

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

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

(2) The Range of Influence. Next, the range of influence of each school was narrowed, until such forms as kiyomoto, joruri, shinnai and itchubushi became representative during the third period, but each of them was cultivated in a limited locality and time. In this connection joruri was most conspicuous, because, based entirely on the national literature, it appealed only to the people who understand the language used. Kiyomoto music thrived in Yedo, joruri prospered in Osaka, and itchubushi flourished in Kyoto. Thus in the third period none of the music born and popularized was of national to say nothing of international character but was limited to a cer-

tain locality. This, however, is by no means a proof of retrogressive tendency in music; for the harmony thus realized between Japanese literature and music was no meagre advantage. It was natural too, for in the evolution of art song is older than speech, poetry than prose.

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

Although civil strife is a great deterrent to the art of music, this was not so true in Japan as in China, for in Japan the Imperial household, whose existence and dignity suffered practically no change on account of the new military government, music was encouraged in Court circles. Then again it was protected and cultivated by priests; new music was fostered especially by Kamakura priests. The Heiké Biwa originated

and developed under priestly auspices; and the shakuhachi music was introduced from China and popularized in the Buddhist domain, also through their efforts. The shakuhachi music now in vogue had its origin in this period.

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

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

merchants and artisans.

The samisen was not only a representative musical instrument throughout the Yedo era but also occupies a most important position in Japanese music today. This three-stringed Japanese guitar has now come to enjoy worldwide recognition as an advanced musical instrument. Nearly 400 years ago, toward the end of the 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 Yedo era, and exchanged anti-foreignism for free intercourse with the outside world. With this epochal open-door movement came the Meiji Restoration which eliminated the Shogunate and restored the old Imperial régime. In obedience to the august wish of the Emperor Meiji all welcomed the introduction of the supposedly more advanced European civilization. Music was no exception. European music then imported was 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 Yedo period the development of music in form was insignificant, because importance was placed on expression of sentiment. People who realized this defect in the traditional Japanese music, agreed on the necessity of introducing radical innovations in this direction. This new movement was responsible for the stimulus given by the extensive introduction of European music, which in form was far superior to Japanese. Up to about the 16th year of Meiji considerable effort was expended towards eliminating this defect. As a practical attempt to attain this object, a movement was created for reconstruction work on the form of sho music which had deplorably degenerated in the Yedo era, due to the influence of samisen music then at the height of popularity. The rise of the Yamada school in Tokyo is an example. Shakuhachi music likewise could not escape being influenced by the reconstruction current of the times.

For revival of ancient Japanese music the Gagaku Bureau was created in the Imperial Household Office in the 3rd year of Meiji. A large

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

(2) Diffusion of European Music. One of the outstanding features of musical development in the Meiji and Taisho eras is that Japanese musical education was placed on the foundation of European music. The introduction of European music into Japan can be traced as far back as the entrance into Japan of Christianity. This, however, had been monopolized by the introducers themselves in their respective localities of influence, until in the 2nd year of Meiji it entered the capital for the first time. In this year Japanese soldiers learned military band music from an English naval band master at Yokohama, which is perhaps the first instance of our official use of European music. Soon afterwards, in the 5th year of Meiji, both army and navy bands were inaugurated. Later, in the 12th year of Meiji, an investigation commission on school musical education was established in the Education Office. A commission, headed by Mr. Shuji Izawa, conducted inquiries as to the best method of teaching European music in Japanese schools. In the following year the Education Depart-

ment invited an expert from America, and, under his superintendence, made music a part of elementary school education. Three years after, the Tokyo School of Music was established. This briefly is but an outline of the growth of European music in Japan during the Meiji era. It was mainly due to Government encouragement that European music was popularized in Japan much earlier than generally expected. But, for sounder and more thorough instruction in European music we must look to the era of Taisho. Rapid progress of music in the Taisho era was made possible principally in the following ways:

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

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

(3) Internationalization of Japanese Music. The diffusion of the knowledge of European music demonstrated to us its international

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

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

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

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

Latest Developments

European Music (1) Schools. The Tokyo Academy of Music, established in the early Meiji era, still flourishes as the only government institution of the kind. Most of the teachers are now Japanese. Leo Sirota is an instructor of piano, and Maria Toll is in charge of vocal music. The school has an orchestra and mixed chorus, organized by students, graduates and teachers, and conducted by Mr. C. Pringsheim. They give public concerts several times a year. Generally speaking, the Tokyo Academy of Music attaches much importance to German classical music, and the

orchestra plays, among other master-pieces, symphonies and overtures by Beethoven, Bach and Mozart, although modern French works, such as the Nocturne by Debussy, have occasionally been attempted. The latest performances were the Fifth Symphony by G. Mahler, 1932, and the Ninth Symphony by Beethoven in the spring of 1933. In addition to this government academy, there are several private music schools, among which the most outstanding is the Tokyo Higher School of Music (Tokyo Koto Ongakuin), at Kunitaehi-mura, Tokyo, each with its own orchestra and mixed chorus.

(2) Orchestras. Outside the schools there were also several orchestral groups, but all, except the New Symphony Orchestra conducted by Viscount Hidemaro Konoé, have dissolved for want of support in an age of economic depression. The surviving symphony orchestra holds concerts twice a month regularly, and has already given over a hundred entertainments, rendering pieces by various German composers, like Beethoven, Schumann, Schubert and Brahms, as well as the works of Tchaikovsky, Rimsky-Korsakoff and Moussorgsky. Several modern French productions have also been rendered. Besides, the orchestra takes advantage of the visits of Western musicians to give the orchestral accompaniment to their rendering. The Nippon Symphony Orchestra, conducted by Mr. Kosaku Yamada, has now almost merged into the New Symphony Orchestra, on whose platform its conductor is occasionally seen. A mandolin orchestra, known as the Sinfonia Mandolini Orchestra, was created in the early Taisho era, the conductor of which is Mr. Morishigé Takei of the Bureau of Court Music of the Imperial Household Department; it gives concerts twice a year, in spring and autumn. Among

foreign musicians of note who have visited Japan are Mischa Elman, Efrem Zimbalist, Fritz Kreisler, Jascha Heifetz, Jacques Thibaud, John McCormack, Ernestine Schumann-Heink, Amelita Galli-Curci, Toti Dal Monte, Mischa Levitzki, Benno Moiseivitch and Leopold Godowsky. Several Italian and Russian opera companies and Russian orchestras have also performed.

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

(4) Opera. In the early Taisho era there was created in the Imperial Theatre an opera company under the leadership of Professor Rossi. Miss Tamaki Miura, who was regarded a prima donna at this nascent stage of Japanese opera, became a member of the company and finally won world-wide notice as an opera singer. The company later dissolved and the members organized an operetta troupe, which, after a brief period of obscure existence, met the same fate. In more recent years, stimulated by the visit of Russian and Italian opera companies a movement to revive opera was started, but no tangible success has been attained. Opera scenes have been sometimes broadcast by the radio broadcasting stations, but no native opera company has yet reappeared. Inasmuch, however, as the Tokyo Academy of Music is directing some of its talent towards this line of music, genuine Japanese opera may be expected to materialize in the near future.

(5) Religious Music. The music

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

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

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

Messrs. K. Yamada and Kosuké Komatsu—all leading Japanese composers—have almost entirely ceased to wield influence, but seeing that there are a number of young musicians who are devoted to the study of the wake left by German music, or the harmonies of French music, it is hoped that the basis of a new Japanese music will be laid. As regards the general public, they have grown somewhat tired of German classical music and turned their attention to the lighter airs of southern Europe, of even the jazz now in vogue in the United States. In urban centres social dances prevail to

such an extent that folk-songs are set mostly to dance music. In the field of genuine Japanese music, songs akin to kouta are now in vogue, the leading vocalists being Miss Katsutaro and Miss Ichimaru, both of whom are geisha. Not only folk-songs but war songs have revived, since the Manchuria emergency. The old war ditties sung at the time of the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese Wars have come again into vogue, together with a new and thrilling ballad with the "Three Heroic Warriors" who made bombs of themselves at Shanghai, as its theme.

(8) Vocal Soloists. The most noted vocal soloists are Tamaki Miura, Yoshié Fujiwara, Toshiko Sekiya and Yoshiko Miyagawa. But among instrumental musicians there is no name specially worthy of notice; Mrs. Koko Ando, formerly professor at the Tokyo Academy of Music, has won distinction as a violinist under the tuition of Joseph Joachim, but she has seen her best days, and is now settled down as a successful teacher. At the Bureau of Court Music in the Imperial Household Office each musician performs on his own favourite European instrument; and there is an orchestra which at one time was quite influential. In the orchestra there are some good violinists and cellists but few who have been on the stage as soloists. There is, however, a string quartet, organized by some of the members of the orchestra, called the Haydn Quartet. Long established, it is now regarded as the only superior quartet in Japan, though occasional changes occur in its membership. As a violinist, Miss Nejiko Suwa is regarded as having the brightest future. Though only a lass of thirteen, trained under Professor Moguilevsky, she has yet sufficient understanding of classical music to leave no doubt of her exceptional musical

talent.

(9) The Piano. The piano is the most popular musical instrument in the Japanese home at present. Even among amateur girl pianists there are many who display fair attainment. In singular contrast to this, few male pianists show skill in the art of music. This can be explained by the fact that formerly Japanese girls used to start their musical education with the koto (Japanese harp), which, having proved too primitive and monotonous, has gradually fallen into decline, being replaced by the piano. In this way the younger daughters of the upper middle class in towns have begun to receive training on the piano. In these circumstances there is naturally a dearth of male musicians outside the domain of vocalists. In this connection too it is interesting to note that Lafcadio Hearn, the famous interpreter of Japan, once remarked that the Japanese had no faculty for music, referring to their apparent lack of appreciation of Western music at that time. His somewhat rash remark has happily proved unjustified. Western music in Japan is still in transition. The Japanese have become good listeners, but have not yet become good players. But there is really no good reason why in the future Japan will not turn out world-famous musicians. For this, training is of course the great essential. Encouraging signs are already evident among our young musicians, especially women. For instance, Miss Chieko Hara won the first prize in the 1932 concours in Paris when she was 17 years of age.

1933-1936 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 No "Takasago", by Umewaka, Kanzé and Hosho; the nagauta "Tsuru-kamé", by Yoshizumi; the koto music, by Michio Miyagi; Mozart's Coronation Symphony, conducted by Pringsheim; Wagner's Imperial March and Bach's Prelude in E Major, by Sueko Ogura.

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

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

Foreign musicians and dancers made visits to Japan during 1935 and early in 1936, and made valuable contributions to the country's music, headed by 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 and Jacque Thibaud.

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

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

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

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

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

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

CHAPTER XXXVI

SPORTS

Japan in the World Olympics

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(2) **Track and Field Events** In the track and field events, the Japanese did not show up so brilliantly as did their team mates in the aquatic events. Thanks to 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 Takéichi Nishi, of the Japanese Army, who won the difficult equestrian contest, the Prix des Nations. By winning this steeplechase, Baron Nishi put Japan's horsemanship on a high plane in the eyes of the world.

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

TRACK AND FIELD

100-metre run—Ryutoku Yoshioka won sixth place in the finals. Time, 10.8s.
400-metre relay—Japan's team placed fifth.
1,000-metre relay—Japan's team placed fifth.
Marathon—Seiichiro Touda 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—Chuhéi Nambu placed third with 7.45 metres, and Naoto Tajima sixth with 7.15 metres.

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

Hop, step and jump—Chuhéi 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—Tautomu Oyokota placed third with 4 minutes 52.3 seconds.

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

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

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

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

WOMEN'S TRACK AND FIELD

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

Javelin—Miss Masako Jimbo placed fourth with 59.06 metres.

WOMEN'S SWIMMING

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

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

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

HOCKEY

Japan's team placed second.

EQUESTRIAN COMPETITION

Lieutenant Baron Takeichi Nishi won the Prix des Nations.

Japan 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 5 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 1:25.25 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.

49-kilometre relay: Japanese team (G. Yamada, Sekido, S. Yamada and Tadano) finished 12th in 2:10.59 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 6:48.8 minutes; Tsutomu Sekido, 44th; Kan Tadano, 47th; among 56 entrants.

Skating

500-metre race: Shozo Ishihara finished 4th in 44.1 seconds; Reikichi Nakamura, 11th; Seitoku Ri, 16th; among 36 entrants.

1,500-metre race: Seien Kin finished 15th in 2:25.0 minutes; Ishihara, 19th; 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, 26th; 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 266.1 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 9 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 and gymnastic 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.

100-metre high hurdles: Tadashi Murakami (Waseda U.), 3rd, 15.3 seconds; Masao Harada (Kyoto Imperial U.), 4th.

400-metre relay: Japanese team, 4th, 42.4 seconds.

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

Olympic relay: Japanese team, 4th, 3:35.4 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: Shuhei Nishida (Waseda U.), 1st,

4.39 metres; 2nd, Saco Oyô (Keio U.).

Javelin throw: Saburo Nagao (Kwansei U.), 4th, 57.79 metres.

Japan sent a delegation of 246 athletes and officials, including 17 women, to the 11th Olympic Games to be held at Berlin for 16 days, commencing August 1, 1936. The delegation was the biggest Japan ever sent to the Olympics, and was an increase of 50 athletes compared to the number it despatched to the last games at Los Angeles. The increase was a part of Japan's campaign to bring the 12th Olympic Games to Tokyo in 1940. The delegation left for Berlin in five groups, the last one departed on June 20.

The Japanese contingent will participate in the 13 different 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 will enter the soccer games and yacht races for the first time, while basketball is a new sports adopted by the 11th Olympiad. The sum of ¥800,000 was provided for the athletes' expenses.

The following table shows numbers of athletes and officials allotted for each team:

Team	Officials	Athletes
Headquarters	15	0
Track & field (including women)	11	47
Swimming (including women)	13	45
Soccer	4	16
Hockey	3	14
Rowing	7	18
Gymnastics	2	8
Basketball	4	11
Yachting	2	5
Wrestling	2	5
Boxing	2	5
Equestrian	2	5
	67	179-246

The Tenth Far Eastern Olympiad

The Tenth Far Eastern Champion-

ship Games were held in Manila between May 12 and 21, 1934. Much trouble was created in Japan before the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation finally decided to participate in the event. The Japanese side proposed to the headquarters of the Championship Games that Manchoukuo, represented by the Manchoukuo Amateur Athletic Federation, should be allowed to participate in the event. A protest was raised by both China and the Philippines that the matter had to be submitted to a general conference of the participating countries and the Constitution of the Games be revised for admittance of Manchoukuo. This attitude angered those supporting the Manchoukuo side and caused them to advise the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation to withdraw from the event, unless the matter was accepted. The matter was telegraphed to the Manila headquarters, but the reply was that it had to be submitted to a general meeting for approval. In the midst of a vigorous opposition, the Japanese Federation submitted to its general meeting a plan whether it had to attend the games in Manila or renounce its right to participate, leaving the Manchoukuo Federation, and finally it was decided the Federation would attend it with a determination to discuss matters regarding the Manchoukuo participation in the next event and to withdraw from the Games, if the Constitution could not be revised so as to let the Manchoukuo participation possible. In course of the games in Manila, the matter was discussed, but failed to be adopted by unanimous consent. In consequence, the Japanese Federation made up its mind to depart from the Games and to organize a new athletic federation with the object of promoting physical culture. Japan, however, participated in the Tenth Games through-

out. On June 12, after the return of the Japanese sports delegation to Japan, it was resolved by the delegation that the Japanese Amateur Athletic Federation withdraw from the Far Eastern Championship Games and organize the Amateur Athletic Association of the Orient. Japan, Manchoukuo and the Philippines have decided to join the new Federation, but China will not join it. Thus the Far Eastern Championship Games have been forced to break up.

Results of the Tenth Far Eastern Championship Games follow:

BASEBALL

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

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

BASKETBALL

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

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

VOLLEYBALL

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

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

FOOTBALL

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

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

LAWN TENNIS

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

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

TRACK

Japan	50
Philippines	28
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 Keio University (Tokyo); Philippines 5-3 Rikkyo (Tokyo); Hosei University 3-2 Philippines (Tokyo); Waseda 12-3 Philippines (Tokyo); and Tokyo Club 6-1 Philippines.

Boxing

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

Development of Western Sports

The History Young When a Japanese refers to "sports," he usually means Western athletic sports, not the traditional sports of Japan. The tremendous interest of the Japanese in Western sports and the remarkable development that they have made in them have relegated Japan's own sports to the background. One may pay tribute to the athletic prowess of the Japanese and their adaptability and capacity for assimilation, but one strong reason for the great popularity of the sports from the West may be sought in the fact that most Western sports are played collectively, instead of individually as in the case of Japanese fencing and 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 mat-

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

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

those of foreign countries, which not only has offered the Japanese opportunities to learn valuable lessons but has proved a medium through which international friendship can be formed.

The Re-organization of the Japan Amateur Association The Japan Amateur Athletic Association was re-organized 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 also to exert their 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 the public donations amounting to ¥400,000 was obtained these two making a total fund of ¥700,000 for the despatch of 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 coun-

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

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

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

Records Various statistics of records made by Japanese athletes follow:

JAPAN'S AND WORLD'S TRACK AND FIELD RECORDS

Event	Running	
	Japan's Record	World's Record
100 metres	10.3s. Ryutoku Yoshioka (1935)	10.3s. Ralph Metcalfe, U.S.A. (1933)
200 "	21.2s. Mutsuo Taniguchi (1934)	20.6s. Ralph Metcalfe, U.S.A. (1933)

TRACK AND FIELD RECORDS

Event	Japan's Record	World's Record
400 "	49.0s. Keiji Imai (1934)	46.2s. Bill Carr, U.S.A. (1932)
800 "	1m. 54.0s. Kumao Aochi (1934)	1m. 49.8s. Ben Eastman, U.S.A. (1934)
1,500 "	3m. 58.0s. Hideo Tanaka (1935)	3m. 48.8s. William Bonthron, U.S.A. (1934)
5,000 "	14m. 41.4s. Kohei Murakoso (1933)	14m. 17.0s. Lauri Lehtinen, Finland. (1932)
10,000 "	30m. 41.6s. Kohei Murakoso (1936)	30m. 6.2s. Paavo Nurmi, Finland (1924)
Marathon	2h. 26m 42s. Kitei Son (1935)	2h. 26m. 42s. Kitei Son, Japan. (1935)
Hurdles		
110-metre high hurdles	14.6s. Tadashi Murakami (1935)	14.2s. Percy Beard, U.S.A. (1934)
400-metre low hurdles	54.6s. Yukio Fukui (1933)	50.0s. G. Hardin, U.S.A. (1934)
200-metre low hurdles	24.3s. Iwao Anno (1930)	23s. 0s. C.E. Brookins (1934)
Relay Races		
400 metres	41.5s. Sasaki, Suzuki, Taniguchi, Yoshioka (1934)	40.0s. Kiesel, Toppins, Dyer, Wykoff, U.S.A. (1932)
800 "	1m. 28.0s. Takano, Kondo, Taniguchi, Suzuki (1934)	1m. 25.8s. Borah, House, Smith, Lewis U.S.A. (1927)
1,600 "	3m. 16.8s. Nakajima, Masuda, Oki, Nishi (1933)	3m. 8.2s. Fuqua, Alowich, Warner, Carr. U.S.A. (1932)
Walking		
3,000 metres	14m. 45.0s. Yoshio Otsuka (1935)	12m. 53.8s. G. Rasmussen, Denmark. (1918)
5,000 "	25m. 51.6s. Eiji Wada (1933)	21m. 59.0s. A. Schwab, Switzerland. (1931)
10,000 "	62m. 47.0s. Hatsutaro Akiyama (1923)	44m. 42.4s. A. H. G. Pope, England. (1932)
50,000 "	5h. 14m. 34s. Ryoji Naraoka (1936)	4h. 31m. 33s. A. Schwab, Switzerland, (1935)
Jumping		
High jump	2.01 mtrs. Yoshiro Asakuma (1935)	2.06 mtrs. W. Marty, U.S.A. (1934)
Broad jump	7.98 mtrs. Chuhei Nambu (1931)	7.98 mtrs. Chuhei Nambu, Japan. (1931)
Hop, step and jump	15.82 mtrs. Kenkichi Oshima (1934)	15.82 mtrs. Kenkichi Oshima, Japan. (1934)
Pole vault	4.34 mtrs. Suro Oyé (1936)	4.37 mtrs. W. Graber, U.S.A. (1932)
Weight Events		
Putting 16-lb. shot	14.13 mtrs. Shizuo Takada (1934)	17.40 mtrs. J. Torrance, U.S.A. (1934)
Hammer throw	50.28 mtrs. Isao Abé (1935)	57.77 mtrs. P. J. Ryan, U.S.A. (1913)
Discus Throw		
44.76 mtrs. Kosaku Kikumoto (1935)	52.42 mtrs. H. Andersson, Sweden (1934)	
Javelin Throw		
68.50 mtrs. Saburo Nagao (1934)	76.10 mtrs. M. Jarvinen, Finland (1933)	
Decathlon		
7,469.595 pts. Tatsuo Toki (1932)	8,790.46 pts. H. Sievert, Germany (1934)	

WOMEN'S JAPAN AND WORLD TRACK AND FIELD RECORDS

Event	Japan's Record	World's Record
50 mtrs. run	6.4s. Kinuyé Hitomi (1927)	6.4s. Meizlikova II, Czechoslovakia. (1922)
100 "	12.2s. Sumiko Watanabé (1932)	11.8s. Walasiewicz, Poland. (1933)
200 "	24.7s. Kinuyé Hitomi (1929)	24.1s. Walasiewicz, Poland. (1932)
500 "	2m. 28.6s. Kiyoko Itoda (1934)	2m. 12.4s. Koubkova, Czechoslovakia. (1934)

Event	Japan's Record	World's Record
80 mtrs. hurdles	12.2s. Michi Nakanishi (1932)	11.6s. Engelhardt, Germany. (1933)
400 mtrs. relay	50.2s. Muraoka, Shibata, Tsuchikura, Watanabé (1932)	46.9s. Olympic Team, U.S.A. (1932)
800 ..	1m. 52.0s. Yamamoto, Makino, Nakamura, Takino. (1935)	1m. 45.8s. National Team, Germany. (1932)
High jump	1.52 mtrs. Yuriko Hirohashi (1935)	1.65 mtrs. Shiley, U.S.A. (1932)
Broad jump	5.98 mtrs. Kinuyé Hitomi (1928)	5.98 mtrs. Kinuyé Hitomi, Japan. (1928)
Shot put	11.84 mtrs. Fumi Kojima (1935)	14.38 mtrs. Mauermeyer, Germany. (1934)
Discus throw	39.64 mtrs. Mitsuyé Ishizu (1935)	43.79 mtrs. Waisowna, Poland. (1934)
Javelin throw	41.28 mtrs. Sadako Yamamoto (1934)	44.74 mtrs. Gindele, U.S.A. (1932)

JAPAN'S AND WORLD'S BEST SWIMMING RECORDS

Men's Free Style

Distance	Japan's Record	World's Record
50 metres	25.8s. Shigeo Takahashi (1934)	56.6s. Peter Fick, U.S.A. (1935)
100 ..	57.2s. Masanori Yusa (1935)	2m. 7.2s. Jack Medica, U.S.A. (1935)
200 ..	2m. 11.2s. Masanori Yusa (1935)	3m. 21.6s. Jack Medica, U.S.A. (1935)
300 ..	3m. 32.0s. Hiroshi Negami (1935)	4m. 38.7s. Jack Medica, U.S.A. (1934)
400 ..	4m. 45.2s. Hiroshi Negami (1935)	5m. 57.8s. Jack Medica, U.S.A. (1933)
500 ..	6m. 09.8s. Shozo Makino (1935)	9m. 55.8s. Shozo Makino, Japan. (1934)
800 ..	9m. 55.8s. Shozo Makino (1934)	12m. 41.8s. Hiroshi Negami, Japan. (1934)
1,000 ..	12m. 41.8s. Hiroshi Negami (1934)	19m. 07.2s. Arne Borg, Sweden. (1927)
1,500 ..	19m. 08.0s. Kusuo Kitamura (1933)	

Men's Back Stroke

100 metres	1m. 08.6s. Shoji Kiyokawa (1932)	1m. 04.9s. Adolf Kiefer, U.S.A. (1935)
200 ..	2m. 35.2s. Kiichi Yoshida (1935)	2m. 24.0s. Adolf Kiefer, U.S.A. (1935)
400 ..	5m. 30.4s. Shoji Kiyokawa (1933)	5m. 17.8s. Adolf Kiefer, U.S.A. (1935)

Men's Breast Stroke

100 metres	1m. 18.0s. Reizo Koike (1935)	1m. 10.8s. John Higgins, U.S.A. (1935)
200 ..	2m. 41.2s. Reizo Koike (1935)	2m. 39.6s. J. Cartonnet, France. (1935)

Women's Free Style

100 metres	1m. 14.6s. Kazuyé Kojima (1935)	1m. 04.8s. Den Ouden, Holland. (1934)
200 ..	2m. 42.8s. Kazuyé Kojima (1934)	2m. 25.3s. Den Ouden, Holland. (1935)
400 ..	5m. 49.6s. Kazuyé Kojima (1934)	5m. 16.0s. Den Ouden, Holland. (1935)
1,000 ..	15m. 57.0s. Hatsuko Morioka (1934)	14m. 44.8s. Helen Madison, U.S.A. (1931)

Women's Back Stroke

100 metres	1m. 25.1s. Misao Yokota (1932)	1m. 16.3s. Mrs. Jarrett, U.S.A. (1935)
200 ..	3m. 10.4s. Misao Yokota (1934)	2m. 29.6s. S. Mastenbriek, Holland (1935)

Women's Breast Stroke

100 metres	1m. 25.7s. Hideko Mayehata (1935)	1m. 25.2s. E. Jacobsen, Denmark. (1933)
200 ..	3m. 0.4s. Hideko Mayehata (1934)	3m. 0.4s. Hideko Mayehata, Japan. (1934)

Baseball

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

ling, 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 recogniz-

ed 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 High School is known as the first school which organized a strong team. Keio University and Waseda University also organized teams. Games began to be played between those schools with much zeal. In 1905, Waseda University sent its team to the United States. It played 27 games and won seven, but the team brought to Japan new tricks, such as winding and bunting, which had been unknown here until that time. Organized cheering was begun about the same time. From then on, American university teams, such as those of St. Louis, Wisconsin, Washington and Chicago Universities, came to Japan. At first, the American invaders were sure to win. As years went by, baseball in Japan developed greatly, however, and now it is admitted that Japanese university teams are on a par with American varsity nines. Hence the almost semi-annual exchange of university baseball teams between Japan and the United States.

Its Development The development of baseball in Japan owes much to the visits of American professional players. In 1913, Japan invited the

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

The University League The game was laid on a firm foundation in 1925 when the present Six-University Baseball League of Tokyo was organized among Waseda, Keio, Meiji, Hosei, Rikkyo and Imperial Universities. Of the semi-annual league series, the most popular is the Waseda-Keio series, the interest in which is high, as in the Cambridge-Oxford regatta, because of the historical background. Before the present league was formed, Waseda and Keio had such keen rivalry that bloodshed was caused at one of the games and the series had to be abandoned for 20 years. The creation of the league revived the series, and they are now the World Series of Japan. Each Waseda-Keio game is usually attended by a capacity crowd of 60,000 at the Meiji Jingu (Shrine) grounds, Tokyo.

In the semi-annual league seasons, each university plays a two-game series with the others. The championship winners are decided on the basis of the number of series won, not the number of games won. In case two teams win an equal number of series, the one which comes out with the better percentage is declared the winner; but in case the two teams happen to have the same percentage record, a game is played to decide the title.

The following tables show the final standing of the autumn season of 1935 | and the spring season of 1936 :

1935 Autumn

	Waseda	Rikkyo	Meiji	Keio	Hosei	Imp.	Won	Draw	Percentage
Waseda	x	1	2	0	2	2	7	1	.750
Rikkyo	1	x	1	1	1	2	6	1	.650
Meiji	0	1	x	2	2	1	6	0	.600
Keio	1	1	0	x	1	2	5	2	.555
Hosei	0	0	0	0	x	1	1	3	.275
Imperial	0	0	1	0	0	x	1	1	.150
Lost	2	3	4	3	6	8			

Waseda won the pennant.

1936 Spring

(Waseda did not take part as the team made a tour to the United States during the season).

	Meiji	Rikkyo	Hosei	Keio	Imperial	Won	Draw	Percentage
Meiji	x	2	2	1	2	7	0	.875
Rikkyo	0	x	2	1	1	4	2	.625
Hosei	0	0	x	2	2	4	0	.500
Keio	1	0	0	x	1	2	1	.313
Imperial	0	0	0	1	x	1	1	.188
Lost	1	2	4	5	6			

Meiji won the pennant.

Waseda, however, played one game each with the league members before its departure to the United States and the games resulted as follows :

- April 14 Rikkyo defeated Waseda, 6 to 3.
- April 15 Waseda defeated Imperial, 4 to 1.
- April 21 Meiji defeated Waseda, 4 to 0.
- April 23 Waseda defeated Keio, 8 to 4.
- April 27 Hosei defeated Waseda, 3 to 1.

At the invitation of Waseda University, members of the baseball team of Yale University, star nine of the Eastern Collegiate League of the United States, arrived in Tokyo on August 17, 1935, for a series of games against the members of the Tokyo University League. Their performance here was poor as they lost seven games out of 11 played and drew one. They sailed back on the Asama Maru on September 11.

The results of the games :

August 18 Waseda 3-5 Yale; Yale 7-0 Waseda; August 20 Keio 10-0 Yale; August 22 Yale 7-4 Tokyo Club; August 24 Waseda 8-8 Yale; August 25 Meiji 5-0 Yale; August 28 Rikkyo 4-1 Yale; September 3 Yale 7-3 Waseda; September 8 Waseda 14-0 Yale; September 8 Waseda 9-3 Yale; and September 9 Waseda 7-3 Yale. The last three games were played in Osaka.

Next, the American Champion Amateur Baseball squad, selected by the Amateur Baseball Congress of American, visited Tokyo in early November, 1935, right after the closing of the fall season of the Tokyo University Baseball League, and opened a series of games with members of the former league.

The American champion nine, however, failed to live up to its fame, dropping the first two games to both the freshman teams of Meiji and Rikkyo in one-sided games respectively. The Americans played eight games in Tokyo and managed to

win five of them. The losing Japanese teams, however, did not use their regulars since their colleagues smothered the visitors easily with their second string. The Americans, consequently, failed to draw a large crowd at the Meiji Shrine grounds and was heavily damaged for their travelling expense.

The results of the games :

November 7, lost to Meiji, 5-4; November 8, lost to Rikkyo, 7-1; November 9, won over the Yokohama Commercial College, 9-0; November 10, won over Waseda, 7-0; November 12, lost to Hosei, 5-4; November 14, won over the Tokyo Railway Bureau, 6-4; November 16, won over Keio, 5-4; and November 20, won over the Tokyo Club, 6-0.

Members of the team were :

Pitchers: George Adams (Fort Collins, Colorado); Joseph Copp (Springfield, Illinois); Lou Briganti (New York); George Simmons (Philadelphia); Hayes Pierce (Nashville, Tennessee); A. Gonzales (University of Southern California).

Catchers: Fred Herringer (Stanford University); Fred Waters (Laurel, Minnesota); Dick Offringa (Wyckoff, New Jersey).

Infielders: Bob Chiado (Spring Valley, Illinois); Leslie Mc Neese (Fort Lauderdale, Florida); Alex Meiti (Cleveland, Ohio); R. Goldsmith (Bloomington); Frank Scatza (Alabama); T.D. Wicklund (Kansas City).

Outfielders: Jess Heath (Seattle); Ron Hibbard (Battle Creek, Michigan); Emmert Fore (Houston, Texas); Max Carey (Brooklyn).

The Waseda University team, winner of the 1935 fall season of the Tokyo University Baseball League, made a month-and-a-half tour to the United States, returning to Tokyo on July 15, 1936. The team brought back an excellent record of 15 victories out of 22 games played on American soil. The players benefited from the tour, according to Kenji Oshita who captained the nine. Not only did they learn something of the technique of the game, but they enjoyed themselves to the utmost. Everywhere they went they were widely entertained, not only by local Japanese but by Americans as well.

The majority of the team's opponents were college or university nines, although a number of Japanese clubs were included on the schedule. Waseda really hit its stride in the East, when it trimmed Yale, Harvard and Princeton in a row.

The full results of Waseda's six-week tour was as follows :

Date	Opposition	Score
May 16	Stanford	1-8
May 16	Stanford	1-8
May 17	Asahi Japanese	0-4
May 18	Stanford	14-6
May 19	San Diego Marines	4-16
May 19	San Diego State College	3-2
May 24	Los Angeles Nippon	11-2
May 29	Chicago University	16-17
May 30	Chicago University	10-5
June 4	Boston College	2-4
June 7	Providence College	6-8
June 8	Yale	6-0
June 10	Princeton	5-4
June 12	Harvard	5-0
June 13	Boston University	4-0
June 17	Chicago University	3-13
June 21	Taiyo, Seattle	11-1
June 22	Washington	7-8
June 23	Washington	11-1
June 26	Mikado, Sacramento	8-10
June 27	Yamato, Stockton	13-8
June 28	Fresno, Japanese	11-7
June 30	Alameda, Japanese	17-1

Professional Baseball Japan now boasts of seven professional baseball teams, three in Tokyo and two each in Nagoya and Osaka. They are Tokyo Giants, Tokyo Senators and Great Tokyo 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. There is an indication of two more professional teams to be organized in Kyushu districts.

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 Nobutsune O-

kuma, 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 to 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 that 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 follow:

The First Championship Series (Totaka grounds, Tokyo, July 1-7)

Semi-finals

Nagoya beat Hankyu, 12 to 3; Tokyo Senators beat Osaka Tigers, 9 to 8.

Finals

Nagoya beat Tokyo Senators, 1 to 0. Batteries—Matsura and Harris; Noguchi and Kitaura.

The Second Championship Series (Koshien grounds, near Osaka, July 12-14)

Semi-finals

Tokyo Senators beat Golden Delphines, 9 to 1; Hankyu beat Nagoya, 7 to 5.

Finals

Hankyu beat Tokyo Senators, 2 to 1. Batteries—Kitai and Kuramoto; Noguchi and Kitaura.

The Third Championship Series (Yamamoto grounds, Nagoya, July 15-19)

Semi-finals

Osaka Tigers beat Tokyo Senators, 9 to 7; Hankyu beat Golden Delphines, 13 to 8.

Finals

Osaka Tigers beat Hankyu, 11 to 7. Batteries—Wakabayashi and Monzen; Kitai, Yamada, Maruo and Kuramoto.

Marking as one of the biggest events in the history of the Japanese baseball, 15 star baseball players of the American major leagues, made a barnstorming tour to Japan in the

fall of 1934 at the invitation of the Yomiuri Shimbun. They arrived in Yokohama on November 2 and stayed for a month during which they made a clean sweep of winning 18 games against the All Japan nine in leading cities of this country. Mr. Connie Mack, the veteran baseball coach and manager of the Philadelphia Athletics Club, was the leader of the team.

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

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

Eric McNair (Philadelphia Athletics), short-stop.

Charles I. Gehringer (Tigers), second base.

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

Results of the games follow:

Americans 17-1 Tokyo Club (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 4)
 Americans 5-1 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 5)
 Americans 5-2 All Japan (Yunokawa Grounds, Hakodate, November 8)
 Americans 7-0 All Japan (Yakiyama Grounds Sendai, November 9)
 Americans 10-0 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 10)
 Ruth team 13-2 Miller team, exhibition (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 11)
 Americans 14-0 All Japan (Jintsu Grounds, Toyama, November 13)
 Americans 15-6 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 17)
 Americans 21-4 All Japan (Yokohama Park Grounds, Yokohama, November 18)
 Americans 1-0 All Japan (Shizuoka City Grounds, Shizuoka, November 20)
 Americans 6-5 All Japan (Narumi Grounds, Nagoya, November 22)
 Americans 6-2 All Japan (Narumi Grounds, Nagoya, November 23)
 Americans 15-3 All Japan (Koshien Grounds, Hyogo, November 24)
 Miller team 5-1 Ruth team, exhibition (Koshien Grounds, Hyogo, November 25)
 Americans 8-1 All Japan (Itatsu Grounds, Kokura, November 26)
 Americans 14-1 All Japan (Kyoto City Grounds, Kyoto, November 28)
 Americans 23-5 All Japan (Omiya Grounds, Saitama, November 29)
 Americans 14-5 All Japan (Utsunomiya Grounds, Tochigi, December 1)

Track and Field

The birth of track and field sports in Japan dates back to the Meiji Restoration in 1868. In the following year, a physical training course

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

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

The Americans with 14 members, engaged in two dual meets with the selected Japanese team in Tokyo and Osaka, and appeared in five exhibition contests, visiting Nagoya, Dai-

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

Ralph Metcalfe, the ranking dusky American sprinter, covered the 200-metre course in 20.2 seconds, clipping four 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 rec-

ord); 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), 4:38.6 minutes; 5,000-metre run, Ryu Choshun (Japan), 15:41.8 minutes; 110-metre high hurdles, Phil Good (United States), 14.8 seconds; 400-metre relay, American team (Clark, Greene, Parsons and Metcalfe), 41.3 seconds; and Swedish relay, American team (Metcalfe, Parsons, Greene and Hornbostel), 1:57.6 minute.

Field Events

High jump, Yoshiro Asakuma (Japan), 1.95 metre; broad jump, Naondo Harada (Japan), 15.28 metres; hop, step and jump, Kenkichi Oshima (Japan), 4 metres; Shot put, Gordon Dunn (United States), 15.26 metres; discus throw, Dunn (United States), 47.42 metres; hammer throw, Isao Abe (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	8
7	100-metre dash	8
8	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	0
6	High hurdles	8
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), 16:38.6 minutes; 110-metre high hurdles, Tadashi Murakami (Japan), 14.8 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, Suyeo 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
4	High hurdles	6
1	Swedish relay	4
3	High jump	6
4	Broad jump	6
2	Hop, step and jump	7
3½	Pole vault	6
6	Shot put	4
7	Discus throw	3
5	Hammer throw	5
3	Javelin throw	7
75½		77½

Tennis

Lawn tennis is the Western sport through which the Japanese nation won international recognition for the first time. The game was introduced into this country more than half a century ago, but real tennis, by which is meant the game as played in the West, began only 20 years or so ago. Until then the Japanese played the game with the "soft ball." Even now the Japanese have two sorts of tennis, the hard ball and soft ball. Japan distinguished herself in tennis for the first time in 1915, when Ichiya Kumagai and Seiichiro 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, 6-7, 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, 2-8, 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 8-5, 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 8-5, 6-1, 5-6, 6-1; Ohta beat Van Ryn 6-4, 5-7, 2-6, 6-4, 7-5; Van Ryn beat Abé 6-2, 4-6, 6-3, 6-2; Hennessey beat Ohta 6-2, 6-2, 6-2. In the doubles, Hennessey and Van Ryn beat Abé and Ohta 6-3, 6-4, 6-2.

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

In the singles matches, de Stefani beat Ohta 6-3, 6-4, 4-6, 6-4; Harada beat Morpurgo 6-4, 6-3, 7-5; Harada beat de Stefani 6-2, 7-5, 7-5; Morpurgo beat Ohta 6-0, 6-0, 6-1. In the doubles, Morpurgo and Gaslini beat Harada and Abé 8-5, 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 0-5, 5-2, 5-4, 6-1; Austin beat Kawaji 6-1, 0-6, 8-6, 6-2; Perry beat Hyotaro Sato 6-2, 6-3, 4-6, 6-2. In the doubles, Hughes and Perry beat Jiro Sato and Kawaji 6-4, 6-4, 8-6.

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

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

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

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

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

Jack Crawford beat Jiro Fujikura, 6-3, 6-3, 11-9. Vivian MacGrath beat Jiro Yamagishi, 2-6, 7-5, 6-2, 6-4. Fujikura beat MacGrath, 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.

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 1935 and 1936 follows:

Men's Singles	
1935	1936
1. Jiro Yamagishi (Keio U.)	Jiro Yamagishi (Keio U.)
2. Hideo Nishimura (Keio U.)	Shunsuke Hirai (Keio U.)
3. Shunsuke Hirai (Keio U.)	Yasumine Kuramitsu (Kwansai U.)
4. Chuji Kusumoto (Tokyo Imperial U.)	Jiro Fujikura (Meiji U.)
5. Shigeo Akimoto (Koshien Club)	Masatomo Tsukada (Meiji U.)
6. Hyotaro Sato (Asahi Shimbun)	Fumiteru Nakano (Hosei U.)
7. Keigo Yamada (Keio U.)	Akimasa Miura (Waseda U.)
8. Junzo Kinoshita (Kwansei Gakuin)	Makio Murakami (Kyoto Imperial U.)
9. Shinroku Hayashi (Tokyo Imperial U.)	Katsumi Matsuoka (Keio U.)
10. Masataro Tsukada (Meiji U.)	Junzo Kinoshita (Kwansei Gakuin)
11. Sakuzo Hasegawa (Senshu U.)	Hyotaro Sato (Tokyo L.T.C.)
12. Asao Takada (Tokyo Commercial U.)	Shinroku Hayashi (Tokyo Imperial U.)
13. Jiro Fujikura (Meiji U.)	Shizuo Fujii (Kwansai U.)
14. Akimasa Miura (Waseda U.)	Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)
15. Tatsuro Goto (Tokyo Commercial U.)	Hajime Ebisu (Kajimaya)
16. Ainosuke Kuwazawa (Waseda U.)	Koichiro Niya (Kobe Commercial U.)
17. Reizo Muraki (Kameio U.)	Masayuki Iyoda (Rikkyo U.)
18. Masayoshi Takahashi (Keio U.)	Masao Tanaka (Kyoto Imperial U.)
19. Shizuo Fujii (Kwansai U.)	Reishiro Hattori (Waseda U.)
20. Nobuo Ozaki (Kwansei Gakuin)	Tatsuo Hisano (Eighth Higher School)
Men's Doubles	
1. Nishimura-Yamagishi (Keio U.)	Jiro Yamagishi-Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)
2. Takahashi-Murakami (Keio U.)	Tamio Abe-Minoru Kawaji (Tomon Club)
3. Fujii-Kuramitsu (Kwansai U.)	Jiro Fujikura-Masatomo Tsukada (Meiji U.)
4. Kuwazawa-Hattori (Waseda U.)	Jin Tada-Akimasa Miura (Waseda U.)
5. Kinoshita-Ozaki (Kwansei Gakuin)	Shizuo Fujii-Yasumine Kuramitsu (Kwansai U.)
6. Fujikura-Tsukada (Meiji U.)	Masayoshi Takahashi-Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)
7. Goto-Takada (Tokyo Commercial U.)	Shinroku Hayashi-Naoyuki Okubo (Tokyo Imperial U.)
8. Akimoto-Horigoshi (Koshien Club)	Mitsuo Kawamura-Yasuji Kiyosu (Kwansai Gakuin)
9. Kawamura-Kiyosu (Kwansei Gakuin)	Masao Tanaka-Makio Murakami (Kyoto Imperial U.)
10. Hasegawa-Isobé (Senshu U.)	Keiji Tanaka-Tomigoro Fujita (Waseda U.)
Women's Singles	
1. Mrs. Tokuko Nakano (Tokyo L.T.C.)	4. Miss Sadayo Toguchi-Miss Katsuko Tomikawa.
2. Miss Sanse Okada (Denen Club)	5. Miss Reiko Takiguchi-Miss Kumi Sasakura
3. Miss Reiko Takiguchi (Poplar Club)	
4. Miss Toyoko Kimata (Osaka)	
5. Miss Hisako Yamagishi (Denen Club)	
6. Miss Michiko Harada (M. L.)	
7. Mrs. Naoko Matsudaira (Green Club)	
8. Miss Kumi Sasakura (Poplar Club)	
9. Miss Hisako Ikeguchi (Osaka)	
10. Miss Mitsuko Iida (Osaka)	
Women's Doubles	
1. Miss Sanse Okada-Miss Hisako Yamaguchi	
2. Mrs. Naoko Matsudaira-Miss Michiko Harada	
3. Miss Mikiko Kamiya-Miss Hisako Takeuchi.	

The following are the results of the important tennis matches played in 1935:

14th National Championship (Koshien Courts, November 7-18) Singles: Semi-finals
Jiro Yamagishi (Keio) beat L. Hecet (Czechoslovakia), 7-5, 6-0, 2-6, 6-2.
Roderick Menzel (Czechoslovakia) beat Shunsuke Hirai (Keio), 6-3, 6-3, 6-2.

Finals

Yamagishi (Keio) beat Menzel (Czechoslovakia), 7-5, 6-2, 6-1.

Doubles: Semi-finals

Menzel and Hecht (Czechoslovakia) beat Hyotaro Sato and Masao Murakami (T.L.C.), 6-4, 6-2, 6-2.

Jiro Yamagishi and Reizo Murakami (Keio) beat Tamio Abe and Minoru Kawaji (Tomon Club), 6-4, 4-6, 6-3, 5-7, 11-9.

Finals

Yamagishi and Murakami (Keio) beat Menzel and Hecht (Czechoslovakia), 2-6, 6-3, 6-4, 5-7, 6-4.

7th National Student Championships (Denen Courts, August 22-September 4)

Singles: semi-finals

Yasumine Kuramitsu (Kwansai) beat Makio Murakami (Kyoto Imperial), 6-3, 6-1, 6-2.

Jiro Fujikura (Meiji) beat Fumiteru Nakano (Hosei), 6-1, 6-3, 4-6, 4-6, 6-3.

Finals

Kuramitsu (Kwansai) beat Fujikura (Meiji), 8-6, 5-7, 1-6, 6-2, 6-4.

Doubles: Semi-finals

Fujii and Kuramitsu (Kwansai) beat Mimura and Tsuda (Waseda), 6-1, 6-4, 6-3.

Takahashi and Murakami (Keio) beat Kawamura and Kiyosu (Kwansai Gakuin), 6-2, 6-4, 6-3.

Finals

Takahashi and Murakami (Keio) beat Fujii

Singles

1922	Masanosuké Fukuda
1923	Takeichi Harada
1924	Tamio Tawara
1925	Tamio Tawara
1926	Yoshio Ota
1927	Tamio Abé
1928	Hajimé Makino
1929	Takeichi Harada
1930	Jiro Sato
1931	Takao Kuwabara
1932	Ryosuké Nunoi
1933	Hideo Nishimura
1934	Jiro Yamagishi
1935	Jiro Yamagishi
1936	Jiro Yamagishi

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

and Kuramitsu (Kwansai), 6-2, 1-6, 6-2, 6-3.

11th National Women's Championships (Ochanomizu Court, October 26-November 2.

Singles: semi-finals

Miss Sanae Okada (Denen) beat Miss Toyoko Kimata (Osaka), 6-3, 6-1.

Mrs. Tokuko Nakano (Tokyo) beat Miss Reiko Takiguchi (Poplar), 4-6, 6-4, 7-5.

Finals

Mrs. Nakano (Tokyo) beat Miss Okada (Denen), 3-6, 6-3, 8-6.

Doubles: semi-finals

Miss Sanae Okada and Miss Hisako Yamagi (Denen) beat Miss Toyoko Kimata and Miss Ka-tsuko Tomikawa (Osaka), 6-3, 6-0.

Mrs. Naoko Matsudaira and Miss Michiko Harada (M. L.) beat Miss Reiko Takiguchi and Miss Kumi Sasakura (Poplar), 6-2, 8-6.

Finals

Miss Okada and Miss Yamagishi (Denen) beat Mrs. Matsudaira and Miss Harada (M. L.), 9-7, 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 Abé and Ryuzo Kawazuma
Tamio Abé and Ryuzo Kawazuma
Iwao Aoki and Taku Ukegawa
Tamio Abé and Kyo Kawajiri
Hisataka Aizawa and Kengo Asao
Tamio Abé and Masanosuké Fukuda
Seiichi Yamagishi and Hikoshichi Shimura
Ichiya Kumagai and Takeichi 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

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 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 free style: Jack Medica (U. S.), 4:45.2 (new world record).
400-metre relay: American team (Chrostowski, Lindgren, 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	2
1	100-metre back stroke	5
4	100-metre breast stroke	2
3	400-metre free style	3
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:

Coch 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 Lindgren of the Los Angeles Athletic Club; Dan Zehr of Northwestern University, Illinois; Jack Kesley, of Michigan; John Mancions 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 combined 1936 national swimming-championships and the final Olympic tryout was held on May

29, 30 and 31 at the Meiji Shrine pool, Tokyo. Only one national women's record was bettered during the meet due to poor weather condition, rainy on the last two days.

Winners were :

Men's Events

100-metre free style, Masanori Yusa (Nihon U.), 57.8 seconds.

200-metre free style, Shoji Taguchi (Rikkyo U.), 2:14.0 minutes.

400-metre free style, Shumpei Uto (Rikkyo U.), 4:54.4 minutes.

1,500-metre free style, Shumpei Uto (Rikkyo U.), 19:45.6 minutes.

100-metre back stroke, Yasuhiko Kojima (Keio U.), 1:10.2 minute.

200-metre breast stroke, Tetsuo Hamuro (Nihon U.), 2:43.4 minutes.

Spring-board diving, Tsuneo Shibahara, (Nihon U.) 145.06 points

High diving, Tsuneo Shibahara (Nihon U.), 101, 92 points.

Women's Events

100-metre free style, Miss Tsuneko Furuta (Shizuoka), 1:14.2 minute.

400-metre free style, Miss Hatsuko Morioka (Osaka), 5:58.4 minutes.

100-metre back stroke, Miss Yuriko Izumi (Kyoto), 1:29.0 minute.

200-metre breast stroke, Miss Hideko Maehata (Nagoya), 3:05.4 minutes.

Spring-board diving, Miss Fusako Kono (Tokyo), 74.76 points.

High diving, Miss Reiko Osawa (Tokyo), 35.50 points.

At the end of the meet, the following were selected members of the Japanese Olympic swimming team to Berlin:

Men's free—Masanori Yusa (Nihon U.), Shoji Taguchi (Rikkyo U.), Shigeo Sugiura (Waseda U.), Shigeo Arai (Rikkyo U.), Rokuei Shimma (Waseda U.), Yasuji Miyazaki (Keio U.), Sakae Tsuruoka (Rikkyo U.), Hiroshi Negami (Rikkyo graduate), Shozo Makino (Waseda U.), Shumpei Uto (Rikkyo U.), Noboru Terada (Keio U.), Sunao Ishiwarada (Meiji U.), Kazuo Tanaka (Waseda U.), Tatsuaki Nagami (Waseda U.), Soichiro Honda (Rikkyo U.).

Breast stroke—Reizo Koike (Keio U.), Tetsuo Hamuro (Nihon U.), Saburo Ito (Meiji U.).

Back stroke—Yasuhiko Kojima (Keio U.), Bunichi Ake (Hitachi Works), Kijichi Yoshida (Waseda U.), Shoji Kiyokawa (Shodai graduate).

Women's free style—Miss Tsuneko Furuta (Shizuoka), Miss Kazue Kojima (Nagoya), Miss Hatsuko Morioka (Osaka), Miss Reiko Sakemura (Kyoto), Miss Teruko Matsumura (Yamaguchi).

Breast stroke—Miss Hideko Maehata (Nagoya), Miss Unoko Tsuboi (Tokyo).

Diving—Tsuneo Shibahara (Nihon U.), Tomio Koyanagi (Waseda U.), Miss Fusako Kono (Tokyo), Miss Reiko Osawa (Tokyo), Miss Manayo Osawa (Tokyo).

Water-polo team, 11 men, composed mostly of the Waseda University players.

Wrestling (Sumo)

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

Until late in the Meiji era (1868-1912), Japan had two major wrestling organizations, one in Tokyo and the other in Osaka, but later they merged into one organization. At the end of 1931, however, the Japan Wrestling Association had internal trouble. To be more precise, many wrestlers became dissatisfied with the traditional system of distribution of profits because the retired wrestlers, who acted as officials of

the association, took the major part, virtually disregarding the wrestlers on the active list. The trouble divided the wrestlers into three separate groups. In addition to the one which remains in the association, there are the Shinko and Kakushin groups. The latter two groups adopted new rules for wrestling, and the group which remains in the association is the only one which retains the traditional wrestling.

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

The list of principal sumo wrestlers, in May, 1936, follows :

In the order of seniority in the East Camp, Tamanishiki (Yokozuna, or Grand Champion); Minanogawa (Ozeki-Yokozuna, or No. 2 Grand Champion); Kagamiwa (Sekiwake, or Champion No. 2); Ayanobori (Komusubi, or Champion No. 3).

In the order of seniority in the West Camp, Musashiyama (Yokozuna, or Grand Champion); Shimizugawa (Ozeki, or Champion); Futabayama (Sekiwake, or Champion No. 2); Asahigawa (Komusubi, or Champion No. 3).

Jujitsu (Judo)

Jujitsu, more popularly known as judo, is more a military art than a sport. In olden times, this art of self-defence was widely practised

among the warriors, to whom it came next to kenjutsu, or fencing, in importance. One essential difference between wrestling and jujitsu is in the use of strength. The wrestler as a rule throws down his opponent by his own strength, but the jujitsu expert uses little of his own strength, rather taking advantage of the weight and strength of his opponent in hurling him to the floor. Action is unusually swift, and a good expert of jujitsu can easily dispose of a dozen non-jujitsu men in a fight.

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

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

The list of Japan's outstanding jujitsu experts of the Kodokan in-

cludes Nagaoka and Isogai, both holders of kudan, the strongest, Iizuka, Samura, Tabata and Mifuné, all holders of hachidan, the next strongest.

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

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

The 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 Shim-bun. 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, Kobé, 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: Yochiro Hanada (Imperial Club) defeated Isamu Ito (Imperial Club) on points.

Bantamweight: Umio Gea (Imperial Club) defeated Shoichi Otau (Kyokuto Club) on points.

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

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

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

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:

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

Meiji defended its title.

The deciding match for the national collegiate title between Meiji, the Kwanto champion, and Doshisha University team, winner of the Kwansai league, ended in a victory of the former by a score of 29 points to 0. The winners scored three tries and four goals. The match was

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

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

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

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

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

Football

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

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

Results of the Kwanto Inter-Varsity Rugby League, 1935 were as follows:

played at the Hanazono stadium in Kyoto on January 17, 1936.

The season was fortunate with 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 8; 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. McAuliffe, B. U. A. Jones, R. B. Burke, S. W. Simmers, L. S. Drake, I. O. Stace 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.

The Tokyo Collegiate Soccer League, formed in 1923, now boasts of 33 members which are divided into six divisions. Results of the Kwanto Collegiate Soccer League in 1935 were as follows :

RESULTS OF THE KWANTO COLLEGIATE SOCCER LEAGUE, 1935:

	Waseda	Imperial	Bunri	Keio	Shodai	Rikkyo	Won	Draw
Waseda	x	1	1	1	1	1	5	0
Imperial	0	x	d	1	1	1	3	1
Bunri	0	d	x	d	1	1	2	2
Keio	0	0	d	x	1	1	2	1
Shodai	0	0	0	0	x	1	1	0
Rikkyo	0	0	0	0	0	x	0	0
Lost	0	1	1	2	4	5		

Waseda won the pennant.

Waseda triumphed over the Kwansai Gakuin eleven, 12 to 2, to win the national collegiate championship. The match was played at the Meiji Shrine stadium on December 15, 1935.

Rowing

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

The final tryout to select the crew that will represent Japan in the Olympic Games at Berlin in 1936, was held on the River Ara on June

1, 2 and 3, with twelve of the leading college crews of the country taking part. The crews competed were the Tokyo Imperial University, the Tokyo University of Commerce, Keio, Waseda, Meiji, Nihon, Takudai, Japan Medical, the Tokyo School of Foreign Languages, Okura Higher Commercial, the Kyoto Imperial and Doshisha.

Several upsets featured the tryout through excellent performances by new comers such as Nihon and Takudai, resulting Waseda, the 1932 Olympic crew, being eliminated on the first-day race. Keio, the 1934 national and inter-college champion, was also defeated on the second day by Nihon. The Tokyo Imperial University eight, however, finally won a victory, by defeating Nihon by two lengths in the deciding race on the third day. The winner's time for

the 2,000-metre course was 6 minutes flat and that of Nihon 6 minutes 7 seconds. The experts and officials of the Japan Rowing Association predict that the Imperial crew will

be placed in the next Olympic races after a year of training, as it finished the race with the excellent time.

Members of the Imperial crew are :

Position	Names	Age	Height	Weight
Cox	Tadashi Kirishima	23	5.1 feet	96 pounds
Stroke	Tadashi Negishi	23	5.6	129
7	Katsu Kashiwabara	21	5.6	137
6	Mondo Sekigawa	22	5.9	160
5	Isamu Mita	22	5.9	140
4	Osamu Kitamura	23	5.6	143
3	Haruyoshi Nakagawa	23	5.7	143
2	Takeo Hori	22	5.6	132
Bow	Yoshiteru Suzuki	24	5.5	130
	Average Height		5.6 feet	
	Average Weight		134 pounds	
	Coach		Mr. Shuhei Seta.	

Horsemanship

Japan's horsemanship won international recognition at the Tenth Olympiad at Los Angeles when Lieutenant Baron Takeichi Nishi, of the Japanese Army, won the Prix des Nations and had the flag of the Rising Sun hoisted. Horsemanship was widely practised by the warriors of the feudal period as a military art. The Japanese army attaches importance to horsemanship and takes great pains in training officers and men. Horsemanship is also gaining popularity among college students and even women. There are at present about 15 clubs in large cities, and many universities and colleges have their own riding societies. Horse racing regained popularity with the use of pari-mutual tickets under strict restrictions in 1923. The Government encourages racing by granting aids. There are more than a score of race clubs throughout the country, most of the races being held semi-annually, that is in the spring and autumn.

Five military officers were selected to represent Japan in the equestrian event of the 11th Olympic Games at

Berlin 1936, following a series of tryouts held during 1935 and early 1936. The decision was made on January 10 by the Japan International Horsemanship Association. They are :

Major Seitaro Otaki, Captain Asanosuke Matui, Captain Baron Takenosuke Nishi, Lieutenant Hiroji Inaba and Lieutenant Manabu Iwabashi. Names of their mounts which the riders will take to Berlin are Ascott, Shisei, Bunsen, Galloping Ghost, Farles, Asa-Fuji, Uranus and Enraku.

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	"

Name	System	Number of courses	Prefecture
Fujigaya	"	18	Chiba
Mutsumi	"	18	"
Abiko	Club	18	Chiba
Kashiwa	Public	9	"
Takanodai	Club	18	"
Sagami	"	18	Kanagawa
Fujisawa	Semi-public	18	"
Fujisawa			
Merry Golf	Club (ladies)	9	"
Hodogaya	Club	18	"
Sengoku-hara	Public	9	9
Asaka	Club	18	Saitama
Kasumigaseki	"	36	"
Kawaguchi	Public	9	"
Kawana			
Ohsima course	"	18	Shizuoka
Fuji course	Club	18	"
Karuizawa	"	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
Hakodate	"	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	Kanekichi Nakamura
1934	Abandoned by storm
1935	Tomekichi Miyamoto

Miyamoto defeated Toichiro Toda by 296 to 304 in the 1935 tournament which was played for three days, beginning October 30, on the Asaka course, Tokyo. 85 players took part.

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

The 29th national amateur championships were held for three days, beginning June 3, on the Abiko course, Chiba.

Semi-finals	
Kihei Narimiya	beat Sadateru Kiba, one up.
Giichi Sato	beat Naoyasu Nabeshima, one up.

Finals	
Sato	beat Narimiya, one up.

National Professional Championship tournament	
1931	Rokuzo Asami
1932	Montess
1933	Montess
1934	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1935	Toichiro Toda

Toda beat Seisui Chin in the 36-hole final match, 7 and 3, on the Sagami course, Kanagawa, on October 26.

Skiing and Skating

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

Skating is an older game than skiing in this country. As a sport for the general public, an exhibition was first given about 1907 on Lake Suwa, in Nagano prefecture. The All-Japan Skating Championship

Meet for speed skating, figure skating and ice hockey is held there yearly. At Nikko, a rink of tremendous size was laid in the winter of 1932 to permit the public to enjoy the pastime. 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)	
Akagi-yama	Gumma
Iwano-hara	Gumma
Mizukami	"
Uzawa-onsen	Niigata
Ojiya	"
Doai	"
(Shin-etsu line)	
Kusatsu	Gumma
Kazawa	"
Sugadaira	Nagano
Kanbayashi	"
Hoppo	"
Kumanoyu	"
Iiyama	"
Nozawa	"
Akakura	"
Ikenodaira	"
Seki	Niigata
Tsubame-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	"

name	Prefecture
Sankakuyama (Sapporo)	Hokkaido
Teine (Sapporo)	"
Midorigaoka (Otaru)	"
Foot of Tokachidake	"
(Karafuto line)	
Toyohara	Karafuto
Asahidake	Karafuto
Ohdomari	"
Ochiai	"
Maoka	"

ALPINE SKI GROUNDS

Shirouma	Nagano
Norikura	"
Kamikochi	"

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

Akagi, Sankakuyama, Nozawa, Iiyama, Numajiri and Toyohara

Other Sports

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

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

Results of the games were:

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

Members of the American team were:

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

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

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

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

In December, the Tokyo Collegiate American Football League was formed among Meiji, Waseda and Rikkyo, and the league games were played in the same month, with Meiji capturing

the first championship by two wins over Rikkyo and Waseda. Waseda finished second, winning over Rikkyo and losing to Meiji, and Rikkyo took third place, losing all games. Hosei and Keio joined the League later.

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

Wrestling Wrestling in Japan has not shown sufficient progress but she 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.

Fencing This sport is still in the elementary stage in Japan. With Hosei University first, teams have been formed in the other universities and the women fencers are increasing in numbers.

CHAPTER XXXVII

AMUSEMENTS AND CALENDAR OF ANNUAL EVENTS

Amusements

The Drama

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

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

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

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

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

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

The germs of the popular drama

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

No Drama

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

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

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

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

The No pieces, numbering more

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The Doll Theatre and Joruri

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

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

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

Yosé, or Story-Telling

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

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

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

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

A story-teller might talk of a stubborn fellow, beginning something like this:

Stubbornness has its own ways and puts men to confusion many times.

Goro: "Good morning! Is Mr. Kichibei in?"

Kichibei: "Oh, it is Goro. Come in!"

Goro: "It is a long time since we met last. I have come here to ask for your help."

Kichibei: "What's the matter?"

Goro: "It is something that requires your consent by all means. Please say 'yes' first."

Kichibei: "It's too sudden. How can I say 'yes' before I know what your request?"

Goro: "Yet, I must hear your 'yes' before I speak of my request."

Kichibei: "You are unreasonable. We are good friends. I will say 'yes' if it is in my power."

Goro: "I don't like to speak of the matter unless you say 'yes'.That is, I want to borrow some money!"

Kichibei: "Oh, that's it!well, how much do you want?"

Goro: "Only 30 yen."

Kichibei: "30 yen? If it were 4 or 5 yen. But 30 yen is too much to let you have right away."

Goro: "Don't say that. I am sure you have that much at any time. Please let me have it."

Kichibei: "I have not so much cash on hand; No."

Goro: "Yes, you have!"

Kichibei: "Would you like to look through my pocket?"

Goro: "But you have. You have houses to rent, shares to sell. Why should you not have 30 yen in your pocket?"

Kichibei: "Don't talk nonsense. I have no money."

Goro: "I absolutely need 30 yen to-day, or my honour is lost. Please give me 30 yen. I will not budge from here until you say 'yes'."

Kichibei: "Stubborn fellow! Have I ever borrowed any money from you? Get out of here!"

Goro: "I am determined not to leave here unless I get the 30 yen."

Kichibei: "Now, joking apart, you can stay here as long as you like. But I don't promise you to give you even a grain of rice."

Goro: "I may stay here for 5 days, even a week! -I will make my own arrangements for my stay. I don't ask you to give me a ball of rice, but will send to the restaurant there for meals."

I have enough tobacco for a week, too."

Kichibei: "H'm. Didn't you say you needed 30 yen to-day or your honour would be lost?"

Goro: "Yes, Sir."

Kichibei: "And you are going to sit here for a week! What of your honour, then?"

Goro: "Let it be as it may! I shall have 30 yen from your pocket when I leave here, anyhow!"

Kichibei: "Burglar! I shall have to send for a policeman to drag you away."

Goro: "All right, Mr. Kichibei....."

Kichibei: "What?"

Goro: "You said you would call a policeman to drag me away, didn't you?.....Well, do as you please. I may be put into prison and go to heaven, or even to hell.And then you and your family will be driven from the earth by terror of my ghost!"

Kichibei: "Don't try to frighten me. Are you out of your senses?You'd better tell me why you need 30 yen right away or your man is disgraced."

Goro: "Thanks. Listen to me. The man who lent me 30 yen is an absolutely stubborn fellow. His neck is as strong as the Jew and his wife's neck is as strong and his son's neck is as strong either even as my own neck, you know."

Kichibei: "Sure they are, as long as you say they are!"

Goro: "I asked him to lend me 30 yen on the first of this month. He let me have the money unconditionally without a bond. No interest, no bond! and I was so grateful to him that I swore in my mind that I should repay the sum at the end of the month. That was the first of this month and this is the 31st, and, you see, I must repay him the sum or my man is done away!"

Kichibei: "You said, the gentleman lent you the money unconditionally. That is to say, it could be repaid at any time convenient to you."

Goro: "Certainly, that is what he said to me. But, what I myself swore in my mind was different. I limited it myself to one month. I cannot tell a lie to my own conscience. Please let me have 30 yen, or I disgrace myself!"

Kichibei: "Well, well. You are a great man! A conscientious man you are! You shall have the money. (To a boy) Hey, bring 30 yen out of the drawer.....Take the money. I also will not ask you to leave a bond with me, for I love your honesty. Return it to me at the end of next month. Are you sure you can?"

Goro: "Thank you ever so much! Pardon me. I shall hand the money to my gentleman before it slips through my fingers."

Kichibei: "Make haste. Go straight to him!"

Goro: "Sure I will. Good bye.".....

Goro: Good afternoon, how are you?"

Zentaro: "Who is it?Oh, Mr. Goro. You are welcome. Come in!"

Goro: "Thank you for your kindness the other day."

Zentaro: "Don't mention it. What's the matter with you today?"

Goro: "Please count the money. I am glad to return it with my hearty thanks."

Zentaro: "What did you say?"

Goro: "That's the 30 yen I borrowed"

Zentaro: "30 yen?"

Goro: "You have forgotten it? You must be a great man to forget your claim."

Zentaro: "No, I am not so generous as to forget my claim on the 30 yen. But, do you mean to return it to me now?"

Goro: "Yes, Sir. With thanks."

Zentaro: "Surely I lent you the money. But didn't I say that you might have it for as long as you liked?"

Goro: "Yes, Sir."

Zentaro: "I cannot see in your face that you are returning it with an easy heart. I am sure that you have made some effort to hand it over to me now, and therefore, I cannot take it back yet. I meant to help you indeed, and I still mean to."

Goro: "Please take the money. I have borrowed it from a gentleman after much pleading. Please take it."

Zentaro: "What? You have borrowed it with much pleading? Is it an easy money for you. No, I cannot take such money. Take it back."

Goro: "Do you think I can return it to the gentleman now?Please take it from me."

Zentaro: "No. Pay me when you are rich enough. I cannot take it till then. Get away quickly or you shall have your legs broken."

Goro says to himself running away from Zentaro: "Well, well.....What shall I do? He must be out of his mind to refuse the money." And coming back to Kichibei: "Good afternoon, Sir."

Kichibei: "What? You took quite a long time to return the money to your benefactor, eh?"

Goro: "Yes, Sir. He is much more stubborn than I thought. He insists that he lent me the money until my earliest convenience. And.....and this money is now out of use."

Kichibei: "What? Do you say the money is out of use?"

Goro: "Yes, Sir."

Kichibei: "Goro san. Do you remember that I was unwilling to let you have the money. But I lent it to you, nevertheless. I was moved by your spirit of honesty. I said, do you remember, that I wanted to have the money returned on the last day of next month. Do you think I am so dishonest as to take it back

on the very day I lent it you?"

Goro: "Be it as you say, it has become of no use to me anyway."

Kichibei: "Am I responsible for that? Don't fool me. Can't you say to your gentleman that you are returning it at your first convenience because you got a bonus or drew a prize or were awarded 30 yen by lot at the Metropolitan Police Headquarters for catching a rat under the Pest Prevention Law? Go back to him once more!"

Goro: "I don't like to tell a lie. It's against my nature. Please take it. Do not be as stubborn as the other gentleman."

Kichibei: "No, no. At the end of next month you shall bring the money. At no other time will I receive it. Get you back, or you shall have your legs broken!"

Goro, again scared to death: "Save me! I will go away, yes I will!" Says to himself again, "What shall I do? Where shall the money go?" Coming again to Zentaro's, Goro: "Good evening, Zentaro san!"

Zentaro: "Good fellow, now you have left the money with your gentleman, eh?"

Goro: "I beg your pardon, Sir."

Zentaro: "What? You still have the money? What's the matter?"

Goro: "To tell the truth, Sir. My master gave me plenty of bonus."

Zentaro: "What do you say?"

Goro: "I say, I drew a prize.....and, and, was awarded 30 yen.....by the Metro.....?"

Zentaro: "What are you mumbling about? Do you mean you got a bonus?"

Goro: "No, Sir. It is a lie that I got a bonus. The gentleman there told me to tell you so, to tell you that I had drawn a prize and so on.....and to ask you to take the money from me. But I don't like to tell a lie. The gentleman there says that he cannot accept it till the end of next month. I have told you the whole truth for I don't like to tell a lie. Wouldn't you please take the money to help me?"

Zentaro: "Don't weep.I must say again that I cannot receive it unless you bring it at your first convenience. Take it back with you. I forbid you to leave it here!"

Goro: "But....."

Zentaro: "Have you anything to say?"

Goro: "I can see no other way than to leave this money here, no matter what you say. If you say you cannot take it, I will stay here until you comply with my request."

Zentaro: "Oh, yes. You may be sitting here for life."

Goro: "Please help me, Zentaro San. Take it please.....I will tell you why I came to-day to return it to you. You lent me the money very generously, on no bond and at no interest. Oh, I was so grateful to you that I was firmly

determined in my mind to return you the money by the end of the month, and this is the 31st. I cannot deceive myself, and I have managed to hand it to you. So, you see, I cannot leave here till you take it."

Zentaro: "Well, well. You are a good fellow after all. I will take it."

Goro: "Hearty thanks, Sir....."

Zentaro: "But, you must be hungry from going backwards and forwards. Would you like to take supper with me? Wait a minute." To his wife, "Send for some beef, and bring out the best saké. Don't forget to send our boy for the beef."

Zentaro: "How about the boy? He is too long getting the beef, isn't he?.....it only takes a quarter of an hour to the butchers. He must have found some reason to quarrel with a stranger on his way. He may have been taken to the police office on that account..... Will you excuse me, I have to see to the matter." (going out of the house) "My boy is born obstinate. That's my son all right. But what is he doing all this time? He is unnecessarily stubborn." (meeting the boy on the road) "Isn't it my boy standing there?" What's the matter with you?

The son: "Papa. I came to this point to get the beef when I was confronted by this gentleman. I don't want to make way for him, and am waiting for him to make way for me."

Zentaro: "Ah, that's it!"

The gentleman: "What kind of a boy is this! I have met many obstinate fellows, but this boy is the most obstinate of all! I had an engagement, but the time is up one hour ago. I am surprised at the stubbornness of this fellow."

The son: "Which is the more stubborn of us two?"

Zentaro: "Bravo, my boy! You are a worthy son of mine! And you have not yet got the piece of beef you were sent out for? Our guest is getting hungry you see. Better make haste on your errand."

The son: "Papa. I cannot do so because of this gentleman."

Zentaro: "Well, you can make haste, for I will stand in front of him in your place!"

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 peculiar artistic way of serving tea as an entertainment for guests under strictly Japanese etiquette. A

fine powder of choice green tea is used in 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.

To serve this drink guests are invited by a host. They assemble in the *yoritsuki*, a special waiting room for the tea party. The host appears and receives them to the tea-room. They pass through the garden lane from the waiting room to the tea-room but about twenty feet. At the basin filled with fresh water they wash hands before entering the tea-room. The common area of a *chashitsu* or tea-room is four and a half mats measuring approximately 2.896 metres square, provided with a stationary hearth or portable fire-brazier for the kettle. The entrance to the tea-room is so small that the guests have to creep in.

On entering the room each guest kneels in front of the *tokonoma*, or alcove, and admires the *kakemono*, 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 *kaiseki* and is of simplest dishes. The host waits them alone not eating with the guests. The *kaiseki* is over and sweets are served, the close of the first session.

Then at the host's suggestion the guests retire to the waiting-room or to another place where a bench is provided. A gong signalizes 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 seen in the right place 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 to reappear immediately 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 of precious treasures which the host is proud of, and the guests are to make 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 overflowing with 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 taking 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* or the bowl, caddy and spoon, are inspected and admired of their historicity and fine work of art 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 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 listen to the seething of the boiling water. The whole pro-

cedure will take about four hours.

In Japan, tea had been used as a chemical for centuries, the tea plant naturally growing in the western islands. The earliest written record on 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. It was still an Imperial gift of tea a precious drug to the monks. The first use of tea as a soft 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 for study of Buddhism, and the cultivation of tea-plants gradually spread over the provinces west of *Shizuoka*.

Cha-no-yu or tea-cult 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 aesthetic 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-cult taught by *Shukō* were more concretely set forth by *Jōwō* (1503-1555), and then his mantle fell on *Sen-no-Soyeki* (1521-1591) who is better known by his court name, *Rikyū*, granted through the influence of his patron *Hideyoshi Toyotomi*. The formula and etiquette instituted by *Rikyū* still remain the basic practices as taught by 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-cult 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, tranquility and urbanity, all accomplishments making for refinement in manners.

Intuition of seeing true beauty of things in simplicity and enjoying 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 Japanese cult of Shintoism. Social conditions in Japan in the 15th century and Buddhist philosophy, especially that of Zen sect, which had been introduced from the neighbouring continental countries prepared Japanese mind for instituting such a ceremony of tea drinking in unison with the said 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 greatly indebted to tea-masters and devotees for its high taste.

Flower Arrangement

Japanese flower arrangement is an art of arranging flowers and leaves in different kinds of vases so as to meet an exquisite taste of Japanese as a means of decorating the Japanese sitting room and parlour. Philosophy of the Japanese floral art is in the fact that instinctive love of nature found a special way of flower

arrangement for Japanese most fitting for the decoration of rooms uniquely Japanese in architecture. The beginning and development of Japanese flower arrangement, therefore, naturally corresponds to the history of Japanese architecture and way of living.

Japanese architecture which had completely emerged from the Chinese style in the 14th century and comparatively peaceful life of the people in the 15th century under Ashikaga régime prepared favourable conditions for the development of flower arrangement which played an important part in enriching the tasteful life of upper classes of people such as Court nobles, warrior lords and monks.

Ginkakuji Temple or Silver Pavilion which was built in the latter half of the 15th century, at 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 Ikenobō, 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 Ikenobō

school of floral art has since existed for more than four hundred years and is proud of having the longest tradition and with 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 the flower setting. 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 "rikkwa" group which is more formal in style and the other is the "nageiré" group which is more natural. The former had been regarded as the orthodox style whereas the latter had been taken as heretic or auxiliary. But to-day both styles have equal standing among the students of the art, each having characteristic merits and place of application of its own.

In Japan girls are taught in the floral art in schools and under private tutors as one of female attainments and carefully put the certificate of the art in the "tansu" or Japanese chest of drawers for keeping kimono, one of the indispensable furnitures which they take to their new home at their wedding. Japanese ladies find occasions for freeing from their household duties and chatting with their friends in being members of flower arrangement par-

ties for they rarely go out picnic or have no balls as a common rule. Men, young and old, are earnest in the study of the floral art, and though they are much fewer in number than the other sex they occupy the position of leadership of almost all schools of the art. It is no more a monopoly of the aristocrats, and visitors to Japanese homes are amicably encountered with flowers and leaves artificially yet most naturally arranged in vases put on the "tokonoma" or an alcove, shelves and naked poles peculiar to Japanese architecture. On festival days lookers-on 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 invite customers with special flower arrangement exhibitions.

The Cinema

Cinema theatres are to be found in all parts of Japan, whether in cities or hamlets, accommodating from 400 to 3,000 persons. In 1934, there were 1,458 permanent cinema houses and 78,497 temporary ones. In 1933 total attendance at these movie houses was 225,266,000, including 54,901,000 children. They are equipped and managed very much after the manner of theatres in the West, and in architecture, especially in the large cities, they follow the American style. The pictures shown in them are Japanese, American and European.

Home and Imported Films According to the report of the Police Bureau, Home Ministry, the number of new films inspected by the Bureau in 1934 was 4,385 with an aggregate length of 4,005,736 metres. Details follow:

HOME AND IMPORTED FILMS

INSPECTED in 1934

	Number of New films	Aggregate Length (In metre)	Length of Cuts
Japanese films	3,247	2,821,438	6,351
American films	987	947,897	10,128
European films	201	236,401	3,118
Total	4,385	4,005,736	19,598

The largest and most influential motion picture producing and distributing companies in Japan are Shochiku Cinematograph Company, Ltd., Shinko Eiga Company, Ltd., and Japan Motion Picture Company, Ltd., the last being better known as Nikkatsu for short. Shochiku manages or supplies with pictures about 600 theatres, or half of the total in Japan, and all the rest are either managed or supplied with pictures by the other two and by foreign, especially American, companies. Japanese pictures in general are produced by distributing companies.

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

Talkies In talking pictures, Japan is much behind Western countries. Shochiku produces two a month, but the other companies combined turn

out only one or two a year.

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

Radio

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

Complex Programmes It is said that Japanese radio programmes are more complex than anywhere else in the world. Japan does not have a single and uniform culture; the old and the modern exist side by side, the indigenous and the foreign. Programmes, in consequence, must be arranged to meet divergent tastes, though ingenuity is sometimes taxed to satisfy everyone daily. The principal cleavage is in music. Japanese music, both instrumental and vocal, has developed in many varieties through many centuries. Just as in foreign countries listeners have preferences for classical songs,

or violin solos, or orchestral music, or popular songs, or dance music, or chamber music, so in Japan there are preferences for particular kinds of Japanese music. On the other hand, the music introduced from Europe and America is fast becoming popular. Young people, who understand it, generally prefer Western music, and old people, who do not understand it, would rather hear the music they have known since childhood. The ideal programme, therefore, must combine them. If 30 minutes are given to music by the New Symphony Orchestra of Tokyo, 30 minutes must also be given to music that is purely Japanese. Statistics show that station JOAK in Tokyo broadcast a total of 227 items from April to December, 1933. Details follow: orchestral music, 50; vocal solos and chorus, 50; brass music, 30; chamber music, 13; violin solos, 9; piano solos, 20; jazz music, 9; foreign and Japanese music combined, 15; 'cello music, 3; flute solos, 3; pipe organ music, 2; guitar solos, 1; trumpet solo, 1; trombone solo, 1; xylophone solo, 1; and opera, 5.

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

Very little amusement is given in the daytime. The first radio entertainment of the day starts at 12:05 o'clock in the afternoon. It is usually of a lighter vein and may be Japanese or foreign music or a drama. If there is a major athletic event in the afternoon, a descriptive account usually goes on the air. After this, there will be no entertainment of any kind, except on Sundays, until 8 o'clock, when the prin-

cipal amusement programme begins. Frequently, however, the children's programme, given at 6 o'clock for 30 minutes, has fairly good entertainment. From 8 to 9:30 o'clock, entertainment of all sorts is offered. Very rarely does the programme extend beyond 10 o'clock.

Programme and Listener The Japan Radio Broadcasting Association distributed 1,233,908 sheets of enquiries to its subscribers all over Japan in 1932, out of which 358,039 answers came, and the résumé of the investigation was given out in April, 1934. In the questionnaire there was a column in which the listeners were requested to state what item or items of the programme they most liked and the answers given in percentage were as follows:

Item of programme	Percentage of listeners
News and reports	
General news	91.2
Time signal	75.5
Weather forecast	75.8
Radio gymnastics	48.0
Public announcements	42.3
Daily menus	31.0
Industrial news	30.8
Commodity prices	27.8
Stocks-market news	23.2
Employment agency	11.0
New cocoon price	8.2
Exposition of current topics	29.4
General and moral	28.1
Literature, arts, etc.	22.3
Physical education and hygiene	22.0
The home and women	20.7
Science	13.0
Foreign languages	9.9
Amusements	
Comic stories	57.6
The naniwa-bushi (mostly tragic stories)	57.5
Radio dramas	51.2
Movie picture dramas and stories	49.3
Samurai stories	48.0
The kabuki	43.4
The biwa (Story chanted with the biwa music)	39.6
The Gidayu	33.4
Foreign and Japanese music combined	33.4
Japanese harp, bamboo flute, the samisen	30.0
The nagauta (long chanting)	28.3
Modern Japanese music	24.4

Opera	24.2
Brass music	22.6
Orchestra	22.6
Vocal solos	22.0
Short songs (utazawa and kouta)	22.0
The Shinnai (a kind of joruri)	20.2
The Kiyomoto	19.0
Piano, violin solos and duets	18.7
The Tokiwazu (a branch of joruri)	18.6
Chorus	17.6
Jazz	17.3
The yokyoku, kyogen (the No)	14.5
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

Horse Racing

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

Name	Race	Club	Location
Sapporo			Sapporo, Hokkaido
Hakodate	"	"	Suburb of Hakodate, Hokkaido
Fukushima	"	"	Fukushima City, Fukushima Prefecture
Niigata	"	"	Niigata City, Niigata Prefecture
Nakayama	"	"	Katsushika-machi, Chiba Prefecture
Tokyo	"	"	Fuchu-machi, Tokyo Prefecture
Nippon	Race	Club	Yokohama City, Kanagawa Prefecture
Hanshin	"	"	Naruo-mura, Hyogo Prefecture
Kyoto	"	"	Yoda-machi, Kyoto Prefecture
Kokura	"	"	Suburb of Kokura City, Fukuoka Prefecture
Miyazaki	"	"	Miyazaki City, Miyazaki Prefecture

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

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

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

The number of horses appeared

in the officially recognized horse racings in 1934 was 1,733.

Derby in Japan The Great Tokyo Derby, which was established in 1932 by the Tokyo Race Club is modeled after Derby in Great Britain. The time set for it is the latter part of April. The race course covers 2,400 metres, the horses put up being both males and females of four years old. The prizes set up are the highest in Japan. The regular prizes are ¥10,000 for the first winner, ¥3,500 for the second, and ¥2,000 for the third. In addition to this there are given about ¥10,000 for the first, ¥4,000 for the second, and ¥2,500 for the third winner as stakes.

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

As to the weight, the system is to fix it according to the amount of the prize. One kilogramme is added to a comer for canter race for every

¥3,000, while for a subscription horse one kilogramme is added for every ¥2,000. In each instance, the horse is withdrawn from the meeting if the weight exceeds 77 kilogrammes.

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

Other Pastimes

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

Hyakunin Isshu There is another game of cards, in which stanzas from what are known as the "hundred poems", or hyakunin 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 shut-

tlecock, making snow-men, playing with dolls, etc. The large, grotesquely coloured papier-mâché dogs given to babies owe their origin to some idea of the dog as a faithful protector, especially against onslaughts by evil spirits.

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

Chess is understood by all classes in Japan. The very coolies at the corners of the streets improvise out of almost anything around them materials with which to play, and thus away the tedium of waiting for employment. But it is comparatively little patronized by the educated classes, who hold its rival "go" in much higher esteem. O is the king,

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

Go Go, often with appropriateness termed "checkers" by European writers, is the most popular of the indoor pastimes of the Japanese,—a very different affair from the simple game known to Europeans as Goban or Gobang, properly the name of the board on which the go is played. Clubs and professors of the art are found in all the larger cities, where, too, blind players may occasionally met with. Go may with justice be considered more difficult than chess, its wider field affording more numerous ramifications. The game was introduced into Japan from China by Kibino-Mabi, commonly known as

Kibi Daijin, who flourished during the reign of the Emperor Shomu (A.D. 724-756). In the middle of the seventeenth century, a noted player, called Hon-im-bo, was summoned from Kyoto to entertain the Chinese ambassador then at the court of the Shogun, from which time forward special go players were always retained by the Shoguns.

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

plicated as to make the personal instruction of a teacher indispensable. Very few foreigners have succeeded in getting beyond a rudimentary knowledge of the game. The easy Japanese game, called gomoku-nara bé, which was introduced into foreign countries, is played on the go board and with the go-ishi. The object of this game is to be the first in getting five stones in a row in any direction.

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

Cormorant Fishing Cormorant-fishing always takes place at night and by torch-light. The method pursued is as follows: There are four men in each of several boats, one of whom, at the stern, has no duty but that of managing his craft. In the bow stands the master called ujo, distinguished by the peculiar hat of his rank, and handling no fewer than twelve trained birds with the surpassing skill and coolness that have earned for the sportsmen of the Nagara River in Gifu prefecture their unrivalled pre-eminence. Amidships is another fisher, of the second grade, who handles four birds only.

Between them is the fourth man, called kako, from the bamboo striking instrument of that name, with which he makes the clatter necessary for keeping the birds up to their work; he also encourages them shouts and cries, looks after square apparatus, etc., and is ready to give aid if required. Each cormorant wears at the base of its neck a metal ring, drawn tight enough to marketable fish from passing below it, but at the same time loose enough—for it is never removed—to admit the smaller prey, which serves as food. Round the body is a cord, having attached to it at the middle of the back a short strip of stiffish whalebone, by which the great awkward bird may be conveniently lowered into the water or lifted out when at work; and to this whalebone is looped a thin rein of spruce fibre, twelve feet long, and so far wanting in pliancy as to minimize the chance of entanglement. When the fishing-ground is reached, the master lowers his twelve birds one by one into the stream and gathers their reins into his left hand, manipulating the latter thereafter with his right as occasion requires. No. 2 does the same with his four birds; the kako starts in with his volleys of noise; and forthwith the cormorants set to at their work in the heartiest and jolliest way, diving and ducking with wonderful swiftness as the astonished fish come flocking towards the blaze of the light. The master must handle his twelve strings so deftly that, let the birds dash hither and thither as they will, there shall be no impediment or fouling. He must have his eyes everywhere and his hands following his eyes. Specially must he watch for the moment when any of his flock is gorged,—a fact generally made known by the bird itself, which then swims about in a foolish, helpless way, with its head and swol-

len 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

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

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."

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 three most important National Holidays of Japan, the others being the Imperial Birthday celebration and the celebration commemorating the anniversary of the accession of the Emperor Jimmu, the first Emperor of Japan, in 660 B. C.

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

2nd Beginning of Work—This day is known as *shigoto hajimé*, or beginning of work and is marked with ceremonies for the beginning of all sorts of activities which are to be executed properly and well in the right spirit, in the hope that everything will go on in the same happy way for the rest of the year. Young school children study calligraphy for the first time in the year. Carpenters begin the day by using their professional tools. *Geisha* tune up their *samisen* and practise a piece or two of music. The first delivery of goods is undertaken by all wholesale stores in a spirit of celebration. The last named is called *hatsu-ni*, or first merchandise. Cars on which goods are to be delivered on this day are fully decorated, and the carriers and delivery men, usually drunk, enter into the spirit of the thing, although this custom is observed in recent years with less ostentation than formerly.

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

3rd Genshi-sai, a national holiday, celebrating the auspicious origin of the Imperial Throne at the beginning of the year, is observed on the third day before the Imperial Sanctuary in the Imperial Palace. The ceremony is attended by the Emperor, members of the Imperial family, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, high officials of the Government and members of the peerage. In the morning the front of the *Nijubashi*, the bridge at the main entrance to the Imperial Palace, presents a glit-

tering scene as the dignitaries of the nation arrive at the palace in their State uniforms to participate in the court function. The New Year holidays come to an end on this day.

4th Beginning of Politics—All normal functions of the State are resumed on this day and government and private offices re-open. The Ministers of State make various important reports to the Emperor, and the Minister of the Imperial Household also gives an account of the ceremonies performed at the Grand Shrine of *Isé* and the other government-protected shrines on the occasion of the New Year.

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

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

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

Cold season begins—The so-called

kan, or cold season, begins its conventional period of four weeks. The cold season is divided into two stages, the period of shokan, or lesser cold, and the period of daikan, 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 Kompira shrine holds its festival on this day. The shrine is located at Toranomom in Shiba, Tokyo. A feature of the festival is

a fair at which many talismans are sold.

11th The Kodokwan, the celebrated judo training institution in Koishikawa, observes the ceremony of beginning judo practice for the year. The greatest experts in the art of self-defence participate in the ceremony, at which the finest matches of the year are seen.

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

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

February

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

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

11th Commemoration of the Accession of the Emperor Jimmu—

This national holiday, Kigensetsu, commemorating the accession in 660 B. C. of the first Emperor of Japan to the Throne, is one of the most important in the Japanese calendar. The Emperor observes elaborate ceremonies in front of the Imperial Sanctuary, attended by the Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, court functionaries and high officials of the government, and peers. An Imperial luncheon is given at the Homei Hall of the Palace, to which are invited the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, State Ministers, members of the foreign diplomatic corps, etc.

March

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

Emperor Tsuchimikado (1199-1207).
6th The Empress's Birthday—This day is known in Japanese as Chikyu-setsu, and is a holiday for girls' schools.

18th Higan, the Week of the Equinox, is a busy time for Buddhist 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 eatables of vegetable substance, specially prepared for the purpose, are offered to the dead and sent as presents to friends and relatives. All Buddhist temples in the country hold special services during the period. Tokyo old-fashioned Buddhist believers make special pilgrimages to the images of the six-faced Amida Buddha at 18 temples situated in the hilly sections of the city and suburbs.

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

April

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

8th Birthday of Gautama Buddha—This day, marking the birth of Gautama Buddha, is celebrated by all Buddhist temples throughout Japan. Leading temples hold parades of young girls who are daughters of Buddhist believers, and hold

memorial services in honour of the founder of their religion. Amacha, sweet tea, is freely given at the temples to all visitors.

18th Festival of the Tokugawa Shogunate Shrine—A festival is held at the Toshogu shrines at Ueno park and Shiba park, which are dedicated to the Tokugawa Shoguns.

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

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

May

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

5th Boys' Doll Festival—Just as March 3 is for girls to celebrate their doll festival, so this day is dedicated to the boys of Japan. All Japanese families having sons observe this

classic festival. Dolls for the festival are on display in the alcoves of the guest rooms of the families to wish health, success and prosperity to the boys. The sets of dolls displayed represent popular heroes of the Empire. The custom is of several centuries' standing and was originated to encourage a martial spirit in boys. In former days, and even now in some of the rural districts, large paper or cloth carps, often several yards long, are hoisted above the houses, symbolizing the idea that the sons of the families will be as strong as the spirited carp trying to swim up a waterfall.

June

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

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

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

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

July

July 1st Season for climbing Mount Fuji—The season for climbing Mount Fuji opens. A service is held

at the Sengen shrine on top of the sacred peak.

7th Feast of Tanabata—This evening the Weaver or the Star Vega meets her lover the Cow-herd or the Star Altair on the other side of the Heavenly River (Milky Way) on the only occasion in the whole year, according to tradition. This festival of the seventh eve of the seventh month is celebrated by some although this custom has of recent years been more or less neglected in Tokyo and other cities.

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

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

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

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

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

August

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

6th Annual festival of the Sumi-

yoshi shrine in Tsukudashima, Kyobashi.

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

19th Lantern Fête on Mount Atago in Kyoto.

September

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

5th Suitengu Shrine Festival in Tokyo.

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

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

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

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

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

October

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

13th Anniversary of the death of St. Nichiren—One of the most elaborate Buddhist demonstrations in Japan is held in the evening (at the Hommonji temple at Ikegami, Tokyo) to commemorate the anniversary of the death of St. Nichiren, founder of the Nichiren sect of Buddhism. Thousands of believers and non-believers march in groups to the temple, each beating a drum so as to keep time, shouting all the time the Buddhist sutra, "Namu-Myoho Renge-kyo." Large paper lanterns, all lighted, are carried at the head of those processions.

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

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

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

November

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

3rd Celebration of the Emperor Meiji's Birthday—This is a national

holiday and all schools and public buildings are closed in honour of the great Emperor during whose reign Japan became a world Power, and the week is kept as a national athletic week.

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

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

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

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

December

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

time-honoured custom.

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

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

nese calendar as such.

29th Close of official business—All government and public offices close for the year-end and New Year holidays.

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

CHAPTER XXXVIII

TOKYO

Historical Sketch

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

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

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

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

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

Location and Climate

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

Population and Area

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

Year	Population	Household
1878	813,400	235,943
1888	1,298,661	287,833
1898	1,425,366	316,527
1908	1,626,103	376,428
1920 (census)	2,173,300	456,816
1921 ¹	1,527,489	340,278
1924	1,926,310	417,833
1925 (census)	1,995,567	429,852
1930 (census)	2,070,913	414,710
1931	2,085,560	417,950
1932	5,811,000	1,138,220
1933	5,486,200	1,176,810
1934	5,662,000	1,216,140
1935 (census)	5,875,667	—

¹ Earthquake year.

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

Area The total area of Tokyo on January 1, 1934, was 570.337 square kilometres. Classified according to ownership, figures follow:

Ownership	Area in sq. kilometre	Percentage
Imperial Household	6.318	1.11
State	71.949	12.61
Municipality	12.780	2.24
Private persons	403.032	70.82
Rivers, etc.	75.358	13.22
Total	570.337	100.00

Tokyo Enlarged

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

Socially and economically the towns outside the city area have been closely connected with the city itself. The position regarding Tokyo during the 10 years ending 1930 was that the 82 adjoining towns and villages increased in population by 1,720,000, while the city of Tokyo lost 100,000 within the same period. In road construction, extension of communication facilities and in the execution of various municipal regulations the city experienced 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 1, 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 35 wards.

Commerce and Industry

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

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

Class of dealers	Number of Shops	Sales Amount (in ¥1,000)	Percentage
Department stores	36	235,678	24.5
Corporations	2,526	103,868	10.8
Individuals	132,922	561,575	58.5
Retail markets			
Municipal	11	1,768	0.2
Prefectural	34	6,526	0.7
Private	533	37,445	3.6
Consumption associations	50	7,707	0.8
Stalls and vendors (estimate)	14,000	6,000	0.6
Total	156,208	957,867	100.0

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

value of the commodities to be handled in a year in this market are as follows :

Fish	207,000 tons
Dried fish	66,000 "
Meat	3,000 "
Poultry	1,700 "
Eggs	11,000 "
Vegetables	88,000 tons
Fruits	52,000 "
Total	428,700 "
Value	¥106,700,000

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

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

Bank There are in Tokyo 31 banks, of which 4 are of specific

kinds, 20 commercial, and 7 savings banks. These banks have together 346 branches. Their total subscribed capital, as of at the end of 1933, was ¥763,763,000 of which ¥545,495,562 were paid up. Their reserves amounted to ¥481,041,328, deposits to ¥5,253,697,877 and loans to ¥5,208,968,719.

Industry A thorough investigation was carried out by the municipality as regards the conditions for one year of all the factories, including both of those which employ less than 5 operatives, and those employing more than 5, classified according to the kinds of industry, as they stood at the end of 1933, as given below. Also the number of companies classified according to the amounts of capital, profits, etc. are given :

FACTORIES AND OPERATIVES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO INDUSTRIES

Factories Employing Less than 5 Operatives

Kinds of Industry	No.	Total No.	Operatives	
			Male	Female
Textile	1,169	2,562	1,916	646
Metal	2,334	5,410	5,238	172
Machinery & instrument making	2,901	7,159	6,883	276
Ceramic	248	564	550	14
Chemical	848	1,782	1,542	240
Sawing & wood-working	1,741	3,510	3,450	60
Printing & book making	2,298	4,846	4,780	66
Food-stuff	13,455	14,056	13,527	529
Gas & electric	—	—	—	—
Others	2,821	6,415	5,689	726
Total	27,815	46,304	43,575	2,729

Factories Employing More than 5 Operatives

Kinds of Industry	No.	Total No.	Employees			Operatives Female	Others
			Officials	Technicians	Male		
Textile	1,064	34,649	1,002	784	12,298	19,529	1,036
Metal	1,807	33,172	1,858	1,214	26,470	2,363	1,267
Machinery & instrument making	3,076	88,867	6,126	5,102	65,426	9,045	3,168
Ceramic	285	6,944	343	135	5,731	568	167
Chemical	1,014	34,963	2,566	2,330	19,105	9,423	1,539

Kinds of Industry	No.	Total No.	Employees			Operatives Female	Others
			Officials	Technicians	Male		
Sawing & wood-working	541	7,519	442	124	6,104	347	502
Printing & book-making	1,150	27,932	3,132	810	20,416	2,861	713
Food-stuff	796	12,770	988	337	8,152	2,108	1,135
Gas & electric	7	1,114	32	100	932	18	32
Others	1,050	18,154	1,019	479	10,951	5,174	531
Total	10,790	266,084	17,508	11,465	175,585	51,436	10,090

Companies Classified According to Capitalization, at the end of 1933

Class of Company	No. of comp.	Amount of capital		Profits or Losses in 1935		
		Total capitalization	Amount paid up	Profits	Losses	Balance
Less than ¥5,000	4,620	11,697	11,697	321	2,949	(-) 2,628
¥5,000-¥10,000	1,669	9,754	9,747	252	2,747	(-) 2,495
¥10,000-¥50,000	2,672	51,055	49,588	1,373	9,586	(-) 8,213
¥50,000-¥100,000	905	51,491	47,152	1,840	7,630	(-) 5,790
¥100,000-¥500,000	1,641	292,417	241,114	14,132	31,958	(-)17,826
¥500,000-¥1,000,000	470	255,339	187,029	12,440	18,566	(-) 6,126
¥1,000,000-¥5,000,000	623	1,063,196	759,481	74,747	60,346	14,401
¥5,000,000-¥10,000,000	106	600,948	389,127	34,472	33,800	672
¥10,000,000-¥50,000,000	156	2,515,336	1,671,670	140,688	224,271	(-)83,583
Over ¥50,000,000	34	3,536,632	2,805,994	342,754	—	342,754
Total	12,896	8,387,965	6,172,599	623,019	391,853	231,166
(Mutuel comp.)	3	3,250	1,250	25,601	—	25,501

Transportation

In 1933-34 the number of daily passengers carried by all the transportation facilities in and around the

city of Tokyo was estimated at 3,034,613, aggregating to an enormous number of 1,109,538,207 in the year.

CONVEYANCE OF PASSENGERS BY DIFFERENT TRANSPORTATIONS

	Municipal Electric Car	Govern- mental Electric Railways	Subway	Private Electric Railways	Buses	Taxicabs (Estimate)	Total (Estimate)
1925-29	445,085,238	324,156,565	8,192,524	231,322,109	92,100,103	55,047,000	1,165,912,539
1929-30	421,190,264	338,543,611	7,676,447	244,603,742	118,778,292	89,966,000	1,220,758,356
1930-31	369,737,708	322,461,593	10,041,945	235,250,177	106,640,640	95,112,000	1,139,244,063
1931-32	335,439,992	333,336,156	10,673,308	224,560,483	136,858,162	100,533,000	1,141,401,101
1932-33	300,777,666	327,768,000 (estimate)	14,438,676	227,218,397	—	106,267,000	1,148,424,137
1933-34	295,687,416	395,549,090	—	*257,261,188	197,040,513	—	1,145,538,207

Note: * Include the figure for subway.

Electric Railways The results of the operation of municipal electric railways in 1933-34 show that passengers carried were 295,687,416 and the revenue therefrom ¥18,853,506. Compared with the previous year,

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

REPORT ON ELECTRIC RAILWAYS

(1928-1933)

Year	No. of passengers	Fare collected (Yen)	Year	No. of passengers	Fare collected (Yen)
1928	445,055,238	29,078,051.90	1931	335,439,992	21,502,315.78
1929	421,190,264	27,201,754.01	1932	300,777,666	19,196,125.00
1930	365,233,868	23,573,915.31	1933	295,687,416	18,853,506.00

Private Electric Railways There were in 1933 16 private electric tramways which operated in suburbs of Tokyo. Statistics of them were as follows:

TRANSPORTATION WORKS OF PRIVATE SUBURBAN ELECTRIC RAILWAYS

In 1933

Name of Companies	Mileage	No. of cars	Passengers	Fare collected in yen
Ikegami Electric Railway Co.	12.4	22	41,319,470	630,708.00
Meguro-Kamata Electric Railway Co.	23.5	34	34,901,781	1,003,112.00
Tamagawa Electric Railway Co.	22.7	66	16,625,690	990,953.00
Seibu Electric Railway Co.	55.3	39	9,871,097	803,349.05
Shinjuku Line	7.5	25	6,024,602	303,104.49
Oji Electric Railway Co.	16.5	93	15,117,819	781,061.00
Joto Electric Railway Co.	11.2	28	7,707,298	340,710.56
Keio Electric Railway Co.	45.8	86	20,479,449	1,330,541.00
Tobu Railway Co.	440.0	241	11,095,648	2,638,800.00
Musashino Railway Co.	63.7	28	9,897,990	811,489.26
Keihin Electric Co.	31.7	72	32,354,541	2,095,186.00
Tokyo Yokohama Electric Co.	26.3	32	17,469,025	1,208,997.00
Odawara Express Railway Co.	111.8	76	16,576,261	2,013,475.00
Keisei Electric Railway Co.	63.9	93	22,719,946	3,257,318.30
Tokyo Subway Railway	7.1	42	18,544,169	1,357,632.82
Teito Electric Railway Co.	12.8	9	3,046,552	165,907.72
Total	973.2	987	257,261,188	20,422,492.00

Motor Bus It was in January, 1924, the year following the great earthquake, that the motor bus service was started as a temporary measure to meet the transport emergency, but its development was so healthy

that it was decided to put it into permanent operation. Many private lines have come into existence, too. Following statistics give some ideas about their business:

TRANSPORTATION WORKS BY BUS IN TOKYO, 1933

Kinds	Mileage in k.m.	No. of bus	Passengers	Fare collected in yen
Municipal	148.6	509	48,588,514	3,526,547.06
Tokyo Bus	47.9	439	63,067,380	3,895,293.91
Others	788.1	795	82,384,619	5,106,807.75
Total	984.6	2,063	197,040,513	12,531,648.72

MUNICIPAL MOTOR BUS

At the end of	Mileage in operation	Number of cars	Number of passengers	Passengers per day	Fare (yen)	Fare per day (yen)
1928	102.6	502	41,571,352	164,008	4,013,547	10,996
1929	112.1	592	43,582,379	164,777	4,038,891	11,065
1930	122.8	652	39,621,498	141,005	3,476,065	9,417
1931	135.5	658	39,081,124	106,779	3,276,967	8,959
1932	144.5	662	41,235,326	112,968	3,095,701	8,481
1933	148.5	609	48,588,514	133,119	3,526,547	9,662

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

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

Bridges The city of Tokyo has a network of rivers and canals and the beauty of the city is greatly enhanced by the bridges of manifold designs which traverse them. Before the earthquake the bridges under municipal management numbered 668, of which 426 were of wood. At the earthquake 289 bridges collapsed or were reduced to ashes. By the co-operation of the Reconstruc-

tion Bureau of the Government and the Municipality new bridges were built in their place. At the end of 1933 there were 4,588 bridges in Tokyo, 1,264 of which were of stone, 107 concrete, 958 reinforced concrete, 533 iron, 66 iron and wood, and 1,660 wood.

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

Harbour At the time of the great earthquake in 1923 the city of Tokyo keenly felt the necessity of better facilities for maritime transportation, and when rebuilding of the city took place it was decided to construct a pier, sheds and warehouses at Shibaura, Tokyo. A sum of ¥18,000,000 was appropriated for the work and construction was completed in April, 1935. The length of the reinforced concrete Hinode-cho pier is 564 metres and six steamers of 1,000 to 3,000 tons can be moored alongside at a time. Another pier of Shibaura has a length of 910 metres and can moor 7 steamers of 6,000 tons. Furthermore, there are 12 mooring buoys and 8 sheds. The total area of the harbour is 8,591 square kilometres. Steamers outgoing from and incoming to Tokyo and goods carried out from and into Tokyo follow:

VESSELS OUTGOING FROM AND INCOMING TO TOKYO

Kinds of vessels	No. of vessels	1932		1933	
		Tonnage	No. of vessels	Tonnage	No. of vessels
Steamers	12,493	12,984,258	12,865	14,403,781	
Sailing vessels provided with engines	15,498	652,710	16,685	898,774	
Sailing vessels without engine	87	7,560	100	5,488	
Total	28,078	12,984,258	29,650	15,308,043	

GOODS CARRIED OUT FROM AND INTO TOKYO

Year	By R'y	Outgoing goods		Total	By R'y	Incoming goods		Total
		By Steamers	Through rivers			By Steamers	Through rivers	
1928	3,198,593	426,613	55,540	3,680,746	8,515,180	4,157,752	40,171	12,713,103
1929	2,770,603	455,741	50,478	3,276,820	8,029,065	4,557,864	36,760	12,623,189
1930	2,347,223	481,671	46,949	2,875,843	5,805,406	4,199,535	40,977	10,135,918
1931	2,335,767	666,740	41,259	3,043,766	5,279,191	4,269,664	44,137	9,592,992
1932	2,511,708	699,967	60,472	3,271,247	5,389,394	4,843,507	55,671	10,279,672

In 1933

	Outgoing			Incoming				
Animals	2,742	0	—	2,751	58,539	1,325	—	59,864
Plants	—	223	—	223	—	7,532	—	7,352
Cereals and seeds	211,677	31,071	1,068	243,816	692,400	562,200	8,661	1,263,261
Comestibles & tobacco	251,287	65,916	9,717	326,920	693,803	686,168	9,985	1,389,956
Hides, horns, etc. and manufactures thereof	551	421	—	972	1,192	760	—	1,952
Oils, tallow, wax, etc. & manufactures thereof	25,954	102,415	371	128,740	91,925	58,675	—	150,600
Chemicals and dye-stuffs	42,859	50,413	17	93,289	34,294	67,022	—	101,316
Threads, cordages, etc.	11,989	1,902	104	13,995	23,795	3,155	—	26,950
Piece-goods & manufactures thereof	4,413	7,180	51	11,644	25,589	797	—	26,386
Cloths & accessories	—	3,042	—	3,042	—	201	—	201
Pulp & paper	52,581	11,800	65	64,446	132,148	208,432	—	340,580
Minerals & manufactures thereof	338,592	163,566	16,275	518,433	2,458,493	2,209,129	23,791	4,691,413
Metals & manufactures thereof	236,079	165,530	9,398	401,007	85,743	585,836	3,316	674,895
Potttery, and glasses, & manufactures thereof	14,829	25,694	800	41,323	58,831	82,322	866	142,019
Vehicles, clocks & machinery	45,007	15,682	170	60,859	18,045	3,993	—	22,038
Fertilizers, etc.	477,414	36,694	7,587	521,695	44,903	217,339	20	262,262
Woods, bamboos, etc. & manufactures thereof	72,539	55,436	8,269	136,294	967,782	694,407	2,222	1,664,501
Miscellaneous	808,486	129,937	8,068	997,491	957,334	122,197	8,445	1,085,976
Total	2,647,049	857,931	61,960	3,566,940	6,342,816	5,511,400	57,896	11,911,622

Waterworks

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

lower one is 12,148,000 cubic metres. In 1934 another reservoir at Yamaguchi-mura was completed and it has a capacity of 18,824,000 cubic metres. The total volume of water which can actually be maintained by these reservoirs at any given moment reaches 30,056,000 cubic metres. The total 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 discharged into moats, navigable canals and rivers. In 1876, there was a violent outbreak of cholera which impressed upon the Government the urgent need of a general water and sewerage system, but it was not until between 1883 and 1885 that Tokyo prefecture laid the first sewers, with a government subsidy.

The subject of sewage disposal was not undertaken in earnest until 1911, and it was not until ten years later that the modern Mikawajima Disposal Works were opened. Extensions and modernization are still going on. At present there are 7 sewage siphons at Sunamachi and Mikawajima.

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

Figure for 1931-33 follows:

SEWERAGE WORKS IN TOKYO

	(1931-1933)		
	1931	1932	1933
Area covered in sq. m.	388,255	428,158	427,955
Length of sewers in m.	864,546	1,146,428	1,265,477
Sewerage siphoned in cu. m.	257,744,868	166,915,020	155,907,470
Sewerage disposed in cu. m.	181,661,819	161,964,073	143,969,959
Sewerage washed out in cu. m.	24,565,174	3,109,182	6,491,972

Parks

Parks The absolute necessity of parks is more keenly felt in Tokyo than in other cities in Japan because many lives were saved through the existence of parks on the occasion of the terrible earthquake of September, 1923.

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

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

Sumida park has an area of 174,400 sq. m., Hamacho park 36,000 sq. m. and Kinshi park 56,000 sq. m. All of the numerous small parks

are laid out adjoining for the most part elementary schools. They serve as local parks, the largest being 4,700 sq. m. and the smallest 1,700 sq. m. in area.

Education

Most kindergarten work is undertaken by private persons, and only 47 of the 275 kindergartens were under municipal management in 1933. Elementary education, with the exception of a very few schools, is undertaken by the municipality. In July, 1934, there were 544 municipal elementary schools with 705,020 pupils. In addition to the elementary schools there are evening elementary schools, with courses extending over three years for poor children who are unable to attend day school. They are all municipally established and pupils who complete the course are recognized as having finished their compulsory education. In July, 1934,

the number of evening elementary schools and their pupils was 69 and 5,613 respectively.

For secondary education the municipality have 2 middle schools, 4 girls' schools, 10 commercial schools, and 4 industrial and business schools. (For the municipal educational expenditure see "Finance".) Educa-

tion of a supplementary nature, industrial, commercial or technical is well looked after, as the following statistics will show.

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

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

March 1, 1934				
	No.	Instructors	Students	Graduates
Kindergartens	275	621	15,205	9,124
Elementary schools	555	13,584	683,343	115,052
Elementary evening schools	67	113	5,594	1,797
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	7	184	1,005	223
Middle schools	51	1,341	34,794	6,219
Girls' high schools	74	1,683	41,175	7,645
Schools which resemble middle or girls' schools	26	517	12,787	2,067
Technical schools	103	1,071	45,474	10,169
Business continuation schools	184	256	19,789	8,450
Normal schools	3	107	1,521	537
Private miscellaneous schools	277	3,480	51,850	34,806
Total	1,622	23,957	912,737	196,094

HIGHER GRADE SCHOOLS

March 1, 1933				
	No.	Instructors	Students	Graduates
Higher normal schools	2	181	1,519	375
Training institutes for business school teachers	3	70	199	93
Colleges	71	3,558	50,954	14,038
High schools	4	244	2,896	902
Universities	22	3,592	46,644	14,201
Total	102	7,945	102,222	29,609

Social Education The Social Education Bureau of Tokyo municipality, established in 1921, looks after the social education of the capital.

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

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

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

The Tokyo Municipal Federated Young Men's Association represents the Young Men's Associations of the different wards. Besides being subjected to physical and mental train-

ing the members are expected to render assistance in all public welfare services. In 1934, there were 1,012 such associations in the federation, the total number of members being 106,963.

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

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

Public Libraries There are 26 libraries owned by the municipality, 8 of which are open day and night, but the rest, being attached to elementary school buildings, are open after school hours. In 1934, the number of books kept in these libraries totalled 425,724 and that of visitors was 2,690,216. The Hibiya

Library is the oldest and largest, being established in 1906 and keeping 164,464 books. There are also some noted libraries in the city such as the Ueno Library (State), Tokyo Imperial University Library, libraries attached to universities, as well as many private libraries, of which the noted one is Ohashi library. Statistics of the number of all the libraries in Tokyo, books kept, the number of visitors, etc. follow:

STATISTICS OF LIBRARIES IN TOKYO

March 1, 1934	
No. of new books	131,445
No of total books	3,136,583
Visitors	6,799,423
Total no. of libraries,	54

Religion

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

NUMBER OF SHRINES, TEMPLES, CHURCHES, ETC.

(December 31, 1933)			
	No. of shrines, temples, churches, and missions	No. of preachers	No. of adherents
Shintoism	861	346	—
Missions for Shintoism	1,007	6,032	557,709
Buddhism	1,863	4,300	258,706*
Missions for Buddhism	224	341	78,226
Christianity	223	447	54,435
		(Includes 81 foreigners)	

* Refers to the number of Buddhist households.

Social Work

Child Welfare There were on 1933-34 27 maternity hospitals, both municipal and private, in the city. In the same year they took care of 18,495 expectant mothers, who entered these hospitals, and 3,727 through visiting, while 199,330 were attended to as out-patients. 17,633 babies were borne, of which 801 were still births.

There were 121 nurseries where labourers can leave their children

when going to their daily work. Those taken care of are babies from 6 months old to school age. In 1933 they took care of 9,167 children.

The city has 48 Infant Welfare Centres which give advice on the rearing of babies, arrange mothers' meetings and exhibitions on infant hygiene and assist in supplying fresh milk for babies of the poor at a reduced price or gratis. In 1933 these Centres handled 69,821 cases.

The city established the Tokyo

Juvenile Shelter Office in 1921 to give social protection to those youths who are in need of public care, such as those who are unmanageable at home. The office numbered 99 in 1933 and the number of boys protected in the same year was 8,381.

The city has a few juvenile re-

creation grounds laid out in slum districts where children have no gardens and almost no opportunity to enjoy landscapes, flowers and trees.

Labour Exchanges There are 90 labour exchanges in the city. Conditions of their activity are as follows:

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

Kinds	No. of exchange	No. of jobs		Persons wanting jobs.		Jobs secured	
		Male	Female	Male	Female		
Municipal:							
General	37	152,921	119,048	198,280	105,047	48,885	34,040
Day-labourers	38	3,133,611		4,884,463		3,025,678	74,806
Private:							
General	11	95,522	43,327	108,925	77,873	23,945	16,886
Day-labourers	4	170,020		236,604		168,558	196
Total:							
General	48	248,443	162,375	307,205	182,920	67,830	50,425
Day-labourers	42	3,308,631		5,121,067		3,194,236	74,502

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

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

Besides having labour exchanges for daily labourers, the city arranges to give jobs for the unemployed among the educated and lower salaried classes. In 1933 the amount expended for the work reached

¥1,070,915, of which ¥975,310 was paid for 768,047 working days.

Economic Protection In 1933 the city had 30 pawnshops, both municipal and private, and loaned ¥1,635,717.

In 1933 there were 24 municipal and 10 private dining halls serving cheap nutritious meals, the number of meals served being 6,673,189.

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

In 1933 there were 57 such houses, of which 14 were municipal and 43 private, which giving shelter to 2,079,150 labourers in the year.

In addition to all these various kinds of undertakings Tokyo municipality runs 3 public bath-houses, has a house exchange agency and controls House Building Associations.

The Tokyo Poor Asylum The Tokyo Asylum was founded in 1872. It takes care of the poor, those taken sick in the street, lost children and depraved boys. In connection with this work mention should be made of Viscount Shibusawa who devoted 60 years of his life to it as its di-

rector. The admission report shows that during 1933 men taken in numbered 42,328, leaving 6,523 in the asylum at the end of the year.

Administration and Government

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

The Tokyo prefectural office was established soon after the issuing of the Imperial Rescript. In 1871, the city was divided into 6 large wards, but seven years later 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 departments, bureaux, sections, etc., for the execution of municipal affairs and office work.

Membership of the city council is an honorary position, the term

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

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

THE DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION OF THE TOKYO MUNICIPALITY

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

Breaux	Functions
Public Health	Management of hospitals, social hygiene, refuse disposal, parks and playgrounds, auditoriums, cemeteries, zoological gardens, etc.
Water Works	Water supply and extension
Public Works	Roads, bridges, harbours and rivers, sewage disposal, buildings, etc.
Electric	Supply of light and power; electric cars, motor buses, subways, etc.
Divisions	
Harbour	Care of Tokyo harbour
Municipal Office Building	Building the City Hall at Tsukishima
Miscellaneous	
Central Wholesale Market	Wholesale of provisions
Poor Asylum	Protection of helpless persons aged or young
Hygiene Laboratory	Investigations on epidemics, bacteria, etc.
Electric Laboratory	Examination of meters and scientific research on electricity.

Finance

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

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

EXPENDITURE

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

REVENUE

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

City Property At the end of October, 1933, the property of the city of Tokyo was valued at ¥844,648,235, an increase of ¥30,384,835 as compared with the previous year.

Loans Loans of Tokyo City increased because of a great amount of loan floated due to the emergency of 1923, i. e. the great Kanto earthquake and fire, and the enlargement of the city in 1932. The total of loans which amounted to ¥193,158,000 rose to ¥752,243,138 on May 31, 1934; this means a burden of ¥618.550 per household in the city.

CHAPTER XXXIX

FIVE BIG CITIES

Osaka

General

Geographical Position The city of Osaka is situated nearly in the centre of Japan proper, near the eastern entrance of the Inland Sea with easy access to the Pacific Ocean, while on the other sides extend the fertile plains of the provinces of Settsu, Kawachi and Izumi. The city of Kyoto, the ancient capital of Japan, is situated 43 kilometres to the north-east, and the city of 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, Ajikawa, Kizugawa and the Shirinashigawa, which in turn connect with numerous canals, the most famous being the Dotombori Canal.

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

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

same area in 1920 was 1,768,295 and in 1925 it was 2,114,804. The population on October 1, 1935, as estimated by the Cabinet Bureau of Statistics, was 2,989,866, of which 1,594,151 were men and 1,395,715 were women, the same on October 1, 1934 was 2,722,700, of which 1,445,000 were men and 1,277,700 were women. The number of households, in 1935, was 630,232 and the average number of a family was 4.7.

The density of population in 1935 was 15,960 to a square kilometre, and was the first in Japan in that respect.

In 1934 births registered were 77,832, that is 213 a day, still births totalled 5,335, and deaths 47,099, or 129 a day. The natural increase, therefore, was 30,733, or a decrease of 1,213 as compared with the previous year.

Of the births registered 39,891 were male, 37,941 were female, the rate of birth being 28.59 to a thousand of population.

Of the deaths registered, 24,866 were male and 22,233 were female. The rate of mortality was 17.30 to a thousand, an increase of 0.14 as compared with the previous year.

The causes of deaths registered during 1934 show that pneumonia and broncho-pneumonia were accountable for 12.5 per cent. of the total deaths, pulmonary tuberculosis 11.4 per cent. also.

The number of foreigners was 2,975, Chinese heading the list with 2,725 (91.5%).

Houses At the end of 1934 the number of dwelling houses was

551,887, of which 23,946 were vacant, that is, 4.34 houses to every 100, which is far larger than the ratio of 3 to 100, for other large towns in the country.

	Dwelling houses		Percentage of vacant
	Vacant	Total	
1925	17,161	441,881	3.88
1926	19,139	459,938	4.16
1927	24,084	470,524	5.11
1928	24,760	484,446	5.11
1929	24,197	502,384	4.81
1930	26,963	509,874	5.28
1931	30,651	517,162	5.92
1932	28,655	529,687	5.41
1933	28,083	542,062	5.18
1934	23,946	551,887	4.34

Industries

The city of Osaka holds an important position as a centre of industry as well as of commerce. At the end of 1934 the number of factories, excluding government concerns and small ones employing less than five workmen, was 10,584 which comprises 14.7 per cent. of the number of factories throughout the country. The total amount of production in the same year reached ¥1,261,434,000 (exclusive of gas and electric production), an increase of ¥221,783,000 (21.3%) as compared with the previous year. The following table shows the distribution of various industries.

Principal Industries	No. of factories	No. of workmen	Production in ¥1,000
Textile	1,434	43,643	162,058
Metallurgical	2,014	46,974	321,855
Machinery	2,096	48,852	208,025
Ceramics	351	18,527	89,272
Chemical	782	20,792	205,070
Milling and wood work	688	8,003	23,474
Printing and book binding	403	9,086	44,118
Foodstuffs	763	8,424	74,700
Gas and electric work	14	1,070	—
Miscellaneous	1,947	22,572	67,544
Total	10,584	223,245	1,146,116

At the end of 1933 the number of

small factories employing less than five operatives was 36,898, the number of hired workmen was 41,984, the family of factory owners engaged in the works 48,117.

The reason that the number of members of families of factory owners is larger than the number of hired workers is due to the fact that the number of the owners of factories and their families who work is large. The total amount of their production in 1933 was ¥96,306,601 or ¥2,610 per house.

Other Productions Productions of various industries other than factories in 1934 were as follows:

Agricultural	¥ 1,684,047
Livestock	4,152,653
Fisheries	487,734

Commerce

Business Companies At the end of 1934 the number of business companies in Osaka was 7,924, an increase of 710 as compared with the previous year. Their paid-up capital amounted to ¥2,637,249,000, an increase of ¥196,424,000 as compared with the previous year.

Banks At the end of 1934 the number of banks in Osaka was 9 with 136 branches besides 93 branches of banks in other cities. Their deposits amounted to ¥31,344,275,000, loans to ¥25,442,162,000.

Warehouses In 1934 the 6 big warehouses in Osaka received commodities amounting to ¥579,621,000 and delivered ¥574,741,000, with ¥143,731,000 outstanding at the end of the year.

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

is organized on a membership system.

The turnover of the Osaka Stock Exchange during 1934 was 78,251,360 shares, which include both short and long term transactions, and the value of which reached ¥9,828,135,000 or a decrease of 12 per cent. as compared with the previous year.

The Dojima Rice Exchange, which is the oldest established rice exchange in Japan dealt in 42,868,000 koku valued at ¥1,161,554,000. It was an increase of 8.7 per cent. in value as compared with the previous year due to the effect of the enforcement of the Rice Control Law. Dealings in Sampin Exchange were 5,482,910 bales of cotton yarn, valued at ¥1,147,201,000, 3,283,560 bales of cotton, valued at ¥754,656,000, and

833,510 bales of rayon yarn, valued at ¥78,125,000. The Sugar Exchange transacted 4,424,300 sacks of sugar, valued at ¥76,783,000.

Commodity Movements The total amount of commodities handled during 1934 reached 32,921,095 tons, of which 12,280,031 tons valued at ¥3,741,265,000 were shipped out of the city and 20,641,064 tons valued at ¥3,209,347,000 were received in; i.e. in tonnage imports exceeded exports by 8,361,033 tons while in value exports exceeded imports by ¥531,918,000. This is a normal condition because imports mainly consist of cheap raw materials and exports include valuable manufactured goods.

The itemized table of the same follows:

OUTWARD AND INWARD SHIPMENTS

Kinds	Outgoing cargoes		Incoming cargo	
	Quantity (in 1,000 tons)	Value (in ¥1,000,000)	Quantity (in 1,000 tons)	Value (in ¥1,000,000)
Foodstuffs	1,019	184	2,597	414
Raw materials	2,861	329	10,766	537
" " for manufacturing	2,567	516	3,927	683
Manufactured goods	5,784	2,719	3,128	1,554
Miscellaneous	48	2	223	22
Total	12,280	3,741	20,641	3,209

Central Wholesale Market The Osaka Central Wholesale Market handles under supervision of the city foodstuffs which are liable to deteriorate, such as fish, meat, eggs, vegetables and fruits. The amount handled during 1935 reached ¥67,511,210, an increase of ¥4,500,210 over the previous year.

Municipal Retail Markets The municipality of Osaka operates fifty-four retail markets which handle daily necessities. The sales by these municipal markets during 1935 amounted to ¥22,990,325, a decrease of ¥325,038, as compared with the previous year. Owing to the decline of prices and buying capacity and increase of private markets, the

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

Foreign Trade

The Osaka Customs Office handled, during 1935, 1,728,191 tons of goods valued at ¥620,142,515 for export and 4,797,209 tons valued at ¥546,750,141 for import, which shows an excess of imports over exports by 3,069,018 tons and an excess in value of exports over imports by ¥73,392,374. Compared with the previous year, it showed an increase of ¥33,962,181 or 5.8 per cent. in exports, and a gain of ¥23,388,921 or 4.5 per cent. in imports.

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1935, the total length of roads in the city of Osaka was 2,491.694 km., and the total area occupied by these roads was 12,254 sq. km. or 6.7 per cent. of the total city area. According to the city planning, narrow roads are gradually disappearing. On the same date the concrete roads comprised 36.4 per cent. of the total area of roads just mentioned.

Rivers, Canals and Bridges Osaka is the Venice of Japan and owed its development much to the network of waterways. At the end of 1935, the total length of 12 main rivers and canals in the city was 54.725 km., and the number of bridges was 1,238.

Tramways and Bus Lines The first electric tramway in Osaka was built in September, 1903, between Hanazonobashi and the harbour, a distance of 4.828 kilometres. At the end of the same year it was decided that all electric railway lines within the city limits should be constructed and operated by the municipality. At the end of 1935 the length was 104.5 kilometres. In May, 1933 the underground railway opened its business between Umeda and Shinsaibashi, with the length of 4.1 km. In addition to the tramcar service the municipal authorities operate motor-bus lines. Private bus lines operate over certain districts of the city.

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

operate between Osaka and Wakayama; and the Hankai Electric connects Osaka and Sakai. The total length of suburban electric lines at the end of 1934 reached 835.1 kilometres. These electric lines, coupled with the railway lines operated by the Railway Ministry, make up the land transportation lines of Osaka.

Sea Transportation The Osaka harbour is one of the three largest ports in Japan and the number of steamships which entered the port in 1934 was 21,286, the aggregate tonnage of which amounting to 32,546,000 tons, while that of Japanese and foreign sailing vessels was 165,301 with 4,563,000 tons. Of the steamboats 12,317 were of the volume under 1,000 tons, 7,197 from 1,000 to 5,000 tons, and 1,772 above 5,000 tons.

Airways The Japan Air Transport Co., Ltd., operates a regular passenger and mail service with its airport at the mouth of the Kitsugawa. It takes 2.30 hours between Osaka and Tokyo, the distance being 425 kilometres. Fukuoka, Kyushu, may be reached in three hours, the distance being 500 kilometres. It is 1,684 kilometres to Dairen, via Fukuoka, Urusan, Seoul and Héijo. The planes leave and arrive twice a day both ways. The fare to Tokyo is ¥30 per passenger and that between Osaka and Fukuoka is ¥35. The number of passengers during 1935 was 4,645, and is annually increasing. The Japan Air Transport Institute operates similar service between Osaka and Matsuyama in Shikoku.

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

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

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

Education

On March 1, 1935, the number of kindergartens and schools in Osaka was 666, nurses, teachers and professors 12,798, and pupils and student totalled 446,751. As compared with the previous year the number of schools increased by 14, teaching forces by 542, and pupils and students by 23,403. Of the total number of kindergartens and schools the Government and prefectural numbered 30 (4.5%), municipal 426 (64.8%).

Colleges and universities are Osaka School of Foreign Languages (governmental); Osaka Girls' College (prefectural); Osaka University of Commerce (municipal); Kwansei University (private); Naniwa Commercial College (private); Soai Girls' College (private); Otani Girls' College (private); Osaka High School (governmental); Osaka Imperial University (governmental). In 1934 the municipality paid ¥17,230,383, an increase of ¥2,153,893 (14.3%) over the previous year, for the maintenance of educational institutions in the city.

Public Libraries There are one pre-

fectural, six municipal and seven private public libraries in Osaka. At the end of March, 1935 the number of books kept in these libraries was 327,882. During the same year, the number of persons visiting these libraries was 915,082.

Young Men's Training Institutes The number of training institutes for young men was 376 at the end of March, 1935, of which 257 were those of young men and 119 young women. Members numbered 188,031 of whom 150,139 were men and 37,892 women. The number increased by 17,563 or 10.3 per cent. over the previous year.

Temples and Shrines At the end of 1934 816 Buddhist temples, 827 sectarian Shinto preaching places, and 95 Christian churches constituted the religious force of the city.

Social Welfare Works

Relief of the Poor Since the issuance by the Government in 1874 of the relief regulation, the municipality of Osaka has given financial assistance to bodies engaging in the relief of the poor, the aged and deserted children. More recently it has undertaken the maintenance of diverse social welfare institutions aiming at the prevention of poverty. In 1934 three municipal maternity homes received 5,686 expectant mothers and took care of 4,780 such mothers. There are 75 institutions engaging in child protection, and there were 5,282 children staying at those institutions at the end of 1934.

The municipality maintains 21 lodging-houses for the unemployed and labourers, while there are 2 more similar establishments.

The municipality also maintains dwelling houses, sells more by instalment payments and conducts public pawnshops. The last named loaned ¥536,854 during 1934.

Employment Exchanges The municipality maintains 26 employment ex-

changes, and one industrial training organization.

These exchanges handled 223,290 cases for salary men and women and 24 per cent. of men and 27 per cent. of women got job. In day labour exchanges the number of cases reached 1,999,646, 91 per cent. of which was successful.

Charitable Medical Institutions There are 61 medical institutions at the end of March, 1935, both municipal and private, where citizens of the lower classes may receive treatment, free of charge or with payment of the bare cost. During 1934 12,373 patients were taken care of by these institutions.

City Planning

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

After many years of investigation, the city decided in April, 1922, to fix the area for the new city at 220 square kilometres, which includes the old city. Owing to the experiences gained by the great Kwanto earthquake of 1923, drastic changes were made in the above plan, which cost some ¥234,570,000. According to the revision the future city covers 227.2 sq. km., which is to be divided into the dwelling district 30 per cent., the business district 14 per cent., and industrial district 37.6 per cent., leaving 18 per cent. for future division. Some of these districts were marked off as fire proof districts, where fire proof buildings alone were permitted to be constructed.

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

Harbour Construction

Half a century ago the harbour

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

In view of great damages done by the unparalleled severe storms of 1934 the city has come to realize the importance of construction of a strong outer breaker, of strengthening the old ones, of the extension of the area of the harbour, of repairs of facilities on land, etc. The budget put up for the purpose amounted to ¥20,000,000, of which ¥11,000,000 is to be defrayed from the national treasury. The work will be carried under a continuation plan running for 6 years, and is now underway.

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

Waterworks and Sewerage

The first waterworks in Osaka were completed in October, 1895, at a cost of ¥2,390,000. Water was then drawn from the Yodo River at

Sakuranomiya and was conveyed to a reservoir in Osaka castle for distribution to a population of 610,000. Reconstructions and expansions have since been made and today the Osaka Waterworks supply the citizens with a daily 383,000 cubic metres of water. In 1933, 500,000 houses used 116,688,000 cubic metres.

From 1894 on, several minor additions and reconstructions to the sewerage system of the city were attempted, but it was not until 1911 that anything really big was undertaken. Then from 1911 to 1927, three big schemes, the last to be completed in 1935, at an aggregate cost of ¥17,000,000, have been put into effect. On account, however, of the rapid increase of demand for water, fear for the shortage of supply was felt. In order to meet the urgent demand the 5th extension

work to supply water to 3,300,000 people with a daily capacity of 862,000 cu.m. was planned. The expense required is ¥19,500,000, and it is to run as a 5-year continuation work. It was started on November 25, 1932 and is now underway.

Municipal Finance

In the fiscal year 1935-36 the revenue of the Osaka municipality was ¥191,810,000, expenditure ¥189,874,000. As compared with the finance of the city when she became an independent self-governing body in 1898 the amount of revenue is 60 times as large and that of expenditure also 60 times. In 1934 city loan floatation amounted to ¥98,937,400, and the total amount of city loans on May 31, 1935 was ¥485,779,761 or ¥178 per capita of population.

Kyoto

Kyoto, known in antiquity by the name of "Heian" (the city of peace), was for about a thousand years the metropolis of Japan. At the Restoration, the Emperor Meiji moved his capital to Tokyo, but Kyoto retained its position as a cultural centre, and today it is looked upon as "the classic city" and the leader of culture in the western part of the country. The city, lying in what is called the Kyoto basin, is surrounded by many famous hills and mountains such as Arashiyama, Atagoyama, Kuramayama, Hiéizan and Higashiyama. The area of the city is 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 755,200 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.

Industry and Commerce

In 1934 the conditions of factories which employed more than 5 persons in Kyoto were as follows:

	Factories	Opera-tives	Produc-tion (in yen)
Textile	908	24,945	120,487,169
Metallurgical	91	1,976	17,364,876
Machinery	173	5,617	80,350,169
Ceramics	56	1,113	5,429,950
Chemical	54	1,028	16,109,258
Saw milling & wood work	115	902	4,826,070
Printing & binding	67	1,163	5,236,134
Foodstuffs	297	3,780	31,611,385
Electric & gas	26	278	10,844,221
Miscellaneous	100	1,321	9,510,351
Total	1,863	42,121	251,967,379

**TOTAL INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION
OF KYOTO**
(1934)

Kind of Industry	Amount in yen
Agriculture	4,168,536
Livestock	3,877,631
Forestry	513,903
Mineral	5,819
Fisheries	51,100
Factories (including all petty shops)	255,210,951
Total	
1933	264,125,150
1932	233,713,639

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).

	1931	1932	1933	1934
Exports	15,276	22,334	28,370	36,984
Imports	6,696	4,317	5,815	8,198

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

At the end of	No. of Banks	(in ¥1,000)	
		Deposits	Loans
1931	90	484,831	150,631
1932	88	453,702	156,344
1933	85	474,504	178,553
1934	80	494,295	208,336

Commercial and Industrial Corporations At the end of 1934 there were 3,169 companies in Kyoto. Their paid-up capital amounted to ¥279,047. The Kyoto Stock Exchange sold, in the short term section, 17,684,800 shares with the value of ¥2,168,969,000 and delivered 2,029,400

shares with the value of ¥211,159,000.

Transportation

Vehicles At the end of 1934 the number of vehicles was 178,915, including 364 rikisha, 2,585 automobiles and 146,995 bicycles.

Municipal Tramways In 1934-35 the total length of the lines was 61.0 km., and carried 97,275,705 passengers, while the bus ran 40.9 km. of the lines and carried 10,763,492.

State Railways In 1934 the number of passengers who moved through Kyoto and other seven stations in the city was 18,386,780.

Suburban Electric Railways On the north the Eizan Electric Railway extends from Demachi Bridge to Kurama and Mount Hiéi; on the north-west the Arashiyama line starts Shijō-miya 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 de-

**NUMBER OF EDUCATIONAL
INSTITUTES**
(March 1, 1935)

	No.	Instruc-tors	Students
Kindergartens	55	180	4,475
Elementary schools	135	2,859	123,293
Business continua-tion schools	42	271	2,722
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	2	48	340
Girls' high schools	18	505	10,885
Middle schools	14	373	7,530
Technical schools	11	496	10,375
Normal schools	2	104	973
High school	1	65	834
Colleges	16	641	6,219
Universities	6	908	10,026
Total	302	6,430	177,674

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 1934 the numbers of Buddhist temples and Shinto shrines with which Kyoto is famous were 403 shrines, 318 preaching places of sectarian Shinto sects, 1,414 Buddhist temples, while Christian churches numbered 52.

Social Work

Conditions of social undertakings under municipal management in 1934-35 were :

	No. of establishments		
Public markets	11	Sales account	¥2,259,557
Housing	5 places		250
Public baths	4 houses	Bather	1,406,992
Labour exchanges	3	{ Cases handled	28,017
Lodging houses	2	{ Employed	11,173
Lunch-rooms	2	Lodgers	10,544
		Meals	145,457

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

Fiscal year	Revenue	Expendi- ture
1932-33	37,517	37,002
1933-34	26,033	36,302
1934-35	27,453	37,884
1935-36	28,527	42,869

Municipal debts outstanding on May 31, 1935 totalled ¥43,592,006 or ¥41.418 per capita of population.

Nagoya

Nagoya is situated in the very centre of the main island. Facing Isé Bay on the south and bordered by the fertile plain of No-Bi on the north, the climate is always mild. Nagoya castle, with its famous golden dolphins, speaks of the glorious history of the city, but one cannot live on the past, and old and historically important as the city may be, she fills today a more important

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

Area and Population

The increases of population and area during the past 11 years, 1925-35, are shown in the following table:

On October 1	Population	No. of Households	Area (sq. km.)
1925 (census)	768,558	161,141	148.142
1926	801,900	168,466	148.142
1927	835,700	175,567	148.929
1928	869,900	182,752	148.929
1929	904,700	190,063	148.929
1930 (census)	907,404	190,379	150.733
1931	934,400	198,000	151.044
1932	961,500	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	151.044

Buildings Number of buildings in 1934 was as follows:

Stone, brick, etc. buildings	27,485
Wooden buildings	252,289
Total	279,774
1935	275,745

Commerce and Industry

Companies and Banks At the end of 1934 the number of business corporations in Nagoya was 3,779, and that of banks 7 with 85 branches. At the end of 1934 their deposits amounted to ¥464,432,000 outstanding loans to ¥197,668,000.

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

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

	EXPORTS	IMPORTS
	(in yen)	
Home trade		
1932	36,010,826	101,770,517
1933	41,596,840	122,252,842
1934	47,397,255	137,081,837
Foreign trade		
1932	64,453,989	69,553,389
1933	89,429,348	91,178,124
1934	115,515,093	88,526,006
Totals of home and foreign trades		
(in yen)		
1932	100,469,385	171,323,906
1933	131,017,188	213,430,966
1934	162,912,348	225,607,843

In 1934, in home trade, shipments of rice, other cereals, confectioneries, cotton tissues, iron, timber, wooden board and boxes, knitted goods, ceramics and fertilizers exceeded million yen each, ceramics heading the list with ¥5,445,497; receipts of rice amounted to ¥22,008,104, sugar ¥18,410,656, lumber ¥16,279,339 and coal ¥18,423,936. In foreign trade, exports of wheat flour amounted to ¥1,904,378, beer ¥1,647,006, cotton tissues ¥44,272,290, ceramics ¥34,602,192,

glass and glasswares ¥1,371,500, iron manufactures ¥2,430,813, boards for boxes and casks ¥2,245,157, and veneer boards and other planks ¥2,683,229; imports of wheat amounted to ¥3,757,978, wool ¥39,571,828, cotton ¥1,720,870, timber ¥5,263,559, coal ¥5,375,219, fodder ¥6,442,311 and bean cake ¥2,751,552.

Exchanges Nagoya has three exchanges, i. e. the Stock Exchange, Rice Exchange and Cotton Yarn Exchange. In 1934, the turnover of the Stock Exchange was 366,650 shares long term transaction valued at ¥24,438,929. The Rice Exchange handled 5,290,300 koku while the Cotton Yarn Exchange handled 1,326,880 bales.

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

Industry Commodities that are

brought into the city are foodstuffs and raw materials such as rice, sugar, timber, coal, ginned cotton, iron, wool, etc., while those sent out are mainly lumber, coal, cotton piece-goods, porcelain and pottery, beer, cement and other manufactures. Nagoya has been from olden times a famous place for porcelain and pottery and in 1934 the output totalled as much as ¥21,467,000. 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 ¥154,921,000 in 1934. An equally significant development is that of the machine and machinery. In 1934 the total output of machine industry reached ¥80,401,000.

Number of Factories and Production Number of factories employing more than 5 operatives and productions of various industries in 1934 follow:

Kind of industries	Factories		Operatives		Output (in ¥1,000)	
	1933	1934	1933	1934	1933	1934
Textile	517	557	29,696	29,631	147,488	154,921
Metallic	235	284	3,569	4,884	10,205	12,860
Mechanical	575	725	25,553	28,580	62,747	80,401
Pottery and porcelain	136	183	9,498	10,484	17,026	21,467
Chemical	123	132	3,454	3,514	14,402	2,861
Saw mills and wood works	354	454	5,708	6,139	17,871	23,614
Printing and bookbinding	131	157	2,457	2,237	7,599	8,779
Comestibles and beverages	226	328	3,184	3,543	35,221	39,753
Gas and electric	3	3	234	203	5,486	9,241
Others	460	650	4,090	5,563	13,370	18,523
Total	2,760	3,473	87,453	94,823	331,719	390,425

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 Kansai line, which starts from Osaka, passes through Nara and Miyé prefectures and connects at Nagoya with the

main Tokaido line to Tokyo. The Chuo line, which runs through Gifu, Nagano, Yamanashi and other prefectures to Tokyo, has Nagoya as its other terminus. Nagoya is thus one of the most important railway centres of Japan. The railway station and the harbour are directly connected by rail and the importance of the city as a distributor of goods is thereby enhanced. There are 8

stations, viz., Nagoya, Nagoya Minato, Atsuta, Chikusa, Ozoné, Hatta, Shiratori, and Horikawaguchi. The annual passenger traffic passing through these 8 stations is estimated at about fifteen million persons, and goods traffic amounts to approximately three million tons. The city is provided with an extensive network of electric railway lines to connect with outlying districts. The principal ones are:

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

(2) Seto Electric Railway runs to Seto.

(3) Aichi Electric Railway to Toyohashi and Tokonamé.

(4) Shimonoiishiiki Electric Railway to Shimonoiishiiki.

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

Harbour Works Nagoya has a

splendid harbour well protected by Chita Peninsula from typhoons. Construction of the harbour was started in 1896 and the third stage of the entire plan was completed in 1928 after a total outlay of ¥15,490,000. The area of the wharves is 1.52 square kilometres, with anchoring space for thirty-eight steamers of ten thousand tons or so. The fourth stage of construction was undertaken at an estimated expenditure of ¥10,120,000. When the work is finished the area of the wharves will be increased to 2.23 square kilometres and there will be anchoring space for fifty-two steamers of ten thousand tons. At present direct trade is carried on with the American continent, Europe, China, the South Sea Islands, Australia and Africa.

Education and Social Work

Social Work Social undertakings in 1934-35, were as follows:

	Establishments	Beneficiaries
Maternity hospitals	6	398
Municipal houses to let (1933)	269	227 households
Public lodging houses	4	179,097
Public pawnshops	4	Loan ¥171,334 to 33,127 persons
Intelligence offices (1933)	4	20,333
Labour exchanges	4	Cases handled 412,859
Hospitals: Ordinary (1933)	1	481,817
Special	2	2,966
Establishments for free medical treatments (1933)	4	128,546
Municipal "Tozanryo" for poor relief	1	245
Municipal retail markets (1933)	14	sold ¥2,678,402

Educational Facilities In March, 1935 the number of schools and pupils in Nagoya was 280 and 191,544 respectively classified as follows: 37 kindergartens with 3,401 children; 106 elementary schools with 141,957 pupils; 70 secondary schools with 35,434 pupils; 7 collegiate schools

Kind of schools	No.	Classes	Instructors	Pupils
Elementary schools	101	2,582	2,809	140,285
Girls' high schools	3	—	88	2,659
Commercial schools	3	—	102	2,569
Technical school	1	—	34	589

with 3,202 students, 2 blind and deaf-mute schools with 311 pupils; and 58 miscellaneous schools with 7,239 students.

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

Kind of schools	No.	Classes	Instructors	Pupils
Business continuation schools	29	—	417	8,517
Kindergartens	4	23	25	632
Total educational expenditure including others		¥1,156,961		

Finance

Revenue and Expenditure The annual revenue and expenditure of

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

Year	Revenue		Expenditure		Total
	Ordinary	Special	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

Municipal Loans At the end of March, 1935, the total indebtedness of Nagoya city amounted to

¥92,411,423 or ¥82.41 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 mer-

chants 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 1935 the area of Yokohama was 135.63 square kilometres. The total number of population in October, 1935, was 704,290.

INCREASE OF POPULATION OF YOKOHAMA 1930-1935

October 1 of	Men	Women	Total	Households
1930 (census)	317,084	297,624	614,708	134,320
1931 (estimate)	331,300	309,500	640,800	140,338
1932 (..)	341,500	320,200	661,500	144,923
1933 (..)	351,500	331,100	682,600	149,531
1934 (..)	361,700	342,200	703,900	154,181
1935 (census)	360,363	343,927	704,290	148,545

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

The following table shows the nationalities of foreigners according to sex at the end of 1935:

FOREIGN RESIDENTS IN YOKOHAMA

	(1935)			
	No. of houses	Men	Women	Total
British	246	281	299	580
American	153	193	148	341
German	94	119	92	211
French	40	49	49	98

	No. of houses	Men	Women	Total
Italian	13	12	17	29
Swiss	29	24	30	64
Chinese	907	2,157	1,208	3,365
Others	200	257	200	457
Total	1,682	3,102	2,043	5,145

Commerce

Exchanges During the one year from December, 1934, to November, 1935, sales of the Yokohama Raw Silk Exchange amounted to ¥603,140,786 while deliveries amounted to ¥7,642,700. Transaction of the Yokohama Stock Exchange amounted to ¥39,381,984 and deliveries, ¥15,635,460.

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

Banks At the end of 1934 the number of banks and branches was

46, i.e. 6 banks, 19 branches thereof, and 21 branches of banks in other cities. Their paid-up capital amounted to ¥108,547,500; deposits ¥387,337,000; advances and loans ¥180,679,000.

Companies At the end of 1934 the number of business companies was 410 with the paid-up capital of ¥306,204,000.

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

Foreign Trade In 1935 exports from Yokohama amounted to ¥626,017,000 and imports to ¥616,588,000, and as usual exports exceeded imports.

FOREIGN TRADE THROUGH YOKOHAMA

	(in ¥ 1,000)				Excess of
	Exports	Imports	Total		
1930	449,838	392,838	842,676	ex. 57,000	
1931	370,662	305,637	676,299	.. 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	

VALUE OF PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES

Articles	EXPORTS (in ¥ 1,000)					
	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Wheat flour	12,205	6,557	11,011	22,701	19,805	27,173
Canned crab	12,872	1,772	10,877	17,726	13,945	18,362
Raw silk	290,794	250,694	262,252	274,691	204,640	283,771
Silk crêpe	9,455	7,335	7,671	13,935	20,632	7,453
Electric lamps	3,892	4,388	8,026	7,750	6,931	5,763
Toys	6,567	6,013	9,360	15,184	17,498	17,945

Articles	IMPORTS (in ¥ 1,000)					
	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Wheat	25,752	17,103	26,809	27,414	25,040	30,789
Crude oil and heavy oil	12,912	14,752	21,568	29,305	38,193	47,751
Rubber	3,205	2,411	3,267	5,705	12,571	11,944
Cotton	25,436	21,894	31,601	41,898	48,601	52,210

Articles	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Wool	14,872	13,959	19,584	29,595	43,763	40,715
Coal	7,324	7,447	7,334	9,145	10,845	11,785
Automobiles and parts	9,227	10,389	9,226	8,968	19,073	20,581
Lumber	10,907	13,044	10,907	11,819	11,169	4,483
Soya bean	—	—	—	—	8,375	13,393

Electric and Gas Supply The gas supply is owned by the municipality. In 1934-35 the total volume of gas supply reached 21,152,150 cubic metres. The number of spouts at the end of November, 1935, was 108,185.

Electricity is supplied by the Tokyo Electric Company. In November, 1934, the number of electric

lamps was 616,650, and the same on the streets was 72,647. The sum paid by the citizens to the company in 1933-34 was ¥4,533,720.

Industry

Factories and Production The statistics of factories and production for 1934 follow:

FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION IN YOKOHAMA (1934)

Kind	Factories	Workers	Production (in yen)
Spinning	103	6,363	13,390,507
Metallic	46	3,625	37,105,903
Machine and machinery	107	11,650	108,944,417
Ceramics	12	686	5,968,514
Chemical	57	2,881	55,231,644
Wood works	65	794	3,846,792
Printing and bookbinding	35	503	1,424,115
Comestibles	98	2,599	34,365,818
Gas and electric	3	292	9,545,398
Miscellaneous	121	1,791	8,325,485
Total	647	31,184	278,151,593
1933	4,572	39,552	242,737,379
1932	4,240	33,905	169,745,432
1931	4,459	30,973	170,880,870
1930	4,730	29,809	189,102,463
1929	5,903	40,066	206,438,349

Note: The table includes smaller factories which have operatives less than 5.

Transportation

Ships Entered Yokohama The total

tonnage of vessels which entered the port of Yokohama in 1935 reached 21,373,231 tons. Details follow:

SHIPS ENTERED YOKOHAMA (1930-1935)

	Japanese		Foreign		Total Tonnage
	No.	Tonnage	No.	Tonnage	
1935	65,619	15,494,222	1,238	5,879,009	21,373,231
1934	64,988	14,383,966	998	5,053,188	19,442,054
1933	67,967	13,879,378	883	4,706,589	18,585,967
1932	58,506	12,904,753	824	4,565,959	17,470,712
1931	65,800	12,905,944	919	4,804,401	17,710,245
1930	73,962	12,803,753	961	4,854,489	17,658,242

Railway Passengers In 1935 the Government railway passenger who left and arrived at Yokohama,

Sakuragicho, Tsurumi, Higashi-kanagawa and Hodogaya stations numbered 36,321,396.

Electric Tramways Tramways were first installed in July, 1904, by a private company and later were purchased by the municipality. There are now over 50 kilometres of lines and carried 43,543,943 persons in 1935. There are five private tramway companies attending to the suburban services, viz., the Kei-hin 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 1934 the length of roads in Yokohama was 2,066.769 km. and the number of bridges 529.

In March, 1934, the total number of vehicles was 92,920, of which automobiles numbered 1,359 while bicycles totalled 73,062.

Education

Schools and Colleges On March 1, 1936, there were 71 elementary schools, of which 68 were maintained by the municipality. The number of children at these schools was 101,090.

There were 21 kindergartens with 1,286 children.

The number of middle grade, higher, and special schools and their pupils follows:

	No.	Students or pupils
Middle schools	6	4,180
Girls' high schools	8	5,101
Technical schools	10	5,230
Business continuation schools	25	3,878
Blind, deaf and mute schools	3	181
Colleges:		
Governmental	2	1,017
Municipal	1	366
Private	2	1,544
Total	5	2,927
Prefectural normal School	1	235

Young Men's Training Institutes The number of these institutes follows:

Municipal	30	3,372
Private	2	90

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 In 1935 the number of Shinto shrines was 150, Buddhist temples 199, and Christian churches 30.

Social Works In 1935 the conditions of social works in Yokohama were as follows:

	Establishments	Beneficiaries
Employment exchanges	7	{ cases 356,945 employed 333,116
Lunch halls	5	46,568
Pawnshops	12	Loans ¥ 678,901
Housing houses	2,063	households 1,625
Lodging house	2	99,238
Poor relief		15,308

Finance

Revenue and Expenditure The ordinary revenue and expenditure of the city of Yokohama in 1929 to 1936, amounted respectively to:

1930-1931	¥16,671,428
1931-1932	15,182,861
1932-1933	16,540,066
1933-1934	18,799,462
1934-1935	15,245,519
1935-1936 (estimate)	14,087,166
1936-1937 (")	15,421,228

In 1936-37 budget of Yokohama the total amount of ordinary expenditure was estimated at ¥15,421,228. Itemized details follow:

Items	Amount in yen	Per centage
Municipal office	975,560	6.4
Education	3,320,000	21.5
Industry	242,178	1.6
Hygiene	560,780	3.6
Social works	403,776	2.6
Public works	903,335	6.0
Loans	8,331,364	54.3
Miscellaneous	634,235	4.0
Total	15,421,228	100.0

Bonded Indebtedness At the end of March, 1935, the total bonded indebtedness of Yokohama city amounted to ¥174,488,006.

Kobé

General

Located between the Osaka Bay and the Rokko mountain range, Kobe 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, Kobe 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 Kobe, 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 Kobe village and Kobe harbour has since been gradually turned to advantage. Since then Kobe has increased in population. Accordingly, Kobe village grew into the "Town of Kobe" in 1868. Hyogo and Sakamoto villages being annexed to it in 1879, the City of Kobe was born in 1889. Recently neighbouring villages being annexed again, Kobe has become a "Prospering Greater Kobe".

Geographical Position and Area The city of Kobé lies on the south-west coast of Hyogo prefecture in the Kansai district of Honshu, situated at 135° 5'–15' E. long. and 34° 38'–45' N. lat. The greatest length from west to east is 14.47 kilometres and the greatest breadth from north to south is 13.5 kilometres, the total area being 83.06 square kilometres,

of which about 60 per cent. is occupied by mountains and hills, and the rest by farms and the city proper. The form of the city is like a long band, and is divided into eight wards known at Nada, Fukiai, Kobé, Hyogo, Soto, Minato, Hayashida, and Suma.

Climate The city of Kobé has an exhilarating climate at all seasons of the year on account of the advantage of its geographical position. It is backed by the Rokko mountain-chain and faces the Chinu Sea in Osaka Bay. The average temperature is 15° C (59° F). During summer the temperature sometimes runs up to 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 1933 was registered as 36.4° C (97.5° F), and the lowest temperature 4.2 below zero (24.4° F) the average of the year being 15° C (59° F). The precipitation in the same year was 1,011 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.

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 9,122.

Houses With the exception of public and municipal buildings and the houses of foreign residents, the total number of houses in the city was registered as 86,615 at the end of 1927, among which one-storied houses numbered 44,473, two-storied ones 41,185, and three-storied ones 957. There were 84,507 buildings of wood, 98 per cent. of the total number; of brick 1,651; of concrete 402; and of stone 11.

Waterworks The waterworks were at first designed in 1909 to supply 3 cu. ft. per capita a day to 250,000 inhabitants, but the plan was later altered to provide for 100,000 families, 25 cu. ft. a day. The work lasted until 1923 and cost ¥12,858,720, of which state grants amounted to ¥3,403,000. In 1926, the municipality increased its water supply by laying pipes in the eastern suburbs to draw water from the Sengari pond be-

hind Mt. Rokko. In 1935 the city supplied 43,659,522 cubic metres to 167,576 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 188, and policemen 1,967.

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	57,123,612
Total	7,352	835,026,015	89,319,824

Foreign Trade The grand total of exports and imports in 1934 was ¥1,582,145,000, showing an excess of ¥943,000 of imports over exports.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF KOBÉ IN 1929-1934

	(in 1,000 yen)		Grand total	Excess of
	Exports	Imports		
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

Imports and exports of important commodities follow:

	EXPORTS (in ¥ 1,000)				
	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Raw silk	125,853	104,700	121,114	116,210	82,153
Habutaé	9,338	13,169	19,478	16,911	14,101
Silk crepe	13,632	12,311	15,088	28,169	51,742
Satin (Shusu)	3,479	4,885	8,063	11,759	15,188
Fuji silk	13,725	6,607	10,842	11,900	12,239
Striped cotton fabric	2,083	14,827	13,571	17,145	14,022
Figured cotton fabric	27,749	9,473	11,446	17,716	21,262
Calico	23,742	16,309	18,323	19,493	20,630
Bleached calico	4,462	5,177	10,886	14,840	18,716
Printed cotton	2,275	3,243	7,452	11,635	22,235
Knit underwears	14,212	10,653	10,652	21,570	22,772
Caps and hats	8,228	9,462	4,475	7,440	8,970
Foot wears	—	9,422	10,543	10,976	9,497

IMPORTS (in ¥ 1,000)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Wheat	6,300	6,342	8,735	5,946	6,697
Sulphate of Ammonia	10,614	8,018	3,488	5,246	7,043
Rubber	12,486	8,748	9,826	18,403	37,846
Cotton	239,025	187,294	279,526	336,839	436,043
Hemp	8,955	6,917	7,885	10,522	10,614
Wool	24,015	33,899	22,975	28,331	30,450
Bean cake	8,777	5,928	4,574	6,432	8,636
Woollen yarn	12,986	11,287	4,095	2,174	1,079
Paper pulp	8,570	8,192	11,840	19,947	28,708
Spinning machines	6,037	3,041	5,516	1,888	4,719

Warehousing At the end of 1934 number of principal warehouse companies in Kobé was 8 and the area covered by the warehouses was 143,064.66 tsubo. In 1934, goods received by these warehouses were valued at ¥623,233,310, while ¥601,396,203 worth of goods were delivered. Goods stored at the year end were ¥153,395,742 which showed a gain of ¥8,086,645 over the previous year.

Electricity and Gas At the end of 1934 the number of electric lamps in the city was 836,176 and electric motors 8,354. 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 1933 the total number of banks and branches was 68, i.e. 3 banks, 15 branches thereof, and 50 branches of banks in other cities including 7 branches of savings banks. The deposits of ordinary banks and branches amounted to ¥5,334,753,000 and advances and loans ¥3,511,112,000.

In 1935 the clearing house turned over 3,088,841 bills with the value of ¥6,009,715,000, gaining over the previous year 226,632 bills and ¥576,355,000 respectively.

At the end of 1934 the number of companies was 3,082 with the paid-up capital amounting to

¥780,819,648.

Factories and their Workers At the end of 1934 there were 859 factories. The total number of the staff was 5,888, that of workers 62,073, and the total production was valued at ¥367,379,325.

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1935 the total length of roads in the city reached 691.02 km. gaining 4.6 km. as compared with the previous year.

Sea Transportation In 1935 the number of ships entered the Kobé harbour was 26,776 with 48,236,907 gross tons, of which registered tonnage was 28,334,334 tons.

Of the total number 22,354 were vessels sailing home waters and 4,422 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

1930-1933		
	Number of vessels	Registered tonnage
1930	24,891	24,915,302
1931	24,200	24,967,856
1932	24,804	24,975,154
1933	25,637	25,665,703
1934	25,610	26,830,440
1935	26,776	28,334,334

Vehicles On March 31, 1935, the total number of vehicles of various kinds was 84,136. The itemized table follows:

March 31 of	Rikisha	Carts	Automobiles	Autocycles	Bicycles
1931	1,046	15,336	1,549	684	65,379
1932	801	12,627	1,549	771	68,847
1933	654	12,151	1,684	862	71,609
1934	489	10,792	1,598	989	74,030
1935	802	8,591	1,656	973	72,614

Railways In 1934 the total number of passengers who left from and arrived at 12 stations in Kobé was 37,242,618.

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 house, 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 5 years follow:

	Revenue	Expenditure
1930-31	¥44,818,597	¥44,991,844
1931-32	39,993,340	46,897,568
1932-33	40,362,920	41,566,316
1933-34	44,305,647	42,652,765
1934-35 (estimate)	49,306,906	50,161,680
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 8,674 kilometres. It has many good harbours on the south and west coasts, such as Fusan, Reisu, Mokpo, Jinsen and Chinampo. The tides rise far higher on the west coast than on the east, the difference between the highest and the lowest tide-mark on the former reaching over ten metres, while on the east coast near Gensan it is less than half a metre. The country is as a whole mountainous, the eastern side steep and rocky, but sloping down more gently on the western

side toward fertile plains traversed by large rivers such as the Daido, Kan, Kin and Rakuto. The northern half of the peninsula is comparatively level and fit for agricultural work, whilst the southern half is rich in timber and minerals indicating good possibilities for future industrial development. The climate in Chosen is continental running to extremities of both heat and cold, the spring and autumn seasons being very short though highly delightful. One needs hardly add that the climate is decidedly rigorous in the north and milder in the south. Moreover, the eastern coast has on the whole a milder climate than the western, the average temperature being some 2° C. higher, except in the middle of summer.

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, ginko 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, pine-nut 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 of Overseas Affairs, the population of Chosen in 1934 was as follows:

POPULATION OF CHOSEN (Dec. 31, 1934)

Province	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign (incl. the Chinese)	Total
Kelki	142,215	2,076,985	9,724	2,228,924
North Chusei	8,236	875,600	598	884,434
South Chusei	24,858	1,393,001	1,696	1,419,555
North Zenra	35,175	1,437,168	1,952	1,474,295
South Zenra	42,129	2,277,275	1,189	2,320,593
North Keisho	45,574	2,320,703	1,340	2,370,617
South Keisho	91,336	2,042,191	850	2,134,377
Kokai	18,633	1,527,953	2,798	1,549,384
South Heian	35,181	1,332,640	4,691	1,372,512
North Heian	21,175	1,541,567	14,115	1,576,857
Kogen	12,651	1,443,931	716	1,457,298
South Kankyo	42,613	1,516,299	6,360	1,565,272
North Kankyo	38,608	728,491	4,610	771,709
Total	561,384	20,513,804	50,639	21,125,827
1933	543,104	20,791,321	42,626	20,791,321
1932	529,452	20,057,273	39,151	19,599,876
1925	424,740	18,543,326	47,460	19,015,528
1920	347,850	16,916,078	25,031	17,288,989
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, 1934)

Occupation	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign	Total
Agriculture, forestry, stock-raising, fishery, etc.	49,619	16,416,178	10,555	16,478,362
Industry	77,481	483,306	8,784	569,661
Commerce and transportation	166,667	1,339,768	22,175	1,528,610

Occupation	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign	Total
Public service and profession	225,226	629,478	3,267	857,971
Miscellaneous occupations	21,967	1,299,726	5,522	1,327,215
Others	21,454	342,258	828	364,008
Total	561,384	20,513,804	59,639	21,125,827

The density of the population average 94.2 per square kilometre, ranging from 172.6 in the thickly inhabited south-west to 36.5 in the north-east. The average is 82 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 Eunmonn. In grammatical construction it is almost identical with Japanese, though in sound and vocabulary it is quite dissimilar. From all these and other facts and evidences it is beyond any doubt that these two peoples were akin to one another from very remote times.

Administrative Organization

Chosen is administered by the Government-General which was inaugurated on August 29, 1910, and has 8 main administrative offices, viz., (1) Governor-General's Secretariat, (2) Home Affairs Bureau, (3) Financial Affairs Bureau, (4) Industrial Bureau, (5) Judicial Bureau, (6) Educational Bureau, (7) Police Bureau, and (8) Forestry Bureau. There are also 5 affiliated offices which are (1) Communications Bureau, (2) Railway Bureau, (3) Monopoly Bureau, (4) Customs Bureau and (5) Tax Bureau.

Position of Koreans For a number of years since the establishment of the Government-General in Chosen all Koreans in government service were placed under different regulations from those applying to Japanese officials. Gradually, however, almost all discriminative features in treatment and salary have been wiped out and in October, 1919, Korean

officials were finally placed on the same footing as the Japanese and came under the same regulations. Moreover, prior to March, 1920, in the courts Korean judges were allowed to try only those civil cases in which both parties were Koreans and the criminal cases where the accused were Koreans, but now they are allowed to try all cases in which people of any nationality may be involved. Moreover, prior to 1919 the freedom of the press had been rigidly restricted. No newspaper except the few already in existence was allowed to be issued. Now, however, more daily papers are issued, and the restrictions placed on the holding of public meetings have been partly removed.

The Central Council As the highest consultative body there is the Central Council which is convened by the Governor-General several times a year to discuss such measures as may be presented by him. This Central Council consists of 5 advisors, 65 councillors, 1 chairman and 1 vice-chairman. One of the characteristic principles by which the Japanese administration in Chosen is guided is respect for the old Korean customs and manners, and the work of investigating these old customs so dear to the native people is entrusted to the Central Council. Koreans attach great importance to their ancestral tombs as a form of ancient worship, and the selection of a burial site is always made with great care. This, coupled with their age-old superstition that the fate of one's family would be greatly affected by the position of its grave, has resulted in the devastation of a large area of land; wherefore the Government-General in 1912 issued an order requiring all people to use the public cemeteries for the disposal of their dead. This order, however, was revised in 1919 so as to allow the people to follow

their old customs.

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 elected 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 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" (town-

ship) 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 County and island 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 council 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 are 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 collected from the people in the form of various taxes.

Moreover, most of the state revenue was from the ginseng monopoly, leasing of state lands, and granting of concessions of various sorts. Accordingly, therefore, there was no means of framing a yearly budget. This state of affairs, more than anything else, called for speedy remedies. When, therefore, a Japanese financial adviser, Baron Megata, took up his duties in August, 1904, his first task was to bring order out of this financial confusion and his work was quickly done during the protectorate period. He drew up necessary plans for introducing the modern budgetary system, and the gold standard with a central bank to act as a state treasury and empowered with a right to issue convertible notes. A rigid taxation system was brought into existence, with the burdens of the people more equitably distributed. The former method of tax collection which gave rise to many serious abuses was quickly corrected. All the monopolies, such as that of ginseng, were turned over from the Imperial court to the government, and a clear distinction was marked between the finances of the court and of the state.

Japan in Chosen Upon the establishment of the Japanese hegemony in Chosen the Government-General took on its shoulders the heavy task of developing the country in every possible way so as to promote the welfare of the Korean people to the utmost extent. It necessitated starting new enterprises and increased expenditure, and the government outlay for the year 1911 reached over ¥48,740,000, an amount twice that of the preceding fiscal year. Since that time the tendency had always been upward, till it reached ¥246,852,843 in 1929, the highest mark ever seen in the budgetary history of Chosen. In 1930 a slight decrease was seen; the

figures fell to ¥239,729,783, with a further slight reduction in each year until it reached ¥219,132,671 in 1932. Mention must be made of the fact that the determination of the Government-General to do its utmost for the economic development of the country and the promotion of the welfare of the people is shared by the Japanese government at home, for the latter is yearly advancing a subsidy of more than ¥15,000,000 from the national treasury to the Government-General. The budget again took an upward turn in 1933, and in 1935 it reached the highest mark of ¥288,388,664. Below is given a budget table showing the trend of steady expansion of expenditure:

BUDGETS 1911-1935

	Revenue yen	Expenditure yen
1911	43,741,282	48,741,782
1920	124,798,469	114,316,860
1921	162,474,208	162,474,208

BUDGET FOR 1936-1937

REVENUE

Items	Budget for 1935-36	Supplementary budget for 1936-37
Ordinary Revenue		
Taxes	¥53,366,263	¥ 133,405
Stamp receipts	15,172,736	26,450
Receipts from government undertakings and properties	160,239,951	19,470,056
Miscellaneous	2,819,892	64,467
Total	240,463,427	19,694,378
Extraordinary Revenue		
Proceeds from the sales of government properties	311,603	—
Contributions	6,000	250,000
Temporary profit tax	323,595	—
Grants from home national treasury, etc.	12,825,822	92,285
Loans (public or otherwise)	24,000,000	—
Part payment for the improvement of rivers and harbours	217,350	—
Brought forward	10,200,867	11,258,592
Total	47,885,237	11,600,877
Grand total	288,348,664	31,295,255

EXPENDITURE

Ordinary expenditure		
Chosen Shrine	70,000	—
Prince Li's household	1,800,000	—
Government-General office	4,247,582	293,714
Courts and Deposit Bureau	3,702,971	71,277
Prisons	5,226,199	84,000

	Revenue yen	Expenditure yen
1922	158,124,617	158,124,617
1923	146,007,225	146,007,225
1924	142,700,159	142,780,159
1925	178,082,882	178,082,882
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	233,923,617	233,923,617
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	—	—

On account of the dissolution of the 68th session of the Imperial Diet the budget for 1936-37 did not get materialized. Therefore a supplementary budget for 1936-37 was presented to the 69th Extraordinary Session of the Diet, which passed it. The budget for 1935-36 and the supplementary budget for 1936-37 are as follows:

Items	Budget for 1935-36	Supplementary budget for 1936-37
Provincial offices	¥26,786,923	¥564,756
Keijo Imperial University	1,808,212	40,498
Schools and museums	1,527,875	179,550
Police training school	2,117	—
Agricultural experimental stations	542,338	14,699
Cattle disease serum manufacturing plant	249,013	3,981
Central Experimental Institute	103,379	3,604
Breeding horse and sheep pastures	59,423	3,880
Cereals inspection office	1,694,621	85,113
Fishery experimental station	175,303	46,170
Forestry " "	150,733	15,882
Monopoly office	28,471,532	3,530,110
Railways	69,334,543	11,206,844
Forestry Bureau	5,755,525	279,788
Communications	14,823,730	1,135,740
Taxation superintendence and tax offices	3,968,395	75,384
Customs office	1,357,802	124,702
Social works	260,455	5,576
Leper sanatorium	488,453	111,270
National debt readjustment fund	27,027,451	3,906,280
Pension	6,938,409	347,999
Miscellaneous	432,542	300
Reserve	2,500,000	1,000,000
National shrines	—	2,120
Total	209,645,526	23,132,187
Extraordinary Expenditure		
Pension for the old Korean soldiers	43,440	—
Forests and fields investigation committee	50,324	—
Investigation and experimentation	231,314	329,506
Subsidies and encouragements	22,096,199	2,201,713
Buildings and repairs	4,427,054	1,997,942
Civil engineering works	12,053,152	—
Railways	24,000,000	4,040,789
Protection against shifting sands	600,000	200,000
Adjustment of the cadastre	87,145	22,854
Encouragement of Korean language	53,988	—
Improvement of land	5,139,251	—
Disposition of state property	170,276	—
Customs at frontiers	50,630	—
Temporary special allowance	326,239	6,673
Measures for the Koreans abroad	1,600,000	—
Compilation of the Korean history	80,243	—
Temporary supervision	664,491	—
Supervision of local public works	122,116	—
Construction of salt fields	1,180,000	—
Development of northern Korea	2,181,458	32,826
Improvement of farm districts	244,374	—
Manchurian affairs	836,284	—
For research works of students abroad	34,160	—
Supervision of foreign exchange	19,735	—
Control of cereals shipped to Japan proper	763,410	—
Purchase of land for military purpose	9,927	—
Measures for recovery of farming villages	—	620,981
Against calamities	932,095	983,457
Against thought crime	—	271
To General Account	—	1,900,000
Total	78,703,138	12,337,012
Grand total	288,348,664	35,469,199

Below is given the latest statement of receipts from domestic taxes and from leased state lands for the five years ending 1934:

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934 (Estimates)
	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen
Land tax	15,617,023	15,810,219	15,422,197	15,853,159	14,738,161
Income tax	1,135,199	763,154	1,006,874	1,325,502	5,114,319
Mining tax	603,477	624,468	744,949	1,009,771	1,390,772
Business tax	1,591,627	1,291,983	1,233,306	1,329,090	1,563,446
Capital interest tax	314,882	332,874	345,881	488,918	447,760
Exchange tax	147,637	195,371	518,605	367,128	497,039
Bank of Chosen note tax	—	145,556	7,326	—	55,078
Liquor tax	12,322,234	11,248,536	11,866,132	12,385,013	16,583,140
Sugar consumption tax	3,181,858	2,393,536	2,397,016	1,517,248	2,643,065
Clearing dues	54,307	145,746	125,694	119,864	91,894
Total	34,968,367	32,951,434	33,167,814	34,391,131	43,124,683
Customs duties	8,466,029	7,401,819	7,966,105	11,157,771	12,728,187
Tonnage dues	44,316	89,049	32,227	39,046	33,682
Grand total	43,478,712	40,392,312	41,166,318	45,587,948	55,886,552

RECEIPTS FROM CUSTOMS DUTIES

Year	yen	Year	yen
1910	3,606,000	1926	13,361,000
1914	4,140,000	1927	10,946,000
1918	15,870,000	1928	10,410,000
1920	16,809,000	1929	10,716,000
1921	—	1930	10,234,813
1922	15,620,000	1931	7,401,819
1923	9,211,000	1932	7,966,104
1924	9,311,000	1933	11,157,771
1925	10,781,000	1934	12,761,869

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 communication, 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,	1,086 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

The U. S. A.	406	2,746	312	432	5,079	2,195	12,935	5,525
Dutch Indies	—	—	—	—	616	2,137	1,431	1,533
Asiatic Russia	—	—	—	—	1,020	1,144	113	—
Great Britain	—	—	—	—	1,545	988	975	—
Germany	—	—	—	—	819	423	380	—
Others	753	2,566	1,591	2,143	6,633	7,170	5,083	12,063
Total	311,354	368,627	465,367	366,394	320,356	404,185	519,149	471,470

*Figures for 1935 are for Jan.-Oct. only

PRINCIPAL EXPORTS (¥ 1,000)

Commodities	1933	1934	1935*
Rice	154,706	234,267	159,836
Beans	19,275	18,160	10,160
Fish	12,158	13,816	7,855
Laver	3,452	3,708	2,025
Sugar	2,537	1,511	2,043
Hides	1,426	1,183	—
Fish-oil	1,177	—	—
Red ginseng	—	—	—
Timber	5,756	7,331	6,458
For'gn-style paper	—	4,353	2,700
Cotton	6,439	8,142	6,676
Cocoons	1,774	789	768
Raw silk	14,009	11,473	9,232
Graphite	1,046	1,395	1,715
Coal	4,602	6,168	3,551
Gold ore	1,882	2,427	3,626
Iron ore	1,907	985	823
Cattle	4,261	4,120	3,169
Fertilizers	22,607	25,258	21,912
Copper	5,732	11,041	14,930
Iron	5,756	16,579	16,220

PRINCIPAL IMPORTS (¥ 1,000)

Commodities	1933	1934	1935*
Rice	1,839	3,066	6,336
Millet	12,767	15,773	16,990
Beans	2,736	3,460	1,853
Flour	3,989	5,405	9,298
Sugar	5,851	6,315	5,872
Saké	1,118	1,514	767
Beer	2,110	1,542	831
Salt	2,769	2,560	1,964
Woollen cloth	8,528	9,915	7,741
Silk tissue	18,445	24,950	22,107
Rubber shoes	606	2,173	3,504
Paper	8,615	10,270	8,403
Coal	10,735	13,167	10,090
Cement	3,348	5,472	3,453
Ceramics	2,912	3,936	3,515
Iron	20,477	28,251	30,763
Machines	12,512	18,967	23,869
Timber	6,135	9,301	9,156
Leaf tobacco	408	3,243	4,546
Petroleum	3,015	6,069	3,859
Matches	1,493	1,144	1,482
Ginned cotton	9,533	14,115	12,413
Cotton yarn	6,800	10,329	7,147
Wild silk	9,412	6,679	—
Cotton cloth	43,802	44,165	22,455

Commodities	1933	1934	1935*
Hemp cloth	1,147	1,766	1,504
Fertilizers	11,453	20,494	20,485
Gasolene	5,464	6,908	7,299

*Figures for 1935 are for Jan.-Sept. only

Banking

Banking on a modern system was first introduced into Chosen in 1878 when the Dai Ichi Ginko of Tokyo established a branch office at Fusan. Later on, the Juhachi Ginko of Nagasaki opened branches at Jinsen and Gensan. After the China-Japan War these banks opened their branches in Keijo and other centres, while two native banks, the Chon-il (later renamed the Korean Commercial) and the Hansong, came into being in Keijo.

In 1902 the Dai Ichi Ginko was authorized to issue bank notes for circulation within Chosen. In 1906, to promote economic development in the provinces, agricultural and industrial banks were formed in several of the principal towns, the Government taking shares in them or granting them loans free of interest, and in the same year a third native bank called the Han-il was founded in Keijo.

In 1909 the Bank of Korea capitalized at ¥10,000,000 was founded in Keijo as a de jure central institution, and to it was transferred all the functions belonging to a central bank hitherto performed by the Dai Ichi Ginko. After the Annexation the bank was renamed the Bank of Chosen and branches were opened by it one after another in important

places. Nor was its sphere of activity confined to the peninsula, for many branches were opened in Manchuria where it enjoyed free circulation of its notes, and its activity even penetrated North China and East Siberia. The Bank also made loans to China, and opened an agency in New York with a view to facilitating exchange operations and to utilizing the American money market for the development of Chosen and Manchuria. Stimulated by the steady expansion of its business, the Bank increased its capital to ¥40,000,000 in 1918, and to ¥80,000,000 in 1920, while authority was given to increase its maximum limit of note issue as occasion demanded; but owing to continued business depression the Bank suffered severe losses and was compelled in 1925 to reduce its capital by one-half. (See Chapter IX, the Bank of Chosen.)

Since then, encouraged by the economic development in general, and especially influenced by the war-time boom, many local banks were established in the country. During

this time, however, the agricultural and industrial banks in existence were found much too weak to cope with the increasing demand for funds, their capital all told being only ¥2,600,000, so in 1918 they were all merged into the Industrial Bank of Chosen under special government protection, with a capital of ¥10,000,000, which has since been trebled.

The first clearing house was opened in 1910, and banks in Keijo became its members. Later additional clearing houses were established in Jinsen (Chemulpo) and other large commercial centres—the total number being nine at the present time.

In 1911 there were in Chosen only 11 banks with 59 branches. The total aggregate capital was then ¥12,350,000, with total reserve funds amounting to ¥366,000 and the deposits totalling ¥18,335,000. In 1934 the number of banks was 11 and their branches 165. The total aggregate capital increased to ¥100,675,000 and the deposits to ¥567,754,000. The following gives a more detailed account:

	1910	1925	1930	1933	1934	1935
	(¥ 1,000)					
Capital subscribed	12,550	102,275	101,425	121,075	100,675	99,175
Capital paid-in	7,080	58,850	60,991	61,871	61,731	65,912
Reserve funds	366	7,024	14,464	21,358	22,673	23,829
Deposits	18,355	217,597	226,563	438,159	567,754	609,028
Loans	37,912	429,361	457,557	730,614	1,047,339	1,013,146

The banking institution which is utilized most by the Korean masses is the Post Office Savings Bank. In 1921 there were about one million and a half depositors at this bank, their aggregate deposits reaching ¥18,726,338. In 1934 the number of depositors increased to 3,156,094, with the aggregate deposit expanding to ¥52,631,553. The following figures show the annual expansion:

	Number of depositors	Amount (yen)
1921	1,416,325	18,726,338
1922	1,590,470	19,875,093
1923	1,694,087	21,040,342
1924	1,606,740	21,029,849
1925	1,711,590	21,531,122
1926	1,795,858	22,466,126
1927	1,910,289	26,961,217
1928	2,023,977	30,787,502
1929	2,078,602	36,286,417
1930	2,118,178	38,852,866
1931	2,283,871	41,432,670
1932	2,494,062	40,939,391
1933	2,840,656	44,807,154
1934	3,156,074	52,631,553

Local Credit Associations Local credit associations were first organized in 1907 by virtue of the Local Credit Association 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 March, 1934, there were 692 associations with 1,178,769 members and an aggregate capital of ¥32,491,000. The progress of these associations is illustrated in the table below.

Year	Associations	Members	Paid up capital in ¥ 1,000	Deposit in ¥ 1,000	Advance in ¥ 1,000	Reserve fund in ¥ 1,000	Government grant in ¥ 1,000
1925	521	410,299	5,951	47,277	66,359	6,311	3,400
1926	547	446,576	6,510	54,506	76,082	8,144	3,417
1927	575	489,720	7,064	63,614	85,177	9,620	3,542
1928	597	530,407	7,599	74,089	91,381	10,889	3,662
1929	621	588,560	8,561	76,892	104,981	12,295	3,777
1930	622	606,813	9,010	80,128	123,368	13,131	3,777
1931	663	726,322	9,279	88,755	128,542	13,556	3,970
1932	674	831,305	9,362	103,732	127,832	14,316	4,027
1933	685	1,033,648	9,871	124,284	133,897	15,647	4,092
1934	692	1,178,769	10,580	139,417	150,107	17,779	4,182

Agriculture

Chosen, though mountainous, is essentially an agricultural country. It is enough to point out that more than 83 per cent. of its entire population is engaged in agricultural pursuits. Though the soil is not very fertile, it is sufficiently so to produce enough foodstuffs to support its entire population.

In 1933 the total agricultural products amounted to ¥641,600,000, of which ¥204,400,000 worth was exported, mostly to Japan, forming 55 per cent. of the entire value of Korea's export trade. In 1910, the year of annexation, the value of production scarcely reached ¥250,000,000, but in 1930 it more than doubled the above figure. Of all agricultural produce rice is the most important.

Ka-den-min In Chosen there are quite a good number of so-called "ka-den-min" or fire-field-people, who use fire for making their land ready for cultivation in a most primitive way. In ancient times, people set forests or plains on fire and then sowed seeds and cultivated vegetables on the blackened land without manuring. When this land became sterile, they moved to another place to repeat the operation. Among the lowest class of Chosen peasants this primitive system of agriculture is still in practice. There are nearly 400,000 ha. of the fire-field on which about 230,000 families or 1,160,000 people are living. They are mostly distributed over such northern mountainous districts as South Kankyo and North Heian. They plant the sweet potato, German mil-

let, Indian-corn, soy-bean, red-bean, barley and buckwheat. Steep slopes or mountain tops, even above 1,200 m. in height, are burnt by these farmers. One of the causes of the bare hills noticed by visitors to Chosen is said to be this long practice of burning the forests. Most of these people are nomadic and cultivate about 2 ha., the average family with an income of about 60 yen a year. After the establishment of the new Japanese Forestry Bureau the forestry police have been taking measures to prevent the continuance of this destructive practice by teaching these peasants a better method of farming; but all their efforts seem in vain so far.

Grains In 1910 the rice fields covered a total area of 1,350,000 cho, yielding 10,400,000 koku, which rose in 1934 to 1,711,000 cho and 16,717,000 koku, its export during the same period increasing from 798,000 koku to 9,930,000 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 1934 being 7,993,000, 1,837,000 and 1,285,000 koku respectively. Owing to the help in various ways given by the authorities to aid in the cultivation of these three cereals, their production has been on the increase year after year. Third in importance comes 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 1934 the total area under cultivation was 795,000 cho and the amount produced reached 3,813,000 koku, which was an increase of more than five times, compared with the year 1910. Millet is for most Koreans what rice is for the Japanese people. They depend more upon it than upon rice on account of its cheapness in price. The Korean farmers sell their rice, but use their millet crops for their daily diet, so that the supply of the grain hardly suffices to meet the entire demands of the Korean people. They, therefore, import much of it from Manchoukuo, its import from that region reaching 1,420,000 koku in 1934.

Cotton Cotton is another important agricultural produce in modern Chosen. The present scale of its growth is owing to the encouragement given by the Government-General. It was in 1906 that the first trial plantation of American cotton was carried out in the neighbourhood of Mokpo. As its superiority over the old native cotton was sufficiently demonstrated, soon its cultivation was vigorously encouraged in all parts of southern Korea, so that the cotton acreage was increased from 1,200 cho in 1910 to 133,000 cho in 1934, and the crop expanded from 660,000 kin in 1910 to 120,773,889 kin in 1934. If the production of the native plant is added, the total cotton production in 1934 amounted to 155,024,457 kin from the total area of 193,000 cho, as against 21,000,000 kin from 60,000 cho, in 1910.

Sugar Beet A trial plantation of sugar beet was also made first in 1906. As it proved quite satisfactory every governmental assistance

was given to its cultivation. A subsidy was given to ensure a sufficient distribution of improved seeds. Further exhaustive experiments proved that Keijo and its vicinity is best suited for sugar beet cultivation and consequently the authorities encouraged and assisted its plantation in that part of Chosen, with very good results.

Fruit Farming Fruit farming has also become a thriving industry of the erstwhile hermit kingdom. Soil and climate alike are suitable, especially for the growing of apples, and the government authorities are extending their assistance in this direction likewise, with the object of improving the quality of the fruit and gaining for it a world-wide market.

Many new varieties of apple, superior to the old native ones, are now cultivated, the quality being in some cases better than that of the fruit grown in Japan, the recent annual production reaching as much as 12,447,000 kwan with money value estimated at ¥4,311,000.

Sericulture By 1910 the Government-General had done everything in its power to improve the native methods of cultivating the mulberry trees and raising silk-worms after the Japanese fashion. In 1919 a new system was instituted for carrying on a compulsory examination of egg-cards and for giving adequate care to the growing of good mulberry trees. All this paternal care and effort on the part of the Government-General for the advancement of the economic welfare of the Korean farmer was by no means thrown away. In 1910 the cocoon production was 14,000 koku and the number of households engaged in the work was figured at 76,000. In 1932 the number of households increased to 786,060 and the output to 593,054 koku; in 1933 the

number increased to 810,000 and the output to 608,000 koku; and in 1934 the number increased to 839,814 and the output to 735,161 koku.

Stock Farming As Korean beef is very palatable, the demand for it is rapidly increasing in Japan and Manchoukuo as well as in Siberia. In 1910 the cattle in all Chosen numbered only 700,000 head, which in 1934 increased to 1,671,000. 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 1933 the former totalled 1,430,000 and the latter 6,868,000, and in 1934 the former numbered 1,500,000 and the latter 7,800,000, 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. Sup-

plementary 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	2.0 "	2.1 "	2.4 "
Kind of farmer	Partly landed	Tenant	Tenant
Area of cultivated land	1 cho 8 tan (4½ acres)	1 cho 2 tan (3 acres)	8 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	¥130.00	¥ 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 of rice 4 to of millet
Number of days open for further work	200	260	240

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 property reclaimed it was given to these gratis. These measures were taken with a view to increasing 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 1928. 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 Farmland 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.

Forestry

The area of forests in Chosen covers 16,440,000 cho which corresponds with 73 per cent. of the entire area of the land. But there existed before 1910 nothing like a forestry policy in Korea, and except a few protected ones, all forests were allowed to be devastated by ignorant and superstitious people. Therefore before 1910 nearly all the mountains in Chosen were treeless. The forests existed only in name. As a matter of fact, only one-third of the so-called "forest" areas was covered with standing trees, the remaining two-thirds being only thinly wooded. There was no system for safeguarding or protecting forests.

Afforestation Work Undertaken In 1908, however, the Korean government, by the advice of the Japanese, promulgated a forest law aiming at the protection of forests, and when the new régime was established the Government-General issued a new forest law providing, among other things, for the letting of forest lands to any interested party for the purpose of afforestation and, if the work were successfully carried out, the ultimate transference of them to the lessee. The total area

thus leased now reaches 1,362,000 cho, of which more than 702,000 cho have been transferred to the successful planters. So far as the present situation is concerned, 5 million cho of the entire forest lands is owned by the state, and 120,000 cho is reserved for university research and as national parks, the rest being owned by private persons. There are at present 338 seeding plantations, where mostly pine, oak, chestnut, poplar, larch, etc. are being raised. In 1934 about 162,000,000 seedlings were grown by private undertaking, since the seedlings raised by the public plantations alone were not enough. Nor is this all. Schools are given suitable pieces of ground whereon to plant trees, and the Third of April, the anniversary of the death of Jimmu Tenno, the first ruler of Japan, is fixed as Arbour Day, a day on which universal plantation of trees is encouraged throughout Chosen. In short, in the past twenty years more than a million cho have been planted with over 4,687,000,000 trees, and thus the mountain scenery in every part of Chosen is steadily undergoing a change with the accompanying effect of diminishing floods.

The Forest Districts There are 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 1934 it increased to ¥57,700,000, and other aquatic products in the meantime advanced from 2,650,000 to ¥49,300,000. The first fishery law in Chosen was issued in 1909, and this was replaced three years later by a new law providing for the definite establishment of fishing rights over a certain area of waters, the prohibition of certain actions harmful to fishing in specified areas and the prevention of individual monopolization of any fishing area. Trawling within special zones was also prohibited, and certain restrictions were made to the number of whaling-boats and to the diving apparatus carried. Mention should be made in this connection of the famous "hanyo" (woman divers) of Quelpart Island. There are 7,000 of these women and they are engaged in catching sea-ears and many kinds of shellfish, and gathering laver and other sea-weeds by diving into the deep sea. The total earnings of these women amount to one million yen a year.

The following shows the marine products for two years, 1933 and 1934, the value of each of which exceeds ¥1,000,000:

Kind	1933 Value (in yen)	1934 Value (in yen)
Mackerel	6,384,000	5,715,000
Sardine	8,789,000	13,334,000
Guchi	3,706,000	3,621,000
Herring	1,902,000	2,548,000
Sea-bream	1,537,000	1,209,000
Halr-tail	1,642,000	1,931,000
Plaice	1,223,000	1,263,000
Cod	1,537,000	1,540,000
Shrimps	1,644,000	1,880,000
Mintai (Alaska pollack)	3,549,000	4,049,000
Mackerel-like fish	1,404,000	1,255,000

Besides these, there are isinglass, yellow-tail, glue, shark, grey mullet, rays, oyster, sea-eel, conger-eel, etc., valued each at between ¥500,000 and ¥1,000,000.

Mining

The present mining law, enacted in 1916, provides that mining rights can be granted only to Japanese citizens or to legal corporations under the Japanese law, and mining rights are treated as a form of real estate. As for mining rights secured by foreign citizens under the old régime, they are well respected. Of all minerals produced in Chosen gold occupies by far the most important position, the largest gold mine being the Unsan Mine operated by an American syndicate called the Oriental Consolidated Mining Company. Next in importance are the Shojo Mine worked by Frenchmen, the Suian Mine by Englishmen, and Sansei and Koyo Mines by Japanese. Formerly the mining industry in Chosen was carried on in a very primitive way except in those mines operated by foreign concerns. Soon after Chosen had been brought under Japanese protectorate rule in 1906 the Government tried hard to induce

Japanese capitalists to invest capital in the mining industry of Chosen, but it was only in 1910 that Japanese capitalists began to display their energies in that lucrative undertaking. As, however, most of the more promising gold fields were already under operation by foreign capitalists, Japanese capitalists turned their attention to the exploitation of other minerals such as iron and coal. Iron ores in Korea hitherto found were mostly of hematite and limonite, the former being found in South Kankyo and Kokai provinces and the mixture of the two in South Heian and Kokai provinces. The amount of these ores stored, the purity of which is about 50 per cent., is estimated at about 20,000,000 metric tons. In 1933 about 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, expressed in yen:

MINERAL PRODUCTION

	(in 1,000 yen)					
	1911	1921	1929	1932	1933	1934
Gold	5,744	2,092	5,848	17,809	26,066	33,214
Pig iron	—	4,819	6,795	4,114	5,605	7,722
Coal	388	3,192	613,6	5,970	7,205	9,940
Iron ore	421	1,716	3,153	749	1,287	1,123
Copper	—	17	1,348	307	417	933
Gold and silver ore	262	557	1,353	944	1,906	2,511
Concentrates	246	1,480	633	638	—	—
Graphite	153	208	511	255	465	524
Placer gold	821	359	25	1,823	3,327	5,323
Silver	6	4	59	552	721	1,468
Lead	—	—	129	64	120	306
Tungsten ore	—	—	8	29	117	734
Zinc ore	21	4	85	—	97	85
Others	21	374	318	487	961	1,117
Total	6,069	15,767	26,488	33,746	48,301	69,172

Manufacturing Industry

It is only since 1916 that there has been any manufacturing industry worthy of the name in Chosen, and in 1933 the total value of manufactures reached ¥378,700,000, being over 12 times as large as that in 1911, in which year the total output was valued at ¥30,000,000. As the land has abundance of materials and a good labour supply, Chosen may be looked upon as a promising land for the future expansion of various industries. In 1911 there were in all the land only 251 manufacturing plants employing about 14,575 workers, but by 1933 this number of factories had increased to 4,836 and the total number of employees to 120,251. The most important manufactures are:

(1) Cotton, hemp, and silk tissues, the total output in these goods expanding from ¥5,000,000 in 1911 to ¥55,359,000 in 1933.

(2) Paper, which increased from ¥382,000 in 1911 to ¥3,816,000 in 1929. Of late years the demand for foreign-style papers has grown, the imports expanding from ¥800,000 in 1911 to ¥8,615,000 in 1933.

(3) Ceramics, which show a yearly output worth ¥9,034,000 to ¥13,000,000.

(4) Iron-wares, the annual production of which is now valued at ¥6,231,000.

(5) Fertilizers, which have an output of ¥5,292,000 a year.

(6) Tobacco, the total output being ¥32,451,000 in 1933.

(7) Marine products, the total product being ¥8,460,000 in 1933.

Total of industrial production of Chosen for the year 1933 was as follows:

INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION

	FOR 1933.	
	Quantity	Value
Rice	18,192,720 koku	¥341,590,148
Soy beans	4,555,517 ..	44,001,461
Wheat & barley	10,370,744 ..	76,055,855
Millet	5,145,801 ..	40,314,541
Apples	11,897,153 kwan	4,649,291
Pears	3,477,258 ..	1,897,427
Grapes	653,145 ..	647,750
Peach	1,101,492 ..	¥ 339,544
Persimmon	5,995,722 ..	1,426,636
Sugar	32,687,814 k. g.	6,541,108
Flour	—	8,101,850
Hemp	5,267,389 kwan	5,450,565
Straw bags	53,844,735 pieces	5,770,544
Mats	5,320,549 ..	2,090,731
Straw rope	—	4,262,942
Leaf tobacco	4,414,268 kwan	4,862,359
Tobacco	—	35,227,038
Cotton	159,415,574 kin	19,867,028
Cocoons	668,034 koku	21,864,690
Cattle	1,663,136 head	—
Honey	968,005 k. g.	762,315
Fish (Fresh)	1,007,258 m. ton	51,378,158

	Quantity	Value
Fish (Dried & salted)	8,015,276 k. g.	2,015,884
Canned goods	147,576 cases	1,452,022
Salt	333,541,000 kin	—
Laver	416,636,704 pieces	2,499,741
Seaweed	5,035 m. ton	1,276,481
Fish manure	76,765,670 m. ton	4,786,038
Timber	1,990,000 cu. m.	13,679,000
Charcoal	21,876,069 kwan	2,208,031
Medicinal herbs	571,754 ..	343,520
Chestnuts	69,665 koku	1,163,342
Mushrooms	94,856 kwan	157,060
Gold	10,203,408 g.	26,066,784
Copper	784,825 k. g.	417,368
Graphite	22,677,066 ..	465,656
Coal	1,306,734 m. ton	7,205,406
Iron ore	258,267 ..	1,287,788
Pig iron	163,937 ..	5,606,691
Silk tissues	—	3,723,752
Raw silk	1,595,882 k. g.	15,931,767
Hemp cloth	—	7,062,810
Cotton cloth	—	15,863,529
Red ginseng	48,525 kin	—
White ginseng	146,615 ..	1,118,734

Justice and Police

Chosen has now a judicial system similar to that of Japan. That is to say, in addition to the supreme court there are courts of appeal and local courts, the last-named having detached and sub-detached courts widely located. Both civil and criminal cases are first tried by local courts, while appeals against the decisions of local courts are made to the courts of appeal. The supreme court handles those appeals made against judgements rendered by the local courts or complaints against decisions or orders rendered in the second instance by the courts of appeal. Grave crimes of one sort or another have greatly diminished owing to the improvement in the work of maintenance of order and security. On the other hand, what might be called intellectual crimes such as fraud, forgery, and perjury have yearly increased. Prior to the establishment of the Japanese administration flogging was a common form of punishment. In

1912 its application to aged persons, women and children was prohibited, and in 1920 it was finally abolished as it was unsuited to modern ideas of penology.

Police The police service in Chosen had been under Japan's direction for some years even prior to the establishment of Japan's protectorate in 1906. But the system which had been in force at that period proved unsatisfactory. Accordingly, in June, 1910, a new system was introduced by which the commander-in-chief of the military police was appointed chief of police, and gendarmes and civil policemen were separately stationed as local needs required. In 1919, however, that semi-militaristic police system was displaced by the one now in force. This new and present police system is modelled on that in Japan proper, with its headquarters entrusted with the entire administration of police and sanitary affairs. Numbers of administrative officials of police, police superintendents, police inspectors, police, etc. as of 1933 follow:

Class of officials	Japanese	Koreans
Administrative officials	13	—
Police superintendents	48	9
Police inspectors	338	86
Assistant police inspectors	604	154
Police	10,163	7,918
Total	11,166	8,162

Education

In the olden days Korean children were taught in school nothing but Chinese writing and classics, but soon after the new régime was introduced they began to receive a more modern education, with such new subjects as arithmetic, geography and the Japanese language. The parents at first objected to the introduction of these revolutionary methods, and specially to the forcible

teaching of the Japanese language, believing that this was a deliberate attempt on the part of the government to deprive the Korean children of their national and inherited traditions. It was due to this misconception held widely among the Korean people that the educational authorities found much difficulty in enrolling pupils despite the fact that no tuition was charged and all textbooks were supplied to the pupils free of charge. In 1930 the Government-General, animated by a desire to respect the wishes of the native race and to foster oriental morals developed by Confucius, reopened the old Meiringaku-in (Confucian Institute) at the Keigaku-in (formerly known to Koreans as the "Songkyun Kwan."), the oldest and highest seat of learning in the country for the study of the Confucian classics.

Important Reforms But many more reforms of far-reaching importance were made in 1920, when the present educational system was introduced. By it not only was the standard of educational attainment raised, but the principle of equality was laid down firmly though no compulsory features were adopted with regard to elementary education, as in Japan. The following differences, however, were made and are maintained out of respect for Korean sentiment.

1. The Korean language is made an obligatory subject in schools for Korean children exclusively, while it is optional in schools for Japanese children in Chosen.

2. The teaching of Korean history and geography is to be particularly emphasized in schools for Korean children.

3. Different text-books, though of an equal standard, may be used in view of the difference of language and customs of the two races. That is to say, schools for Japanese children may use text-books compiled by the Education Department of Japan, but schools for Korean children those compiled at the Education Bureau of the Government-General. Koreans are mostly educated in common schools, higher common schools and girls' common schools. The term of the common school is six years, while that of the higher and girls' higher common school is two years. Korean children who prefer to receive education at the Japanese school may enter the elementary or the middle school as they chose. The system proved very efficacious in developing the education in Korea. While there was only 100 common schools before 1910, they number now 2,105 with 565,000 pupils. The table below shows clearly the development of educational work in Chosen since 1910:

	1911		1919		1934	
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students
Elementary schools	128	15,509	380	42,811	483	81,523
Common schools	172	20,121	482	89,288	2,716	636,958
Middle schools	1	205	5	2,010	11	6,553
Higher common schools	5	819	12	3,156	26	14,028
Girls' high schools	3	515	11	1,905	27	9,920
Girls' higher common schools	2	394	6	687	17	5,503
Normal schools	—	—	—	—	4	2,434
Industrial schools	20	961	25	2,843	58	16,229
Elementary industrial schools	3	93	73	1,650	92	4,661
Colleges	5	409	8	901	15	3,982
University preparatory schools	—	—	—	—	1	309
University	—	—	—	—	1	621
Total	2,006	110,789	1,751	184,498	2,951	782,721

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. It is said that the number reaches 9,200 with 146,000 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 1935 they numbered 660 with 54,000 pupils.

Korean Students in Japan The Korean students in Japan now number about 4,519, 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 mem-

bers of good families were forbidden to enter the priesthood, with the consequence that it soon lost its hold among the masses to a large extent. Things remained so until Japan extended her rule throughout the country. Then in September, 1911, an ordinance on religions was promulgated giving freedom of preaching and full protection to temples, and also raising the status of the priesthood. Since then Buddhism has been revived to a marked extent, so that at present there are 140 temples, 422 preaching houses, 610 priests and 268,000 adherents of whom 9,500 are the Koreans. There are several native religions not recognized by the Government-General, among which the most influential one is the Tendo-kyo, which in nature is a mixture of Confucianism, Buddhism and Taoism. This religion has followers numbering 82,200. Apart from Korean Buddhism and allied sects, we find Japanese forms of Buddhism lately established in the peninsula, priests of the Shin sect being the pioneers. Later three others, Jodo, Soto, and Nichiren sects, entered the new religious field in competition with other sects and religions. At present nine sects of Japanese Buddhism are working among the resident Japanese as well as among the Korean masses, and at the end of 1933 there were 123 temples, 441 preaching houses, 597 priests, and 241,800 believers including 8,200 Koreans.

Christianity Christianity in Chosen was first brought by an official mission sent to Peking, China, by a Korean king in the latter half of the 18th century. This mission brought back with them a Bible and other Christian books. As its teaching, however, ran counter to the deep-rooted custom of ancient worship, King Seiso in 1784 issued an order prohibiting its preaching which

was followed by a severe persecution. Though later occasionally the persecution was more or less relaxed, nothing for a time indicated a revival of Christianity. In 1833 a French missionary named Pierre Maubant came to Chosen to preach the Gospel. He was the first foreign missionary to tread the soil of the hermit kingdom. His energetic and devoted evangelistic work was not fruitless, but it alarmed the government officials, who in 1839 issued a prohibition edict. But it failed to suppress the spread of Christianity, and in 1863 there were as many as 18,000 converts. In 1866 the persecution against Korean converts was renewed with vigour, which cost the lives of 30,000 people. In

1882, however, freedom of worship was fully recognized in the country as a result of diplomatic pressure brought upon its government, and in 1885 several American missionaries came to Korea. This was the first time for Protestantism to be preached there, and it gained influence among the masses as time went on. When in 1906 Prince Ito, the foremost Japanese statesman at that time, was appointed first Resident-General, he pursued a policy of friendliness toward these foreign missionaries, this policy being pursued up to the present day under various Governors-General. The following table gives an idea on the present situation of Christianity in Chosen:

	No. of missions	No. of missionaries	No. of members
Presbyterian	2,558	1,489	239,235
Roman catholic	727	184	95,520
Japan episcopal church	87	91	6,390
Japan christian church	12	15	1,802
Holliness	156	267	10,645
Methodist	16	21	1,655
Salvation army	74	77	6,523
Others	1,014	503	60,810
Total	4,229	2,647	422,580

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 repairing old highways and building 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, Taikyū 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 extending 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. The plan included the followings:

First stage construction plan on 34 lines	2,090 kilometres.
Second stage construction plan on 28 lines	1,445 ..
Highways along the frontier	863 ..

In the fiscal year 1933, the total highways in Chosen extended 11,330 km. (1st and 2nd class highways) and 10,281 km. (3rd class highways).

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

	Length k.m.	Passengers	Freight (tons)	Receipts (yen)
1911	674 miles	2,024,000	888,000	4,005,000
1920	1,157 "	12,421,000	3,186,000	28,816,000
1925	1,309 "	18,241,000	4,297,000	30,708,000
1930	2,702 k. m.	20,650,000	5,936,000	36,821,000
1931	3,009 "	19,678,704	6,025,150	36,800,512
1932	3,142 "	20,591,638	6,248,863	40,154,103
1933	2,935 "	22,288,338	7,254,859	43,611,142
1934	3,078 "	25,614,000	7,681,000	51,148,000

As the through traffic between Tokyo and Europe is now established, the two main lines, Keijo-Fusan line and Keijo-Gishu line, form an important part of the railway system connecting Europe and Japan. Of all the lines now under construction the most important one is the line between Heijo and Gensan, 213 kilometres in length. When completed it will serve as an important traffic link between North China and Japan. As for the private railway enterprises in Chosen, regulations were issued in 1912 so as to provide adequately for effective supervision and protection. In 1921 new regulations were issued by which increased state aid was extended to private railway undertakings. These have in consequence made rapid progress, and at the end of 1933 their total mileage reached 1,163 kilometres operated by seven companies, though their earnings are far from being satisfactory. There are at present over 387 kilometres of additional lines either under ac-

five lines including the Zenshu-Riri Railway, totalling 339 kilometres. At the end of 1935 the total government-owned railway mileage reached 3,487.9 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 1934.

tual construction or projected.

Tramways The followings are the main tramway lines now in operation :

49.0 km.	in Keijo
9.8 "	in Fusan
12.9 "	in Heijo
6.1 "	in Kanpei
1.1 "	in other parts
Total	82.2 kilometres

Navigation There are now 235 steamships with the total tonnage of 57,920 tons, their routes being interport, Korea-Japan and Korea-China-Russia. The following table shows the progress in this method of transportation in the last decade :

	Steamers		Sailing-boats	
	Number	Tonnage	Number	Tonnage
1919	87	35,682	483	16,432
1925	147	44,520	627	21,075
1929	185	47,161	694	23,088
1930	196	53,998	692	22,911
1931	202	52,302	745	24,778
1932	223	57,512	756	24,889
1933	235	57,920	796	26,573
1934	259	53,547	851	28,429

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 Pak-tusan or "Ever-white" Mountains (2,744 m.) and empties into the Yellow Sea. Its length is about 800 km. of which about 700 km. is navigable by air-propeller boats under governmental subsidy. Timber felled on the mountain slopes is made into

rafts and floated down until it reaches the lumber-yards at Shingishu or Antung. Another river of importance is the River Daido which flows through Heijo and empties into the Yellow Sea in the neighbourhood of Chinnampo. The river is 400 km. long, navigable for a distance of 245 km. There are also four other rivers wide enough for navigation by sailing boats and motor boats. These are :

Rakuto (flowing into Chosen Channel)	344 km. (Navigable course)
Kanko (flowing into Yellow Sea)	300 km.
Kinko " " " "	130 "
Tumen " " " "	85 "

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, Shariin, Heijo, Teishu and Shingishu. Moreover, in Urusan and Keijo there are now built wireless stations for keeping in communication with the airways. At the airport of Urusan there is installed a meteorological observatory for forecasting weather conditions in the interests of air navigators. Most of the air traffic between Chosen and Japan is being done by planes belonging to the Japan Air Transport Company.

Post, Telegraphs and Telephones Prior to 1905 there were 516 postal offices in the peninsula. In March, 1934, they numbered 963, but in this are included 913 offices engaged for telegraph and telephone service exclusively. Number of mails accepted and delivered in the same year amounted to 294,221,434 and 321,880,643, that of parcels to 2,415,234 and 3,577,915 and that of cables to 7,119,086 and 7,035,137 respectively. In November, 1926, a Radio Broadcasting Office was established in Keijo and opened to business in February, 1927,

With the advent of the Government-General the facilities of communication were further expanded as far as the budget could allow. Post offices now number 922, while the total length of telegraph and telephone lines reaches 8,758 km. and 9,531 km. respectively. Remote country places where there are at present no railway facilities mails are collected and delivered by automobiles. With the exception of a few islands, every town or village in Chosen has at least one mail delivered every day.

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 fur-

ther steps have been taken to extend modern medical and sanitary benefits among the masses, even among those in very remote regions. The construction and extension of waterworks is another work pushed on by the government with vigour so as to provide the people with good drinking water. The Government-General has also taken efficient and energetic measures for the prevention of epidemics; in consequence, small-pox which was formerly so virulent in Chosen, has almost died out. Moreover, sanitary regulations relating to foodstuffs, drinks, and drugs are rigidly enforced. Medical and hospital equipments have been greatly improved. At the end of 1934 hospitals numbered 136 including government institutions, and there were 2,302 licensed medical practitioners which meant that there was only one physician for every 8,836 of population. Korean medical practitioners numbered 4,155 in the same year.

Leprosy Asylums In view of a large number of lepers the Government-General established the Government Charity Hospital for Lepers at Shoroku Island, South Zenra Province in 1917. Since 1923 annual subsidies have also been granted by the National Treasury to private organizations engaged in this work. Apart from this the Government-General distributes free of charge to leper asylums as well as to individual patients medicine specially prepared for their cure. The number of lepers was estimated at 8,000 in 1932, of whom about 800 were taken care of at the Government Charity Hospital and 1,700 at three private institutions.

In December, 1932 the Society for the Prevention of Leprosy was organized by leading officials and citizens of Chosen. The primary aim of the society was to establish a colony

large enough to accommodate 3,000 roaming lepers. The work was to be started in 1933 and completed by 1935. Contribution amounting to ¥1,580,000 was made, which consisted of ¥110,000 by the National Treasury, ¥170,000 from local funds and ¥1,210,000 by public subscriptions. In addition a special grant of ¥30,000 from Her Imperial Majesty the Empress Dowager, and another of ¥60,000 from His Highness Prince Yi were made. The society selected Shorokuto (Little Deer Island) as the site of the new colony where it purchased 1,100,000 tsubo of land. The construction work of the asylum was completed in October, 1935.

There are more than fifty lepers serving sentences in prisons of various places, where their segregation and treatment are very difficult. Accordingly the society made a plan to build a special prison on Shorokuto where these convicts might serve their term and might also receive proper treatment. 400 lepers were received in 1933, 1,600 in 1934, and by October, 1935 it was reported 1,000 more would be received. The colony and the Charity Hospital combined will ultimately be able to receive 3,800 in all.

Private Leprosy Asylums In addition to the asylum at Shorokuto three asylums have been founded by Christian missions. The Government-General has been granting them since 1923 annual subsidy of ¥36,500. This was increased to ¥62,596 in 1932. Her Imperial Majesty the Empress bestowed a special grant of ¥1,000 a year to each for five years beginning with 1930. Her Imperial Majesty the Empress Dowager, most graciously rewarded head of each asylum for their self-sacrificing services. Locations, etc. of these asylums follow:

Taikyu Leper Asylum.

Founded in March, 1913 at the

outskirts of the town by Dr. A. G. Fletcher. At present patients number 500.

Fusan Leper Asylum.

Founded in March, 1911 by the late Dr. C. H. Irvin, and now managed by Rev. J. N. McKenzie. Inmates number 600 at present.

Aiseien Leprosarium at Reisui.

Founded in February, 1911 by Dr. R. M. Wilson at the outskirts of Kosu (Kwangji) but in February, 1926 moved to Reisui, South Zenra Province. Inmates number 720 at present.

A comparatively accurate estimate on the number of lepers in Chosen made in 1934 put it at 12,000, of whom 6,000 were either poor wanderers or those whose disease was still concealed.

Prohibition of Opium Smoking

Soon after its inauguration the Government-General made a serious effort to deal with opium-smoking. The habit of opium-smoking among the Korean people had been quite strong, specially among those in the frontier regions, many deaths resulting therefrom. The Government-General's drive for the abolition of this vicious habit was a thorough one. Those who were found smoking opium were made liable for criminal punishment. It would be, however, an exaggeration to say that the land was entirely freed from the evil, as much opium is still being smuggled in from China. In 1919 poppy cultivation was absolutely prohibited except for the purpose of supplying the needs of the medical profession and a certain limitation was placed on the area of its cultivation, and the product so raised was not permitted to be sold on the general market, being all taken over by the Government at a fixed price. In 1930, the Government-General granted a subsidy of ¥10,240, in

addition to sufficient money to buy a necessary quantity of morphine to be divided among the provinces to assist in the cure of addicts. As a result 2,837 addicts out of a total of 2,944 treated at the provincial morphine asylums were completely cured. The following is the policy now being pursued by the Government-General in its effort to conquer the evil of opium-smoking:

- (1) To attempt to cure all morphine addicts within 10 years;
- (2) To take into its own hands all the work of manufacturing and selling the morphine to be supplied to the registered addicts;*
- (3) To permit no person other than those registered to use morphine, and to punish heavily those who smuggled or secretly sold it;
- (4) To educate the people so as to prevent any increase of addicts.

On March 3, 1930, the Government-General issued an order forcing all addicts to be registered and in the end of that year those who registered totalled 3,278 out of 5,094 persons known to be addicts.

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 "Hokkasan" (Pukhan) on the north and the green-clad slopes of "Nansan" on the south, permanent sentinels

* The government manufacture began March, 1929.

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 without 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 Nandaimon (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 Taijo 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 "Naman" from the "Nan-

daimon" by the broad asphalted road and still higher through the stone "Torii" by the granite stairway of 384 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 daybreak 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 1468 by order of King Seicho, and at first it was placed in a belfry at the Nandaimon.

The North Palace (the Keifukukyu) was built in 1395 immediately after the removal of the capital from Songdo (Kaijo) 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 1867 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 (Kinseiden) 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. "Keikairo" means the "Pavilion of Har-

py 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 building 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 detached palace, but has since been twice burned. The present palace was built after the Hideyoshi Invasion.

The Throne Room (Jinseiden 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 "Meiseiden" (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 edi-

fice 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 (Toksu 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 to 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.

Shoehu-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—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.

Kaijo, 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 Taicho 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 Kaijo 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 arrowheads. Tangoon was believed to be the father of Korea and the name Chosen was given it by him probably in 2,333 B.C. Tangoon 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, 30 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 Manchuria

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 1890 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 latest official statistics, these immigrants, who number now about 400,000 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 an 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 Tunwha Railways. According to the latest official returns, they number about 250,000, 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 be-

tween 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 Liaoho, about three miles from Lan Hsieh-Shan Station on the South Manchuria Railway line. The total area of the village is 720 chobu of which 600 chobu are paddy fields and 120 chobu dry land. At present the village has 250 Korean families with 1,200 people.

(2) Ujimiho farm-village is near a tributary of the Sungari River lying to the east of Harbin six miles to the north-east of Ujimiho Station on the North Manchuria Railway line. The total area is 2,500 chobu, of which 2,000 chobu are paddy fields and 500 chobu dry land. A plan is now completed to accommodate a thousand Korean families on this farm.

(3) Yingkow (New Chwang) farm-village is at the mouth of the Liao River opposite Yingkow harbour. The total area is 2,500 chobu near which a vast grassland of 15,000

chobu extends along the right bank. There are one thousand families on the farm.

(4) Suika farm-village is about twelve miles to the east of Chin Chia on the Hulan-Hailun Railway in north Manchuria across the Sungari River. The total area is 1,300 chobu with 3,000 people and 600 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.

CHAPTER XLI

TAIWAN (FORMOSA)

General Description

Area and Topography Taiwan (Formosa) forms the westernmost part of the Japanese Empire. It is washed by the Pacific on the east, and is separated from China on the west by the Formosan Straits and on the south from the Philippines by Bashi and Balintang Channels. It extends from 119° 18' to 122° 6' E. longitude, and from 21° 45' to 25° 38' N. latitude. The Tropic of Cancer bisects the island, which is about 394.28 km. long, its greatest width being 122.31 km. The Pescadores (Bokoto) and other outlying islands form a political division of the Taiwan Government-General. They cover 126.86 sq. km. The area of Taiwan, including the Pescadores, is 35,973.55 sq. km., being about 5.3 per cent. of the total area of Japan, a little smaller than Kyushu, and about one-sixth the size of Chosen (Korea). As regards its topography, Taiwan is an island which rises from the sea to a height of 3,950 metres, reached at the summit of Mount Niitaka (Mount Morrison). It consists of a mountain range with narrow valleys on both coasts which are the population cen-

tres. The valley on the west coast is the principal population centre. That on the east coast is little developed and is capable of but slight further development. The rivers are not long and their current is very swift; in the rainy season they flood the surrounding country, causing much damage. The climate is semi-tropical. In summer the north is visited by rains; in winter the south. The temperature rarely falls below the freezing point.

The Inhabitants The territorial system of Formosa was organized during five years, 1898 to 1902, by a large land-investigation enterprise made by the Government-General. The island is inhabited by Japanese, natives and foreigners. The Japanese went there after the occupation of the island by Japan, and the foreigners 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 92 per cent. of the total population. The aborigines consist of savages and semi-civilized tribes. The following figures show the population at the end of 1934:

	Total number	Male	Female	Percentage
Japanese	262,954	138,816	124,148	5.1%
Koreans	1,316	470	846	0.0
Natives	4,882,288	2,484,771	2,397,517	94.0
Aboriginal savages (Included in natives)	148,472	74,404	74,068	2.9
Chinese	48,193	31,926	16,267	0.9
Foreigners	219	115	104	0.0
Total	5,194,980	2,656,098	2,538,882	100.0

Including the savages, the total population at the end of 1934 in Taiwan was 5,194,980, showing an increase of 134,473 over that at the

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TAIWAN (FORMOSA)

General Description

Area and Topography Taiwan (Formosa) forms the westernmost part of the Japanese Empire. It is washed by the Pacific on the east, and is separated from China on the west by the Formosan Straits and on the south from the Philippines by Bashi and Balintang Channels. It extends from 119° 18' to 122° 6' E. longitude, and from 21° 45' to 25° 38' N. latitude. The Tropic of Cancer bisects the island, which is about 394.28 km. long, its greatest width being 122.31 km. The Pescadores (Bokoto) and other outlying islands form a political division of the Taiwan Government-General. They cover 126.86 sq. km. The area of Taiwan, including the Pescadores, is 35,973.55 sq. km., being about 5.3 per cent. of the total area of Japan, a little smaller than Kyushu, and about one-sixth the size of Chosen (Korea). As regards its topography, Taiwan is an island which rises from the sea to a height of 3,950 metres, reached at the summit of Mount Niitaka (Mount Morrison). It consists of a mountain range with narrow valleys on both coasts which are the population cen-

tres. The valley on the west coast is the principal population centre. That on the east coast is little developed and is capable of but slight further development. The rivers are not long and their current is very swift; in the rainy season they flood the surrounding country, causing much damage. The climate is semi-tropical. In summer the north is visited by rains; in winter the south. The temperature rarely falls below the freezing point.

The Inhabitants The territorial system of Formosa was organized during five years, 1898 to 1902, by a large land-investigation enterprise made by the Government-General. The island is inhabited by Japanese, natives and foreigners. The Japanese went there after the occupation of the island by Japan, and the foreigners 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 92 per cent. of the total population. The aborigines consist of savages and semi-civilized tribes. The following figures show the population at the end of 1934:

	Total number	Male	Female	Percentage
Japanese	262,964	138,816	124,148	5.1%
Koreans	1,316	470	846	0.0
Natives	4,882,288	2,484,771	2,397,517	94.0
Aboriginal savages (Included in natives)	148,472	74,404	74,068	2.9
Chinese	48,193	31,926	16,267	0.9
Foreigners	219	115	104	0.0
Total	5,194,980	2,656,098	2,538,882	100.0

Including the savages, the total population at the end of 1934 in Taiwan was 5,194,980, showing an increase of 134,473 over that at the

end of 1934 and 2,148,125 over the end of 1905, when the first census-taking results were announced. This means a yearly gain for the 29 years of 74,073.

	Area sq. ri	Population	No. of counties or sub-districts	No. of towns and villages
Taihoku province	297.9	1,032,110	9	39
Shinchiku ..	295.3	733,004	8	42
Taichu ..	478.7	1,157,453	11	57
Tainan	351.5	1,313,883	10	66
Takao ..	371.0	718,491	7	43
Taito district	228.0	66,624	4	11
Karenko ..	300.1	106,572	4	10
Boko ..	8.2	66,843	2	5
Taihoku city	3.0	283,085	—	—
Keelung ..	3.0	84,650	—	—
Shinchiku, ..	2.3	54,110	—	—
Shoka ..	4.2	51,152	—	—
Taichu ..	1.4	68,414	—	—
Tainan ..	3.1	109,887	—	—
Kagi ..	3.6	70,083	—	—
Takao ..	2.7	81,582	—	—
Heito ..	4.0	41,715	—	—

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

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 September, 1934 follow:

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.

Administrative System

When Taiwan came under Japan's rule in April, 1895, the Japanese Government established the Taiwan Affairs Bureau in June of that year and then in August of the same year the Taiwan Government-General Act was promulgated in connection with the introduction of military administration. This was replaced by the civil administration in March of the following year. The Taiwan Government-General came under the supervision of the Minister of Overseas Affairs with the establishment of the Ministry in June, 1929. The Governor-General is invested with authority to require military assistance from the commanders of the army and navy in the territory under his jurisdiction, when he deems it necessary to do so for the maintenance of peace and order in Taiwan. If the Governor-

General is either a soldier or a naval man, he is able simultaneously to assume the command of the Formosan Army. The Governor-General also is invested with authority to supervise officials under him, promote them in rank, retire them from service, or recommend them for honours through the Minister of Overseas Affairs and the Premier, and to suspend or cancel orders and administrative measures of provincial governors under him, when such are deemed damaging to public interest or overstepping the sphere of their authority. The Taiwan Government-General consists, besides the secretariat to the Governor-General, of five bureaux, that is, the Home Affairs Bureau, Educational Affairs Bureau, Financial Affairs Bureau, Colonial Development Bureau and Police Affairs Bureau. The chief of general affairs, or civil governor, directors of the five bureaux and many other officials are under the supervision of the Governor-General. There is an Advisory Council to the Governor-General, which serves as a very important organ for the administration of the island. Not only does it give advice to the Governor-General on laws or regulations but also on general important business. The members consist of Government-General officials and leading persons in private circles in the island. The provincial administration extends over 5 provinces, 3 districts, 9 cities and 45 counties. There are the same number of provincial governors, district superintendents, city administrators and county chiefs, all under the Government-General.

Aboriginal Administration

The Taiwan aborigines are the oldest inhabitants of the island and are classified into semi-civilized aborigines and savage head-hunters.

The former have now settled down as ordinary peaceful citizens and differ nothing in culture and general status from the natives who belong to the Han (Chinese) race. The head-hunters, on the other hand, live in mountainous districts and still adhere to their traditional habits and manners, their culture being very low. The Taiwan Government-General is concerned in its aboriginal administration mostly with these savage tribes. These savages lead a very primitive life, their dwelling-places being so difficult of access, and they still deter other tribes from settling near them by their traditional custom of head-hunting. Since Japan's occupation of Taiwan great efforts have been directed by the authorities to their subjugation and cultural improvement, and at the present time head-hunting is rapidly becoming extinct, and these savages are entering the first stage of civilized life. Some of them living along the mountain zone in west Taiwan, and those living on the sea coast in east Taiwan, pay taxes. These aborigines have a close resemblance to the Negrítoes 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 1934 was 148,472, of whom 74,404 were male and 74,068 female. They lived in 24,496 houses in 592 villages. Their population in 1933 and 1934 was:

Tribes	1933	1934	Increase or decrease
Taiyal	34,333	34,957	724
Saisset	1,417	1,462	45
Tsuwo	2,367	2,191	(-176)
Bunun	18,081	18,408	327
Paiwan	42,263	42,614	351
Ami	46,300	47,054	754
Yami	1,702	1,632	(-70)
Others	461	455	(-6)
Total	146,924	148,472	1,548

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 Saisset tribesmen are the gentlest of all, and are quickly losing their savage proclivities. The Japanese authorities have cudgelled their brains how to bring these wild people under control. When Holland occupied the south of Taiwan and Spain the north, they tried to pacify them principally through the medium of religion and medicine. During the time when the Cheng family from south China ruled the island, force and conciliation were adopted in turn, but the results were not satisfactory. Conciliation has dominated Japan's policy toward these savages in the island since her occupation of Taiwan. When the campaigns against rebels came to an end in 1902, attention was given to the aboriginal control policy. Owing to the stubborn resistance offered by the savages, the Governor-General, General Viscount Samata Sakuma, drafted a five-year plan for dealing with the aborigines and established the campaign headquarters in the Government-General in 1909 to start the enterprise on an elaborate scale. The fundamental policy was based on conciliation, and training the savages to become law-abiding people on the

one hand, and chastisement of the insubordinate on the other. The confiscation of their arms was one of the important tasks. All arms were given up to the Japanese authorities by the northern aborigines in 1914. This completed the task of aboriginal pacification in January, 1915. Occasional raids on police stations and head-hunting of innocent people were committed after that, owing to the instigation of malcontents. The worst outbreak that took place was the Musha Incident in October, 1930, which culminated in the sending of troops. Many of them are engaged in farm work and pay taxes. Some of them receive special education. Policemen are stationed at various points of vantage in the savage districts and peace maintenance, job-finding, education, medical care, traffic, public works and sundry other affairs are being looked after by them. Since the occupation of Taiwan to the end of 1934 rifles confiscated numbered 30,021, of which 14,286 rifles were confiscated in 1914, when the five-year campaign plan came to an end. Spades replaced rifles. During the 39 years which ended in 1934, 7,082 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 7,082 victims during those 39 years, those of police, Japanese and native, numbered 2,205 and those of officials and ordinary people together 4,877. During the same period 4,099 were wounded in connection with the campaign against savages. A change, however, is beginning to be made in the lives of these people in recent years. They are emerging from their primitive condition into an economic existence. They are glad to work on paddy fields and take up other

sorts of labour. They are now pretty well initiated into money-saving habits. Their postal savings deposits at the end of 1934 amounted to ¥440,725, representing 22,853 depositors, the highest single deposit being ¥5,464 and the average deposit ¥19.29 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 24,792 koku of unhulled rice in 1934 (one koku being 5.1116 bushels), showing a gain of 1,434 koku over 1933. The authorities also encourage stock-raising. At the end of 1934 the natives had 38,319 pigs, 6,733 buffaloes, 3,373 cattle, and 3,857 goats. The value of their cocoon crop for 1934 totalled ¥36,671. They also raised sundry other farm products valued at ¥129,742 for the same year. Education is gradually spreading among the aborigines. At the end of 1934 there were 8,291 aboriginal children attending 183 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 42,863. Also there were about 18,713 at the end of 1934, 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 num-

bered 226 at the end of 1934. The Government-General established 106 "exchange" houses for them to sell their products. The sales at these houses in 1934 totalled ¥611,977.

Police and Judicature

The Police The Taiwan police consist of men appointed from among Japanese, natives and semi-civilized aborigines. Their services are divided into the ordinary service and aboriginal police service. The police in aboriginal districts are reinforced by police assistants appointed mostly from among natives. These are features of the police services of Taiwan. What is known as the tithing system of Taiwan provides a feature of peace preservation in the island. This system is of Chinese origin and was first adopted as an auxiliary to the police system in 1898. Owing to the satisfactory results attained, it also was extended to the lower grades of the administration in 1909. One tithing group consists of 100 houses and it looks after the peace of the group. In case these groups organize an association, the matter has to be sanctioned by provincial governors or district superintendents. Each group has its chief, who is elected and sanctioned by governor or superintendent. His duty is to maintain peace and order in his tithing district. Members of groups consist of men ranging from 17 to 50 years old and must be of good character. They offer their services free. The number of groups involved in the tithing system of Taiwan was 5,383 at the end of 1934. 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.

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Judicature The judicature of Taiwan consists of two grades of courts, viz., the supreme court and three district courts, the latter having four branches in all—all under control of the Governor-General. The functions of the various courts are practically the same as those of the courts in Japan proper.

Religion and Education

Religion There are 26 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 natives have been receiving education since 1922 together with Japanese in the classes of middle-school grade and in higher institutions, although the elementary education is still given both in the vernacular and Japanese languages. Besides numerous elementary schools, Taiwan had at the end of April, 1935, 10 middle schools, 13 girls' schools, 6 special schools of middle school grade, 4 normal schools, 4 colleges and 1 Imperial University. The Taihoku Imperial University was founded in March, 1928. It consists of two departments, one literature and politics and the other physics and agriculture. The educational expenses for the last six years are:

	Total amount	State expenses	Provinces and districts (In ¥1,000)	Cities, towns and villages
1930	16,916	5,638	7,707	3,570
1931	17,074	5,428	7,709	3,036
1932	16,289	4,820	7,842	3,627
1933	16,723	4,805	7,842	3,985
1934	18,026	5,042	8,391	4,598
1935	21,264	5,839	9,379	6,251
Average	17,714	5,277	8,145	4,490

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 1934 was worth ¥293,000,000, composing about 50 per cent. of all the industrial production of the island. The area under cultivation in 1900 was 363,290 ko (one ko being 2.377 acres or 2,934 tsubo). It increased to

851,334 ko at the end of 1934, more than double that of 31 years ago. The cultivated land is more than 20 per cent. of the island's total area. The area of cultivated land since 1900 has been as follows:

Year	Paddy field (In 1,000 ko)	Dry land	Total
1900	211	151	363
1908	328	345	673
1912	346	364	710
1917	330	412	742
1922	376	397	773
1927	399	422	821

Year	Paddy field (In 1,000 ko)	Dry land	Total
1925	403	423	829
1929	406	423	829
1930	408	428	836
1931	411	424	835
1932	439	400	839
1933	482	362	844
1934	463	388	851

People engaged in agriculture are about 52 per cent. of the total population. At the end of 1934 their number was 2,700,990, of whom tenant-farmers were 842,823, landed farmers 850,878, and landed tenant-farmers 842,823.

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 1934 was about 9,088,886 koku with a value of over ¥190,000,000. 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 1934 totalled 270,000 ko and the crop amounted to 4,300,000 koku for two crops a year. The plantation areas and rice crops since 1900 follow:

	Plantation areas (In ko)	Crops (In koku)
1900	360,022	2,052,970
1908	486,274	4,512,143
1912	495,128	4,046,611
1917	480,642	4,833,313
1922	527,096	5,445,814
1927	603,153	6,898,672
1929	603,058	6,795,006
1929	579,274	6,480,762
1930	633,444	7,370,516
1931	653,280	7,479,846
1932	684,928	8,049,216
1933	696,423	8,361,839
1934	687,664	9,088,886

Sweet Potatoes Sweet potatoes also are extensively produced almost everywhere and all through the year in the island. The chief producing centres are Tainan, Taichu and Takao provinces. Potatoes serve as fodder for cattle besides being used as ordinary foodstuff. Dried potatoes are shipped to Japan as material for producing alcohol and

starch. The export value of dried potatoes for 1931 totalled 43,571,775 kin (one kin being 1.3 pounds), worth ¥748,961. The crop of sweet potatoes for 1902 amounted to 501,160,292 kin and the amount has been increasing yearly since. The 1934 crop totalled 2,609,328,496 kin. The plantation area of 63,147 ko for 1902 increased to 142,448 for 1934.

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 1934 amounted to 18,392,028 kin (in the area of 45,765 ko). Tea plantation was introduced there by immigrants from China. In 1868 some amount of tea roughly made in Taiwan was exported to Amoy, where it was refined, but later the Taiwan producers, bringing tea operators from Amoy and Foochow, began to export refined tea, and in 1869 as much as 280,000 pounds of refined tea were exported to New York. This was the first export of Taiwan tea to America. Then tea production developed considerably year after year. Export tea is classified into four varieties, viz., Oolong, Pouchong, green and black. Oolong and Pouchong teas are most abundantly produced; the former, appreciated by Americans, and the latter, preferred by the people of the South Sea Islands, is exported to Java and Siam. Black tea is extending its markets, and, although not as good as Ceylon tea, it is better in quality than Japanese black tea.

Other Products Other agricultural products are peanuts, beans, wheat, sesame, longan, (otherwise known as "dragon's eye") and vegetables. The yielding areas and production of these farm products for 1934, as compared with those for 1900, follow:

	Yielding area (In ko)		Production (In koku)	
	1900	1934	1900	1934
Peanuts	11,958	31,726	120,888	566,083
Beans	11,365	18,935	50,281	75,261
Barley	1,479	540	11,460	4,062
Wheat	1,857	845	11,282	7,503
Sesame seeds	6,889	3,948	36,279	12,603
Jute	1,155	5,290	1,481,548 (kin)	15,816,946 (kin)
Hemp	1,654	1,490	1,022,063 ..	1,653,533 ..
Tobacco	240	951	363,900 (kg)	2,140,455 (kg)
Oranges	317	4,492	2,025,965 (kin)	55,223,341 (kin)
	(1905)		(1909)	
Pineapples	—	6,891	—	85,466,947
Longan	—	572,440 (trees)	—	17,795,804 (kin)
Vegetables	—	—	—	¥11,470,000

The export of raw pineapples for 1934 totalled ¥129,892 and that of canned pineapples ¥5,069,655.

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 1934 totalled 2,725,147 baskets, worth ¥12,092,222. In 1909 the plantation acreage was 560 ko with a crop of 10,536,062 kin, which increased in 1934 to 19,062 ko with a crop of 302,418,306 kin.

Live-stock The live-stock raising industry in Taiwan is flourishing. The number of cattle at the end of 1934 was 394,865, of which buffaloes numbered 306,874. 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 1934 was 1,836,169, 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 1934 being 8,167,097. 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 2,201 koku in 1934. 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 36, 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 3,995 at the end of 1935. 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 landlords and tenants.

Sugar Industry

Taiwan is the centre of the sugar industry of Japan. The industry has existed since the coming of the Han race to the island and, when the Dutch occupied the island in 1624, sugar had already become one of the staple products of the island. It has maintained the topmost position of Taiwan's industries. At the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan the annual output was only about 80,000,000 kin, one kin being 1.323 pounds. Japan proper consumed more than 300,000,000 kin of sugar, most of which had to be imported from abroad.

Dr. Nitobé's Plan Alive to this situation, the Taiwan Government-General concentrated its energy on the increased production of sugar by means of business improvement and expansion, and this has resulted

in the present industrial prosperity. Not only has this prevented the 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. Inuzo Nitobé was engaged by the Government-General to work out a sugar-industry development plan. He proposed several measures for industrial development, namely, the improvement of kinds of sugar cane and their cultivation, improvement of pressing and manufacturing methods, the application of artificial irrigation, increased land cultivation and expansion of sugar plantations, the establishment of sugar experimental stations, and the organization of sugar production guilds, as well as other measures. These formed the basic policy of the Taiwan sugar industry. The sugar encouragement regulations were issued in June, 1902. According to these regulations, the Government-General would give a subsidy to sugar-cane planters or sugar manufacturers for cane plantation, fertilizers, cultivation, irrigation, and manufacturing machines, or, if necessary, implements will be lent or given. The subsidies given in this connection up to the end of the fiscal year of 1931-32 totalled ¥12,908,698. The Government-General is adopting a policy of reducing the subsidy with the progress of the sugar industry. With the establishment of sugar mills the competition for the acquisition of canes became severe.

Upon Consolidated Basis In order to prevent evils arising out of this competition, the authorities issued regulations restricting the spheres of cane plantations in 1905. This caused sugar-makers to work on a consolidated basis yearly. As it was impossible for sugar manufacturers

to get material from districts other than those designated for them by regulations, the makers took great care of the planters working on their fields. Planters also were placed on a definite basis of economy by the regulations, because the canes raised by them could be sold to the mills to which they belonged. When the sugar policy was established, the Extraordinary Taiwan Sugar Affairs Bureau was organized, but it was later replaced by the Sugar Refinery Section of the Colonial Development Bureau. The Government-General first established the Young Cane Seed Experimental Station in Taichu province in 1913. Seeds raised there were distributed to intermediate experimental yards, where they are further grown. Manufacturing companies are bound by duty to distribute these seeds free to farmers within their plantations. Thus the improvement of canes was realized. Young plants distributed till the end of March, 1934, totalled 574,243,540.

The Sugar Experimental Station The Taiwan Government-General Sugar Experimental Station was reorganized and was founded in Tainan city in March, 1932, as the central organization for the promotion of sugar plantation. At first, the Hawaiian "rose bamboo" canes were adopted for the Taiwan sugar cultivation and canes of this kind occupied 96 per cent. of all grown in 1913. Due to lack of adequate measures to keep the quality unchanged, and also to the fact that these canes had little power of resistance against storms they finally deteriorated. Then they were replaced by Java canes. At the end of March, 1932, the land under irrigation totalled 112,416 ko. The following are figures showing the area of sugar plantations and crop per ko since 1902:

Fiscal year	Plantation area (In ko)	Cane crop (In kin)	Crop per ko (In kin)
1902-03	16,526	683,157,902	41,338
1905-06	35,156	1,690,206,794	48,078
1908-09	39,085	2,219,471,541	56,858
1910-11	75,329	3,159,538,563	41,944
1914-15	95,150	3,933,805,780	46,199
1917-18	150,450	6,817,535,709	45,314
1919-20	108,376	4,382,506,202	40,438
1920-21	142,032	6,752,838,825	47,544
1921-22	123,233	7,738,628,518	63,243
1923-24	130,480	8,825,841,621	67,641
1925-26	123,426	8,615,430,225	69,802
1926-27	101,531	7,411,962,535	73,002
1927-28	108,318	9,697,544,551	89,529
1929-29	120,046	12,291,944,205	102,394
1929-30	109,397	11,618,338,986	106,204
1930-31	99,024	10,944,609,505	110,447
1931-32	109,496	13,415,197,477	122,518
1932-33	83,690	8,782,001,849	104,835
1933-34	91,163	8,883,801,544	97,449

The Refining Industry

The sugar industry at the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan was very primitive. Out of about 1,100 sugar mills, not a single mill had adopted the modern mechanical method of manufacturing, and all of them used animal power. Owing to insufficient pressing power, a large percentage of sugar-substance was wasted during the manufacturing process and, moreover, the product was inferior. By 1934 there were only 92 mills of this kind, as the majority of them were gradually eliminated. In these primitive mills two stone wheel cars or three metal wheel cars are employed for grinding by animal power. Improved mills use pressing machines and motors. Brown sugar is also manufactured. Such mills 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		
		1929	1933 (In kin)	1934
Taiwan Sugar's Taihoku mill	Brit. 500	7,143,743	4,273,350	3,636,984
Taiwan Sugar's Sharokan mill	Amer. 1,200	30,310,350	28,410,043	22,807,603
Taiwan Sugar's Kibi mill	Brit. 1,200	18,973,300	23,210,074	22,063,274
Meiji Sugar's Shoryu mill	" 750	—	—	—
Meiji Sugar's Nansei mill	" 1,000	6,124,800	19,015,650	15,467,001
Meiji Sugar's Ujurin mill	" 750	13,875,200	11,984,408	11,358,024
Dai Nippon Sugar's Toroku mill	" 500	10,000,000	16,258,400	16,000,000
Ensuiko Sugar's Shinei mill	" 1,000	33,383,450	26,193,100	29,090,444
Ensuiko Sugar's				
Kishinai No. 1 mill	" 500	25,473,700	27,812,400	37,679,436
Kishinai No. 2 mill	" 700			
Total	Amer. 1,200 } " 6,950 }	150,284,543	156,157,425	158,102,766

Summary Summarizing the status of the sugar industry, the cane-plantation area at the beginning of 1902 was 26,167 ko, and there was only one mechanically-operated mill with a daily capacity of 200 tons and capitalization of only ¥1,000,000. In 1927 such mills numbered 45 with a daily productive capacity of 39,414 American tons and total capitalization of ¥290,520,000, although this

dropped to ¥250,966,600 in 1934, owing to mergers or readjustment of business. But the capacity increased to 44,928 American tons for 1934. The total production in 1902 was only 90,000,000 kin, but in 1927 it rose as high as 1,315,540,000 kin and further to 1,648,440,000 kin in 1932. It decreased to 1,078,310,000 in 1934 due to curtailment of production as agreed upon among sugar companies.

Companies	Head offices	Capital		No. of mills
		Subscribed (In ¥1,000)	Paid-up	
Taiwan Sugar	Heito, Takao province	63,000	43,080	13
Shinko Sugar	Tairyo, Takao province	1,200	1,200	1
Meiji Sugar	Mato, Tainan province	48,000	39,200	7
Dai Nippon	Sunamachi, Tokyo city	51,416	45,779	7
Ensuiko Sugar	Shinei, Tainan province	29,250	17,437	6
Nitaka Sugar	Wami, Taichu province	22,000	10,750	3
Telkoku Sugar	Taichu city	18,000	16,200	5
Showa Sugar	Goketsu, Taihoku province	7,000	7,000	5
Taito Sugar	Taito	1,750	1,750	2
Sango Sugar	Nirinsho, Taichu province	3,350	3,350	1
Total		250,966	189,196	50

Production of sugar for the 1933-34 fiscal year follows:

Companies	Materials used (In kin)	Sugar production	Production of molasses
Taiwan Sugar	1,902,242,800	286,499,878	36,289,049
Shinko Sugar	88,929,120	12,468,702	2,578,276
Meiji Sugar	1,216,881,480	170,642,859	24,322,798
Dai Nippon Sugar	1,698,987,580	236,367,346	33,104,475
Ensuiiko Sugar	1,202,857,600	163,570,965	22,766,558
Niitaka Sugar	363,556,680	50,547,100	7,658,746
Teikoku Sugar	584,462,960	81,494,653	13,306,232
Showa Sugar	217,401,060	30,276,718	4,505,477
Taito Sugar	114,066,690	16,409,280	2,598,111
Sango Sugar	75,308,930	9,061,556	2,044,218
Total	7,463,694,900	1,057,338,552	149,123,941
Improved mills	53,529,571	7,869,235	—
Primitive mills	182,920,527	13,178,332	—
Grand total	7,650,144,998	1,078,386,119	149,123,941

Sugar production in Taiwan since 1905 has been as follows:

Year (Noy.-Oct.)	Mechanically- operated mills	Improved mills (In kin)	Primitive mills	Total
1905	7,558,418	641,533	74,432,707	82,632,658
1913	105,047,715	7,266,608	6,834,921	119,149,244
1915	313,064,988	18,609,895	15,771,514	347,446,398
1917	681,942,099	44,267,332	37,280,842	763,490,273
1919	435,905,228	17,226,885	33,224,850	486,356,963
1921	401,948,211	8,685,462	10,579,932	421,213,605
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	982,868,631	6,475,108	7,517,395	996,861,134
1929	1,296,552,378	9,627,008	9,368,152	1,315,547,538
1930	1,330,505,897	11,750,135	8,549,854	1,350,805,886
1931	1,311,805,427	9,534,858	7,453,380	1,328,793,674
1932	1,628,731,287	11,240,564	8,441,111	1,648,415,962
1933	1,028,066,503	16,784,410	11,355,418	1,056,207,331
1934	1,057,338,558	7,869,235	13,197,643	1,078,405,431
1935	—	—	—	1,609,750,000

Forestry and Afforestation

The surface of Taiwan is covered by mountains to the extent of almost two-thirds of its entire area, and the island is rich in thick forests of immense depth. Forest protection and afforestation are done on an approved system by the Government-General. The great mountain ranges running north to south with numerous peaks provide vegetation peculiar to temperate as well as to tropical and sub-tropical regions. The most renowned of the natural forests of Taiwan are those on the mountains in the central ranges, from Taibysan in the south to the

peninsula of Koshun; those on famous Mt. Arisan; those on Mt. Rokujodaisan in the north; and those on Mt. Seiran. Besides these, there are also extensive forests in the valleys of the River Dakusui and in some districts of Karenko. The total forest area in Taiwan in 1934 was 2,444,387 ha., of which 2,183,025 ha. government owned forests. Building-timber, sleepers and other forest products turned out in the same year amounted to ¥12,666,794. When the Portuguese first discovered the island, they were impressed with the immense expanse of forests and cried "Formosa!" signifying "beautiful." Reckless cutting of trees was

done by Chinese immigrants and this, combined with the lack of adequate forest administration of the Manchu Dynasty, resulted in the devastation of forest districts. The Forest Bureau was established in 1915 and since then forest protection has been carried on in an approved manner by the Government-General.

Timber Industry The timber industry of the Arisan group is controlled by the Government-General. This famous mountain group is located east of Kagi in Tainan province and is on the Tropic of Cancer. It stands 9,240 feet high. It is covered with red cypress, Mongolian oak and hemlock. The former two kinds of wood are highly valued. There are many trees aged more than 3,000 years. Even the Imperial forest at Kiso in Nagano prefecture has few oaks of such great age. Timber used for the building of important shrines such as the Kashiwabara Shrine, dedicated to the memory of Jimmu Tenno, the first Emperor of Japan, the Imperial Mausolea at Momoyama for the Emperor Meiji and Empress Shoken, and the Meiji Shrine was grown on these mountains. The two great pillars constituting the torii of the Meiji Shrine are estimated to be 1,900 and 1,090 years old respectively. Both came from these mountains. The number of these valuable trees was originally estimated at 1,468,416 with 6,073,970 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. Lumber-

ing work started in 1912. Sales of lumber amounted to ¥1,586,458 for 1929; ¥1,366,296 for 1930; ¥1,210,274 for 1931; ¥1,061,852 for 1932; ¥1,139,310 for 1933; and ¥1,138,432 for 1934.

The lumber industry on Mt. Taihei near Rato town in Taihoku province is considered one of the most promising of all in the island. Until 1913 the mountain was not exploited, because it was a stronghold of the most savage aboriginal tribe. The quantity of timber on the mountain is estimated at 14,159,000 cubic metres, nearly four times that of Mt. Arisan. Work started in 1915 and has so far realized satisfactory results. Sales of lumber totalled ¥1,135,780 for 1930; ¥1,038,067 for 1931; ¥905,705 for 1932; ¥1,024,507 for 1933; and ¥1,079,096 for 1934.

How Disposed Taiwan wood is not only used for shrine and temple construction, but for building of warships and merchant-ships. Demand from naval arsenals and dockyards is yearly increasing. Taiwan wood is exported to Japan proper, Korea, China, British India, South Africa, Australia and other places. Sales to the market in the island, Japan proper and foreign countries from 1916, when the sales began, to 1933, follow:

	Amount (In cubic metres)	Value (In yen)
1916		
Sales in island	42,296	835,098
Sales to Japan	17,728	385,900
Sales abroad	911	24,556
Total	60,935	1,245,554
1929		
Sales in island	67,934	2,435,373
Sales to Japan	22,582	1,125,117
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	90,516	3,560,490
1931		
Sales in island	75,540	1,928,817
Sales to Japan	21,101	1,002,895
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	96,641	2,931,712

	Amount (In cubic metres)	Value (In yen)
1932		
Sales in island	78,130	1,533,316
Sales to Japan	18,269	609,575
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	96,399	2,532,891
1933		
Sales in island	86,408	2,002,323
Sales to Japan	21,560	769,037
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	107,968	2,771,420
1934		
Sales in island	90,852	2,126,751
Sales to Japan	10,381	710,096
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	111,233	2,537,747

Aquatic Products

The seas about Taiwan are rich in various kinds of fish and shellfish, 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 27 fishing companies of which 4 have their head offices in Japan proper and the rest in the island with capitalization of ¥34,500,000 for the former and

¥5,843,588 for the latter. There were 91 fish markets in the island at the end of 1934, and the total fish sales there during the year amounted to ¥11,620,000 and showed an increase of ¥1,351,000. 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 1934 amounted to ¥16,438,490, exclusive of salt, showing an increase of ¥4,241,922 over the previous year. Trade figures include exports abroad totalling ¥2,973,875, imports from abroad totalling ¥548,406, exports to Japan proper totalling ¥3,042,223 and imports from these districts totalling ¥9,873,986. The making of dried bonito is the largest marine products industry. The annual output of dried and canned marine products is worth about ¥2,300,000, half of which goes to the dried bonito production. The marine production of Taiwan follows:

	Catches	Manufacturing (In yen)	Cultivated fish production	Total
1921	5,943,217	1,665,125	2,153,856	9,762,198
1923	9,030,651	3,303,756	1,943,565	14,277,972
1927	10,822,110	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	3,120,800	13,873,432
1933	10,806,670	1,908,982	3,223,832	15,939,484
1934	11,452,841	2,290,923	2,890,340	16,634,104

Mineral Products

The principal mineral products of Taiwan are gold, silver, placer-gold, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, zinc, coal, petroleum, sulphur and phosphorus. The mine-lots at the end of March, 1933, numbered 611 with a total area of 182,645,280 tsubo,

one tsubo being six feet square. Mines in operation numbered 199 covering an area of 83,460,349 tsubo. Of these 199 mines, 1 was gold mine, 2 gold and silver mines, 1 gold-copper mine, 14 placer-gold mines, 157 coal mines, 10 sulphur mines and 14 oil fields. The mineral production for 1933 totalled

¥15,196,250, showing an increase of ¥1,245,862 over 1932. The mineral production in 1897 and during the

five years 1929-1933 inclusive follows:

	1897	1929	1930 (In yen)	1931	1932	1933
Gold	—	625,422	636,486	722,733	1,681,592	1,581,328
Gold-copper ores	—	3,186,577	3,457,187	3,027,792	3,709,157	3,773,194
Placer-gold	8,805	11,047	9,421	11,611	57,017	94,730
Silver	—	12,997	10,790	10,003	16,632	8,472
Copper	—	67,655	154,799	174,419	294,388	274,484
Gold ores	—	69,551	81,401	70,750	—	66,633
Quicksilver	—	7,572	—	2,488	—	—
Coal	103,078	10,064,568	9,613,416	7,164,598	6,571,195	7,681,689
Sulphur	—	33,670	33,217	51,290	37,148	62,075
Phosphorous ores	—	—	2,448	648	—	—
Petroleum	—	434,785	381,304	263,631	245,944	424,677
Gasolene	—	382,598	760,729	1,797,275	994,003	574,857
Carbon black	—	—	—	43,552	295,527	341,079
Others and total	111,883	15,090,513	15,141,198	13,337,700	13,950,888	15,196,250

The Government-General conducted a mineral and geological investigation for eight years over the island following the introduction of civil administration in 1896. As a result, oil distribution was found almost all over the island. Subsidies were granted to those who had proper equipment for boring for oil to a depth of more than 2,000 feet. The subsidy was given from 1901 to 1924. It was then suspended, owing to financial reasons, but was resumed in 1930. Metal ores are found exclusively in the extreme north and the eastern district, coal in the northern and central parts and oil all over the island, especially in the central and southern districts. The mineral production in 1897 was only ¥112,000, but in 1907 it increased to ¥2,255,000, and in 1933 to as much as ¥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 Takkiri Gorge in Karenko district. In later years placer-gold was found in several localities, but at present the mining is conducted along the Keelung and other rivers. When the mining was most prosperous in 1903, the annual output reached 161 kan, one kan being 8.267 lb., valued at ¥610,000, but since then the industry has been sinking. The 1931 output was only 3.165 kan. A gold vein was first discovered at Mt. Kubu in 1893. In the following year gold deposits were found at Kinkwaseki and in 1891 another vein was discovered at Butanko. The gold mining interests at Butanko and Kinkwaseki was merged in 1913. The mining operation is done at Zuiho and Kinkwaseki. The Kinkwaseki mine is located about 10 miles east of Keelung. It is managed and operated by the Tanaka Mining Company, Ltd. The mining area at the end of 1931 was 4,053,000 tsubo. It has its own refinery.

Production at the mine for three years ending 1932 follows:

		1930	1931	1932	1933
Gold	Output in g.	233,681	226,534	208,844	82,601
	Value	¥310,717	301,043	432,241	80,049
Silver	Output in g.	383,700	96,199	426,639	52,466
	Value	¥8,591	7,961	11,858	1,886
Gold-copper ores	Output in m.t.	132,200	95,476	108,809	115,693
	Value	¥3,457,187	3,027,792	3,709,157	3,773,194
Gold ores	Output in m.t.	1,240	1,345	1,157	805
	Value	¥81,401	70,750	78,982	66,633
Precipitated copper	Output in kg.	721,680	1,383,709	1,620,124	1,365,780
	Value	¥154,799	174,419	294,388	274,484
Precipitated gold and silver	Output in kg.	—	—	—	7,802
	Value	—	—	—	¥250,716
Total Value		¥4,013,107	¥3,582,945	¥4,527,626	¥4,446,962

Fujita Gumi, Osaka, first operated the Zuiho Mine in 1898, but the enterprise was transferred to the Taiyo Mining Company in 1920. Busi-

ness has failed to realize satisfactory results. Its gold and silver output for three years follows:

		1930	1931	1932	1933
Gold:	Output in g.	231,828	215,518	559,749	566,907
	Value	¥325,769	420,690	1,238,051	1,501,279
Silver:	Output in g.	87,911	119,235	180,968	178,666
	Value	¥2,209	2,062	4,774	6,586
Total value		¥327,978	422,753	1,242,825	1,507,865

Other Minerals The output of sulphur in Taiwan for 1932 amounted to ¥37,148 and that of quicksilver for the first six months of 1931 amounted to ¥2,488, but since then the mining operation has been at a standstill. The coal output for 1932 amounted to 1,354,995 tons, worth ¥6,571,195, showing a drop of ¥593,403 from 1931.

Oil Oil in Taiwan was discovered by a Chinese about 80 years ago at Shukotan, near the Koryu valley, over an area covering 599,670 tsubo. Since 1905, 71 oil wells have been sunk. Well No. 18 is the best of all. From 1913 to 1925 the oil output from this well totalled 53,205 koku, by the Nippon Sekiyu Kaisha (Japan Oil Company, Ltd.). Owing, 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, gasolene, light oil and paraffin are manufactured from crude oil obtained here. The oil refinery is in Byoritsu.

The production from the crude oil

is gasolene, 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 gasolene plant was installed there in November of the same year. When the capacity of the gasolene plants is fully developed, the daily output of gasolene will be 1,000 koku.

Other Industries

Prior to the World War, industries other than sugar and tea developed very little in the island. Since the War, however, chemical, spinning, machinery and other miscellaneous industries have developed to a considerable extent. The more important of them for 1934 follow:

	Yen
Metal Industry:	
Tin plates	1,700,000
Gold and silver works	1,531,000
Machinery Industry:	
Sugar refining machinery	3,887,000
Agricultural implements	1,178,000
Ceramics Industry:	
Tiles	2,162,000
Cement	3,810,000
Chemical Industry:	
Alcohol	5,922,000
Mineral oil and wax	1,128,000
Vegetable oils	1,297,000
Refined camphor	1,242,000
Mixed fertilizers	3,652,000
Food Stuff Industry:	
Soy sauce	1,859,000
Flour	2,314,000
Sugar	119,725,000
Confectioneries	4,923,000
Canned pineapples	6,250,000
Macaroni	3,042,000
Ice	1,259,000
Pollished rice	965,000
Miscellaneous Industries:	
Woodworking	4,175,000
Hats	5,066,000
Others and total	214,000,000

Of the total 1933 industrial production amounting to ¥214,000,000, the foodstuff industry totalled ¥153,000,000, or 72 per cent., the chemical industry ¥20,000,000, or 9 per cent., other industries ¥13,000,000, or 6 per cent., the ceramic industry ¥6,500,000, the mechanical and tool industry ¥5,800,000, the metal industry ¥3,900,000, and the spinning industry ¥2,500,000.

Overseas Trade The overseas trade of Taiwan, although it has experienced temporary set-backs from

time to time, has made remarkable progress in recent years. The bulk of overseas trade is, however, with Japan proper, the rest being chiefly done with China, the United States, the Straits Settlements, the Dutch East Indies, the United Kingdom, Germany, British India, the 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 ¥476,803,950 was made in the trade volume for 1929, but the amount declined sharply the following year, because of the universal economic depression, and in 1931 it went off still more though it somewhat regained in 1932. Taiwan's overseas trade since 1897 has been as follows:

OVERSEAS TRADE VOLUME

Year	Exports abroad and exports to Japan proper and its colonies	Imports from abroad and imports from Japan proper and its colonies (In yen)	Total	Index
1902	21,131,769	19,335,822	40,467,591	130
1910	50,962,255	48,023,289	108,985,544	349
1913	62,791,079	62,632,416	125,423,495	401
1916	112,347,948	65,021,600	177,369,548	568
1921	152,438,500	133,954,458	286,392,958	916
1925	263,214,651	186,395,340	449,609,991	1,439
1926	251,425,070	183,412,450	434,837,520	1,392
1927	246,076,284	186,948,387	433,024,671	1,388
1928	248,417,285	190,653,933	439,071,218	1,406
1929	271,893,266	204,910,684	476,803,950	1,526
1930	241,441,304	168,258,310	409,699,614	1,311
1931	220,872,866	145,622,123	366,494,989	1,173
1932	240,727,988	164,497,770	405,225,758	1,298
1933	248,413,329	185,388,938	433,802,267	1,389
1934	305,928,680	215,021,701	520,950,381	1,668

TAIWAN FOREIGN TRADE

	Exports	Imports (In yen)	Total	Excess of imports
1901	8,234,097	12,809,975	21,044,072	4,575,878
1909	11,687,576	12,591,470	24,279,046	903,894
1911	14,960,228	19,907,126	34,267,354	4,946,898
				(export excess)
1916	31,652,474	15,430,037	47,082,511	16,222,437
1921	23,541,621	40,433,290	63,974,911	16,891,669
1925	47,965,844	56,489,060	104,454,904	8,523,216
1926	49,315,487	62,007,666	111,323,153	12,692,179
1927	44,597,707	65,840,396	110,438,103	21,242,689
1928	33,895,638	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

LIST OF PRINCIPAL EXPORTS

	Oolong tea	Pouchong tea	Camphor (In ¥ 1,000)	Coal	Sugar	Cotton textiles	Dried and salted fish
1901	2,996	505	789	134	1,031	382	—
1909	4,301	1,506	4,377	92	2	342	—
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	6,532	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	4,439	1,536	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	2,331	1,387	122	1,055	1,495

Of the above, tea deserves special mention. In 1934 production of un-refined tea amounted to 18,392,028 kin, worth ¥7,546,869, and that of refined tea 16,996,587 kin, worth ¥10,894,283. Refined tea included ¥3,562,301 of Oolong tea, ¥3,074,989 of Pouchong tea, ¥4,250,395 of black tea, and ¥6,600 of green tea. The tea is almost exclusively produced in Taihoku and Shinchiku provinces.

	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	5,072,996	3,117,360	7,478	8,258	5,080,474	3,125,618
Pouchong	4,576,709	2,641,336	478,324	179,521	5,055,033	2,820,907
Black tea	4,725,811	2,839,002	767,409	936,065	5,493,220	3,825,087
Green tea	8,672	4,116	—	—	8,672	4,116
Total including others	16,271,334	8,917,948	1,269,821	1,129,150	16,540,715	10,047,098

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 1934 show that the exports of black tea greatly increased amounting to ¥2,889,002 against ¥557,963 for 1933. Details follow:

LIST OF PRINCIPAL IMPORTS

	(In ¥ 1,000)						
	Opium	Leaf tobacco	Lamp oil	Gunny bags	Lumber	Matches	Bean cake
1901	2,310	242	841	21	430	74	74
1909	2,379	650	735	307	428	346	422
1912	3,003	800	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	6,852
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	1,434	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	417	118	—	12,204

TAIWAN'S TRADE WITH JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

	(In yen)			
	Exports	Imports	Total	Balance
1902	7,407,498	9,235,220	16,642,718	1,827,792
1909	36,309,500	24,006,303	60,315,803	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	129,906,230	345,155,037	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

LEADING EXPORTS TO JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

	(In ¥ 1,000)						
	Rice	Sugar	Canned pineapples	Camphor	Camphor oil	Alcohol	Bananas
1902	1,608	3,172	—	869	921	—	—
1909	8,779	33,001	—	—	1,510	111	155
1912	10,260	28,134	—	1,008	1,561	1,502	336
1916	6,960	51,685	—	1,602	2,313	7,636	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	2,076	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	6,950	8,137

LEADING IMPORTS FROM JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

Year	(In ¥1,000)						
	Wheat flour	Dried and salt fish	Iron	Cotton and silk tissues	Paper	Lumber	Fertilizers
1902	57	98	235	1,065	221	705	8
1909	—	1,567	—	2,586	492	1,692	1,069
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	19,505	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	8,605	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
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

Finance

The Bank of Taiwan is invested with authority to issue notes. This bank was founded in September, 1899, replacing the Taiwan Agency of the Bank of Japan. The bank was capitalized at ¥5,000,000 when it was founded. After 1920 its capitalization was increased to ¥60,000,000, but in September, 1925, it was cut to ¥45,000,000 and further to ¥15,000,000 in November, 1927, due to its readjustment following the great financial panic of the spring of 1927. The head office is in Taihoku and it has 31 branches and one agency in Japan and abroad. The Japan Hypothec Bank maintains its real estate business in Taiwan and the outstanding balance of its loan in the island at the end of 1934 amounted to ¥82,870,000. The aggregate capitalization of banks having their head offices in the island at the end of 1934 was ¥28,300,000, of which ¥20,670,000 was paid up. The balance of deposits at the end of 1934 was ¥151,420,000, of which savings deposits totalled ¥10,310,000 and the outstanding balance of loans totalled ¥252,640,000. Exchange deals for the 1934-1935 fiscal year totalled ¥967,900,000 for income

and ¥942,020,000 for payment. The balance of note issue of the Bank of Taiwan at the end of 1934 totalled ¥62,650,000, of which excess issue was ¥19,190,000.

Government-General Finance The finance of the Taiwan Government-General has become independent from subsidization by the general accounts of the Central Government since the 1905-06 fiscal year, owing to favourable income following the Russo-Japanese War. In 1897 the revenue was about 11 million yen. In 1907, 10 years after the establishment of special accounts in Taiwan, the revenue increased to three times that amount; in 1917, after 10 more years, to six times; in 1927, to 12 times; and in 1929 to 13 times the first figure. Revenue and expenditure follow:

Year	Revenue (In yen)	Expenditure
1897	11,283,265	10,487,610
1907	35,295,772	27,709,751
1917	65,425,496	46,168,558
1927	138,626,830	101,533,285
1929	150,420,607	122,295,326
1930	129,757,760	109,970,381
1931	115,972,147	99,060,018
1932	120,303,279	97,240,295
1933	130,812,152	102,220,515
1934	141,617,595	112,176,683
1935	(estimate) 120,136,081	120,136,081

Bonds Expenses required for enterprises such as the railway construction, land investigation, Keelung harbour construction, building of government offices, river work, Takao harbour construction, and purchase of private railways were raised by bonds. The outstanding balance of bonds in 1900 was ¥3,200,000, which increased to ¥34,465,399 in 1910, ¥94,213,038 in 1925, ¥106,946,733 in 1927 and ¥128,057,690 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 licenced smokers at the end of 1932 had decreased to 19,532, of whom 16,532 were males and 3,254 females. The Chinese people who smoke opium on licence at the end of 1932 numbered 191, of whom 174 were males. Japan, in conformity with the spirit of the League of Nations' International Opium Treaty, has been endeavouring to stamp out the bad habit of opium smoking and has realized satisfactory results so far.

There are two forms of opium, viz., "treacle-opium" for smoking, and

powder; the latter is sold only for medicinal purposes. Raw material obtained from poppies is imported from British India, Persia and Turkey. The Persian products are widely used now. Sales to licenced 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:

Year	Quantity	Total sales
1902	130,723,125 grammes	¥3,008,386
1906	87,690,750	4,359,497
1910	80,320,875	4,844,534
1913	86,326,500	5,289,495
1918	76,326,750	6,650,764
1922	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

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 ¥2,771,324 for 1934.

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 im-

proving the quality compelled the Government-General to assume monopoly in 1899. The camphor production amounts to about 3,000,000 kilogrammes a year, which represents 70 per cent. of the world's production. The manufacturing of camphor and camphor oil used to be entrusted to the Taiwan Seino Kaisha, but in July, 1934, the Government-General purchased it and now places the production and sales of their articles under its direct control. The improved B-quality camphor is sold by the monopoly bureau as material for refined camphor or celluloid. Refined oil is directly sold by the bureau in Taiwan, but in Japan it is sold to industrialists through the Japanese Government Monopoly Bureau. It is exported abroad on consignment mostly to the United States, Great Britain and other countries. The United States is the largest consumer. The sales price of improved B-quality for 1932 was ¥145.50 per kilogramme f.o.b. Taihoku and ¥148 f.o.b. Kobé. By-products are widely used for making insecticides. As the demand for camphor increases yearly, the Taiwan Monopoly Bureau is carrying out a camphor-tree plantation plan covering an area of 135,246 acres, for the production from natural-grown trees is expected shortly to become too small to meet the future demand. The annual proceeds from the camphor monopoly average nearly ¥12,000,000. The United States used to buy about ¥2,400,000 of camphor a year, but the export amount has decreased somewhat in recent years, owing to the invention of synthetic camphor.

Tobacco The tobacco monopoly in Taiwan dates from 1905. At the

beginning of the monopoly the quality of tobacco grown in Taiwan was so poor that the leaves had to be imported from China. Efforts were made by the authorities for the improvement of native-grown leaves. Now tobacco cultivated in Taiwan is not inferior to Chinese tobacco. In addition to the Chinese variety, a successful experiment has been made in the cultivation of an American yellow variety for cigarettes, and another for cigars. The area of tobacco plantation in Taiwan was about 776 ha. in 1933 and the crop of leaves about 1,535,689 kg. The proceeds of tobacco monopoly for the fiscal year 1906-07 totalled ¥1,492,284, which increased to ¥11,531,850 for the year 1921-22, ¥16,275,916 for the year 1929-30, but declined to ¥14,465,962 for the year 1931-32, advancing to ¥16,552,070 for the 1934-35 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 brings in about ¥3,350,000 a year.

Railways

At the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan there was a 62-mile railway between Keelung and Shinchiku. Railway construction was undertaken by the Government-General subsequently and now the total mileage is 881 km. The railway receipts are as follows:

Fiscal year	Passenger fares	Freight receipts (In ¥1,000)	Others	Total	Indices
1900-01	214	127	1	342	100
1906-07	1,062	1,138	9	2,209	643

Fiscal year	Passenger fares	Freight receipts (In ¥1,000)	Others	Total	Indices
1916-17	2,575	3,544	44	6,163	1,455
1926-27	7,488	9,711	—	17,199	5,008
1927-28	8,002	10,644	—	18,646	5,428
1928-29	8,277	11,420	—	19,697	5,735
1929-30	8,349	11,915	—	20,264	5,900
1930-31	7,720	11,891	—	19,611	5,564
1931-32	6,897	11,867	—	18,764	5,317
1932-33	7,109	11,742	—	18,851	5,488
1933-34	7,468	11,862	—	19,331	5,628
1934-35	7,966	13,458	—	21,425	6,238

PRIVATE RAILWAY STATISTICS IN TAIWAN

Railways	Mileage (in km.)	Passenger fares		Freight receipts		Others & total	Indices for income
		(in ¥ 1,000)		(in ¥ 1,000)			
1907-08	120	50,120	34,900	85,194	100		
1926-27	525	986,557	2,060,641	3,089,685	3,627		
1928-29	551	993,761	2,392,948	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		

Light Railways

Light Railways	Mileage (in km.)	Passenger fares	Freight receipts	Total	Indices for income
		(In ¥1,000)			
1907-08	267	—	—	—	100
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	1,857	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	498

Electricity

The Taiwan Electric Power Company, Ltd., was established in April, 1919, under ordinance of the Taiwan Government-General. The Government-General appraised all of its electric assets at ¥12,000,000 and offered them to the company. The Government-General owns the company's shares to that amount, being the largest shareholder. The company started a gigantic power-generating undertaking, utilizing the

water of Lake Jitsugetsutan, in August of the same year, but, owing to the subsequent financial depression, the work was suspended. In 1929 the resumption of work was decided on and the necessary amount, \$22,800,000 (¥45,737,211) was raised in America in July, 1931, on Government guarantee. Work was actually resumed in October of the same year on a three-year plan. Taiwan's electric enterprises at the end of 1934, are summarized as follows:

Companies	Capitalization	Lamps fitted	Power supplied kw.	Fans fitted
Taiwan Electric Power	Y34,495,000	646,094	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 is the capital city of Taiwan. It is situated on the Tamsui River, near the northern extremity of the island. Formerly it consisted of three districts, Jonai, Daitotei and Manka, but with the introduction of the municipal system in 1920, all the surrounding villages were included in the greater Taihoku, and at present the city covers an area of about 15 square miles, embracing a population of 283,085, including 81,277 Japanese, 185,594 natives and 16,214 foreigners, mostly Chinese residents. In Jonai are found the important public buildings, such as the official residence of the Governor-General, and many governmental buildings. Most of the Japanese residents live in this district. Daitotei is the commercial centre. It is inhabited by more than 63,000 people and is renowned for its tea trade. Manka is situated close by the Tamsui River, west of Jonai. This district was formerly the most flourishing part of the city. During the Manchu Dynasty its commercial supremacy was transferred to Daitotei. This district is populated by 37,000 inhabitants. There are many places of interest in and around Taihoku, of which the more famous are:

TAIWAN SHRINE This shrine is situated at a point two miles east of Taihoku. The sanctuary is built in the old Japanese style. In the neighbourhood is the noted Maruyama park commanding a very fine

view.

THE RAPIDS OF SHINTEN KEI Situated at a point about 8 miles from Taihoku and at the confluence of the two rivers of Shinten-Kei, the rapids are among the chief attractions for visitors to Taiwan. On both sides stand out precipices. Shooting the rapids by boat affords a favourite pastime.

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 54,110 in 1934.

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 84,650 inhabitants extends as far as Taihoku covering a distance of 18 miles. Keelung is not only a port for liners from Japan proper, but is an important port for those sailing to and from south China and the South Seas. Keelung was once occupied by Spaniards and afterwards by the Dutch, and was under the control of the Manchu Dynasty. About 1.5 miles distant from Keelung is located the famous Courbet Beach, where the French Admiral Courbet, in command of the French Asiatic

Squadron consisting of 15 warships, landed during the Franco-Chinese War in 1884. This admiral was one of the victims of infectious disease, which claimed a heavy toll among his men. He died on Boko Island where his tomb still stands.

Taichu Located about 100 miles south of Taihoku in the centre of rice production. It is the seat of the provincial government of the same name, with a population of 68,414. Lake Jitsugetsutan is in this province.

Kagi Kagi has a population of 70,083 and is situated 163 miles south of Taihoku. Kagi is the start-

ing point for climbers of Mt. Arisan.

Tainan Tainan has a population of 109,887, being the second largest port of Taiwan. Kaizan Shrine is dedicated to the spirit of Chen Cheng-kung, a loyal subject in the last days of the Ming Dynasty, who came over to this island, drove out the Dutch settlers, and opened war against the Manchu Dynasty, but failed.

Takao Takao has a population of 81,582. Terminus of the central railway line, situated at a distance of 229 miles from Taihoku, this port is as important in the south as Keelung is in the north.

CHAPTER XLII

KARAFUTO (SAGHALIEN)

General Survey

Geography Karafuto is a long island situated in the extreme north of the Empire of Japan along the Maritime Province of Siberia, and separated from it by the Mamiya Straits. The eastern coast is washed by the cold waters of the Sea of Okhotsk, which is bordered by the mainland of Siberia on the north, the Kamchatka Peninsula on the east, and the Chishima Islands (the Kuriles) on the south-east. Japanese Karafuto is the southern half of Saghalien Island, the dividing line being the 50th parallel of latitude; the northern half of the island is under the jurisdiction of Soviet Russia.

At the extreme southern end of the island lies Cape Nishi-Notoro. On the east or opposite side of it, across the Aniwa Gulf, is Cape Nakashirutoko, and embraced by these two capes is the port of Ohtomari at the northern extremity of the Gulf, which is an important port connecting with Wakkanai the extreme northern port of Hokkaido, across the Soya Straits. The traffic connection between Ohtomari and Wakkanai is maintained by freight boats run by the Imperial government railways.

Beyond Cape Nakashirutoko lies

Taraka Bay, on the farther side of which Cape Kitashirutoko runs out to the north-east. Thus, Karafuto is deeply indented by the two large gulfs, Aniwa and Taraka, the latter lying to the north-east of the former. The island has two mountain ranges running parallel from north to south with the plains hemmed in between. The total area of Karafuto is 36,090.3 sq. km., the length being 455.6 km. and the breadth from 27.5 at the narrowest to 157 km. at the widest.

Climate The months which enjoy an average temperature above the freezing point are the seven months from April to October. The coldest month is January and the warmest August. The temperature rises suddenly as the thawing season approaches and falls abruptly when the snows set in. The western coast is warmer than the eastern owing to the warm ocean current. The island is, as a whole, high in humidity on account of the frequency of sea fogs, except for the southern point of the western coast, but in both spring and autumn it decreases. Rainfall is most abundant in the summer and autumn seasons.

Population The great majority of the population of Karafuto is Japanese. The following table shows the racial distribution at the end of 1934:

POPULATION BY RACE OR NATIONALITY

Japanese	Korean	Ainu	Other Natives	Chinese	German	Polish	Russian	Total
304,995	5,878	1,058	"	72	6	26	193	313,130

POPULATION IN CHIEF TOWNS

(Dec. 31, 1934)

Toyohara	34,274	Shiratoru	18,968
Ohtomari	30,913	Esutoru	23,431
Shikuka	22,617	Ochiai	17,712
Hontocho	10,980	Tomarioru	10,325
Maoka	17,114	Rutaka	10,456

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 it extends over mining, forestry, taxation, railways and the postal service. The governmental work of Karafuto is subdivided into four main offices, i. e., Secretariat, Interior Bureau, Forestry Bureau and Police Bureau. The revenue budget of 1935 amounted to ¥24,890,000, of which ¥21,392,488 was from taxes and others, and the rest from various government undertakings and loans to the extent of

¥3,810,000.

Finance

The revenue of the Karafuto government is derived from taxes and other sources of income as well as an annual replenishment from the ordinary account of the national treasury. The principal taxes are:— the town homestead tax, income tax, business profit tax, liquor-brewing tax, liquor-export tax, consumption tax, mining business tax, and fishery tax. The revenue from all these taxes was, in the 1934-35 budget, estimated at ¥1,427,065. 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	570,557	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	—	2,009,912
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	8,886,012	1,100,000	3,707,623	7,607,920	20,801,558
1923	12,436,861	1,786,000	2,753,969	4,475,436	21,452,266
1924	15,772,056	1,000,000	2,168,245	416,218	19,357,520
1925	16,000,305	900,000	78,454	1,700,000	18,678,760
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

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1929	22,280,159	3,100,000	6,955,100	4,569	32,339,827

	Taxes and non-tax elements	Replenishment from national treasury	Sum brought forward	Loans	Total
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	24,890,913	—	3,812,140	—	28,703,053

(estimates)

EXPENDITURES

1907	1,211,968
1910	1,897,465
1911	1,907,281
1912	2,077,677
1913	2,278,046
1914	2,073,933
1915	1,680,657
1916	1,851,843
1917	2,108,483
1918	2,972,651
1919	5,741,865
1920	8,285,484
1921	12,065,581
1922	18,047,589
1923	19,284,026
1924	19,279,065
1925	18,059,946
1926	17,734,099
1927	19,982,340
1928	25,691,270
1929	28,587,359
1930	24,629,293
1931	26,123,936
1932	22,428,353
1933	23,566,668
1934	25,929,056
1935	28,703,053

Monetary Organs

The principal monetary organs in the island are the Hokkaido Colonial Bank and the Karafuto Bank. The former is represented by its branches at Toyohara, Ohtomari, Maoka, Honto, Noda, Tomarioru, Ochiai, Shirutoru, Shisuka and Rutaka; its head office being located at Sapporo, Hokkaido. The business operation of the bank in the island at the end of 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 totalling ¥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. Beside these banks there is a special bank which has a branch at Toyohara, and that is the Hokumon Savings Bank. This savings bank branch was opened on April 1, 1922. Its local business operation showed at the end of 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 the oversea territories, the only exception being Karafuto, where the local authorities in view of the almost complete lack of nationalistic social work in operation and of the smallness in the number of non-Japanese elements in the population, issued an order in May of the same year, making possible the growth of the military drilling work for the youths. Below is shown the present status of the work so far carried on:

MILITARY TRAINING CAMPS

Town	Number of Camps	Attendants
Toyohara	8	238
Ohtomari	7	249
Honto	5	146
Maoka	7	351
Tomarioru	7	164
Motodomari	3	115
Shisuka	4	81
Total	41	1,344

Overseas Trade

The history of the overseas trade of Karafuto since 1905 is a history of steady expansion, though it under-

went a frequent recession in the course of those 31 years. The table below illustrates the trend in a more graphic way:

Year	To Foreign Countries (Yen)	To Japan proper (Yen)	Total (Yen)
1927	755,135	90,193,622	90,948,757
1928	937,710	97,000,380	97,938,090
1929	2,042,652	103,034,631	105,077,283
1930	2,335,126	82,140,506	84,475,632
1931	841,655	80,233,395	81,075,050
1932	274,447	92,626,343	92,900,790
1933	367,088	104,886,093	105,253,181
1934	430,644	133,777,256	134,207,900

SHIPMENTS TO AND FROM JAPAN PROPER

Year	Outward-bound (Yen)	Inward-bound (Yen)	Total (Yen)	Excess of Outward-bound (Yen)
1927	48,740,382	41,453,240	90,193,622	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	95,648,171	37,129,083	133,777,256	59,519,086

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 province, Britain, 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

	1929 (Yen)	1930 (Yen)	1931 (Yen)	1932 (Yen)	1933 (Yen)	1934 (Yen)
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	—	81,834	12,321
Soviet Russia	—	—	—	—	8,000	6,851
China	948,708	1,739,906	635,650	898	—	500
Kwantung Province	374,699	247,540	10	4,347	18,049	1,952
America and European Countries	—	162	—	212	—	—
Total	1,323,407	1,987,008	635,660	8,558	107,883	21,624

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 follow-

ing 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:

FISHERY PRODUCTS IN MONEY VALUE (Yen)

Kind	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Herrings	14,076,736	9,811,608	8,020,723	6,756,851	6,868,066	9,856,354
Trout	1,219,258	1,161,910	609,279	369,120	1,927,229	817,164
Salmon	232,904	328,340	194,625	115,585	210,498	295,982
Codfish	1,568,439	1,220,662	916,877	878,429	845,675	757,802
Sardines	129,532	96,481	19,273	186,945	215,284	191,002
Soles	161,235	98,770	52,634	65,296	153,940	142,293
Crabs	1,810,395	1,061,558	1,749,480	937,335	1,683,325	2,280,518
Seaweed	642,398	745,251	689,600	934,927	501,406	957,025
Whales	124,732	88,149	14	—	—	—
Sharks	14,352	4,263	1,990	6,004	4,216	2,914
Hypomesus japonicus	39,289	26,246	19,486	14,216	35,588	45,536
Shellfish	100,047	158,685	131,912	34,218	75,084	79,301
Others	661,298	507,067	344,326	388,842	674,039	747,964
Total	20,880,610	15,909,075	13,750,419	10,638,131	13,195,350	15,673,760

Timber Production

The island is so thickly and extensively covered with primeval forests that, according to an authoritative estimate, about 2,976,491 hectares, i. e., about 83 per cent. of the entire area of the territory, is forest land. In this estimate is included 833,333 hectares reserved for future growth and 79,365 hectares in use for the field work of the Imperial Universities of Tokyo, Kyoto, Hokkaido and Kyushu. There are about 49 species of trees and 73 of shrubs growing on the island, but those that have any commercial value are the Ezo-matsu (*Picea ajanensis*, Fisch), todo-matsu (*Abies 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 district. In the low coastwise districts we find the yanagi, hannoki, tamo, etc.; on the higher levels grow the todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu, and as we climb the slopes forests of the graceful silver birch mix with and replace the pines (matsu), growing thicker and thicker as the mountain peaks are approached. The gui-matsu (a pine species) grows principally in the lower, damper land. But the todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu are the species which predominate in nearly all parts of the island, occupying as much as 80 per cent. of the total forest land. The revenue from the forestry amounted to ¥21,680,839 in 1934.

Forest Administration In ancient

times the entire island of Karafuto was nothing but thick forest and the natives seem to have had no rules to prevent them from felling trees whenever or wherever they chose; but they apparently felt no need to fell any large amount of standing trees. The land was almost as primeval as could be imagined when it was ceded by Russia to Japan in 1905. Moreover, during the earlier period of the new régime, 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 seedlings 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 seedlings were carried on over a tract of 10,460.74 hectares and the supplementary sowings made on a tract of 2,569.68 hectares. Below more detailed figures are given:

Year	New Seeding (Hectares)	Supplementary Seeding (Hectares)
1921	15.47	—
1922	50.01	—
1923	4,285.09	—
1924	4,754.39	—
1925	7,259.07	—
1926	11,272.60	7,740.26
1927	10,460.74	2,569.68

Year	New Seeding (Hectares)	Supplementary Seeding (Hectares)
1928	7,571.17	—
1929	3,442.45	—
1930	445.00	—
1931	—	—
1932	407.03	—
1933	35.10	—
1934	181.66	—
Total	50,188.21	10,309.94

Seedling Work With the increased need of re-forestation with saplings, the seedling work has become quite important. Since the first sapling-plantation was established at Toyohara in 1912 its number 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
Toyohara	15,211.0	5/1912
Shimizu	4,950.0	5/1920
Tokobo	13,048.5	5/1920
Tominaigishi	7,946.7	..
Tomarioru	4,676.1	..
Takarazawa	4,983.9	..
Kawakami	6,728.7	..
Otomari	4,989.3	5/1926
Tamagawa	19,404.0	5/1927
Yamashitagawa	6,168.4	5/1927
Minaminazuki	5,332.8	5/1929
Obara	6,887.8	5/1929
Kitakotami	13,821.7	5/1929
Towada	0,153.0	5/1929
Onotoro	1,250.0	5/1930
Nayori	7,425.0	4/1931
Kamishisuka	14,910.0	4/1931
Total	137,886.9	—

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 1934 was as follows:

	(Yen)
Receipts	2,724,922
Expenses	535,520

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	7,187.030
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

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 standing 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 1934 the total length of these openings for protection from fire reached 1,015,945.

FIRE-PREVENTION OPENINGS

Year	Extension (metres)
1922	13,495
1923	78,297
1924	87,973
1925	15,173
1926	237,973
1927	157,530
1928	119,129

Year	Extention (metres)
1929	95,729
1930	22,062
1931	27,962
1932	82,840
1933	55,444
1934	23,568
Total	1,015,945

Re-forestation Work The forest-restocking 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 1934 products of various industries amounted to ¥126,538,366 of which products of manufacturing industries aggregated

¥75,466,270, 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 at Tomarioru by the Karafuto Kogyo Kabushiki Kaisha,

both starting operations in 1915. Soon the World War gave an opportunity stimulus to the speedy development of the industry and at present there are eight pulp factories in the island turning out an aggregate of 175,000 metric tons of pulp and 150,000,000 kilogrammes of paper valued at ¥61,470,000. This means that at present about one-half of the total pulp supplies are from Karafuto. Below is given further information in this respect:

PULP FACTORIES IN KARAFUTO

Company	Location
Oji Paper Manufacturing Company ¹	Ohtomari
" " " "	Toyohara
" " " "	Noda
" " " "	Tomarioru
" " " "	Maoka
" " " "	Esutoru
" " " "	Ochial
" " " "	Shirutoru

PRODUCTION AT EACH PULP FACTORY (AT THE END OF 1932)

Company	Factory	Manufactures	Productive Capacity (French ton)	Quantity Produced	Amount (Yen)
Oji	Otomari	Pulp	13,000	—	—
"	Toyohara	Pulp	71,000	21,925	2,042,141
		Paper		2,197	284,800
"	Noda	Pulp	15,000	8,947	1,036,626
		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 sake on the inland 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 quali-

ty. The result proved promising, and today the island-brewed saké is as good as any produced in Japan proper. There are at present about 50 breweries.

¹ 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 AND SUPPLIES OF SAKÉ

	Production		Import from Japan Proper	
	Quantity (thousand deci-litre)	Value (Yen)	Quantity (litre)	Value (Yen)
1926	72,613	3,842,245	197,710	1,240,445
1927	69,467	3,636,155	195,670	1,222,755
1928	66,608	3,862,003	254,670	1,490,544
1929	65,181	3,043,598	221,470	1,867,567
1930	45,614	1,926,964	183,310	956,698
1931	41,316	1,839,171	190,530	953,183
1932	42,748	1,800,355	172,870	921,881
1933	58,876	2,662,056	303,400	—
1934	70,423	3,205,850	502,900	—

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 the result both number of mills and products decreased. But the industry has been as a while consolidated and is developing steadily. The number of cannery and the products during the years 1932-34 follow:

year	No. of canneries	Qty. prod'd	Value (Yen)
1932	25	32,041	915,335
1933	29	38,979	1,660,648
1934	38	54,985	2,268,286

Legal System and Status

Karafuto is different from other dependencies of the country in that more laws of the land of Japan are applied there than in any of the others. But, in that the legal administration is different from that of Japan proper it resembles Taiwan, Chosen, Kwantung Province and the South Sea Islands. The chief point of difference is that all the laws concerning the judicial system, such as the civil law, criminal law, the laws of civil and criminal procedures, and the law of the con-

stitution 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

When 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 1920 all elementary schools were brought under the Karafuto government. A middle school was opened at Ohtomari in 1912, a girls' high school at Toyohara in 1916, a middle school at Toyohara in 1925 and another middle school at Maoka in 1927. Meantime, girls' high schools were opened at Ohtomari, Maoka and Tomarigishi. The following tables give the main educational statistics of Karafuto:

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, TEACHERS AND PUPILS

(End of 1935)

District	Number of Schools	Teachers	Pupils
Toyohara	41	254	10,459
Ohtomari	57	277	10,881
Honto	22	95	3,794
Maoka	29	179	7,811
Tomarioru	42	200	8,176
Motodomari	18	101	4,195
Shisuka	17	81	3,966
Total	226	1,125	49,282

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-machi, 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 Shintoism representing five sects, viz., Shinto proper, Kurosumi, Tenri, Konko and Taisha. There are three governmental shrines and these are (1) Karafuto Shrine, (2) Toyohara Shrine and (3) Ani Shrine,

all of which are dedicated to Imperial ancestors. August 23 is the day set for the annual festival of the Karafuto Shrine, which is also the Inauguration Day of Japanese administration in Karafuto. The shrine is located at Asahiga-oka in a quiet western hilly suburb of Toyohara, and strikes the chance visitor with a sense of admiration for its grave beauty. The anniversary of the Toyohara Shrine falls on July 11. Buddhism is represented by the Shin, Nichiren, Soto, Shingon, Jodo and other sects. There are 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 suf-

ficiently demonstrates the degree to which they are separated.

So small are the individual islands in area that the premier ones, such as Ponape and Babelthuap, cover barely 269 square kilometres. Their topography differs according to geological conditions. The Marshalls, which are made up of coral reefs, rise only 1.5 or 2 metres above sea level, but the Marianas and Carolines, which are composed largely of volcanic rocks, have peaks rising as high as 758 metres and little level land. There are no navigable rivers, and in several places good roads are still lacking.

With the exception of Yap, practically all of the islands are composed of volcanic rocks and coral reefs. There are three kinds of coral reefs, though no clear demarcation can be drawn; and the volcanic rocks are of two kinds, basalt and andesite, the former being found in Truk, Ponape and Kusaie, of the Carolines, and the latter in Palau and Saipan. Everywhere in the islands, sea-birds nest and deposit phosphate, but principally on Angaur, Peleliu, Togobei and Fais. The soil also contains some amount of phosphoric acid, which helps vegetables and trees to grow. The narrowness of each islet, the volcanic topography and the dearth of rainfall, however, are handicaps to agriculture.

Groups of Islands

The Marianas The Marianas, the northernmost part of the territory,

consist of 14 islands covering 632 square kilometres. At the southern extremity is Saipan, the seat of the Saipan Branch Office, with jurisdiction over the whole of the Mariana archipelago. The Saipan group, 183.89 square kilometres in area, starts 64.36 km. to the northeast of Guam and stretches 104.59 km. to the southwest. Being nearest to Japan proper, the group forms the gateway to the South Sea Islands. It not only enjoys favourable communications with the mainland of Japan, but is endowed with fertile soil adapted to the cultivation of sugar cane, which has drawn no small number of immigrants. Here the South Sea Islands Development Company engages in the refining of sugar.

The Carolines The Carolines, lying along the equator, are divided into the four administrative groups of Palau, Yap, Truk and Ponape. On the island of Corrol in the Palau group are located both the South Sea government and its Palau branch office. The number of isles under the jurisdiction of this branch office is 109, covering an area of 80.29 square kilometres. Babelthuap, commonly called the Main Island of the Palaus, has 370.37 square kilometres. Angaur, about 64.36 km. southwest of Corrol, is called the treasure island of the archipelago, being buried under phosphate mounds. A regular steamship line connects it with Menado of Celebes and Davao of Mindanao, in the Philippine Islands. The Palaus are not only the administrative pivot, but are important geographically.

The Yap group lies 418.34 km. to the northeast of Palau and consists of 85 islets covering 228.91 square kilometres and extending 804.50 km. from north to east. The four main islands, with an area of 36.26 square kilometres, are widely known as a

junction of submarine cables. Here also is located the Yap branch office.

The Truk group lies 1,383.74 km. east of Yap, dotting the surface of the sea like a nebula. The Truk branch office, located on Natsau Island, controls 245 islets, which total in area only 124.16 square kilometres. As Natsau Island was formerly the seat of the German local government and later the headquarters of the Japanese defence corps for the entire mandated territory, it is fairly well known to the outside world.

The Ponape group is located 627.51 km. due east of Truk and consists of 138 islets covering more than 492.10 square kilometres. The island of Ponape, with 380.73 square kilometres in area, ranks first among all the islands of the territory. It is full of hills and is lacking in level land. Textile manufacturing and sugar refining were once started here by the Japanese, but later discontinued. Hope is still retained for some industrial undertakings, and a branch laboratory of the Industrial Experiment Station of the islands was established here in 1925 to make trial plantings of rice and medical herbs.

The Marshalls The Marshalls are located 1,222.84 km. east of Ponape. At the southern tip is Jaluit, on which is located the Jaluit branch office, which has control over the main portion of the archipelago, 32 islets, made up of more than 860 coral reefs comprising an area of 150.94 square kilometres. The soil being quite suited to the growth of cocoanut 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 untrodden 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 Singapore, Hong-Kong, Australia and

the United States.

In looking back upon the German programme in the South Sea Islands, we are struck above everything else with the largeness of its scale. A general government was first established in New Guinea, which sought to implant German authority in the Orient by embracing the numberless islets between New Guinea and Tsingtao. A step to this end was the laying in 1904 of a submarine cable connecting Yap with Shanghai, Guam and Menado, and in 1913 a radio telegraph station of gigantic size was erected on the same island. To make a scientific study of the South Sea Islands, the German Government dispatched a number of experts. One of their discoveries was phosphate, of which a deposit of 3,000,000 tons was found on Angaur. The German Phosphate Company, founded in Bremen in 1908, conducted mining operations until the Japanese occupation. Other deposits, though less valuable, were located at Peleliu, Togobei and Fais.

Germany exercised special efforts in diffusing culture among the natives, and to this end it dispatched no less than 100 missionaries, who opened churches in all the principal villages of the islands. The older natives still keep the German style of Roman letters to this day. Besides paying attention to educational advancement within the territory, the authorities sent men of talent to Tsingtao for further study.

Relations with Japan It is presumed that there must have been some early intercourse between Japan and the archipelagos because of their geographical position, but there is no reliable evidence of it. The Japanese training cruiser *Ryujo* in 1884 touched at Kusaie, an islet belonging to the Ponape group, where the chief of the natives enthusiastically welcomed the crew, declaring that

his people were descendants of the Japanese race. In the same year, the Japanese Government, informed of the massacre of a Japanese on Raje Island, of the Marshalls, dispatched Mr. Taketaro Goto, who succeeded in settling the matter with the local chieftain. Early commercial relations were initiated by the South Island Company (Nanto Shokai), established at Ponape with the capital of ¥44,000, but its business was soon transferred to the Ichiya Shokai, which failed in 1895. In the year following the appearance of the Nanto Shokai, two other trading firms, the Kaitsu Sha and Koshin Sha, came into existence; the former lasted only two years, but the latter carried on business until the Japanese occupation of the islands. The Hioki South Sea Trading Company was founded in 1893 with branches at Ponape, Truk, Saipan and Guam. Since amalgamation with the Murayama Shokai in 1906, it has been operating as the South Sea Trading Company and doing an extensive business.

Population

According to the census taken on April 1, 1935, the total population of the mandated territory is 98,565, comprising 51,056 natives, 47,412 Japanese and 97 foreigners. Of the natives, there are 47,016 Kanaka and 4,040 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 de-

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.

crease.

When Japan took over the archipelago, there were only a few scores of Japanese dwellers. Gradually increasing, there are now 28,870 males and 18,542 females, most of them dwell within the jurisdiction of the Saipan branch office and are 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 remained fewer than 20 foreigners, chiefly Americans and British. The census taken on April 1, 1935, gives the number as 97 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 and 1930.

DENSITY OF POPULATION,

April 1, 1935

District under Branch Office	Population	Area sq. km	Density per 1 sq. km
Saipan	40,875	639	64.0
Yap	6,439	225	28.5
Palau	12,210	478	25.5
Ponape	11,192	504	22.2
Jaluit	10,331	170	60.8
Truk	17,210	478	25.5
Total	98,565	2,149	45.9

POPULATION BY GROUPS

(April 1, 1935)

		Saipan	Yap	Palau	Truk	Ponape	Jaluit	Total
Japanese	men	21,805	248	3,980	1,461	1,565	315	28,870
	women	14,638	148	2,118	608	870	160	18,542
	total	35,943	391	6,098	2,069	2,436	475	47,412
Natives	men	2,557	2,970	3,394	7,833	4,607	5,092	26,453
	women	2,369	3,068	2,703	7,592	4,124	4,756	24,608
	total	4,917	6,038	6,097	15,425	8,731	9,848	51,056
Foreign	men	7	6	11	18	12	8	64
	women	8	4	2	6	13	—	33
	total	15	10	13	24	25	8	97
Total	men	23,869	3,219	7,387	9,912	6,185	5,415	55,867
	women	17,096	3,229	4,823	8,205	5,007	4,916	43,178
	total	40,875	6,439	12,210	17,519	11,192	10,331	98,565

Chosenese and Taiwanese are included in the figures for Japanese.

YEARLY INCREASE OF POPULATION

Period	Japanese	Native	Foreign	Total
1920	3,671	48,505	46	52,222
1925	7,430	48,789	66	56,294
1930	19,835	49,695	96	69,626
1932	25,766	50,045	98	75,909
1933	30,670	50,114	100	80,884
1934	35,328	50,174	103	85,605
1935	47,412	51,056	97	98,565

Tribes, Customs and Manners

Tribes Opinions differ as to the tribes residing in the mandated South Sea Islands. Some say that they immigrated from the Malay Peninsula, while others maintain that they are of the Polynesians. Though anthropologically named the Micronesian race, it is evident that they are a hybrid. Separate groups are clearly discernible, each with its own language and customs and manners. Roughly they are divided into the Kanaka and Chamorro. The former belong to the Micronesian race, and the latter are said to be of mixed White and Kanaka extraction, though other explanations are sometimes given.

The Chamorro are supposed to have settled first in Guam, later removing to neighbouring isles, and the fact that they now flourish largely in the Marianas, Yap and Palau seems to endorse the supposition. Though the tribe thrived fairly well under the Spanish régime, it has gradually dwindled, due mainly to massacres, until today it numbers only 3,400. The characteristic

features are yellowish brown skin and black hair. The Chamorro, unlike the Kanaka, are industrious and mild in nature. Their mode of living is advanced, and some even reside in foreign-style houses with modern improvements. Their present culture owes much to religious influences in the time of Spanish control.

Kanaka is the general term for the natives of the Pacific islands. Most of those dwelling in the mandated islands belong to this group. They have dark brown or yellowish brown skin, black hair, heavy eyebrows and a big mouth. They are not hairy, and are simple and mild in nature. Though generally of medium stature, some are fairly tall. The Kanaka are cheerful in disposition, but extremely lazy. Their cultural standards are very low, and the mode of living lingers in the primitive stage. Of the total of 50,000 natives in the islands, those belonging to the Kanaka number 46,600.

Customs and Manners Because of the warm climate, it was originally the custom of the natives to wear nothing except a piece of cloth around the waist. Contact with advanced people, however, has brought a change, and some now use foreign clothing. In Saipan and the Marshalls, the natives are clad after the fashion of Europeans, but those in

Ponape, Truk, Palau and especially Yap are almost stark naked. The natives are not indifferent to personal adornment. Tattooing is an outstanding example. The more complicated the tattoo marks and the larger the space they cover, the more respected is the owner. There is also the strange ornamentation of scars deliberately cut into the flesh, which has more influence in Ponape than in the other islands. The custom of driving a hole through the ear-lobe for an ear-ring or other dangling ornaments has been becoming less common of late years, due principally to the diffusion of education.

The staple foods of the natives are fruits, fish and meat. Nature bountifully supplies coconuts and tubers, which are mainly relied on, and tapioca, bananas, pineapples, mangoes, lemons and oranges, all of which are used as subsidiary food. Under such circumstances, it is but natural that little attention is given to agriculture. Fishing has made but little advance, but the supply of beef and pork is fairly sufficient. Wine and tobacco are greatly sought after, though the use of the former is almost completely prohibited. The habit of chewing areca still prevails.

The structure and appearance of dwellings vary in accordance with the cultural standard of each group of isles. In Saipan there is a street that looks like one in Europe, but in Yap one is reminded of how people lived in prehistoric ages. The dwellings in Truk and Jaluit are far inferior to those in Palau and Ponape, having not even floors. A general lack of windows leaves the interiors sombre and damp. "All-men-houses" are found everywhere in the archipelagos, which serve as a sort of rendezvous for the male villagers or inn for travellers. On

Yap there are one or two houses to every village where women live when ailing.

Social Conditions

As the natives are not yet far removed from the primitive stage, their knowledge is very limited. They adhere to the traditions handed down from their forefathers and seem incapable of assimilating with any rapidity the cultural attainments of the outside world with which they come in contact. Only a few can count correctly. Yet they have been progressing in 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 co-

conut trees and land has become discernible. They have aversion to anything that requires systematic labour. This is because they are little accustomed to it, there being no need for hard work where food is plentiful without it. In former times they were absorbed in subduing neighbouring villages, but in recent years their barbaric temperament has greatly abated in consequence of appropriate measures taken toward this end by the Japanese Government.

Each group uses its own language or dialect, and there are many instances of different languages in a single group of islets. Between the main island of Yap and the islets within its orbit, there is no common language. Since Japan took charge of the educational work, Japanese has been taught, increasingly meeting the daily needs of the natives.

Administration

Following severance of diplomatic relations with Germany, the Japanese navy occupied in October, 1914, the German territory of the South Sea Islands and established a military government. In December, 1915, when military headquarters were instituted at Truk, the islands were divided into six administrative districts, each governed by a resident garrison commander. In June, 1918, subsequent to the issuance of an Imperial ordinance, a civil administration was created under the commander of the Provisional South Sea Defence Corps, and civil officials took over the functions formerly entrusted to the commanders.

By conclusion of the peace treaty in January, 1920, the islands were placed under Japanese mandate. Realizing the need of effecting fundamental renovation in the administration, the Japanese Government, upon withdrawing the troops, estab-

lished the present South Sea Government in April, 1922. This was in accordance with an Imperial Ordinance of March, 1922, parts of which were later revised in 1924, 1927, 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, alms-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

so-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.

OFFICIAL PERSONNEL, June 30, 1935

Office	Chokunin rank	Sonin rank	Hannin rank	Treated as Hannin rank	Non-regular	Em- ployees	Total
South Sea government	1	10	66	7	17	115	216
Branch office	—	3	53	93	2	82	233
Elementary schools	—	—	84	—	—	—	84
Public schools	—	—	60	—	—	24	84
Courts of justice	—	5	4	—	—	5	14
Industrial experimental stations	—	4	7	—	—	15	26
Mine	—	1	7	—	1	7	16
Hospitals	—	9	25	—	1	47	82
Post offices	—	—	59	—	—	80	139
Meteorological observatories	—	1	5	—	—	13	19
Industrial schools	—	—	3	—	—	—	3
Total	1	33	373	100	21	388	916

LOCAL ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICIALS, September 1, 1935

Branch office	So-soncho	Kucho	Soncho	Joyaku	Total
Palau	2	—	13	—	15
Saipan	—	2	—	6	8
Yap	10	1	—	—	11
Truk	6	—	23	—	29
Ponape	13	—	14	—	27
Jaluit	1	—	16	—	17
Total	32	3	66	6	107

Police Administration Under the Police Affairs Section of the government there is a branch section at each of the six branch offices of the government. In addition, there are a police officer's detached station at Tinian, another at Rota, assistant police inspector's detached stations at Kusaie and Angaur and policemen's offices at 23 less important 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 budget in the past five years follow:

ANNUAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

Fiscal Year	Revenue			Expenditure		Total
	Ordinary Revenue	Extraordinary Revenue	Total	Ordinary expenditure	Extraordinary expenditure	
1926	¥2,399,369	4,608,958	7,008,327	2,310,110	1,638,464	3,948,574
1931	4,699,058	2,999,531	7,698,589	2,432,547	2,143,889	4,576,436
1932	4,819,299	3,134,687	7,953,986	2,500,544	2,233,198	4,733,743
1933	5,011,281	3,237,487	8,284,769	2,755,171	2,527,324	5,282,495
1934	5,118,466	2,979,828	8,098,295	2,914,837	2,478,924	5,393,761
1935*	5,827,266	150,430	5,977,696	3,156,214	2,821,482	5,977,696

* The figures for 1935 are estimates.

The poll tax, customs duties and clearance charges on shipments constitute the premier taxes. A poll tax not exceeding ¥10 is levied on every male native aged 16 or more and from ¥2 to ¥50 on Japanese and foreigners, although there are quite a number of exceptions. All imports from foreign countries are subject to customs duty in accordance with regulations established in May, 1922. These regulations also provide that all shipments to Japan and dutiable at the destination are subject to a clearance duty

at the same rate as levied at the destination.

The details of revenues are given below:

Import Duty, Clearance Dues, and Mine-Lot Tax in 1934

Branch office	(in yen)		
	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

Revenue from Taxes 1930-1935

Description of revenue	(in yen)					
	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36 (Estimate)
Poll tax	87,874	95,509	81,722	78,705	72,005	86,151
Clearance dues	1,761,691	3,074,433	3,099,000	3,037,227	2,691,536	3,647,390
Import duties	24,288	18,918	40,423	36,178	35,189	31,842
Mine-lot tax	—	143	143	143	1,005	574
Total	1,873,853	3,189,004	3,221,294	3,152,253	2,799,736	3,765,957

Revenue from Other Sources than Taxes, 1934-35
(in yen)

Items	Amount assessed	Amount received	Loss	Amount not rec'd yet
From Government properties and enterprises	2,272,631	2,272,538	17	75
Stamp receipts	22,891	22,891	—	—
Miscellaneous receipts	25,436	23,300	2,134	—
Sales of Government properties	13,554	13,554	—	—
Balance carried over from the previous year	2,966,274	2,966,274	—	—
Total	5,300,786	5,298,557	2,151	75

Revenue from Government Enterprises and Properties, 1934-35,
(in yen)

Branch Offices	Postal, cable and telephone receipts	Hospital	Forest-ry	Phosphate rocks	Gover't prop'tys	Elec-light	Total
Saipan Branch	109,172	27,767	779	—	46,104	33,650	217,475
Yap "	10,173	2,964	324	—	3,198	2,962	19,628
Palau "	76,341	26,941	1,739	1,778,750	4,899	32,492	1,921,165
Truk "	14,944	13,415	1,005	—	1,240	7,277	37,883
Ponape "	16,262	10,482	948	—	6,311	8,803	42,808
Jaluit "	7,214	10,696	20	—	9,914	5,736	33,582
Total	234,108	92,268	4,818	1,778,750	71,668	90,923	2,272,538

Land and Agriculture

All transactions in real estate owned by natives are subject to approval by the government, a practice initiated by the German administration to safeguard the interests of those whose concepts of property are rudimentary. Total acreage is put at 213,000 hectares, of which about 71,000 hectares are thought fit for coconut plantation and general farming. The land already cultivated is calculated at 51,300 hectares for puddy field and dry land, and for coconut plantation, leaving more than 20,000 hectares for future development. Engaged in agriculture are 40 per cent. of the entire native population, viz., 20,252 natives and 8,730 Japanese. There being little need of depending for their daily necessities upon farming, the agricultural technique of the natives is still in a primitive stage, but the rapid increase in the number of Japanese, who are setting good examples, will sooner or later bring

about some improvement. Live-stock farming is also undeveloped, though the natives raise cattle, hogs, goats, hens and ducks, the cattle for transportation and farming purposes and the hogs and hens for food.

Sugar-cane cultivation dates as far back as the beginning of the 16th century, but until the arrival of the Japanese there was no sugar refinery and the inhabitants ate the cane raw. The island of Saipan being found fully qualified in both climate and soil, there was established there by the Japanese a sugar industry, which has made a healthy development. From 20 hectares in 1916 cultivation increased to 455 hectares in 1919 and to 6,140 hectares in 1933. There were two companies, with eight factories, in 1919, but in view of the inadvisability of continuing business on so small a scale, the South Sea Development Company, Ltd., capitalized at ¥7,000,000, was established, taking over the Nishimura Colonial Company, Ltd., and purchasing the South Sea In-

dustrial Company, Ltd. Factories of this company are now located on the islands of Saipan and Tinian, the two principal sources of the raw material. Each has a pressing efficiency of 1,200 English tons, but completion of the factory now under construction at Tinian will increase the capacity there to 2,200 tons. Statistics taken in 1932-33 showed 6,140 hectares under cultivation, yielding 43,150 tons of sugar.

Industry

The lack of communication facilities greatly handicaps commercial and industrial advancement, and inadequate supplies of coal, water and iron disqualify manufacturing. The natives have little purchasing power, and the Japanese settlers, numbering 47,000 and possessing superior purchasing power, are scattered all over the isles.

Daily wages for both Japanese and natives at the end of 1934 were roughly as follows:

Japanese:		
Carpenter	¥2.50 —	¥4.00
Shipwright	2.50 —	4.50
Plasterer	2.50 —	3.50
Blacksmith	2.00 —	3.00
Sugar refinery worker	1.50 —	—
Mine worker (mechanic)	2.50 —	—
Mine labourer	12.0 —	2.00
Natives:		
Carpenter	¥1.00 —	¥1.50
Shipwright	1.00 —	1.50
Day labourer	.70 —	1.20
Mine labourer	.70 —	—

The value of the annual production of the principal industries for 1934 amounted to ¥11,492,926, of which the followings are principal products:

Sugar	¥10,244,879
Alcoholic drinks	232,280
Spirits for industrial use	431,447

Forestry All of the islands may appear to casual travellers to have good forests, but inspection would disclose that most of the trees are of no practical use. The natives have been careless in removing timber and have disregarded the neces-

sity of reforestation. The only trees receiving attention are the coconut palms growing on the island coasts. But this does not mean that forestry enterprises are hopeless. Various kinds of useful trees are seen thriving among the bushes, and the natural benefits here are the very conditions required for the growth of plants.

The coconut trees have long been depended on by the islanders for food, and practically every island is shaded by their long trunks and broad fronds of pinnate leaves. According to statistics for 1934, all the coconut plantations total 33,572 hectares in area, and the copra yearly produced therefrom amounts to 12,276 tons.

Fisheries There are no records available of fisheries in the islands before the Japanese occupation. A few Japanese made a start shortly after 1914, but unfortunately they all failed, due principally to unpreparedness to cope with the peculiar geographical and climatic conditions of the region. Only recently have profitable undertakings been established. The lack of transportation facilities, the unique conditions and the limited island market make it imperative that the industry be remodelled.

Bonito, tunny, mackerel, sardine, horse-mackerel and shark are found in abundance in neighbouring waters. In shallow waters near the coasts there are seen everywhere shoals of poly-coloured small fish and all sorts of shell-fish. The crocodile, hawk's-bill turtle and sponge of good quality are also plentiful.

The manufacturing side of the fishing industry is still in its infancy and is still limited to the drying of horse-mackerel, bonito and mackerel.

Bonito fishing has, however, advanced to a considerable extent. At present Saipan has 26 motor boats,

Palau 30, Truk 17, Ponape 13 and Jaluit 2, which, totalling 88 boats, are all engaged in bonito fishery. Catches in 1934 amounted to ¥22,000,000 or more in value. If fishing districts near the islands other than mentioned above were developed, further advance in the industry would be possible. In addition, some pearls and sponges are cultivated, chiefly at Palau.

Mining The only mining is for phosphate on the Island of Angaur, south of the main island of the Palau group in the Carolines. The island is 15.54 square kilometres in area. The thickness of the phosphate deposit varies from about 3 metres to 7 metres, and the amount available was estimated in 1935 at 1,600,000 tons. For some time after the Japanese occupation of the territory, the mining was carried on by the Navy, but it is now an enterprise of the government. Yearly production is put at 60,000-70,000 tons. In addition to the superintendent, who is an expert, there were in 1934 four assistant experts, three clerks, 502 mine workers, 13 labourers and 5 other employees.

The production of phosphate rocks and the value since 1930 follow:

year	Quantity in ton	Value in yen
1930	55,455	1,153,463
1931	59,251	1,125,769
1932	64,573	1,205,172
1933	65,442	1,305,840
1934	71,008	1,775,750

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 cocoanut 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 cocoanut 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 cocoanut groves put in order. Furthermore, the regulations were revised in 1931 to provide a subsidy of one-fourth of the cost of constructing factories for drying copra.

Since 1924, Saipan and Palau have held competitive shows of the local agricultural produce and handmade articles, supported by the government. In addition, representative products of the islands are exhibited at various shows and exhibitions in Japan proper through the good offices of the government. The South Sea Government Products Museum was established and opened at the beginning of 1930 for the exhibition of all sorts of insular products and geographical and historic studies.

An official investigation is being made in places sparsely inhabited by the natives to see whether there is land for additional immigrants, and wherever land is found and designated suitable for colonization every care is taken to assure comforts for settlers. A survey made in October, 1932, showed the existence of land for 393 families. Another investigation is seeking to distinguish lands owned by the government from those possessed by private citizens. Although no accurate figures are yet available, government-owned cocoanut 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 145 acres. The Aquatic Products Experimental Station, initiated in 1931 under the control of the Colonial Section of the government, experiments, among other things, with the preservation of bonito and mackerel and the breeding of sponges, turtles and shell-fish. 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 96 per cent. of all exports. As to imports, 61 per cent. of the total consists of cereals and other provisions and drinks, cotton textiles and manufactures, clothing and fittings, metal goods, lumber and various wooden articles.

The open ports are Saipan, Palau, Angaur, Truk and Jaluit. Almost the entire overseas trade of the 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 1934 were ¥18,424,369, of which export to the Japanese mainland was ¥16,460,685. Among exports to Japan, sugar represented ¥10,512,949, phosphate, ¥1,391,449, and copra, ¥1,076,916. The total imports in the same period were valued at ¥12,970,101 of which ¥12,635,405 were from Japan. With countries other than Japan, exports amounted to 1,963,684 and imports ¥334,696.

Trade with Japan in 1934
(in yen)

Exports to Japan		Imports from Japan	
Sugar	10,512,949	Explosives, etc.	386,953
Dried bonito	1,811,510	Piece-goods and manufactures thereof	905,853
Hides, bones, etc. and their manufactures	179,510	Clothing, etc.	309,009
Compounds of chemicals, explosives, etc.	504,314	Pulp, paper, books, drawings, etc.	172,505
Minerals and their manufactures	1,391,623	Minerals and manufactures thereof	570,423
Others and total	16,460,685	Chinaware, glass, etc.	156,689
Imports from Japan		Minerals, metal, etc.	689,974
Cereals, flour, seeds, etc.	1,547,067	Metal wares	481,361
Comestibles	2,204,758	Vehicles, vessels, machinery, etc.	2,626,735
Oils, tallow, wax, etc.	851,456	Others and total	12,635,405

Trade with Foreign Countries, 1934

(in yen)

Exports to Foreign Countries		Imports from Foreign Countries	
Sugar	1,868,275	Cereals, flour, seeds, etc.	177,881
Oils, tallow, wax, etc.	8,155	Comestibles	5,081
Piece-goods	11,645	Hides, bones, etc. and manufac- tures thereof	11,962
Metal wares	4,106	Chemicals, drugs, explosives, etc.	28,869
Others and total	1,963,684	Others and total	334,095

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:

Branch office	Width of road			Total
	Less than 4 m	Less than 7 m	Over 7 m	
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	125	13	6,305	44	2,610	6	9,104
Yap	—	—	49	18	6	—	73
Palau	20	7	835	22	14	4	902
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 ¥106,992 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 as large 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 1935 follows:

(1) West Round Line: Plying between Japan and the Philippines, the ships touch at Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé, Moji, the insular ports, Menado and Davao, covering both ways in 44 days. 20 voyages are made a year.

(2) East Round Line: Plying between Kobé and Jaluit, the ships of the line call at Saipan, Truk, Ponape and Kusaie, covering both ways in 50 days. 10 voyages are made yearly.

(3) East and West Connecting Line: Between Kobé and Jaluit, this line includes calls at various insular ports. Both ways are covered in 53 days, and 6 voyages are made a year.

(4) Saipan Line: The ports of call are Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé, Moji, Futami, Hachijo Islands, Saipan and Tinian. 28 round-trips, made in 28 days, are scheduled for the year.

The number of vessels on these lines is 8, ranging from 2,444 to 6,143 tons.

Among the islands themselves, shipping has been entrusted to the South Sea Trading Company, Ltd., which is subsidized by the Government. The services now available are: the Mariana line, connecting scattered islets within the Mariana Archipelago, available 12 times a year; the Yap, Palau, Truk and Ponape lines, each with 4 trips a year, and the Marshall line, which makes 7 trips a year. In addition there are Ponape, Truk and Palau lines. Five vessels are used, ranging from 196 to 545 tons.

During 1933, vessels that entered and cleared the nine ports of the territory numbered 507 and 520 re-

spectively—381 steamships, 126 sailing vessels clearing and 381 steamships, 131 sailing vessels entering. The numbers of passengers landing and embarking were 65,083 and 29,697 respectively.

Other Means of Communication All means of communication were placed under the control of the local government when it was established. The Communication Section thus takes care of (1) post, telegraph, telephone, exchange and deposit services, (2) postal insurance, and (3) sea-routes, vessels and nautical markings. There are nine post offices, situated at Saipan, Jaluit, Tinian, Rota, Palau, Yap, Ponape, and Angaur. Each handles wireless messages. The cable and wireless lines now operated are as follows:

(1) Between Yap and Bonin Islands: dispatched by the Chichi-jima Wireless, relayed at Saipan.

(2) Between Yap and all except the Bonin Islands: despatched 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: despatched by the Tokyo Wireless, relayed at Palao.

Telephone facilities are still limited, switch-boards being installed at only Palau and Saipan.

Judicial System

The judicial branch of the South Sea Government employs the double trial system, the court for the first trial being one of the Local Courts of Justice and for the second trial the High Court of Justice. To each

court is attached a public procurator's office. In remote places, minor irregularities, both civil and criminal, are disposed of by the judgment of the branch office heads.

The South Sea Government High Court of Justice is located in Palau. The Palau Local Court of Justice has jurisdiction in the Palau and Yap groups; the Saipan Local Court of Justice, in the Saipan group, and the Ponape Local Court of Justice, in the Ponape, Truk and Jaluit groups. 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 of settlers from outside; hereditary practices in land ownership are preserved, none but government officials being permitted to sell, purchase or mortgage their land; legal proceedings are made as simple as possible, and natives sentenced to less than one year of penal servitude may be subjected to labour instead of being sent to a prison.

Education

Besides elementary schools for the Japanese, there are 24 for natives throughout the insular territory. Though education is not compulsory, schools are provided, clothing and food supplied in particular cases and pupils from remote places received into dormitories. At the schools for native children, natives are employed as assistant instructors. The Japanese instructors must have the full qualifications of elementary school teachers in Japan proper.

There are schools for Japanese children in Saipan, Palau, Truk, Tinian, Yap and Ponape, and where

there is no near-by Japanese school a Japanese class is attached to the native elementary school. The course of instruction, requiring six years, and the textbooks are the same as in Japan proper. The natives' elementary education takes three years, and after that they are free to enter continuation courses of two years. The lessons are about the same as those taught in the Japanese schools, save for the stress placed on ethics, calculation and the Japanese language. To teach carpentry, a special institute is attached to the Corrol Public School for natives.

Christian schools number 3 in Saipan, 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 education, 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 83 instructors and 4,905 pupils—2,496 boys and 2,409 girls. The instructors number 83 and pupils in the continuation course 496. 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 1919, and in 1926 a Tenrikyo church was opened in Palau.

Soon after the evacuation of the German Protestant missionaries, the Japanese Congregational Church despatched four missionaries to Ponape and Truk. American missionaries in Kusaie and Jaluit are engaged in educational as well as religious work, and Catholic missionaries, who came in 1921 from Spain, are also active. It is generally accepted that the natives' mild temperament is the result of the long and untiring efforts of the missionaries. Generally speaking, Christianity seems to have placed the entire population under its influence, but very few of the church-goers understand its tenets.

CHURCHES, MISSIONARIES AND BELIEVERS, April, 1935

Religion	Churches	Mission halls	Preachers	Inmates of Monastery	Native		Believers		Total
					Preachers	Japanese	Foreign	Native	
Catholic	12	39	15	18	24	91	14	17,914	18,019
Protestant	13	77	14	—	55	22	5	22,703	22,730
Buddhist	6	—	11	—	—	25,650	—	500	25,150
Tenrikyo	2	—	3	—	—	19	—	110	129
Total	33	116	43	18	109	25,782	19	41,227	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 supply. Rain-water tanks are the usual source, and they often prove the agency for spreading sickness. When the trade wind begins and ends, bringing changes in the climate, influenza occasionally rages. The natives are most unsanitary and even when taken ill hesitate to consult a doctor. Despite untiring efforts by the authorities to better hygienic conditions, long-established customs have impeded progress.

The principal endemic diseases peculiar to the islands are amoeboid dysentery, frambœsia and dengue. Dysentery breaks out at places all

the year round, but the symptoms are generally slight. Frambœsia, rampant among the natives, afflicts but few Japanese. In recent years, in consequence of injecting salvarsan as a remedy, the number of those contracting it has decreased.

Dengue is at times so prevalent that nearly every inhabitant has it, but few fall victims to it. Fortunately, the islanders have never been attacked by malaria fever, cholera, pest, yellow fever or sleeping sickness. Typhus, paratyphus, dysentery and a few other infectious diseases, however, are common. One suspected case of small-pox was reported in 1926, but it was agreed that the patient had contracted it while travelling in China and Japan.

CASES OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES

year	Amoeboid Dysentery		Typhus		Paratyphus		Diphtheria	
	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths
1922	51	—	30	0	—	—	—	—
1925	83	10	4	1	2	—	—	—
1926	64	11	10	2	17	1	—	—
1927	146	14	15	4	4	—	—	—
1928	105	14	6	1	2	—	—	—
1929	197	27	49	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

year	Spinal Meningitis		Dysentery		Infantile Cholera		Total	
	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths
1922	—	—	—	—	—	—	81	9
1925	—	—	—	—	—	—	89	11
1926	—	—	—	—	—	—	91	4
1927	—	—	—	—	—	—	165	18
1928	—	—	2	—	—	—	115	15
1929	—	—	—	—	2	1	441	32
1930	1	1	—	—	—	—	280	21
1931	—	—	—	—	11	3	300	42
1932	3	1	17	—	4	1	137	29
1933	—	—	10	2	—	—	107	10
1934	—	—	1	1	4	4	84	12

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

Number of In-Patients of Hospitals, 1934

	No. of patients			Aggregate no. of patients		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
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.

MANCHOUKUO

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Geography

Position Extending between 38°43' and 53°30' North latitude and 117°50' and 135°20' East longitude Manchoukuo is bordered on the north by Siberia and on the east by Korea and the Maritime Province of Siberia.

On the west its borders touch Outer Mongolia, Eastern Inner Mongolia and China proper, while on the south its shores are washed by the waters of the Yellow Sea and the Gulf of Pechili, the coast line extending over 855 nautical miles.

Topography Topographically, Manchoukuo is a vast expanse of plains, traversed from north to south by the Great and Little Hsingan (Khinyan or Khingan) mountain ranges in the north-western section, and by the Changpai mountains near the south-eastern boundary.

Several great rivers with many tributaries run through Manchoukuo, irrigating the plains which they pass. The most notable of these rivers are the Heilungkiang (Amur), Sungari, Ussuri, Yalu, Tumen and Liao Rivers.

Climate The climate of Manchoukuo is typically continental, despite the fact that this country lies within

about the same latitudes as Japan, Korea, France and England.

Almost unaffected by ocean currents, Manchoukuo has a dry, cold climate with long severe winters and short hot summers. The spring season is windy, strong winds often carrying yellow dusts from the west.

The temperature falls as low as 49° C. below zero in winter and goes up as high as 40.0° C in some localities in summer.

Area, Population, Language, etc.

Area and Population The area of Manchoukuo is put at 1,300,000 sq. km. and is about twice as large as the combined areas of Japan proper, Korea, Formosa and Karafuto. Prior to 1932 little effort was made to obtain reliable census. In that year the population of Manchoukuo was estimated at 30,000,000 souls. Rapid increase immediately followed with the great influx chiefly of Chinese, Chosenese and Japanese. The total population reaches 32,482,627, exclusive of S. M. R. Zone and Kwantung Leased Territory, according to the latest Government figures, showing an increase of about 830,000 in round numbers per year.

POPULATION AND AREA

(Dec. 31, 1934.)

Province	Area in sq. km.	Population
Kirin	89,910	4,504,180
Lungkiang	125,537	2,159,448
Heiho	109,813	51,990
Sankiang	107,545	876,695
Pinkiang	143,425	4,189,707
Chientao	29,395	597,299
Antung	48,226	2,804,789
Fengtien	85,546	9,495,902
Chinchou	39,462	3,292,532

Province	Area in sq. km.	Population
Jehol	96,585	2,552,147
Hsinking Special Municipality	191	166,242
Harbin Special Municipality	929	482,452
North Manchuria Special District	(1,147)	218,779
Hsingan, Western Division	80,411	1,090,465
.. Southern ..	79,021	
.. Eastern ..	106,751	
.. Northern ..	160,396	
Total	1,303,143	32,482,620
Kwantung Leased Territory	3,462	—
S.M.R. Zone	295	—
Total	3,757	1,556,827
Grand total	1,306,900	34,039,456

POPULATION OF MANCHOUKUO CLASSIFIED BY NATIONALITY

Dec. 31, 1933

Province	No. of Household	Population				Total
		Manchurian	Japanese	Korean	Others	
Fengtien	2,428,942	15,898,686	8,525	123,182	1,391	15,531,784
Kirin	1,164,616	6,948,087	11,956	409,578	2,272	7,371,893
Hellungkiang Prov.	624,078	3,810,104	3,017	5,599	563	3,819,286
Jehol	677,158	2,646,330	670	184	33	2,647,217
North Manchuria Special District	38,612	151,191	1,863	3,997	23,963	181,010
Hsinking Special Municipality	25,728	136,215	3,090	1,596	44	140,945
Harbin Special Municipality	87,458	334,663	9,095	5,207	64,420	413,386
Hsingan Prov.						
Eastern Div.	12,511	74,600	138	59	242	75,139
Southern Div.	57,024	337,800	297	2,241	—	340,358
Western Div.	52,690	315,350	—	460	—	315,810
Northern Div.	7,140	37,400	—	—	4,500	42,900
Total	5,185,967	30,100,620	38,657	552,103	98,431	30,879,717
S.M.R. Zone	74,944	235,234	139,973	27,781	1,328	404,316
Kwantung Leased Territory	161,838	862,307	139,016	2,295	857	1,004,489

TABLE SHOWING FOREIGN RESIDENTS IN MANCHOUKUO

Japanese	90,025	British	434
Chinese	701,161	Germans	459
Soviets	21,272	Americans	226
Emigrant			
Russians	49,413	Others	1,098
Poles	1,519	Total	865,633

Language Chinese is the official language of Manchoukuo, although native Manchus and Mongols living in the interior districts speak their own dialects and Japanese is now being taught at many native schools in Hsinking and other important centres of the country.

The original Manchus now living in the country are estimated to num-

ber between six and seven millions, but most of them speak Chinese, only those who live in some districts of Kirin province keeping to their own native dialect.

As the official, social and commercial language, the Peking mandarin language is most widely used in Manchoukuo, but the Shantung, Nanking, Shanghai, Canton and other dialects are spoken among the immigrants from these different parts of China.

Among other foreign languages Japanese and Russian are the best known in the country.

Banditry Manchoukuo has long

been noted for its mounted bandits who ravaged the country. Under the old militarist régime even regular soldiers turned to banditry and quite often they were enlisted among the regular troops when in need, so that the troops and bandits were not clearly distinguishable from each other.

Bandits in Manchuria once numbered as many as 200,000 after the Manchurian Incident owing to the fact that the regular troops in the army of Chang Hsueh-liang resorted to banditry. But the strenuous efforts of the Japanese and Manchoukuo troops have reduced the number to about 20,000 by the end of 1935.

As a result of the pacification of Jehol early in March, 1933, the base of operation of the major bandit groups was completely wiped out. With a view to furthering the work of restoring peace and order, a central peace preservation committee was organized in Hsinking. Between the autumn of 1933 and the early spring of 1934, an intensive campaign was directed against the remnant outlaws in Kirin province. Efforts are being made to confiscate the weapons illegally possessed by the people, to reduce the number of the so-called vigilance corps of the professional type, and to give work to the roaming outlaws who surrender to the authorities.

History

Before Ching Dynasty Nearly twenty different dynasties have ruled successively in the territory now under the sovereignty of Manchoukuo, which includes Manchuria and part of Mongolia, from the Sushen dynasty to about the second and third centuries down to the Ching dynasty, which lasted from 1636 until 1911, when its rule was replaced by the new régime of the Republic of China.

The Ching dynasty was known as the Nuchen tribe before it gained hegemony in China proper. In 1636, the chief of the Nuchen tribe declared independence at Mukden against the Ming dynasty which was then in power in China proper, naming his country, which extended over the area now forming the territory of Manchoukuo, "Taching".

After rising to independence in Manchuria, Taching gradually expanded its territory until 1664, when conquering the Ming forces it occupied Peking and made that city its capital, after which Manchuria seemed deserted, except for the Han immigrants who came from China proper and settled in Manchuria, though only sparsely.

Thus Manchuria was left neglected by the Manchus, who were almost entirely occupied in colonizing China proper, and when Russians penetrated into Manchuria they could do much as they liked in this region.

It was not until after the Russo-Japanese War that the Chinese authorities came to see the need of attending to the administration of Manchuria with any degree of seriousness. With this object in view, Hsu Shih-chang was appointed Viceroy of the Three Eastern Provinces in 1907, and notable improvements were effected in the systems of administration, communications and transport during the following few years.

The late Marshal Chang Tso-lin came into power in Manchuria after the Revolution of 1911, when Chao Erh-hsuan, then Viceroy of the Three Eastern Provinces, asked him to render military assistance to resist the advance of the revolutionary forces on Manchuria.

Rise of Chang Tso-lin The rapid ascendancy of Chang Tso-lin then followed and in 1916 he was appointed Inspector-General of the Three

Eastern Provinces, thus virtually placing the entire territory of Manchuria under his autocratic rule.

After a series of three civil wars with the Chihli army, in the course of which General Kuo Sun-lin, one of his lieutenants, made an unsuccessful attempt to overthrow him, Chang Tso-lin started hostilities with the Kuomin army of Feng Yu-hsiang, the so-called "Christian General", in January, 1926, and occupying Peking in December that year, installed himself as Generalissimo at Peking in June, 1927, thus attempting to reign over the entire territory of China.

This marked the peak of the ascendancy of the Mukden war-lord, for, in June, 1928, he had to leave Peking for Mukden ostensibly with the intention of spending the rest of his life in retirement. It was on this trip back to Mukden that the Marshal was killed in a train wreck near Mukden.

Under Chang Hsueh-liang Chang Hsueh-liang, known as the young war-lord of Mukden, then stepped into his father's shoes, but finding himself unable to keep effective control over the lieutenants of his late father, he declared allegiance to the National Government in December, 1928, and was appointed commander-in-chief of the North-Eastern Frontier Army. This was followed by the renaming of Fentien province as Liaoning in March, 1929. During the civil war of 1930, Chang Hsueh-liang maintained an attitude of sympathetic neutrality, thereby making it possible for the National Army to defeat the rebels under Yen Hsi-shan and Feng Yuhsiang. Apparently in appreciation of this, the National Government appointed Chang Hsueh-liang Vice-Commander-in-Chief of the National Army, Navy and Air Forces.

In 1931, Chang Hsueh-liang moved

his headquarters to Peking and during his absence, all his influence in Manchuria was overthrown following the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident on September 18, 1931.

Founding of Manchoukuo The effort directed at restoring peace and order as the Chang Hsueh-liang government was driven out of Mukden by the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident first materialized in the Committee for Preservation of Local Peace and Order organized at Mukden. This soon led to the organization of the independent government of Fengtien province, the example of which was followed by Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces. Later, an Administrative Committee composed of members coming from various provinces was organized and preparations for establishment of the new state were made.

On February 18, 1932 the Committee fulfilled its first duty by announcing the declaration of the establishment of an independent state and appointing a standing committee of seven members for discussing various detailed problems. The fundamental principles of the new state as announced by the committee on February 25 are as follows: the new state to be called Manchoukuo; the ruler to be called Chief Executive; the flag to be a five-coloured one; the new era to be called Tatung; and the capital to be Changchun, which later came to be called Hsinking.

Mr. Pu Yi, who was formally elected Chief Executive by the Administrative Committee, took office on March 9. The law regulating the organization of the government and the law guaranteeing personal rights were promulgated on the same day. On the following day, Cheng Hsiao-hsu, Prime Minister, and other high officials were appointed.

At the request of the people of

Manchoukuo, who appreciated and enjoyed the benevolent administration of the new régime under His Excellency Pu Yi, many of their leaders in Mukden and other principal cities and towns petitioned for his enthronement as Emperor of Manchoukuo in the beginning of 1934. This was accepted, and the Chief Executive was formally enthroned on March 1, 1934, the second anniversary of the founding of Manchoukuo. The state was thereafter called Manchoutikuo, which means the Empire of Manchuria, the Chief Executive the Emperor Kangtê, and the new era Kangtê.

Japan in Manchuria Japan's close relation with Manchuria began with the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95. The actual invasion of Manchuria by Russia, which was active in that region since 1858, came after the Three Powers' intervention in 1895, which wrested from Japan Liaotung Peninsula, a territory acquired by Japan as a fruit of the War. This was but the beginning of unrestrained activities of Russia in Manchuria. She established the Russo-Chinese Bank with a capital of 15,000,000 roubles, which was followed by acquisition of right from China to build the Chinese Eastern Railway through Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces, together with the right to operate mines in these two provinces.

In March, 1898 Russia acquired a twenty-five years' lease of Liaotung Peninsula, which included the right to construct a railway from a point on the Chinese Eastern Railway down to Port Arthur. This railway line was completed in 1902.

Moreover, Russia took advantage of the Boxer Uprising in 1900 and dispatched troops to many important places in Manchuria. These troops Russia refused to withdraw, in spite of her promise to do so after the suppression of the uprising, and con-

centrated her forces on the Korean border, thus obviously menacing the safety of Japan through Korea.

All these were sufficient to lead to the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-05, in which Japan was victorious. By the Treaty of Portsmouth, Russia transferred to Japan the lease of Kwantung province and all rights, privileges and concessions connected with or forming part of this lease. The Treaty also provided for Russia's transfer to Japan of the railway between Changchun and Port Arthur and all its branch lines, together with all rights, privileges and properties appertaining thereto.

What are known as the special rights and interests of Japan in Manchuria are mainly based on the Treaty of Portsmouth and also on the terms of loans advanced to China for the construction of railways, as well as several other agreements.

Government

Manchoukuo abrogated, with the accession to the throne of the Emperor on March 1, 1934, the Organic Law, which was in force since 1932, and promulgated on the same day the new "Organic Law of Government", which may be taken as provisional constitution. According to the new Law, the Emperor exercises all the executive powers with the assistance of the Privy Council, which may advise him on important state affairs.

The governmental power of the state is divided into four and vested in Executive, Legislative, Judicial and Supervisory Yuans.

The Executive Yuan, which corresponds to the cabinets of other countries, is headed by the Premier and comprises the various Ministers of State respectively heading the Civil Administration (Home Affairs), the Foreign Affairs, the Military Administration (War), the Finance,