centre. It is inhabited by more than 63,000 people and is renowned for its tea trade. Manka is situated close by the Tamsui River, west of Jonai. This district was formerly the most flourishing part of the city. During the Manchu Dynasty its commercial supremacy was transferred to Daitotai. This district is populated by 37,000 inhabitants. There are many places of interest in and around Taihoku, of which the more famous are:

**Taiwan Shrine.** This shrine is situated at a point two miles east of Taihoku. The sanctuary is built in the old Japanese style. In the neighbourhood is the noted Maruyama park commanding a very fine view.

**The Rapids of Shinten Kei.** Situated at a point about 8 miles from Taihoku and at the confluence of the two rivers of Shinten-Kei, the rapids are among the chief attractions for visitors to Taiwan. On both sides stand out precipices. Shooting the rapids by boat affords a favourite pastime.

**Shinchiku** Shinchiku had been the cradle of civilization for the inhabitants in the northern Formosa. It became a city in 1930 and revived as a trade port since 1932, having a population of 55,015 in 1936.

**Tamsui** This is one of the four great ports of trade with a population of 25,666 in 1934. It is located 13 miles north of Taihoku. About one mile west from Tamsui Station lies the ruins of an old Khomoh castle, built by the Spaniards in 1626.

**Keelung** This is the starting-point of the railway which runs from north to south throughout the whole length of

the island. The city with its 84,850 inhabitants extends as far as Taihoku covering a distance of 18 miles. Keelung is not only a port for liners from Japan proper, but is an important for those sailing to and from south China and the South Seas. Keelung was once occupied by Spaniards and afterwards by the Dutch, and was under the control of the Manchu Dynasty. About 1.5 miles distant from Keelung is located the famous Courbet Beach, where the French Admiral Courbet, in command of the French Asiatic Squadron consisting of 15 warships, landed during the Franco-Chinese War in 1894. This admiral was one of the victims of infectious disease, which claimed a heavy toll among his men. He died on Boko Island where his tomb still stands.

**Taichu** Located about 100 miles south of Taihoku in the centre of rice production. It is the seat of the provincial government of the same name, with a population of 74,839. Lake Jitsugetsutan is in this province.

**Kagi** Kagi has a population of 77,093 and is situated 163 miles south of Taihoku. Kagi is the starting point for climbers of Mt. Arisan.

**Tainan** Tainan has a population of 116,451, being the second largest port of Taiwan. Kalzan Shrine is dedicated to the spirit of Chen Cheng-kung, a loyal subject in the last days of the Ming Dynasty, who came over to this island, drove out the Dutch settlers, and opened war against the Manchu Dynasty, but failed.

**Takao** Takao has a population of 94,017. Terminus of the central railway line, situated at a distance of 229 miles from Taihoku, this port is as important in the south as Keelung is in the north.

## CHAPTER XLII

### KARAFUTO (SAGHALIEN)

#### General Survey

**Geography** Karafuto is a long island situated in the extreme north of the Empire of Japan along the Maritime Province of Siberia, and separated from it by the Mamiya Straits. The eastern coast is washed by the cold waters of the Sea of Okhotsk, which is bordered by the mainland of Siberia on the north, the Kamchatka Peninsula on the east, and the Chishima Islands (the Kuriles) on the south-east. Japanese Karafuto is the southern half of Saghalien Island, the dividing line being the 50th parallel of latitude; the northern half of the island is under the jurisdiction of Soviet Russia.

At the extreme southern end of the island lies Cape Nishi-Notoro. On the east or opposite side of it, across the Aniwa Gulf, is Cape Nakashirutoko, and embraced by these two capes is the port of Ohtomari at the northern extremity of the Gulf, which is an important port connecting with Wakkanai the extreme northern port of Hokkaido, across the Soya Straits. The traffic connection between Ohtomari and Wakkanai is maintained by freight boats run by the Imperial government railways.

Beyond Cape Nakashirutoko lies Tara-

ka Bay, on the farther side of which Cape Kitashirutoko runs out to the north-east. Thus, Karafuto is deeply indented by the two large gulfs, Aniwa and Tataka, the latter lying to the north-east of the former. The island has two mountain ranges running parallel from north to south with the plains hemmed in between. The total area of Karafuto is 36,090.3 sq. km., the length being 455.6 km. and the breadth from 27.5 at the narrowest to 157 km. at the widest.

**Climate** The months which enjoy an average temperature above the freezing point are the seven months from April to October. The coldest month is January and the warmest August. The temperature rises suddenly as the thawing season approaches and falls abruptly when the snows set in. The western coast is warmer than the eastern owing to the warm ocean current. The island is, as a whole, high in humidity on account of the frequency of sea fogs, except for the southern point of the western coast, but in both spring and autumn it decreases. Rainfall is most abundant in the summer and autumn seasons.

**Population** The great majority of the population of Karafuto is Japanese. The following table shows the racial distribution at the end of 1936:

#### POPULATION BY RACE OR NATIONALITY

Japanese	Korean	Ainu	Other Natives	Foreigners	Total
312,926	6,604	1,445	431	359	321,765

#### POPULATION IN CHIEF TOWNS

(Dec. 31, 1936)

Toyohara	35,849	Shirutoru	18,118
Ohtomari	24,604	Esutor	26,761
Shikuka	26,540	Ochiai	14,131
Hontocho	12,033	Tomarioru	11,374
Maoka	19,075	Rutaka	8,959

Note: For 1935 census see Chapter II.

**Administration** The chief administrative office of Karafuto is the Karafuto government and the governor is under direct control of the Minister of Overseas Affairs, but the powers of the

former are far wider than those of a governor in the home land, as they extend over mining, forestry, taxation, railways and the postal service. The governmental work of Karafuto is subdivided into four main offices, i. e., Secretariat, Interior Bureau, Forestry Bureau and Police Bureau. The revenue of 1936 amounted to ¥48,469, of which ¥32,842 was from taxes and others, and the rest from various government undertakings and loans to the extent of ¥15,627.

#### Finance

The revenue of the Karafuto government is derived from taxes and other



sources of income as well as an annual replenishment from the ordinary account of the national treasury. The principal taxes are:—the town homestead tax, income tax, business profit tax, liquor-brewing tax, liquor-export tax, consumption tax, mining business tax, and fishery tax. The revenue from all these taxes was, in the 1937-38 budget, estimated at ¥29,435,533. The revenue, other than from taxes, consists of receipts

from the sales of stamps, railway traffic and freight charges, medical treatment charges at governmental hospitals, charges receivable at the Central Experiment Station, receipts from the sales of trees felled in the state forests, rents of homesteads and various Government buildings and loans. Below is given a brief fiscal history of the Karafuto government:

## REVENUES (Yen)

	Taxes and non-tax elements	Replenishment from national treasury	Sum brought forward	Loans	Total
1907	1,037,046	629,406	—	—	1,666,452
1910	1,229,705	544,714	260,524	—	2,034,943
1911	1,369,045	570,657	137,479	—	2,077,181
1912	1,534,991	591,819	169,949	—	2,296,759
1913	2,062,574	389,291	219,082	—	2,670,947
1914	1,548,748	323,575	392,901	—	2,265,224
1915	1,495,046	323,575	191,191	—	2,009,812
1916	2,058,576	293,575	329,255	—	2,681,406
1917	2,619,315	323,575	829,563	—	3,772,453
1918	2,936,793	—	1,663,970	1,091,000	5,692,761
1919	3,570,658	300,000	2,720,110	1,173,500	7,764,269
1920	5,221,674	770,000	2,022,404	3,381,209	11,395,291
1921	7,057,103	1,433,000	3,109,807	4,173,290	15,775,205
1922	8,386,012	1,100,000	3,707,623	7,607,920	20,801,558
1923	12,436,861	1,786,000	2,758,969	4,475,436	21,452,266
1924	15,772,056	1,000,000	2,168,245	416,218	19,357,520
1925	16,000,305	900,000	78,454	1,700,000	18,678,760
1926	18,339,308	1,577,343	618,814	1,786,562	22,322,027
1927	18,414,702	2,029,635	4,587,927	1,845,052	26,877,316
1928	21,963,835	2,029,635	6,894,976	1,857,924	32,646,370
1929	22,280,159	3,100,000	6,955,100	4,569	32,339,827
1930	21,192,064	1,600,000	3,752,468	—	26,544,532
1931	22,944,655	1,600,000	79,281	1,500,000	26,123,936
1932	19,001,609	1,600,000	826,744	1,000,000	22,428,353
1933	21,511,620	1,600,000	1,774,673	2,955,241	27,841,498
1934	33,408,070	1,000,000	5,626,912	4,615	40,039,597
1935	27,565,141	—	15,339,451	—	42,904,592
1936	32,842,000	185,000	15,442,000	—	48,469,000

## Expenditure

The expenditures have been increasing yearly. In 1907 they totaled only ¥1,211,968, but for the 1936-37 fiscal year the amount increased to ¥33,228,032, of which ordinary expenditures totaled ¥18,317,133 and extraordinary expenditures totaled ¥14,910,899. Items of expenditures consist of administrative, educational, forestry, employers, Karafuto development enterprises, public works and many others. Expenditures for the preceding five years are ¥17,734,099 for the 1926-27 year; ¥19,982,340 for the 1927-28 year; ¥25,691,370 for the 1928-29 year; ¥28,-

587,359 for the 1929-30; ¥24,629,293 for the 1930-31; ¥21,179,749 for the 1931-32; ¥20,863,778 for the 1932-33 year; ¥22,214,586 for the 1933-34 years; ¥24,700,146 for the 1934-35 year; and ¥27,463,435 for the 1935-36 year.

## Monetary Organs

The principal monetary organs in the island are the Hokkaido Colonial Bank and the Karafuto Bank. The former is represented by its branches at Toyohara, Ohtomari, Maoka, Honto, Noda, Tomarioru, Ochial, Shirutoru, Shisuka and Rutaka; its head office being located at Sapporo, Hokkaido. The business

operation of the bank in the island at the end of 1934 showed deposits amounting to ¥207,522,989 and loans advanced to ¥30,041,495. The Karafuto Bank is the only one having its head office in the island, its deposits totaling ¥15,910,897 and loans advanced ¥7,188,561 on the same date. The bank came into existence in May, 1914, with a capital stock of ¥500,000 which was increased to ¥2,000,000 in March, 1919. The Karafuto Bank has its head office at Ohtomari and a branch at Maoka. The two banks are doing good work for the development of the island. Besides these banks there is a special bank which has a branch at Toyohara, and that is the Hokumon Savings Bank. This savings bank branch was opened on April 1, 1922. Its local business operation showed at the end of 1934, advances figured at ¥720,504 and deposits at ¥1,473,561.

## Military Training Camps

The military training camps ordinance was promulgated in April, 1926, providing for the establishment of camps for the military drilling of youths below the conscription age. The ordinance, however, was not promulgated in overseas territories, the only exception being Karafuto, where the local authorities

in view of the almost complete lack of nationalistic social work in operation and of the smallness in the number of non-Japanese elements in the population, issued an order in May of the same year, making possible the growth of the military drilling work for the youths. Below is shown the present status of the work so far carried on:

## MILITARY TRAINING CAMPS

Town	No. of Camps	Attendants
Toyohara	8	238
Ohtomari	7	249
Honto	5	146
Maoka	7	351
Tomarioru	7	164
Motodomari	3	115
Shisuka	4	81
Total	41	1,344

## Overseas Trade

The history of the overseas trade of Karafuto since 1905 is a history of steady expansion, though it underwent a frequent recession in the course of those 31 years. The table below illustrates the trend in a more graphic way:

Year	To Foreign Countries	To Japan proper (In yen)	Total
1927	755,135	90,193,622	90,948,757
1928	937,710	97,000,380	97,938,090
1929	2,042,652	103,034,631	105,077,283
1930	2,335,126	82,140,506	84,475,632
1931	841,655	80,233,395	81,075,050
1932	274,447	92,626,343	92,900,790
1933	367,088	104,886,093	105,253,181
1934	430,644	133,777,256	134,207,900
1935	867,965	130,940,201	131,808,166
1936	402,848	173,207,406	173,610,254

## SHIPMENTS TO AND FROM JAPAN PROPER

Year	Outward-bound	Inward-bound	Total	Excess of Outward-bound
	(In yen)			
1927	48,740,382	41,453,240	91,193,622	7,287,142
1928	50,915,329	46,085,051	97,000,380	4,830,278
1929	56,388,752	46,645,879	103,034,631	9,742,873
1930	46,812,144	35,328,362	82,140,506	11,483,782
1931	50,984,860	29,248,535	80,233,395	21,736,325
1932	63,510,076	29,116,267	92,626,343	34,393,809
1933	73,455,524	31,430,569	104,886,093	42,024,955
1934	96,648,171	37,129,083	133,777,256	59,519,086
1935	92,884,992	38,055,209	130,940,201	54,829,783
1936	119,435,796	53,771,610	173,207,406	65,664,186

Principal shipments to Japan proper in 1934 consisted of pulp, lumber, paper, marine fertilizer, salt-salmon, salt-

codfish, dried herring, dried codfish, fish oil, edible seaweed and canned crabs. Principal shipments from Japan proper

during the same year consisted of rice, cotton goods, oils, beer, saké, oats, peas and beans, salt, sugar, soy (Japanese sauce), miso (bean paste), tobacco, fish and shellfish, vegetables, fruits, and mineral products.

#### Trade with Foreign Countries

The ports open to foreign trade in

Karafuto are Ohtomari and Maoka. The countries with which Karafuto has trade relations are Chosen, China, Eastern Russia, the Kwantung Leased Territory, America, Germany, Spain, Belgium, the Dutch Indies and Egypt. The following table contains detailed information on the foreign trade of Karafuto in the past 6 years:

#### EXPORT TRADE OF KARAFUTO

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
	(In yen)					
Manchoukuo	—	—	81,834	12,321	152	40
Soviet Russia	—	—	8,000	6,851	—	—
China	635,650	898	—	500	9,511	35,743
Kwantung Leased Territory	10	4,347	18,049	1,952	23,317	78,154
America and European Countries	—	212	—	—	—	—
Total	635,660	8,558	107,883	21,624	32,980	113,937

#### IMPORT TRADE OF KARAFUTO

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
	(In yen)					
Manchoukuo	—	—	1,340	1,570	—	—
Soviet Russia	2,851	192	5,413	3,680	2	—
China	—	76	—	—	5	—
Kwantung Leased Territory	97,121	76,679	126,069	248,832	173,552	234,566
America and European Countries	106,022	188,267	126,293	154,938	661,426	54,345
Total	205,994	265,889	259,205	490,020	834,985	288,911

#### EXCESS OF IMPORTS OVER EXPORTS

1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
—	—	257,331	151,322	387,396	802,005	174,974

#### EXCESS OF EXPORTS OVER IMPORTS

1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
1,640,090	429,666	—	—	—	—	—

#### Agriculture

There was practically no agriculture in Karafuto prior to its cession to Japan in 1905. No sooner had it passed into Japan's possession than vigorous steps were taken for the reclamation work of all arable lands. In 1936 the farm production reaches ¥1,049,336, farming households 11,415 and arable lands over 334,872 hectares. Yet the lands under actual cultivation cover only 33,630 hectares, which shows that there is still room to accommodate more farming inhabitants. The chief agricultural products are grains, peas and

beans, potatoes and green vegetables, and of the grains oats and rye are most abundantly produced. Keeping livestock goes hand in hand with agriculture in the island, for it is by pasturing that the livelihood of the agricultural settlers is made more stable. Every assistance is therefore, being given by the Karafuto government to live-stock raising. Cattle, horses, swine and foxes are the principal animals kept, with some sheep, rabbits, chickens, ducks, etc. In 1934 the total live-stock product amounted in money value to ¥2,116,000, just one-half of the entire value of farm products.

#### Mineral Products

**Coal** The most important mineral product in the island is coal and next to it comes petroleum. The coal producing centres are divided into the northern, southern and central districts. The coal bed is of the tertiary formation consisting of upper, middle and lower measures. Of the three coal districts the central is the largest and belongs to the lower measures. It runs for 100 kilometres from north to south and has a breadth of from 2 to 5 kilometres. A portion of

the southern coal field along the western coast and the greater portion of the northern and eastern coal fields belong to the upper measure. On the north-western coast there are several important coal fields belonging to the middle measure. The upper measure belongs to the Pliocene and the middle and the lower to the Eocene Period.

At the end of 1936 there were 31 coal fields under operation of an aggregate area of 41,853,657 tsubo. The following table shows the general trend of the increase:

Year	No. of coalfields	Area (sq. m.)	Quantity (m. t.)	Value (In yen)
1921	6	23,562,593	115,255	1,328,512
1922	6	23,562,593	114,547	1,238,198
1923	6	23,562,593	167,304	1,809,422
1924	9	32,030,708	199,385	2,255,713
1925	7	34,413,720	250,615	2,737,970
1926	11	36,982,649	245,220	2,712,289
1927	12	37,470,086	357,046	3,553,731
1928	12	49,626,496	539,481	4,887,989
1929	11	46,923,352	635,515	5,743,322
1930	14	97,915,360	644,963	5,622,177
1931	—	—	637,962	5,240,815
1932	—	—	677,354	5,200,889
1933	16	111,848,900	888,913	6,703,919
1934	21	121,186,700	1,196,647	9,119,161
1935	26	39,606,170 (tsubo)	1,515,647	11,475,813
1936	31	41,853,657 ( " )	2,075,157	15,375,128

Of all the coal mines that of Kawakami used to be the most productive, though now superseded by O-hira mine. Its annual output coming up to 175,875 metric tons in 1932 and 180,210 tons in 1933. The O-hira mine had an annual production of 204,277 tons in 1932 and 20,901 tons in 1933. The Kawakami Mine extends over about 800 hectares located at a distance of 32 km. from Toyohara and is owned and operated by the Mitsui Mining Company, Ltd. The O-hira Mine is operated by the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd. The mine is located at a point 15 km. northeast of Esudori. Other large coal mines are the Shirutoru, Osakayé, Higashi-Shiraura, Kashiho, Amauchi, Naitoro, Estoru, Chitosé, Mita and Tokai.

**Petroleum** Petroleum was first discovered at a point on the south-western coast of Karafuto in 1907 when an official investigation was conducted, after which oil strata were discovered in the neighbourhood of Hontocho, Kono-toro, Karabutsu, Maruyama and several other places. In 1934 digging operations were conducted by the Japan Petroleum Co., Ltd., on Well No. 2 of Maruyama at Ochiat-machi while such operations

were carried over a total area of 23,204,106 square metres in 1930 and over 13,344,900 square metres in 1929 and 10,000,800 square metres in 1925.

#### Fishery Products

The chief fishery products of Karafuto are herrings, salmon, codfish, trout, crabs, whales and fur-seals, the average yearly catches reaching as much as ¥10,000,000 to ¥20,000,000 in value. Of these varieties the herring comes first in importance, the 1935 catch being figured at ¥8,155,731. Most of these fishery products are canned in the distributing centres in the island. Of all the canning centres Maoka ranks first, followed by shisuka and Tomarloru. Edible seaweed is obtained along all parts of the coast, but principally along the western coast and Aniwa Gulf. The island located on the north-eastern edge of Taraka Bay is the only breeding spot of fur-seals in Japan. When the southern half of Saghalien came into Japan's possession in 1905, seal hunting in this small island was prohibited, and every possible protection was given to their breeding. In 1911 the hunting ban was

alleviated, the annual number to be killed being limited to 550. In 1913 it became apparent to the supervisors that the number of landing fur-seals was decreasing, so in 1915 the ban was again imposed and was maintained until 1917. It was then withdrawn, with an annual permit to kill up to 550 head. In 1924 the hunting of old, non-breeding fur-seals was started. This increased the production in the year to 824 head and that in the following year to 942. In 1930 the total reached 1,715 and 1,704

in 1931. In accordance with the Fur-Seal Treaty concluded by Japan with the United States and Russia in 1911, Japan is paying 10 per cent annually of the profit from this fur-sealing to the governments of these two countries. Whales are principally hunted by the ships of the Oriental Whale-Hunting Company which has a base for that purpose in Aniwa Gulf. The following shows the money value of the chief fishery products:

VALUE OF FISHERY PRODUCTS, 1932-1936

Kind	(In yen)				
	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Foodstuffs	4,553,126	6,487,003	7,021,629	10,395,190	9,452,781
Dried	2,738,067	2,181,542	2,775,982	3,796,197	5,714,131
Salt and dried	38,480	63,785	98,990	147,469	106,837
Boiled and dried	37,340	97,357	132,220	309,036	370,382
Smoked	17,063	24,675	15,146	38,641	22,834
Salt	569,484	1,344,536	942,175	2,136,629	1,209,913
Canned	928,913	2,395,697	2,644,609	3,389,000	1,172,229
Others	223,779	379,411	412,307	578,218	856,455
Fertilizers	5,322,958	5,671,564	7,185,527	5,474,388	6,375,516
Fish oils	405,143	464,403	798,065	863,639	1,343,801
Seaweeds	5,687	5,816	10,109	102,663	131,927
Other non-edibles	11,731	11,605	12,509	81,876	39,018
Total	10,298,645	12,640,591	15,027,639	16,917,756	17,343,043

Source: Statistic Book of the Ministry of Overseas Affairs.

#### Timber Production

The island is so thickly and extensively covered with primeval forests that, according to an authoritative estimate, about 2,978,491 hectares, i. e., about 83 per cent of the entire area of the territory, is forest land. In this estimate is included 833,333 hectares reserved for future growth and 79,365 hectares in use for the field work of the Imperial Universities of Tokyo, Kyoto, Hokkaido and Kyushu. There are about 49 species of trees and 73 of shrubs growing on the island, but those that have any commercial value are the Ezo-matsu (*Picea ajanensis*, Fisch), todo-matsu (*Abies sachalinensis*, Mast), gui-matsu, ichii (the yew, *Taxus baccata*), shirakaba (the silver birch, *Betula alba*), doroyanagi (a willow), hannoki (the black alder) tamo, and a few others. Their distribution is regular, according to districts. In the low coastwise districts we find the yanagi, hannoki, tamo, etc.; on the higher levels grow the todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu, and as we climb the slopes forests of the graceful silver birch mix with and replace the pines (matsu), growing thicker and thicker as the mountain peaks are approached. The gui-matsu (a pine species) grows prin-

cipally in the lower, damper land. But the todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu are the species which predominate in nearly all parts of the island, occupying as much as 80 per cent of the total forest land. The revenue from the forestry amounted to ¥19,068,000 in 1936.

**Forest Administration** In ancient times the entire island of Karafuto was nothing but thick forest and the natives seem to have no rules to prevent them from felling trees whenever or wherever they chose; but they apparently felt no need to fell any large amount of standing trees. The land was almost as primeval as could be imagined when it was ceded by Russia to Japan in 1905. Moreover, during the earlier period of the new régime, devastation by fire was not infrequent. On the other hand, the increased number of population in the island had the effect of increasing the demand for timber in various ways. The first task which confronted the Karafuto government in their forest administration was therefore how to protect the forests from devastation, how best to fell and how to re-stock. As a tentative re-stocking measure large amounts of seeds of todo-matsu, Ezo-matsu, Kara-matsu and silver birch were sown on a wide burnt

patch of mountain-side in the neighbourhood of Ochiai in June, 1920. As the experiment was satisfactory, seedings were carried on a tract of 15.47 hectares and 50.01 hectares in 1921 and 1922 respectively. Then in 1923, the seeding work was carried on over a total tract of 4,285.09 hectares, then it was carried in the same way in 1926 and 1927 until in the latter year seedings were carried on over a tract of 10,460.74 hectares and the supplementary sowings made on a tract of 2,569.68 hectares. Below more detailed figures are given:

Year	New Seeding (Hectares)	Supplementary Seeding (Hectares)
1922	50.01	—
1923	4,285.09	—
1924	4,754.39	—
1925	7,259.07	—
1926	11,272.60	7,740.26
1927	10,460.74	2,569.68
1928	7,571.17	—
1929	3,442.45	—
1930	445.00	—
1931	—	—
1932	407.03	—
1933	35.10	—
1934	181.66	—
1935	19.60	—
1936	—	—
Total	50,164.01	10,309.94

**Seedling Work** With the increased need of re-foresting with saplings, the seedling work has become quite important. Since the first sapling plantation was established at Toyohara in 1912 its num-

ber began to increase, and now there are 17 sapling-plantations established throughout Karafuto producing annually about 6 million saplings. Details follow:

Location	Acreage (Hectares)	Date of Establishment
Toyoharp	15,2110	5/1912
Shimizu	4,9500	5/1920
Tokobo	13,0485	5/1920
Tominaigishi	7,9467	"
Tomarioru	4,6761	"
Takarazawa	4,9839	"
Kawakami	6,7287	"
Otomari	4,9893	5/1926
Tamagawa	69,4040	5/1927
Yamashitagawa	6,1684	5/1927
Minaminazuki	5,3328	5/1929
Obara	6,8878	5/1929
Kitakotani	13,8217	5/1929
Towada	0,1530	5/1920
Contoro	1,2500	5/1930
Nayori	7,4250	4/1931
Kamishisuka	14,9100	4/1931
Total	137,8869	—

**Felling Work** The present Government's felling work was started in May, 1927, on the estimated basis of an annual production of 535,743 cubic metres of timber. But, in view of the difficulty felt in marketing, the annual aggregate felling was reduced to the basis of 196,370 cubic metres. The business result in the year 1935 was as follows:

	¥
Receipts	2,449,705
Expenses	778,631

TIMBER PRODUCTION DURING 1924-1933

Year	Felling (Koku)	Shipment (Koku)	Delivery (Koku)
1924	2,366,545.98	2,502,820.31	2,547,288.54
1925	1,100,388.91	2,130,118.02	2,169,525.38
1926	744,982.00	1,274,693.17	1,319,501.38
		(cubic metres)	
1927	541,630.473	25,429.015	7,137.030
1928	459,340.777	494,156.669	509,218.133
1929	492,061.608	497,863.054	504,930.773
1930	198,742.706	455,250.462	455,250.462
1931	205,587.861	202,115.850	202,115.850
1932	201,020.000	196,532.000	196,532.000
1933	199,555.000	200,371.000	200,371.000
1935	202,413.000	169,751.000	173,367.000

**Forests for University Field Work** It was in April, 1914, that a forest tract of 20,000 hectares along the basins of the Ai-kawa (Ai River) and Odasamu-kawa (Odasamu River) was given to the Tokyo Imperial University for the field work

of forestry students of its College of Agriculture.

Before or after that year the forests for the field work of the Hokkaido, Kyushu and Kyoto Imperial Universities were established. The amount of stand-

ing timbers of these forests at the end of March of 1934 were 11,459,715 koku for the coniferous trees and 772,767 koku for the broad leaved trees.

**Fire Prevention Work** The work of fire prevention was initiated in 1922 over a stretch of 13,495 metres of forest area, mostly of the area artificially re-planted. But in recent years the prevention work was extended over natural forests, it consisting in making openings or glades, so that in 1936 the total length of these openings for protection from fire reached 1,045,364.

#### FIRE-PREVENTION OPENINGS

Year	Extension (metres)
1922	13,495
1923	78,297
1924	87,973
1925	15,173
1926	237,973
1927	157,550
1928	119,129
1929	95,729
1930	22,062
1931	27,962
1932	82,640
1933	55,444
1934	28,568
1935	24,039
1936	5,380
Total	1,045,364

**Re-forestation Work** The forest-re-stocking work is now attained by encouraging the natural recruiting process and in 1929 over an area of 173.36 hectares and then in 1930 over an area of 47.90 hectares have been recruited. In 1931 the same work was carried on over an

area of 92.60 hectares, bringing the total area accorded this treatment to 313.86 hectares.

#### Development of Various Kinds of Industries

With the growth of railway facilities the population began to increase, and, with it, various trade and industrial opportunities became more promising. Ohtomari and Maoka are the two ports with the best future outlook, being connected by railways at Toyohara, the seat of government of the island. Paper-pulp manufacturing, canning, brewing, starch manufacturing and butter-making are the leading industries in Karafuto. In 1936 products of various industries amounted to ¥155,747,000 of which products of manufacturing industries aggregated ¥92,052,000 which as compared with ¥37,569,366 of the products of all kinds and ¥17,987,842 of manufacturing industries in 1920, they show tremendous improvements. Various experiments for industrial purposes were conducted and are being continued at the Industrial Experimental Laboratory at Toyohara.

**Pulp** In 1913 the first pulp factory was opened at Ohtomari by the Oji Paper Manufacturing Company; then another was opened at Tomarioru by the Karafuto Kogyo Kabushiki Kaisha, both starting operations in 1915. Soon the World War gave an opportune stimulus to the speedy development of the industry and at present there are nine pulp factories in the island turning out 286,090 metric tons of pulp valued at ¥44,248,880 and 165,269 metric tons of paper valued at ¥37,267,055 in 1935. This means that at present about one-half of the total pulp supplies are from Karafuto. Below is given further information in this respect:

#### PULP FACTORIES IN KARAFUTO

Company	Location
Oji Paper Manufacturing Company <sup>1</sup>	Ohtomari
" " " "	Toyohara
" " " "	Noda
" " " "	Tomarioru
" " " "	Maoka
" " " "	Esutoru
" " " "	Ochial
" " " "	Shirutoru

<sup>1</sup> The Oji, Karafuto Kogyo and Fuji were amalgamated in May, 1933, into one concern which retains the name of Oji Paper Manufacturing Co., with a capitalization of ¥150,000,000.

#### PRODUCTION AT EACH PULP FACTORY (AT THE END OF 1932)

Company	Factory	Manufactures	Productive Capacity (French ton)	Quantity Produced	Amount (¥)
Oji	Otomari	Pulp	13,000	—	—
"	Toyohara	Pulp	71,000	21,925	2,042,141
"		Paper		2,197	284,800
"	Noda	Pulp	15,000	8,947	1,036,626
"		Paper		7,749	1,652,093
"	Maoka	Pulp	24,000	21,022	3,874,423
"		Paper			
"	Tomarioru	Pulp	22,500	36,822	3,725,700
"		Paper		3,141	485,200
"	Esutoru	Pulp	169,700	7,620	673,600
"		Paper		25,825	6,570,589
"	Ochial	Pulp	54,000	70,270	8,061,925
"		Paper		31,439	6,570,589
"	Shirutoru	Pulp	72,500	16,507	1,855,971
"		Paper		38,335	6,792,697
Total		Pulp		162,091	17,395,963
		Paper		129,710	24,537,313

**Brewing** Early attempts to brew saké on the island were unsuccessful. The local demand for saké was so pressing, that it led enterprisers to improve all defects in equipment and to procure water of better quality. The result

proved promising, and today the island-brewed saké is as good as any produced in Japan proper. There are at present about 46 breweries. The productive value for 1936 amounted to ¥3,731,377.

#### PRODUCTION AND SUPPLIES OF SAKÉ

Year	Production		Import from Japan Proper	
	Quantity (thousand deci-litre)	Value (¥)	Quantity (litre)	Value (¥)
1927	69,467	3,836,155	195,670	1,222,755
1928	66,603	3,862,093	254,670	1,490,544
1929	65,181	3,043,598	221,470	1,367,567
1930	45,614	1,926,964	183,310	956,698
1931	41,316	1,839,171	190,530	953,183
1932	42,748	1,800,285	172,870	921,881
1933	58,876	2,662,936	293,400	—
1934	70,423	3,205,850	502,900	—
1935	72,382	3,257,035	—	—
1936	72,906	3,731,377	—	—

**Canning Industry** The canning industry in this island goes back to 1909, and in 1917 the canneries numbered 111, with a total production of ¥3,370,558. Crab-canning heads the list; but the reckless catching following that year caused a falling-off in the production, which was reduced to ¥1,458,000 in 1920. The canneries were also reduced in number to 14 and amalgamated. As a result both the number of mills and products decreased. But the industry has been for a while consolidated and is developing steadily. The number of canneries and their products during the years 1932-35 follow:

Year	No. of canneries	Qty. prod'd	Value (In yen)
1932	25	32,041	915,335
1933	29	38,979	1,660,643
1934	38	54,985	2,268,286
1935	28	—	3,380,000
1936	20	—	1,170,000

#### Legal System and Status

Karafuto is different from other dependencies of the country in that more laws of the home land are applied there than in any of the other dependencies. But in the sense that the legal administration is different from that of Japan proper it resembles

Taiwan, Chosen, Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Sea Islands. The chief point of difference is that all the laws concerning the judicial system, such as the civil law, criminal law, the laws of civil and criminal procedures, and the law of the constitution of the courts of justice are equally enforced in Karafuto and Japan proper. At present there are 169 laws of the land applied or made applicable in Karafuto, of which 13 laws are operative only partially.

There are one local court, 2 district courts, and 7 detached offices of the two district courts in Karafuto.

#### Education

In 1905 Japan found the island a vast, primitive desert with practically nothing done towards bringing the inhabitants to a civilized way of life. But as the immigrants settled down there arose the necessity for schooling their children. It was in August, 1906, that the first elementary school was opened at Toyohara, and in October of the same year 2 other elementary schools were opened, one at Ohtomari and the other at Maoka. At the same time, private educationists started simpler elementary schools. In 190 all elementary schools were brought under the Karafuto government. A middle school was opened at Ohtomari in 1912, a girls' high school at Toyohara in 1916, a middle school at Toyohara in 1925 and another middle school at Maoka in 1927. Meantime, girls' high schools were opened at Ohtomari, Maoka and Tomarigishi. The following tables give the main educational statistics of Karafuto:

#### NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, TEACHERS AND PUPILS

(March, 1936)

	No. of Schools	Teachers	Pupils
Elementary schools	252	1,367	52,984
Secondary schools			

	No. of Schools	Teachers	Pupils
Middle schools	3	—	2,030
Girls' High schools	4	—	1,730
Takushoku (colonization) schools	1	—	64

**Education of the Natives.** There are some 2,000 natives in Karafuto including Ainus, Gilyaks, Orochones and Tunguses. The Karafuto government is undertaking to educate the children of these backward natives. At the educational institution established at Shisuka-mochi, where about 30 children of the natives are taught along the line of the primary school.

#### Religion

The three principal religions, i. e., Shinto, Buddhism and Christianity, are competing with one another in this promising field of labour. There are 42 propagating centres for Shintolism representing five sects, viz., Shinto proper, Kurosumi, Tenri, Konko and Taisha. There are three governmental shrines and these are (1) Karafuto Shrine, (2) Toyohara Shrine and (3) Ani Shrine, all of which are dedicated to Imperial ancestors. August 23 is the day set for annual festival of the Karafuto Shrine, which is also the Inauguration Day of Japanese administration in Karafuto. The shrine is located at Asahiga-oka in a quiet western hilly suburb of Toyohara, and strikes the chance visitor with a sense of admiration for its grave beauty. The anniversary of the Toyohara Shrine falls on July 11. Buddhism is represented by the Shin, Nichiren, Soto, Shingon, Jodo and other sects. There are 72 temples and 126 preaching houses. Christianity is being preached by missionaries of six denominations, i. e., Episcopal, Methodist, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic, the Salvation Army, and the Holiness Church. The number of Christian churches in Karafuto is 12.

## CHAPTER XLIII

### SOUTH SEA ISLANDS

#### UNDER JAPAN'S MANDATE

#### Geographical Features

The South Sea Islands mandated to Japan, numbering 2,550, are the Mariana, Marshall and Caroline groups, between 131° 10' and 172° 10' of east longitude and between 1° 15' and 20° 32' of north latitude. They have a total area of 2,148.80 square kilometres. The Hawaiian Islands are to the east; the Philippines and Celebes to the west; the Bonin Islands to the north, and New Guinea to the south. Only one island among them, i. e. Guam belongs to the United States.

The Mariana archipelago starts close to the southern end of the Bonin Islands, stretching towards the equator, and the Marshall and Caroline groups extend to the east and west along the equator, forming an inverted letter "T" with the Marianas. About 740 miles south of the Bonin Islands lies Saipan, the largest of the Marianas, and about 180 miles farther south is Truk, one of the largest of the Carolines, which marking the crossing point of the inverted "T," is the centre of the mandated territory. The line of 148° east longitude divides the Carolines into the West Carolines, with Palau and Yap, and the East Carolines, with Truk and Ponape. Because of the distances between the islands and the extensive area covered by them, communications are difficult. The fact that each group of isles uses different words peculiar to itself sufficiently demonstrates the degree to which they are separated.

So small are the individual islands in area that the premier ones, such as Ponape and Babelthuap, cover barely 269 square kilometres. Their topography differs according to geological conditions. The Marshalls, which are made up of coral reefs, rise only 1.5 or 2 metres above sea level, but the Marianas and Carolines, which are composed largely of volcanic rocks, have peaks rising as high as 758 metres and little level land. There are no navigable rivers, and in several places good roads are still lacking.

With the exception of Yap, prac-

tically all of the islands are composed of volcanic rocks and coral reefs. There are three kinds of coral reefs, though no clear demarcation can be drawn; and the volcanic rocks are of two kinds, basalt and andesite, the former being found in Truk, Ponape and Kusaie, of the Carolines, and the latter in Palau and Saipan. Everywhere in the islands, sea-birds nest and deposit phosphate, but principally on Angaur, Peleliu, Togobei and Fais. The soil also contains some amount of phosphoric acid, which helps vegetables and trees to grow. The narrowness of each islet, the volcanic topography and the dearth of rainfall, however, are handicaps to agriculture.

#### Groups of Islands

**The Marianas** The Marianas, the northernmost part of the territory, consist of 14 islands covering 632 square kilometres. At the southern extremity is Saipan, the seat of the Saipan Branch Office, with jurisdiction over the whole of the Mariana archipelago. The Saipan group, 163.89 square kilometres in area, starts 64.36 km. to the northeast of Guam and stretches 104.59 km. to the southwest. Being nearest to Japan proper, the group forms the gateway to the South Sea Islands. It not only enjoys favourable communication with the mainland of Japan, but is endowed with fertile soil adapted to the cultivation of sugar cane, which has drawn no small number of immigrants. Here the South Sea Islands Development Company engages in the refining of sugar.

**The Carolines** The Carolines, lying along the equator, are divided into the four administrative groups of Palau, Yap, Truk and Ponape. On the island of Corrol in the Palau group are located both the South Sea government and its Palau branch office. The number of isles under the jurisdiction of this branch office is 109, covering an area of 80.29 square kilometres. Babelthuap, commonly called the Main Island of the Palaus, has 370.37 square kilometres. Angaur, about 64.36 km. southwest of Corrol, is called the treasure island of the archipelago, being buried under

phosphate mounds. A regular steamship line connects it with Menado of Celebes and Dayao of Mindanao, in the Philippine Islands. The Palaus are not only the administrative pivot, but are important geographically.

The Yap group lies 418.34 km. to the northeast of Palau and consists of 85 islets covering 228.91 square kilometres and extending 804.50 km. from north to east. The four main islands, with an area of 36.26 square kilometres, are widely known as a junction of submarine cables. Here also is located the Yap branch office.

The Truk group lies 1,383.74 km. east of Yap, dotting the surface of the sea like a nebula. The Truk branch office, located on Natsu Island, controls 245 islets, which total in area only 124.16 square kilometres. As Natsu Island was formerly the seat of the German local government and later the headquarters of the Japanese defence corps for the entire mandated territory, it is fairly well known to the outside world.

The Ponape group is located 627.51 km. due east of Truk and consists of 138 islets covering more than 492.10 square kilometres. The island of Ponape, with 380.73 square kilometres in area, ranks first among all the islands of the territory. It is full of hills and is lacking in level land. Textile manufacturing and sugar refining were once started here by the Japanese, but later discontinued. Hope is still retained for some industrial undertaking, and a branch laboratory of the Industrial Experiment Station of the islands was established here in 1925 to make trial plantings of rice and medical herbs.

**The Marshalls** The Marshalls are located 1,222.84 km. east of Ponape. At the southern tip is Jaluit, on which is located the Jaluit branch office, which has control over the main portion of the archipelago, 32 islets, made up of more than 860 coral reefs comprising an area of 180.94 square kilometres. The soil being quite suited to the growth of coconut palms, they flourish everywhere. The copra industry of the islands is chiefly dependent on the material produced in this group.

#### Atmospheric Conditions

All the islands being within the tropical zone, they have one season instead of the four of the temperate zone. Cool sea breezes sweep over them day and night, contributing much toward balancing the temperature, and the inhabitants are favoured with a mild maritime climate rarely found in tropical countries and free from the danger of attack by

venomous snakes, wild animals and miasma peculiar to the tropics.

There is an observatory established by the South Sea Government, where all sorts of atmospheric observations are conducted, and four hyetographical observatories. In addition, each branch office of the government has its own observation station. Thorough study of the insular climate is now being planned.

Atmospheric pressure in the neighbourhood of Truk and Ponape is generally low; in the vicinity of the Carolines and western Marianas, it is high in February and March and low from October till December; in the eastern islets of the Carolines, high from May to September and low in other months. The temperature is about the same all over the islands and shows little change through the year, the highest in the daytime ranging from 29° to 31° C. It seldom rises above 31°, and the difference during 24 hours is only 4 or 5 degrees. Humidity averages 82% and rarely falls lower than 60%.

From November to April, the wind generally comes from between the east and northeast. This is the trade wind. From May to October, the direction differs according to the position of the islands. The velocity averages 5 metres in the Marianas, weak in August and September and strong between October and February; in the western part of the Carolines, it is weak in April, May, June and September and strong in November, December, January, February and March.

The mean annual rainfall is more than 3,000 mm., and at Ponape it reaches even 4,000 mm. The rain comes in sudden torrents and passes away with the same suddenness. By this the unbearable tropic heat is greatly mitigated. The rainfall is greatest during July, August and September and least in January, February and March.

The Islands are, as it were, the hotbed of the typhoons that devastate Formosa and Japan proper, but locally the wind rarely gathers hurricane strength. If a typhoon does strike, it leaves the islands in a miserable condition, and the natives fear typhoons as they do their gods. When Ponape was struck in 1906, nearly all the coconut palms fell. Jaluit suffered in 1918 and Yap in 1920 and 1923.

A third tempest at Yap caused tidal waves to sweep over the coast, considerably damaging houses, woods and farms. A typhoon at Palau in May, 1927, swept away practically all dwellings in Peleliu and caused no small damage to other islets far and near.

#### History

The discovery of the islands dates back to the 16th century, when Spain and Portugal were vying with each other for discovery of untroubled soil in any corner of the world. As they are scattered and insignificant, not all of the groups were found at the same time. The Marianas were found first and the Carolines at about the same time, though exploration of the latter was neglected for a long time until about 1885, when the Marshalls were discovered.

Found by the Portuguese, the Marianas came into the possession of Spain. Toward the close of the 19th century, Germany took possession of the Marshalls and threatened to encroach on the Carolines, then under Spanish control. Spain protested, and arbitration by the Pope in 1886 terminated the dispute amicably, the whole of the Carolines remaining under Spanish rule. Assiduous efforts by the Spanish to exploit and govern the islands continued until 1899, when, financially straitened due to the war with the United States, they sold the Marianas and Carolines to Germany. The whole of the present South Sea Islands mandated by Japan was thus shifted to the possession of Germany. The German reign lasted until 1914, when a Japanese squadron occupied the islands, which were later juridically placed under Japanese mandate, following the conclusion of the Paris Peace Treaty and other relevant agreements.

**German Administration** It is generally agreed that the establishment of sovereignty over the Marianas and Carolines by Spain in 1886 and the complete domination by Germany of the Marshalls in 1885 should be made the starting point in historical study of the archipelagos. Until purchased by Germany, the Marianas and Carolines had no government worthy of mention, and nothing now remains to recall the Spanish administration except the defence works on Yap and Ponape and a few buildings standing here and there. After the transfer to Germany, a complete change was effected. In the manner of the British East India Company, Germany started the Jaluit Company shortly after acquiring the Marshalls. The Government took over the business in 1906, when the company's contract expired, and tried to put all the island industries under its monopoly. Thus Jaluit has naturally flourished as the business centre of the territory, reinforced by communications with Singa-

pore, Hong-Kong, Australia and the United States.

In looking back upon the German programme in the South Sea Islands, we are struck above everything else with the largeness of its scale. A general government was first established in New Guinea, which sought to implant German authority in the Orient by embracing the numberless islets between New Guinea and Tsingtao. A step to this end was the laying in 1904 of a submarine cable connecting Yap with Shanghai, Guam and Menado, and in 1913 a radio telegraph station of gigantic size was erected on the same island. To make a scientific study of the South Sea Islands, the German Government dispatched a number of experts. One of their discoveries was phosphate, of which a deposit of 3,000,000 tons was found on Angaur. The German Phosphate Company, founded in Bremen in 1908, conducted mining operations until the Japanese occupation. Other deposits, though less valuable, were located at Peleliu, Togobei and Fais.

Germany exercised special efforts in diffusing culture among the natives, and to this end it dispatched no less than 100 missionaries, who opened churches in all the principal villages of the islands. The older natives still keep the German style of Roman letters to this day. Besides paying attention to educational advancement within the territory, the authorities sent men of talent to Tsingtao for further study.

**Relations with Japan** It is presumed that there must have been some early intercourse between Japan and the archipelagos because of their geographical position, but there is no reliable evidence of it. The Japanese training cruiser Ryujō in 1884 touched at Kusale, an islet belonging to the Ponape group, where the chief of the natives enthusiastically welcomed the crew, declaring that his people were descendants of the Japanese race. In the same year, the Japanese Government, informed of the massacre of a Japanese on Raye Island, of the Marshalls, dispatched Mr. Taketaro Goto, who succeeded in settling the matter with the local chieftain. Early commercial relations were initiated by the South Island Company (Nanto Shokai), established at Ponape with the capital of ¥44,000, but its business was soon transferred to the Ichiya Shokai, which failed in 1895. In the year following the appearance of the Nanto Shokai, two other trading firms, the Kaitsu Sha and Koshin Sha, came into existence; the former lasted only two years, but

the latter carried on business until the Japanese occupation of the islands. The Hloki South Sea Trading Company was founded in 1893 with branches at Ponape, Truk, Saipan and Guam. Since amalgamation with the Murayama Shokai in 1906, it has been operating as the South Sea Trading Company and doing an extensive business.

#### Population

On October 1, 1936, the total population of the mandated territory is 107,137, comprising 50,524 natives, 56,496 Japanese and 117 foreigners. Of the natives, there are 46,662 Kanaka and 3,862 Chamorro. The Chamorro enjoy high birth rate, but the Kanaka scarcely maintain the status quo. Those within the jurisdiction of the Yap branch office show yearly decrease.

When Japan took over the archipelagos, there were only a few scores of Japanese dwellers. Gradually increasing, there are now 33,313 males and 23,183 females, most of them dwelling within the jurisdiction of the Saipan branch office and being engaged in agricultural pursuits.

When placed under Japanese control, the territory had a hundred Germans, mostly engaged in missionary work and commerce. After they left, there re-

mained fewer than 20 foreigners, chiefly Americans and British. There were, on October 1, 1936, 117 foreigners who are nearly all engaged in missionary service, coconut cultivation or the copra trade.

A census is taken every five years. The village officials and policemen also keep in constant touch with every change. As for Japanese settlers and foreigners, complete investigation is made in accordance with regulations. The first general census was taken in October, 1920, when the first national census was taken in Japan proper, attended with great difficulties and at enormous expense. Subsequent censuses came in 1925, 1930 and 1935.

#### DENSITY OF POPULATION,

(October 1, 1936)

District under Branch Office	Population	Area sq. km	Density per sq. km
Saipan	45,227	639	70.7
Yap	6,387	226	28.2
Palau	15,764	478	32.9
Ponape	11,846	504	23.5
Jaluit	10,588	170	62.2
Truk	17,325	132	131.2
Total	107,137	2,149	49.8

#### NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS

(April 1, 1935)

	Saipan	Yap	Palau	Truk	Ponape	Jaluit	Total
Japanese	8,257	179	1,890	1,232	804	177	12,539
Natives	724	1,646	1,202	2,662	1,517	1,792	9,543
Foreign	5	5	11	11	10	7	48
Total	8,986	1,829	3,103	3,905	2,331	1,976	22,130

Chosenese are included in the figures for Japanese.

#### POPULATION BY GROUPS

(October 1, 1936)

	Saipan	Yap	Palau	Trak	Ponape	Jaluit	Total	
Japanese	men	23,277	284	5,917	1,626	1,874	33,913	
	women	17,559	177	3,309	806	1,143	23,183	
	total	40,836	461	9,226	2,432	3,017	56,496	
Natives	men	2,284	2,912	3,670	7,391	4,632	26,081	
	women	2,089	3,004	2,849	7,475	4,166	24,443	
	total	4,373	5,916	6,519	14,866	8,798	50,524	
Foreign	men	11	6	13	17	14	72	
	women	7	4	6	10	17	45	
	total	18	10	19	27	31	117	
Total	men	25,572	3,202	9,600	9,034	6,520	5,538	59,466
	women	19,655	3,185	6,164	8,291	5,326	5,050	47,671
	total	45,227	6,387	15,764	17,325	11,846	10,588	107,137

Chosenese and Taiwanese are included in the figures for Japanese.

#### YEARLY INCREASE OF POPULATION

Period	Japanese	Native	Foreign	Total
1925	7,430	48,769	66	56,294
1930	19,835	49,695	98	69,626
1932	25,766	50,045	98	75,909
1933	30,670	50,114	100	80,884
1934	35,328	50,174	103	85,605
1935	47,412	51,056	97	98,565
1936	56,496	50,524	117	107,137

#### Tribes, Customs and Manners

Tribes Opinions differ as to the tribes residing in the mandated South Sea Islands. Some say that they immigrated from the Malay Peninsula, while others maintain that they are of the Polynesian. Though anthropologically named the Micronesian race, it is evident that they are a hybrid. Separate groups are clearly discernible, each with its own language and customs and manners. Roughly they are divided into the Kanaka and Chamorro. The former belong to the Micronesian race, and the latter are said to be of mixed White and Kanaka extraction, though other explanations are sometimes given.

The Chamorro are supposed to have settled first in Guam, later removing to neighbouring isles, and the fact that they now flourish largely in the Marianas, Yap and Palau seems to endorse the supposition. Though the tribe thrived fairly well under the Spanish régime, it has gradually dwindled, due mainly to massacres, until today it numbers only 3,400. The characteristic features are yellowish brown skin and black hair. The Chamorro, unlike the Kanaka, are industrious and mild in nature. Their mode of living is advanced, and some even reside in foreign-style houses with modern improvements. Their present culture owes much to religious influences in the time of Spanish control.

Kanaka is the general term for the natives of the Pacific Islands. Most of those dwelling in the mandated islands belong to this group. They have dark brown or yellowish brown skin, black hair, heavy eyebrows and a big mouth. They are not hairy, and are simple and mild in nature. Though generally of medium stature, some are fairly tall. The Kanaka are cheerful in disposition, but extremely lazy. Their cultural standards are very low, and the mode of living lingers in the primitive stage. Of the total of 50,000 natives in the islands, those belonging to the Kanaka number 46,600.

Customs and Manners Because of the warm climate, it was originally the

custom of the natives to wear nothing except a piece of cloth around the waist. Contact with advanced people, however, has brought a change, and some now use foreign clothing. In Saipan and the Marshalls, the natives are clad after the fashion of Europeans, but those in Ponape, Truk, Palau and especially Yap are almost stark naked. The natives are not indifferent to personal adornment. Tattooing is an outstanding example. The more complicated the tattoo marks and the larger the space they cover, the more respected is the owner. There is also the strange ornamentation of scars deliberately cut into the flesh, which has more influence in Ponape than in the other islands. The custom of driving a hole through the ear-lobe for an earring or other dangling ornaments has been becoming less common of late years, due principally to the diffusion of education.

The staple foods of the natives are fruits, fish and meat. Nature bountifully supplies coconuts and tubers, which are mainly relied on, and tapioca, bananas, pineapples, mangoes, lemons and oranges, all of which are used as subsidiary food. Under such circumstances, it is but natural that little attention is given to agriculture. Fishing has made but little advance, but the supply of beef and pork is fairly sufficient. Wine and tobacco are greatly sought after, though the use of the former is almost completely prohibited. The habit of chewing areca still prevails.

The structure and appearance of dwellings vary in accordance with the cultural standard of each group of isles. In Saipan there is a street that looks like one in Europe, but in Yap one is reminded of how people lived in prehistoric ages. The dwellings in Truk and Jaluit are far inferior to those in Palau and Ponape, having not even floors. A general lack of windows leaves the interiors sombre and damp. "All men houses" are found everywhere in the archipelagos, which serve as a sort of rendezvous for the male villagers or inn for travellers. On Yap there are one or two houses to every village where women live when ailing.

#### Social Conditions

As the natives are not yet far removed from the primitive stage, their knowledge is very limited. They adhere to the traditions handed down from their forefathers and seem incapable of assimilating with any rapidity the cultural attainments of the outside world

with which they come in contact. Only a few can count correctly. Yet they have been progressing in education since primary education has been introduced. Whatever their intellectual deficiencies, they are fit for manual work.

There are two main social classes, superior and common, and between them there are several transition levels. Every village has its own chief, at whose mercy formerly were the life and property of the villagers. Among the chiefs there used to be ceaseless fighting. Under the German administration, their powers were greatly diminished, and at present they collect taxes and transfer government orders besides attending to the welfare of the people.

As has already been said, their mode of living is very simple, requiring little clothing and no farming for food. They are content to live in any miserable structure which affords shelter from wind and rain. Save for a handful of the Chamorro and a very small number of wealthy people, they live from hand to mouth in perfect contentment and have no thought of providing for posterity. They see no need of taxing their otherwise simple existence by using money. Such as they obtain is invariably spent for such luxuries as soap, perfume, tobacco and canned food, for their daily necessities, are freely provided by nature. Of late years, however, a desire to own coconut trees and land has become discernible. They have aversion to anything that requires systematic labour. This is because they are little accustomed to it, there being no need for hard work where food is plentiful without it. In former times they were absorbed in subduing neighbouring villages, but in recent years their barbaric temperament has greatly abated in consequence of appropriate measures taken toward this end by the Japanese Government.

Each group uses its own language or dialect, and there are many instances of different languages in a single group of islets. Between the main island of Yap and the islets within its orbit, there is no common language. Since Japan took charge of the educational work, Japanese has been taught, increasingly meeting the daily needs of the natives.

#### Administration

Following severance of diplomatic relations with Germany, the Japanese navy occupied in October, 1914, the German territory of the South Sea Islands and established a military government. In December, 1915, when military headquarters were instituted at Truk,

the islands were divided into six administrative districts, each governed by a resident garrison commander. In June, 1918, subsequent to the issuance of an Imperial ordinance, a civil administration was created under the commander of the Provisional South Sea Defence Corps, and civil officials took over the functions formerly entrusted to the commanders.

By conclusion of the peace treaty in January, 1920, the islands were placed under Japanese mandate. Realizing the need of effecting fundamental renovation in the administration, the Japanese Government, upon withdrawing the troops, established the present South Sea Government in April, 1922. This was in accordance with an Imperial Ordinance of March, 1922, parts of which were later revised in 1924, 1927, 1930 and 1935. The Governor, who presides over the entire administration, is under the control and supervision of the Overseas Minister. Communications affairs are supervised by the Communications Minister, and currency, banking and customs matters by the Finance Minister. In emergencies, however, the Governor is authorized to act upon his own discretion and if necessary to request the commander of the naval station or the nearest responsible naval commander to take military action. The Government Office is composed of nine sections: Governor's Secretariat, Archives, Local, Finance, Police, Colonial, Aquatic, Civil Engineering and Communications. - The Provisional Saipan Harbour Repair Office, a products museum and an experimental fishery station also belong to it. Under the government there are branch offices at Saipan, Yap, Palau, Truk, Ponape and Jaluit. All such general administrative business as census-taking, aims-giving, salvation, policing, hygiene, tax collection, education, religion, industry, engineering and harbour works are conducted by these local branches.

Besides the afore-mentioned, there are, under the control of the Governor, 15 elementary schools, 23 public schools, a woodwork training institute, a high court of justice with a public procurator's office, 3 local courts of justice, each with a public procurator's office, 1 industrial experimentation station with its two sub-stations, 7 hospitals, 1 mine, 9 post offices, 1 meteorological observatory and its 3 branches and 1 industrial school.

The branch offices are assisted by soncho, kucho, son-cho and joyaku, who are mostly native chiefs. Those in charge of the Kanaka are called so-

soncho and son-cho, and those among the Chamorro are named kucho and joyaku. The so-soncho and kucho act under the control and instructions of the branch office to which they belong, and the son-cho and joyaku assist them. The duties entrusted to these officials are (1) thorough diffusion of knowledge of the law and regulations, (2) the making of applications and reports to the branch office, and (3) the conveyance of official instructions and their fulfilment.

**Police Administration** Under the Police Affairs Section of the government there is a branch section at each of the six branch offices of the government. In addition, there are a police officer's detached station at Tinian, another at Rota, assistant police inspector's detached stations at Kusale and Angaur and policemen's offices at 23 less important villages. The distribution of these stations was determined more by special local conditions than by the density of population, for each branch office of the government has its own peculiar geographical and cultural conditions. On August 1, 1935, the number of police officials at each branch office ranged from 18 to 65.

The regulations for control of the Islanders established in 1916 to guard against immigration of persons without property and criminals were amplified

and revised in 1917 and 1925. Special consideration is given to firearms and gunpowder, the possession and use of which are strictly prohibited to the insular inhabitants. Beverages of more than 3 per cent alcoholic content are forbidden except for medical use and religious rites. The possession and consumption of dangerous narcotics, save for medical purposes, are prohibited. Other regulations cover game hunting, publications, social gatherings and the formation of associations, collection of donations, fisheries and the employment of geisha and waitresses.

#### Finance

The expenditure for insular administration had been met by the military special account until an independent account of the South Sea Government was established in March, 1922. Since then the South Sea Government Special Account has been arranged and expenditures of the Government have been met by taxes, other revenues and the sum advanced from General Account. But its own revenue has increased so much that since 1932 the Islands have been receiving no budgetary assistance from Japan proper and have thus virtually become independent financially. The receipts and expenditure for the past several years follow:

#### ANNUAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

(In yen)

Fiscal Year	Revenue			Expenditure		
	Ordinary Revenue	Extraordinary Revenue	Total	Ordinary expenditure	Extraordinary expenditure	Total
1932	4,819,299	3,134,687	7,953,986	2,500,544	2,233,198	4,733,742
1933	5,011,281	3,237,487	8,248,769	2,755,171	2,527,324	5,282,495
1934	5,118,468	2,979,828	8,098,295	2,914,837	2,478,924	5,393,761
1935	6,555,000	2,720,000	9,275,000	3,082,000	2,742,000	5,825,000
1936	6,505,000	3,652,000	10,157,000	3,416,000	3,189,000	6,606,000
1937 (Budget)	7,282,724	1,399,758	8,682,482	3,810,590	4,871,892	8,682,482
1938 (Budget)	8,957,799	446,687	9,404,486	4,421,478	4,983,008	9,404,486

The poll tax, customs duties and clearance charges on shipments constitute the premier taxes. A poll tax not exceeding ¥10 is levied on every male native aged 16 or more and from ¥2 to ¥50 on Japanese and foreigners, although there are quite a number of exceptions. All imports from foreign countries are subject to customs duty in accordance with regulations established in May, 1922. These regulations also provide that all shipments to Japan and dutiable at the destination are subject to a clearance duty at the same rate as levied at the destination.

The details of revenues are given below:

#### Import Duty, Clearance Dues, and Mine-Lot Tax in 1934

(In yen)

Branch office	Import duties	Clearance dues	Mine-lot tax
Saipan	20,129	2,691,296	—
Yap	—	—	—
Palau	3,188	240	1,005
Truk	2,744	—	—
Ponape	4,670	—	—
Jaluit	4,456	—	—
Total	35,187	2,691,536	1,006



13 labourers and 5 other employees. The production of phosphate rocks and the value since 1930 follow:

year	Quantity in m. t.	Value in yen
1930	56,346	1,153,464
1931	60,203	1,125,769
1932	85,610	1,205,172
1933	70,336	1,308,840
1934	72,148	1,778,750
1935	70,468	1,762,310
1936	84,973	2,156,714

**Encouragement of Enterprises** Encouragement and financial assistance are given to a number of undertakings, including vegetable farms; coffee plantations, which have been receiving subsidies since 1927; the breeding of cows, pigs and oxen; the growing of sugar-cane and the manufacture of sugar, which were subsidized to the extent of ¥481,856 in 1934; laundries, barber shops, shoe-repair shops and hotels; the cultivation of pearls; and the preparation of dried bonito. As the raising of coconut trees is recognized as one of the most promising industries in the islands, regulations were issued in 1922 stipulating that to those who seriously undertake the planting of coconut palms a subsidy is to be given at a rate not exceeding ¥20 per 2½ acres of newly planted land and not exceeding ¥10 per 2½ acres of old coconut groves put in order. Furthermore, the regulations were revised in 1931 to provide a subsidy of one-fourth of the cost of constructing factories for drying copra.

Since 1924, Saipan and Palau have held competitive shows of the local agricultural produce and handmade articles, supported by the government. In addition, representative products of the islands are exhibited at various shows and exhibitions in Japan proper through the good offices of the government. The South Sea Government Products Museum was established and opened at the beginning of 1930 for the exhibition of all sorts of insular products and geographical and historic studies.

An official investigation is being made in places sparsely inhabited by the natives to see whether there is land for additional immigrants, and wherever land is found and designated suitable for colonization every care is taken to assure comforts for settlers. A survey made in October, 1932, showed the existence of land for 393 families. Another investigation is seeking to dis-

tinguish lands owned by the government from those possessed by private citizens. Although no accurate figures are yet available, government-owned coconut groves are estimated at about 6,600 acres, with 298,000 trees. From these figures, however, it is difficult to calculate the approximate amount of copra obtainable, for some of the groves are unproductive. A comprehensive survey is in progress.

**Experimental Stations** The Industrial Experimental Station in the islands, where all kinds of experiments and investigations connected with agriculture and stock-breeding are conducted, utilizes farms totalling 14½ acres. The Aquatic Products Experimental Station, initiated in 1931 under the control of the Colonial Section of the government, experiments, among other things, with the preservation of bonito and mackerel and the breeding of sponges, turtles and shell-fish. Since the islands, though small in area, extend over vast expanse of sea, it was considered that the natural resources hidden therein deserved a careful investigation. Having found that small experiment boats would not serve for the purpose the Government has built a ship having a displacement of 183 tons with 360 h.p. This vessel is now engaged in investigation of the resources of the sea.

**Trade** The staple exports are phosphate, copra, sugar, dried bonito and alcohol, which account for 98 per cent of all exports. As to imports, 61 per cent of the total consists of cereals and other provisions and drinks, cotton textile and manufactures, clothing and fittings, metal goods, lumber and various wooden articles.

The open ports are Saipan, Palau, Angaur, Truk and Jaluit. Almost the entire overseas trade of the archipelago is done with the Japanese mainland save for sundry goods exchanged between Saipan and Guam, and between Jaluit and the Gilbert Islands, and for a nominal amount of sugar from Hawaii and copra and sundry goods from Guam, the Gilbert Islands and Manila.

The total exports in 1936 were ¥25,259,921, of which export to the Japanese mainland was ¥24,956,501. Among exports to Japan, sugar represented ¥12,841,957, phosphate, ¥2,856,425, and copra, ¥2,041,313. The total imports in the same period were valued at ¥19,080,515 of which ¥16,449,922 were from Japan. With countries other than Japan, exports amounted to ¥303,420 and imports ¥2,630,593.

## Trade with Japan in 1936

(In yen)

## Exports to Japan

Sugar	12,841,957
Dried bonito	2,724,578
Dried trepang	3,972
Alcoholic drinks	100,633
"Takasé" shell	66,017
Alcohol	764,407
Phosphate	2,856,425
Copra	2,041,313
Charcoal	11,092
Totals including others	24,956,501

## Imports from Japan

Cereals, flour, seeds etc.	2,244,294
Sugar	72,916
Alcoholic drinks	701,052
Tobacco	645,502
Tallow, wax, etc.	1,301,545
Petroleum	152,264
Chemicals, drugs, explosives, etc.	545,371
Fabric tissues and manufactures thereof	1,117,470
Clothing, etc.	438,688
Coal	934,412
Minerals	851,593
Metal manufactures	622,618
Watch, ships, etc.	2,152,571
Copra	—
Lumber and manufactures thereof	1,198,902
Total including others	12,979,398

## Trade with Foreign Countries, 1936

(In yen)

## Exports to Foreign Countries

Sugar	147,168
Alcoholic drinks	4,149
Total including others	151,317

## Imports from Foreign Countries

Cereals, flour, seeds, etc.	457,435
Explosives, etc.	111,757
Oils, tallow, wax, etc.	191,925
Chemicals, drugs, explosives, etc.	111,757
Total including others	866,504

**Representative Companies** The Nanyo Kohatsu Kabushiki Kaisha, of which Mr. Harutsugu Matsue is the president, was established in November, 1921 with a capital of ¥3,000,000 succeeding the enterprises commenced by the Nishimura Takushoku and the South Sea Industrial companies on the island of

Saipan in the Japanese Mandate. With sugar manufacturing as its pivotal enterprise, it has undertaken to develop the resources of the island. After less than two decades, the company has increased its capital to ¥40,000,000 taking into its hands immigration, manufacturing of starch, pure alcohol, and various marine products, mining of rock phosphate, ship building, and numerous other industries.

During the recent years, the company has advanced its enterprise far out into the Netherlands East Indies, operating coconut groves, collecting pearls, growing cotton, gathering gum, raising sheep, opening marine service, etc.

The head office is situated in Saipan, with its branch office in Tokyo. It has factories in Saipan, Tenian, Rota, Palau, and Ponape, and operating grounds in Ageegan, Pagan, Kusale, Truk, Pelillu, Tokobel, Timor, New Guinea, Celebes, and even in the Philippines.

Today, the company is one of the most outstanding enterprisers in the South Seas employing nearly 40,000 people. The remarkable expansion of the company's foundation was built by Mr. Matsue who has been the president ever since and an unusual leader.

The South Sea Development Company was founded, as a result of necessary appropriations approved by the Imperial Diet in May, 1936. Following the Imperial ordinance No. 228 proclaiming its establishment was issued. An establishment committee of 21 were organized and on November 27 the company was formally founded. It is capitalized at ¥20,000,000 of which the Government invested ¥10,546,000 in the shape of its property mostly connected with the mining right of phosphate rocks in Angaur and Fuais Islands in the mandated South Seas and appended property. The remaining amount was invested by those interested in enterprises of these islands.

Its head office is in Corrol Island in Palau group and a branch in Tokyo. The company's president is appointed by the Cabinet on recommendation of the Overseas Minister. It is vested with right to issue South Sea debentures three times its paid-up capitalization. The Government has power to supervise the company by virtue of the Imperial ordinance. The company's business scopes include agricultural, aquatic, mining and shipping enterprises, phosphate rock mining and others, all connected with economic development of South Sea Islands. Baron Ryutaro Fukao is its president. The principal

shareholders of the company are the South Sea Government, the Nanyo Kohatsu Company, the Mitsui Bussan, the Mitsubishi Goshi, the N. Y. K. and the Toyo Takushoku. The company has business relations with the Taiyo Pearl Company, the Nantaku Pineapple Company, the Nanyo Aluminium Mining Company and other 6 companies.

#### Transportation and Communications

There are no roads worthy of the name on the islands, though the Government realizes that they are the first requisite for industrial development. As large appropriations will be needed, their construction will have to wait for some years to come. Nor are there railways for public use. The short one at Angaur extending for 12 miles to the phosphate mine, and that at Saipan and Tinian which extends for 93 miles are exclusively for the hauling of freight

belonging to the South Sea Development Company.

Land transportation is now principally carried through the help of motor cars and other vehicles imported from Japan. The character of the roads, length of each and the number of vehicles are illustrated in the following tables:

Extension of Roads, Dec. 31, 1934

Branch office	Width of Road			Total
	Less than 4m	Less than 7m	Over 7m	
Saipan	58	33	14	105
Yap	85	—	—	85
Palau	66	22	3	91
Truk	52	2	—	54
Ponape	85	6	4	95
Jaluit	43	—	—	43
Total	389	63	21	473

Number of Various Vehicles, Dec. 31, 1934.

Branch office	Motor car	Motor-cycle	Bicycle	Cart	Wagons	Others	Total
Saipan	126	13	6,305	44	2,610	6	9,104
Yap	—	—	49	18	6	—	73
Palau	20	7	835	22	14	4	892
Truk	—	1	203	7	1	—	212
Ponape	3	1	272	14	20	—	310
Jaluit	—	—	116	29	—	—	145
Total	149	22	7,780	134	2,651	10	10,746

Improvement of transportation facilities is now being concentrated on harbours. Generally speaking, the ports are favourable for mooring of steamers with a displacement of 3,000 tons, but the long distance between vessels lying at anchor and the landing places, as well as coral rocks extending far into the sea, handicaps their healthful growth as modern commercial ports. The construction of modern harbours depends upon magnanimous appropriations and years of labour. The first real harbour, started in 1926 and completed in 1931 at a cost of more than ¥1,000,000, was at Saipan. A second project was launched in 1927 at Corrol, where, between the vessels at anchor and the landing place, lies a coral-reef. The work came to the completion after the expenditure of ¥106,892 in 1930, as the result of which the route has been reduced to one-third of what it used to be. A new wharf was constructed then with an expenditure of ¥84,000, and since 1934 a work to enlarge the wharf to three times its present size is being pushed on.

Shipping Routes Upon the creation of the South Sea Government, all government-controlled shipping routes were

placed under the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, Ltd. The schedule for these lines in 1936 follows:

(1) West Round Line: Plying between Japan and the Philippines, the ships touch at Yokohama, Osaka, Kobe, Moji, the insular ports, Menado and Davao, covering both ways in 44 days. 20 voyages are made in a year.

(2) East Round Line: Plying between Kobe and Jaluit, the ships of the line call at Saipan, Truk, Ponape, Kusale and Jaluit, covering both ways in 50 days. 8 voyages are made yearly.

(3) East and West Connecting Line: Between Kobe, Palau, Truk, Ponape, Kusale and Jaluit, this line includes calls at various insular ports. Both ways are covered in 53 days, and 10 voyages are made in a year.

(4) Saipan Line: The ports of call are Yokohama, Osaka, Kobe, Moji, Tutani, Hachijo Islands, Saipan and Tinian. 25 round-trips, each made in 27 days, are scheduled for the year.

The number of vessels on these lines is 16, ranging from 2,444 to 6,143 tons.

Among the islands themselves, shipping has been entrusted to the South Sea Trading Company, Ltd., which is

subsidized by the Government. The services now available are: the Mariana line, connecting scattered islets within the Mariana Archipelago, available 19 times a year; the Yap, Palau, Truk and Ponape lines, each with 8 and 6 trips a year, and the Marshall line, which makes 17 trips a year. In addition there are Ponape, Truk and Palau lines. Five vessels are used, ranging from 196 to 545 tons.

During 1933, vessels that entered and cleared the nine ports of the territory numbered 507 and 520 respectively—381 steamships, 126 sailing vessels clearing and 381 steamships, 131 sailing vessels entering. The number of passengers landing and embarking were 65,083 and 3,827 respectively.

Other Means of Communication All means of communication were placed under the control of the local government when it was established. The Communication Section thus takes care of (1) post, telegraph, telephone, exchange and deposit services, (2) postal insurance, and (3) sea-routes, vessels and nautical markings. There are nine post offices, situated at Saipan, Jaluit, Tinian, Rota, Palau, Yap, Ponape, and Angaur. Each handles wireless messages. The cable and wireless lines now operated are as follow:

(1) Between Yap and Bonin Islands: dispatched by the Chichi-jima Wireless, relayed at Saipan.

(2) Between Yap and all except the Bonin Islands: dispatched on the submarine cable through Naha, Ryukyu (Loochoo).

(3) Between the South Sea Islands, except Yap, and Loochoo and Taiwan: sent by submarine cable.

(4) Between the South Sea Islands, except Yap, and the Bonin Islands: sent by the Chichi-jima Wireless, relayed at Saipan.

(5) Between the South Sea Islands and all outside points except the Bonin Islands, Taiwan and Loochoo: dispatched by the Tokyo Wireless, relayed at Palao.

Telephone facilities are still limited, switch-boards being installed at only Palau and Saipan.

#### Judicial System

The judicial branch of the South Sea Government employs the double trial system, the court for the first trial being one of the Local Courts of Justice and for the second trial the High Court of Justice. To each court is attached a public procurator's office. In remote places, minor irregularities, both civil and criminal, are disposed of by the judg-

ment of the branch office heads.

The South Sea Government High Court of Justice is located in Palau. The Palau Local Court of Justice has jurisdiction in the Palau and Yap groups; the Saipan Local Court of Justice, in the Saipan group, and the Ponape Local Court of Justice, in the Ponape, Truk and Jaluit groups. In 1935 there were three judges, two procurators and four secretaries in the judicial system.

Most legal regulations are the same as in Japan, but due consideration is given to the customs and conditions peculiar to the natives. Their civil affairs are handled quite independently of those settlers from outside; hereditary practices in land ownership are preserved, none but government officials being permitted to sell, purchase or mortgage their land; legal proceedings are made as simple as possible, and natives sentenced to less than one year of penal servitude may be subjected to labour instead of being sent to a prison.

#### Education

Besides elementary schools for the Japanese, there are 24 for natives throughout the insular territory. Though education is not compulsory, schools are provided, clothing and food supplied in particular cases and pupils from remote places received into dormitories. At the schools for native children, natives are employed as assistant instructors. The Japanese instructors must have the full qualifications of elementary school teachers in Japan proper.

There are schools for Japanese children in Saipan, Palau, Truk, Tinian, Yap and Ponape, and where there is no near-by Japanese school a Japanese class is attached to the native elementary school. The course of instruction, requiring six years, and the textbooks are the same as in Japan proper. The natives' elementary education takes three years, and after that they are free to enter continuation courses of two years. The lessons are about the same as those taught in the Japanese schools, save for the stress placed on ethics, calculation and the Japanese language. To teach carpentry, a special institute is attached to the Corrol Public School for natives.

Christian schools number 3 in Saipan, 2 in Palau, 6 in Truk, 2 in Ponape and 1 in Jaluit. All of them are attached to churches and naturally concentrate on diffusing knowledge of Christianity. They are not worthy of being called educational institutions in the strict sense.

With the object of popularizing educa-

tion, a scholarship society was formed on the foundation of an Imperial donation, ¥2,000, in February, 1924. The society is headed by the Governor, who, with the interest accruing to the original and yearly scholarship grants by the government, does everything possible to encourage deserving students. There is also the South Sea Islands Educational Society, headed by the Governor and with branches at the seats of branch offices of the government. Its sole object is elevation of the educational standard of the islanders.

The elementary schools for the Japanese, according to statistics taken at the end of April, 1935, have 101 instructors and 5,706 pupils. The instructors number 83 and pupils in the continuation course 3,050. The schools for natives have 58 Japanese teachers and 24 native assistant teachers, 1,310 boys and 1,024 girls attending elementary school course, and 420 boys and 200 girls in the continuation course.

There are some private institutions, mostly kindergartens, for Japanese children. Kindergartens are found in Saipan, Yap, Palau, and Ponape, having in all 14 Japanese teachers and 328 children. A private elementary school for natives in Jaluit has 42 children under 2 instructors, 1 of whom is Japanese.

As there were not very many Japanese children, no middle school was in existence in the archipelago prior to 1933. But owing to the industrial development and the increase of Japanese residents, it became necessary to establish one, and in accordance with the prefectural ordinance of March, 1933, an industrial school was established in the island of

Saipan.

#### Religion

Among the native inhabitants there is no religion worthy of the name, but they have a sort of religious belief. Christianity was first introduced and propagated by Spaniards in 1666. A Jesuit missionary worked enthusiastically in Guam until banished in 1766 by Charles III and is said to have initiated the islanders into the methods of cultivating corn, tobacco, cocoa and potatoes. In more recent times, an American missionary group gained influence, though it finally abandoned work in Ponape and Truk, as did a Protestant mission group from Germany, in the former island. Catholicism went on evangelizing side by side with Protestantism and is said to have had more funds. Priests of the Otani branch of the Shinshu Sect of Buddhism established themselves in Saipan for religious propaganda in 1912, and in 1928 a Tenrikyo church was opened in Palau.

Soon after the evacuation of the German Protestant missionaries, the Japanese Congregational Church despatched four missionaries to Ponape and Truk. American missionaries in Kusale and Jaluit are engaged in educational as well as religious work, and Catholic missionaries, who came in 1921 from Spain, are also active. It is generally accepted that the natives' mild temperament is the result of the long and untiring efforts of the missionaries. Generally speaking, Christianity seems to have placed the entire population under its influence, but very few of the churchgoers understand its tenets.

#### CHURCHES, MISSIONARIES AND BELIEVERS, April, 1935

Religion	Catholic	Protestant	Buddhist	Tenrikyo	Total
Churches	12	13	6	2	33
Mission halls	39	77	—	—	116
Preachers	15	14	11	3	43
Inmates of Monastery	18	—	—	—	18
Native Preachers	24	85	—	—	109
Japanese	91	22	25,650	19	25,782
Believers	Foreign	5	—	—	5
	Native	17,914	22,703	500	110
Total	18,019	22,730	26,150	129	67,028

The Charitable Society, founded on an Imperial donation of ¥1,000, was organized in May, 1927, in commemoration of the demise of the late Emperor Taisho. It is financed by the interest accruing to the foundation and contributions, and its principal mission is salvation of the poor and afflicted. So far its main accomplishment has been caring

for lepers, 54 of whom were accommodated in 1935 in 4 sanatoria.

#### Medical and Hygienic Services

In general, there is less malignant disease in the islands than in other tropical lands. But the fact that most of them are coral reefs and small in area makes it difficult to obtain water sup-

ply. Rain-water tanks are the usual source, and they often prove an agency for spreading sickness. When the trade wind begins and ends, bringing changes in the climate, influenza occasionally rages. The natives are most unsanitary and even when taken ill hesitate to consult a doctor. Despite untiring efforts by the authorities to better hygienic conditions, long-established customs have impeded progress.

The principal endemic diseases peculiar to the islands are amoeboid dysentery, farnbæsia and dengue. Dysentery breaks out at places all the year round, but the symptoms are generally slight. Farnbæsia, rampant among the natives,

afflicts but few Japanese. In recent years, in consequence of injecting salvarsan as a remedy, the number of those contracting it has decreased.

Dengue is at times so prevalent that nearly every inhabitant has it, but few fall victims to it. Fortunately, the islanders have never been attacked by malaria fever, cholera, pest, yellow fever or sleeping sickness. Typhus, paratyphus, dysentery and a few other infectious diseases, however, are common. One suspected case of small-pox was reported in 1926, but it was agreed that the patient had contracted it while travelling in China and Japan.

#### CASES OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES

year	Amoeboid Dysentery		Typhus		Paratyphus		Diphtheria	
	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths
1925	83	10	4	1	2	—	—	—
1926	64	11	10	2	17	1	—	—
1927	148	14	15	4	4	—	—	—
1928	105	14	6	1	2	—	—	—
1929	197	27	40	3	202	1	—	—
1930	70	7	149	11	59	2	1	—
1931	254	35	24	3	11	1	1	1
1932	57	1	17	4	39	2	—	—
1933	64	6	21	1	11	1	1	—
1934	26	2	32	2	15	2	6	1
1935	31	3	13	2	31	3	3	1
1936	178	23	18	4	14	2	—	—

year	Spinal Meningitis		Dysentery		Infantile Cholera		Total	
	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths
1925	—	—	—	—	—	—	89	11
1926	—	—	—	—	—	—	91	4
1927	—	—	—	—	—	—	165	18
1928	—	—	3	—	—	—	115	15
1929	—	—	—	—	2	1	441	33
1930	1	1	—	—	—	—	280	21
1931	—	—	—	—	11	3	300	42
1932	3	1	17	—	4	1	137	29
1933	—	—	10	2	—	—	107	10
1934	—	—	1	1	4	4	84	12
1935	—	—	2	—	1	—	82	9
1936	—	—	9	1	9	4	228	34

Medical Facilities Medical practitioner's offices are maintained by the government, and for the benefit of those living in remote places visiting doctors are despatched several times a year. The entire territory is divided into three classes, A, B and C, according to the standard of living, and medical charges are fixed differently; class A, for instance, paying from a third to half as much as the resident Japanese. The

task of health protection lies heavily upon the shoulders of the government, for the number of private medical practitioners within the territory is still far from sufficient. According to statistics taken in June, 1935, officials in the government medical service throughout the insular territory include 24 doctors, 7 pharmacists, 3 secretaries, 8 employees, 9 assistants, 8 midwives and 22 nurses.

## Number of Out-Patients of Hospitals, 1934

	No. of patients			Aggregate no. of patients		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Japanese	9,613	7,085	16,698	45,284	36,950	82,234
Foreign	54	25	79	310	95	405
Natives	9,986	7,976	17,962	40,621	34,382	75,003
Total	19,653	15,086	34,739	86,215	71,427	157,642

## No. of In-Patients of Hospitals, 1934

Japanese	307	153	460	4,733	2,087	6,820
Foreign	—	1	1	—	17	17
Natives	138	68	206	2,159	1,175	3,334
Total	445	222	667	6,892	3,279	10,171

Special precautions are exercised against the outbreak of epidemics, and all arriving vessels are subjected to strict quarantine inspection. Compulsory vaccination is being practised, as in Japan proper. Geisha and waitresses undergo examination at least once a month. Lepers are found in several places, though the exact number is not yet available. The government opened a sanatorium in Saipan in 1926 and added

others in Jaluit and Palau.

The health inspection is conducted in the schools once a year. The results indicate that though the physical growth of the native children generally surpasses that of the Japanese, cases of malnutrition and disease are much more numerous among the former. Inspection of water, and investigation of the causes of deaths are practised to aid health and hygienic improvement.