

from Japan to Great Britain should be exempted from customs-duties upon importation into that country, concessions were made in the Japanese tariff upon principal British merchandise, such as paints, linen yarns, cotton tissues, woollen tissues, mixed tissues of wool and cotton, and iron sheets; and next, a similar convention was concluded with Germany, by which, in consideration of concessions made by Germany on principal Japanese products imported into that country, reductions were made by Japan in the customs-duties upon principal German products, such as leather, salicylic acid, quinine, artificial indigo, coal-tar dyes, woollen yarns, mixed tissues of wool and cotton, packing paper, zinc plates and sheets, and gas, petroleum and hot-air engines (whether combined with motive machinery or not). Although the new Tariff Conventions with Great Britain and Germany came into force simultaneously with the expiration of the old convention, the new Convention with France could not be established before the expiration of the old one, and accordingly a provisional Convention was concluded pending the establishment of a new Convention, which was put in operation on the 29th of February, 1912. By this Convention, in consideration of the application of the French minimum tariff rates to principal Japanese products, reductions were made in the customs-duties to be levied by Japan upon principal French products, i.e. yarns, woollen tissues, binoculars, automobiles and parts thereof, and knitting machines. Both countries were at liberty to raise or reduce their customs tariffs, and in the event of their being raised, the party which did not alter its tariff may, at three months' notice, abrogate the convention relating to customs-duties. A tariff convention with Italy was also concluded with Italy in June, 1913.

On the outbreak of war between Japan and Germany on August 23, 1914, in consequence of the World War, the aforementioned tariff convention with Germany came to an end, though the same rates of duty as arranged in the convention were applied until the end of March 1915.

The section relating to tariff agreements in the said Franco-Japanese Treaty of Commerce and Navigation and the whole of the similar treaty between Japan and Italy were to terminate in 1919, but it was temporarily arranged at the time between the Governments concerned that until new agreements were concluded or either party made declaration denouncing the agreements affected, the said section and treaty should remain in force.

In conformity with the Imperial Declaration concerning the Annexation of Chosen in 1910, the tariff system of the former Korean Empire was left in force in the territory for ten years after the event. On the expiration of the term of ten years on August 28th, 1920, the tariff in force in Japan Proper was applied to Chosen, and the tariff rates as adopted for trade between Japan Proper and Chosen were abolished, with the exception of customs-duties on certain imports from Japan Proper to Chosen. The latter had to be retained from considerations of economic and other requirements of Chosen.

Higher Duties on Luxuries. Under Law No. 24, enacted and promulgated on July 31st, 1924, which regulates import duties on certain luxuries, a 100 per cent. ad valorem duty was imposed for the time being on about 120 kinds of goods designated as luxuries. The object of the measures was not only to check luxurious habits and to cultivate a habit of economy but to help in diminishing the adverse balance of trade by checking the importation of such articles by means of higher tariff barrier.

Abrogation of Conventional Tariff with Great Britain. The Anglo-Japanese Treaty of Commerce and Navigation concluded in 1911 was to terminate on July 16, 1923, but remained in force pending conclusion of a new treaty to replace it. The tariff convention arranged between the two countries at the time of the conclusion of the treaty was, however, abrogated in March, 1925, and in consequence thereof all specified merchandise imported to this country from Great Britain and the British colonies had come to be subject to the statutory tariff and taxed about three times the amount of the former conventional rates. Some of the Japanese exports formerly admitted free to Great Britain and the British colonies were also affected by the change, these consisting of silk (gray), copper (ingots and slabs) and 8 other articles. To mitigate the undesirable effect arising from the sudden change of such magnitude in the customs duties, the Government provided a special tariff for iron plates and sheets imported to this country from Great Britain and her colonies as provisional measure after the abrogation of the said tariff convention. The temporary measures was, however, abolished in 1926, but the rates specified in the measure were adopted in the new tariff revised the same year and made general tariff applicable to similar imports coming from all foreign countries. Meanwhile a supplementary agreement to the time-expired treaty was arranged between Japan and Britain in July, 1925, by which Article 21 of the old treaty was abolished

ed and substituted by a new clause. The supplementary agreement was formally ratified in June 1927, and took effect on the date of exchange of ratification to remain in force for five years from that date.

Amendments in 1925. A partial amendment of import duties on luxuries was made on April 1st, 1925, by which article imported for industrial purpose, materials for the manufacture of goods of be expected and several other articles were excluded from the list of the articles subject to the 100 per cent. ad valorem duty on luxuries. Then, again, with the object of encouraging the industries in Kwantung leased territory and of promoting the export of the produce of that territory to the home country, portland cement and 29 other articles produced in Kwantung Province were exempted from import duties by the Act of June 18th, same year.

Tariff Revision in 1926. Although several amendments in minor details had been made from time to time, the customs tariff remained practically unchanged after 1910 and was not adapted to the great change in economic conditions at home and abroad. The Government, therefore, introduced into the Imperial Diet in 1926 a Bill proposing a general amendment embodying the following principles:—

- (a) Raw materials such as are not produced or are scarce in this country should be made duty-free.
- (b) Necessary protection is to be given to staple industries that have bright prospects for the future.
- (c) Import duties should be left untouched or be reduced with respect to foreign articles with which home produce is able to compete.
- (d) Duties on the necessary of daily life should be reduced.
- (e) In order to discourage consumption, high duties should be imposed upon articles other than necessities of daily life.
- (f) The number of specific duties should be increased and more minute classification of articles be made for convenience in the imposition of duties.

The measure was passed by the Diet, and was put to force on March 29, 1926. Although not the direct object of the amendment, an increase in the customs revenue was expected as a result of the change in the rates of duties and the adjustment of the relation between specific duties and advalorem duties in accordance with the rise of prices of commodities.

Amendments in 1927. The rates of import duties on sugar were amended in April, 1927, to cope with the changes in the rates of sugar excise made at the same time, and duties on corn starch, butter, oxidized cobalt, oleine, etc. were also altered at the same time. Changes were also made to the articles exempted from import duties under the preference given to the produce of Kwantung Leased Territory, soya-bean oil and certain kinds of manufactured clothings being included in the free list. Besides, several staple produce of the territory have had the rates of duties thereon lowered. Partial revision of the Customs Law, the amendment or revision of the Bonded Warehouse Law, the Bonded Factory Law and other regulations were also among the new measures enacted the same year.

New Treaties with Germany and Other Countries. To replace the old treaty which was nullified on account of the outbreak of the World War, a new treaty of commerce and navigation was concluded between Germany and Japan in July 1927, and was duly ratified on April 5th, 1928, the new pact taking effect after two weeks from the date of the exchange of ratification thereof. A provisional commercial treaty relating to the commercial and other rights of Japanese subjects in French Indo-China was newly concluded between Japan and France in August, 1927. Following the enforcement of the new German-Japanese commercial treaty a provisional agreement assuring the most favoured nation treatment on the basis of mutual reciprocity was also arranged between Japan and New Zealand in July, 1928, the measure taking effect on August 8th. Japan also arranged treaties of commerce or of amity with Bulgaria, Persia, Egypt, Ethiopia and Latvia Republic, the commercial treaty with the last named country having been concluded in August 1928 and taken effect on that date. As the result of the establishment of formal commercial relations, Bulgaria, Germany, New Zealand and Latvia were added to the list of the countries entitled to the benefit of conventional tariff.

Tariff Revision in 1929 and thereafter. Partial revision of import duties, approved by the Diet, was promulgated on March 29, 1929, and enforced the same day. The change affected 26 articles enumerated in the staff schedule. Of 120 items subject to the 100% ad valorem duty or luxury tariff according to Law No. 24 promulgated in 1924, 15 articles were excluded from the luxury tariff schedule and restored to the former rates (statutory tariff). At the same time the rates of the statutory tariff on some of those articles were increased, the rates for

other items remaining unchanged. Six articles, also placed on the 100% ad valorem schedule, were subject to slight changes in their classification.

The exceptions in the import duties applicable to Chosen (Korea) provided for in Law No. 53 of 1920, according to which five articles imported to the territory were given special treatment or subject to import duties specially provided for, were abolished and those articles imported to the territory were after March 29, 1929, subject to the same duties as imposed on similar commodities imported to Japan proper, excepting a few items for which special rates were provided.

Slight amendments or additions were made to the list of those commodities imported to the Kwantung leased territory, which were either exempted from import duties or accorded special treatment of reduction in the rates.

The provisional treaty of commerce between Japan and Persia arranged in 1927 was ratified in April, 1929, and took effect the same day. In accordance with the stipulation of the pact commodities imported to Japan from Persia came to be accorded the most favoured nation treatment on the same status as the goods coming from other countries entitled to the benefit of conventional tariff.

Tariff revisions were repeatedly made in 1930, 1931, 1933 and 1934, but the amendments made to the rates of duties were rather limited in scope each time. It suffices to say that the 100 per cent. ad valorem duty on luxuries created in 1924 as a temporary measure has been made a permanent one.

Luxury Tariff

On July 31, 1924 the Luxury Tariff Law was promulgated providing for the imposition of a hundred per cent. ad valorem duty on goods, one hundred and twenty in kinds, which are designated as luxuries.

By an amendment made to the Luxury Tariff in 1925 a part of the import duties was waived in respect of uncut or unpolished precious and semi-precious stones or unworked amber, for use in the manufacture of articles used in machinery or manufacturing industries, the deposit of a security equivalent to the duty to be waived being required at the time of import. The amount of duty to be waived in accordance with the said provisions is as follows:

Precious stones: 95 per cent. of the duty thereon.

Semi-precious stones: 80 per cent. of the duty thereon.

Preferential Tariff for Kwantung Products

In July, 1925 a law was gazetted for removing the import duties on some of the staples produced in the leased territory of Kwantung.

Fifty Per cent. Additional Ad valorem Duties on Canadian Goods

The Japanese Foreign Office repeatedly approached the Canadian Government with a request to neutralize prohibitions restrictions imposed on Japanese exports but all to no purpose. So the Japanese Government had to resort to the invocation of the Trade Protection Law by imposing 50 per cent. additional ad valorem duties upon a list of products constituting the chief imports into Japan from the Dominion. The Imperial Ordinance therefor which was promulgated and put in force on July 20, 1935 runs as follows:—

Art 1.—Articles produced or manufactured in any country which, in spite of the fact that its trade with Japan in 1934 showed a balance in its favour, employs standard prices arbitrarily fixed in the imposition of import duties on Japanese goods, or imposes special taxes in addition to import duties, shall be subject to an ad valorem duty of 50 per cent. besides the duties fixed in the Import Tariff relative to the Customs Tariff Law, for a period of one year after the date of the enforcement of the Ordinance, in accordance with Article 1 of Law No. 40 of 1934 (known as the Trade Protection Law). This applies to imports employed as raw material in "bonded" factories.

The above articles shall be those contained in the Import Tariff and specified in the list attached thereto.

The country stipulated in paragraph one shall be announced by the Minister in charge.

Art. 2.—Any trader who desires to import articles listed in the Import Tariff and specified in the list attached thereto, shall submit on import declaration together with certificate of origin, except for postal matter or articles the value of which is below ¥100.

The certificate of origin shall contain the mark, kind, number, quantity and place of production, or manufacture duly certified by the Imperial Japanese Consulate at the place of production, manufacture, purchase of shipment, or if there is no Japanese Consulate, the Customs or other public organ or Chamber of Commerce, unless otherwise specified.

Art. 3.—By the Minister in Charge in this Ordinance, is meant the Governor-General of Korea in the case of Korea and the Governor-General of Formosa in the case of Formosa.

This Ordinance shall be put into force from the date of its promulgation.

This Ordinance shall not be applied to those articles in transit to Japan, or in bound, or in the course of manufacture at "bonded" factories at the time of the enforcement of this Ordinance.

The following is the list of stipulated articles in the above Ordinance:—

Tariff Number	Article
16	Wheat
22-1	Wheat flour
22-6	Wheat starch
301	Paper pulp
367	Packing paper and match paper, excluding tissue paper
605-11	Endless felts for paper making
612-1-F	(1) Pine, fir, cedar and other conifers. (2) White cedar, yellow cedar, etc. (3) Red cedar, hemlock, etc. (4) Spruce, etc. (5) Douglas fir, etc.
612-2-E	Wood—others (excluding fir, cedar)
647-1	Raw—fuso (wheat product same as wheat starch)

On the enforcement of the retaliatory tariff the following statement was issued by the Foreign Office spokesman:

"It is no longer necessary to explain that Japan, despite the fact that all sorts of methods are being practised by all other countries for the restriction of international trade, adheres firmly to the principle of free trade, avoiding measures likely to obstruct international trade, and at the same time striving to contribute toward the promotion of human happiness by persuading the Powers concerned to reconsider their policies with a view to restoring international commerce to its normal condition.

"The measure provided by the present Imperial Ordinance are intended to induce reflection on the part of a country which notwithstanding the great profit it is deriving from the fair and liberal policy of the Japanese Government, is resorting to unjustifiable steps against imports from our country, and is unwilling to amend them in spite of repeated negotiations initiated by our Government until all reasonable means have been exhausted. In other words, in order to protect our fundamental policy of free trade, we have been compelled to adopt exceptional measures, they are not to be constructed as a change in our trade policy.

"Accordingly the Imperial Ordinance contains strict provisions as to the circumstances under which it is to be applied. We regret that it

has become unavoidable to invoke the trade protection law against Canada, which happens to be the only country at present where such circumstances prevail. We wish to make clear our reasons in the following paragraph.

"Under the Anglo-Japanese Treaty of Commerce and Navigation by which Canada is bound, Japan and Canada must accord to each other the most-favoured nation treatment. In spite of this fact, under the pretext of the fall in the exchange value of our currency Canada has, in the imposition of ad valorem duty on all classes of Japanese goods, been determining the value of Japanese goods in terms of Canadian currency according to the legal value of exchange (¥100 to \$49.85) and making this the standard value for the imposition of tariffs. Not only so, but Canada has been levying on such Japanese goods as it deems of the same class or kind as those made in Canada, the so-called exchange dumping duty, which is equivalent to the difference between the converted value based on the legal exchange value, and the actual value according to the current exchange quotation (¥100 to about \$29).

"While the Canadian laws provide for the application of the said converted value for assessment of the tariffs and of the exchange dumping duty on the products of all countries, about 20, whose currency has depreciated more than 5 per cent. in exchange value as compared with Canadian currency, yet as a matter of fact the products of only five countries are affected. Furthermore, as the trade of those five countries with Canada is not only negligible but involves an extremely small amount of goods upon which the exchange dumping duty is levied, it is, in effect, only Japanese commodities that are subjected to the gravely disadvantageous treatment.

"Moreover, while the Canadian Government is, under the pretext of safeguarding home industry, fixing the standard value of many foreign commodities by category for the assessment of tariffs, and making that value a basis for the levying of general ad valorem duties, and is collecting as special duty the difference between such fixed standard value and the actual value of the commodities, an inordinately high value has been set upon Japanese goods. According to the investigations of the Japanese industrialists concerned, the import price inclusive of duty and taxes of not a few Japanese commodities in Canada is more than double the factory price of Canadian goods of a similar class or kind. Moreover, this import price is said to be from three to six or seven times the export price of those goods in Japan. Due to

these circumstances, a decline has resulted in the export of these categories of Japanese merchandise, some of them actually decreasing to less than 10 per cent. of their value a few years ago. In fact, many Japanese who long resided in Canada and engaged in Japanese-Canadian trade, have returned to this country, being virtually out of business.

"The export of our goods to Canada, which has become increasingly difficult since the general revision upward of the Canadian Tariff in 1930, was even more gravely hampered in the position, in the early part of 1932, of the exchange dumping and various other duties aforementioned. The Japanese Government, therefore, have been negotiating both at Tokyo and Ottawa for the ratification of such arbitrary imposition of duties, but the Canadian Government have failed to hold out any hopes as to the rectification of this attitude."

"It is not the intention of our Government to ask for the establishment of an equilibrium of trade between Japan and Canada, though the balance has been unfavourable to us in recent years.

"All we ask is that for the sake of equity and fairness towards Japan, good customer of Canada's, the Canadian Government should accord a really just treatment to our goods in a friendly spirit, as is the case with the United States of America, its neighbour, and with Australia, which, like Canada, belongs to the British Empire.

"The Japanese Government, moreover sharing the views of the British Government, hold the exchange dumping duty to be an infringement of the most-favoured nation clause, and oppose absolutely its imposition. Especially do we believe it unfair for the Canadian Government to assess duties on the basis of the mint par in complete disregard of the rise in the export prices of our goods, and to discriminate in the application of the exchange dumping duty against the goods of countries whose currency has depreciated, besides restricting severely the import of our own goods by levying on them special duties of an inordinate high rate, under the pretext of protecting home industries.

"We have, therefore, demanded the imposition of duties based on the actual rate of exchange, the abolition of the exchange dumping duty, proper rectification in the fixing of the value for tariff assessment and the application of special duties, together with the just and precise treatment of our merchandise by the Canadian Customs officials. It was in compliance with a request from the Canadian Government

that we presented these concrete demands at the beginning of last month. Simultaneously, however, we demonstrated a spirit of accommodation by suggesting that we should not be averse to adopting after mutual consultation appropriate measures as to certain important commodities of Canada likely to be adversely affected by their consent to our requests. After our repeated urging, the Canadian Government at last replied to our representation—on the 18th instant—but their views are found to be still far removed from our basic demands, and it has become quite clear that as a practical proposition the Canadian reply does not remove the embarrassments imposed on our exports.

"For some time past, there has been a steadily growing opinion among the general Japanese public demanding the immediate invocation of the trade protection law in order to make the Canadian Government reconsider the matter, since it is injurious to our trade at large to ignore such measures as at present are taken by Canada. At last on the 8th instant, the tariff advisory committee unanimously approved, after careful deliberation, the imposition of the 50 per cent. an valorem additional duty on Canadian goods by enforcing the trade protection law. As the diplomatic negotiations between the two countries did not seem to produce a speedy and satisfactory settlement and as the perpetuation any longer of the unsettled condition of trade relations created by the anticipation of the invocation of the trade protection law, is bound to disturb the market of the two countries, the Japanese Government have finally been forced to petition the issuance of the Imperial Ordinance embodying the resolution of that tariff advisory committee.

"In short, the step that is being taken by the Japanese Government is an inescapable reaction to the restriction measures of Canada against our goods and does not except the score and degree of such measures. Of course, our friendly feelings towards Canada and its people will not suffer any change. We shall further continue and are even ready to suspend the measure to be put into effect under the present ordinance when a satisfactory settlement is reached. We most earnestly desire that the Canadian Government will not fail to appreciate fully our views and immediately set about the rectification of their present arbitrary measures in order to restore the trade relations of the two countries, thereby contributing to the enhancement of the happiness of the people of Japan and Canada."

A serious oneness of Japan's trade with Canada may be seen from the following table:

Table 19. Japan's Trade With Canada

(In thousands of yen)

	Exports	Imports	Imports Excess
1926	24,754	68,729	43,975
1927	27,402	66,498	39,096
1928	27,047	55,670	28,623
1929	27,096	68,730	41,634
1930	17,094	46,164	28,260
1931	13,067	35,673	22,606
1932	8,562	39,504	30,942
1933	6,580	46,897	40,317
1934	8,666	54,897	46,232
1935 (1st half) ..	3,928	33,893	29,965
1934 (Do.) ..	3,917	23,642	19,725

As will be noted from the above table, the

adverse balance, which was more than forty million yen in 1926 decreased to a little more than twenty million yen in 1931. But, from the following year, the import excess began steadily to increase until in 1934 it exceeded the 1926 level at ¥46,232,000. This growing deficit balance showed no sign of abatement after the advent of 1935. On the contrary, this tendency became more and more apparent. The import excess for the first half of the year was ¥10,240,000 larger than for the like period of the preceding year at ¥29,965,000. This steady expansion of the import excess is, as shown by the above figures, due to a steady decrease in exports as against a swift expansion of imports.

EGYPT'S ABROGATION OF JAPANESE-EGYPTIAN TRADE CONVENTION

On July 12, 1935 the Egyptian Government served notice through the Japanese Consul-General at Alexandria that, effective October 18, it would abrogate the Japanese-Egyptian Trade Convention which was signed in 1930. Egypt is the fourth largest buyers of Japanese cotton cloth preceded by Manchoukuo, the Dutch East In-

die and British India. In 1934 Egypt purchased 234,000,000 square yards of cotton cloth from Japan. As referred to elsewhere in this issue, Japan's exports to Egypt in 1934 were ¥73,000,000, which was about three times the figure for 1931. Imports for 1934 aggregated ¥46,000,000, which about 2.4-fold the figure for 1931.

TRADE REGULATION AND TRADE PROTECTION LAW

The Trade Regulation and Trade Protection Law was promulgated and enforced in May 1, 1934. The law provides that in case of need to regulate or protect trade in order to meet the measure which is actually taken or which is going to be taken by a foreign country the Government shall be empowered to raise or re-

duce the duties on specified goods for a certain period of time, or prohibit or restrict the importation or exportation of specified goods after submitting the question to the Customs Inquiry Council. The law is to be good for three years from the date of its promulgation.

CHAPTER XXXIV

KOREA (Chosen)

GEOGRAPHY

POSITION, AREA, CLIMATE, ETC.

Position—33° 6' 40"—43° 00' 36" N.L.; 124° 11'—130° 56' 23" E.L.
 Area—85,228 sq. m. Coastline—9,324 nautical miles.

Northern Korea is mountainous and rich in timber, and southern Korea fertile and well cultivated. The Rivers Tumen and Yalu separate the peninsula from Manchoukuo. Principal rivers are the Oryoku-ko (Yalu), 790 kms.; Daido-ko (Tadong), 397 kms.; Kan-ko (Han), 470 kms., and Toman-ko (Tumen), 521 kms.

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATION (1933)

Table 1. Temperature

	Fusan	Jinsen	Gensan	Keijo	Heijo
Highest	33.2	35.4	34.8	35.9	35.9
Lowest	-12.0	-15.4	16.0	-18.4	-20.5

Table 2. Weather Conditions

	Fusan	Jinsen	Gensan	Keijo	Heijo
Clear days	65	62	85	67	88
Rainy or snowy days ...	101	112	125	118	111
Early frost	Oct. 11	Oct. 13	Sept. 25	Oct. 5	Sept. 25
Late frost	Apr. 25	Apr. 21	May 9	Apr. 30	May 5
Early snow	Nov. 9	Oct. 27	Nov. 1	Nov. 3	Oct. 26
Late snow	Apr. 20	Apr. 19	May 2	Apr. 28	Apr. 24

POPULATION

Table 3. Area, Population and Households (End of 1933)

	Area sq. ri	Households				Population			
		Japanese	Native	Foreigners	Total	Japanese	Natives	Foreigners	Total
Keiki-do (Kyongki)	12,812	32,178	386,587	1,885	420,650	138,012	2,024,387	8,736	2,171,135
Chusei Hoku-do (N. Choongchong)	7,434	2,128	161,984	171	164,283	8,036	866,734	536	875,306
Chusei Nan-do (S. Choongchong)	8,099	6,068	354,353	412	260,833	24,477	1,365,815	1,392	1,391,684
Zenra Hoku-do (N. Chonla)	8,561	8,373	275,001	491	283,865	33,619	1,415,814	1,709	1,451,142
Zenra Nan-do (S. Chonla)	13,891	9,806	447,119	322	457,247	41,156	2,240,982	1,067	2,283,205
Keisho Hoku-do (N. Kyongsang)	18,987	11,799	433,672	351	445,822	49,303	2,296,943	1,252	2,347,498
Keisho Nan-do (S. Kyongsang)	12,805	21,654	389,793	254	411,702	89,384	2,033,104	871	2,123,359
Kokai-do (Whanghai)	16,730	4,916	292,306	677	297,899	18,136	1,497,919	2,391	1,518,446
Heian Nan-do (S. Pyong-an)	14,928	8,350	246,807	806	255,936	34,228	1,306,129	3,578	1,343,930
Heian-Hoku-do (S. Pyong-an)	23,443	6,004	273,515	2,674	282,283	20,218	1,523,460	12,084	1,555,762
Hogen-do (Kwan-won)	26,262	3,475	264,727	222	268,424	12,180	1,430,556	587	1,443,323
Kankyo Hoku-do (N. Hamkyong)	31,978	10,892	257,470	1,209	269,571	38,748	1,500,016	4,442	1,543,206
Kankyo Nan-do (S. Hamkyong)	20,346	10,064	122,349	1,094	133,507	35,607	703,732	3,986	743,325
Total	220,776	135,707	3,805,682	10,658	3,952,049	543,104	20,205,591	42,626	20,791,321

Table 4. Number of Households By Occupations (End of 1933)

	Agriculture, Forestry, Fishery, etc.	Industry	Commerce and Communication	Civil services & professional occupations	Others	Without occupation	Total	Total for 1932
Japanese	10,948	18,074	34,254	60,296	5,855	6,280	135,707	11,612
Natives	2,945,204	89,195	258,413	125,815	292,497	94,560	3,805,684	2,914,078
Foreigners	2,393	1,628	4,816	679	1,053	89	10,658	2,223

Table 5. Population by Occupations (End of 1933)

	Agriculture, Forestry, Fishery, etc.	Industry	Commerce and Communication	Civil services & professional occupations	Others	Without occupation	Total	Total for 1932
Japanese	49,239	68,888	151,787	230,135	21,746	21,309	543,104	523,452
Natives	16,341,220	481,413	1,226,215	600,360	1,256,112	350,271	20,205,591	20,037,273
Foreigners	8,923	8,056	18,892	1,862	4,612	281	42,626	39,151

Table 6. Movement of Population

	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	
Birth	Male	361,122	371,675	383,315	386,700	406,438	379,861	329,782
	Female	315,054	326,514	338,279	343,479	365,832	338,021	288,495
	Total	676,176	698,189	720,594	730,179	772,370	717,882	618,277
Still-birth	Male	2,142	2,057	1,997	1,997	2,885	2,463	2,557
	Female	1,684	1,607	1,623	1,600	1,945	1,865	2,080
	Total	3,826	3,664	3,620	3,597	4,830	4,328	4,637
Death	Male	206,090	218,725	230,219	244,808	205,164	219,250	243,872
	Female	181,653	192,290	203,156	216,921	176,713	191,138	213,646
	Total	387,743	411,015	433,375	461,729	381,877	410,388	457,518
Marriage	168,598	175,953	193,165	194,265	199,281	184,598	180,550	
Divorce	7,103	7,112	8,351	8,184	9,077	8,093	6,712	

Table 7. Number of Household and Population of Koreans

	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932
No. of households ...	3,483,779	3,484,416	3,489,844	3,518,094	3,679,463	3,690,695	3,772,234
Population:							
Male	9,509,323	9,512,491	9,521,317	9,569,706	10,008,042	10,023,837	10,183,362
Female	9,105,710	9,119,003	9,146,017	9,214,731	9,682,545	9,686,331	9,853,911
Total	18,615,033	18,631,494	18,667,334	18,784,437	19,685,587	19,710,168	20,037,273

Table 8. Population in Principal Cities (End of 1932)

Keijo (Seoul)	355,426
Jinsen (Chemulpo)	63,658
Gunsan	25,961
Taiku	101,078
Fusan	130,397
Heijo (Pyongyang)	136,927
Chin-nan-po	37,401
Gen-san (Wonsan)	43,060
Mokpo	31,817

Table 9. Number of Foreigners

Year	Male	Female	Total
1926	40,452	6,089	46,541
1927	43,829	7,494	51,325
1928	44,494	8,828	53,322
1929	47,962	10,184	58,146
1930	56,634	12,475	69,109
1931	31,270	6,854	38,124
1932	31,168	7,983	39,151
1933	33,731	8,895	42,626

ADMINISTRATION

THE GOVERNMENT-GENERAL

Korea is under the rule of the Governor-General, who is appointed by the Emperor. By the revision effected in 1919 in the organization of the administrative machinery of the peninsula, the former military government was replaced with one in which the civil factor is predominant. Thus the Governor-Generalship is now

open to either a civilian or a military man, though formerly it was restricted to a General or an Admiral.

Directly under the Governor-General is an Inspector-General of Political Affairs whose function is to assist the Governor-General and inspect the official business of the local governments and various other affiliated offices. The

Government-General is divided into the Government-General's Secretariat and the Bureau of Internal Affairs, Finance, Justice, Industry, Education, Police, Communications, Railways and Monopoly.

The Central Council.—This is in effect a Privy Council and considers matters submitted to it by the Governor-General. The members of the Council consist of one President, one vice-President, five Advisors and 65 Councillors, all Koreans.

LOCAL ADMINISTRATION

The entire territory is divided into thirteen "do" or provinces which are ruled over by Governors. The names of the provinces and of the seats of the governments are appended:

Table 10. Thirteen Provinces and Seats of Governments

Province	Seat of Office
Keiki-do Kyongki	Keijo (Seoul)
Chusei Hoku-do (N. Choongchong)	Seishyu
Chusei Nan-do (S. Choongchong)	Taiden
Zenra Hoku-do (N. Chonla)	Zenshyu
Zenra Nan-do (S. Chonla)	Koshyu
Keisho Hoku-do (N. Kyongsang)	Taikyu
Keisho Nan-do (S. Kyongsang)	Fusan
Kokai-do (Whanghai)	Kaishyu
Heian Nan-do (S. Pyong-an)	Shingishu
Heian Hoku-do (S. Pyong-an)	Heijo
Kogen-do (Kwan-won)	Shunsen

Table 11. Annual Revenue and Expenditure

	Revenue			
	1932-33 (Settled)	1933-34 (Settled)	1934-35 (Budget)	1935-36 (Budget)
Ordinary:				
Taxes	¥ 41,166,313	¥ 47,625,260	¥ 46,196,389	¥ 53,366,213
Stamp receipts	11,760,106	13,897,651	12,950,243	15,037,371
Receipts from Government undertakings and properties	121,028,833	135,193,434	144,404,806	169,239,951
Miscellaneous receipts	2,463,494	2,702,537	2,731,214	2,819,892
Total	176,418,747	199,418,882	206,282,652	240,463,427
Extraordinary:				
Proceeds of sale of State property	660,274	1,125,421	469,685	311,603
Receipts from the issue of public loans or borrowings	14,035,188	25,648,281	29,478,536	24,000,000
National treasury grants	12,913,914	12,853,773	12,825,160	12,825,822
Transfer of the surplus from preceding year	7,171,301	5,805,974	3,300,165	10,200,867
Other receipts	9,000,279			
Total	43,881,956	52,654,380	52,321,746	47,885,237
Total Revenue	220,300,703	252,073,262	258,604,398	288,348,664
Ordinary:				
Royal Household of Li.	¥ 1,800,000	¥ 1,800,000	¥ 1,800,000	¥ 1,800,000
Government-General	3,639,320	3,798,662	3,913,332	4,247,582
Judicial courts, and office consignment	3,423,230	3,488,056	3,442,723	3,702,971
Prisons	4,296,532	4,615,782	4,417,656	5,226,199
Local governments	28,733,687	29,032,235	25,847,111	26,736,923

Province Seat of Office
Kankyo Hoku-do (N. Hamkyong)Ranan
Kankyo Nan-do (S. Hamkyong)Kankyo
Besides the thirteen provinces mentioned above, there are twelve "fu" corresponding to the city in Japan Proper.

Local Councillors.—As a preliminary step towards self-government, local advisory bodies were created in October, 1920. These are essentially consultative bodies and are of three kinds: (1) Provincial Councils, (2) Municipal Councils, (3) Village Councils.

FINANCE

With the annexation a Special Account was established for the Government-General, the expenditure to be met by the revenue of Korea and the deficit filled up with aids from the home Government. All public utility items as road-making, harbours, railways, etc., are defrayed with proceeds from public loans, or borrowed money chargeable to the Special Account, while military and naval outlays are payable out of the General Accounts of the Imperial Government. The latter totalled ¥125,626,000 from 1919 to 1923. In 1919 the Government-General could for the first time dispense with financial help from the Imperial Government, but the reforms in the police system and other administrative organs carried out that year required help again from the Imperial Treasury.

	1932-33 (Settled)	1933-34 (Settled)	1934-35 (Budget)	1935-36 (Budget)
Educational institutions and libraries	1,314,019	1,362,104	1,406,918	1,527,875
Customs-houses	1,102,076	1,187,111	1,228,233	1,357,802
Forestry	3,359,663	3,861,800	4,853,010	5,755,525
Communications	12,639,658	13,037,966	14,013,531	14,823,730
Monopoly bureau	21,325,576	23,913,639	26,076,512	28,471,532
Railways	46,874,979	49,291,766	54,401,175	69,334,543
Transferred to national debt consolidation fund special account	22,568,324	24,364,405	25,163,938	27,027,451
Other expenses	4,048,047			
Total including others	159,476,704	167,479,360	184,100,368	209,645,526
Extraordinary:				
Subsidies	16,043,065	17,262,011	19,938,950	22,096,199
Expenses for repairs and construction	2,442,628	1,956,263	3,113,923	4,427,054
Expenses for public works	6,859,382	8,544,594	9,452,439	12,053,152
Railway construction and improvement	18,906,988	18,705,642	18,337,983	24,000,000
Improvement expenses for arable lands	3,965,305	5,136,218	5,493,653	5,139,251
Total including others	55,018,025	61,744,779	74,491,237	78,703,138
Total Expenditure	214,494,729	229,224,139	258,591,605	288,348,664

PUBLIC DEBTS

Table 12. Government Loans Outstanding (March 1, 1933)

Kinds of Loan	Amount outstanding (Yen)	Year of issue or borrowing	Rate of interest %	Unredeemable periods	Redeemable in
4% loan (1st series)	636,680	1913	4.0	8 years	Feb., 1969
5% loan	109,465,104	1912-1933	5.0	5 years	1969-1988
5% Exchequer bonds	239,113,646	1925-1931	5.0	—	1934-1953
Drought relief loan	8,750,000	1922-1926	5.0	—	1934
Chosen peers relief fund loan	1,780,000	1929	5.0	—	1931-1944
4 1/2% Exchequer bonds	23,870,636	1932-1933	4.5	—	1944-1946
4% Exchequer bonds	81,264,030	1934-1935	4.0	—	1934-1968
4% loan	8,145,550	1934	4.0	—	1968
Total	473,025,646				

EDUCATION AND RELIGION

EDUCATION

Under the new educational ordinance and regulations of 1922, the ordinary and higher common schools for Korean boys and girls are placed on the same status as elementary and secondary (i.e. middle and girls' high schools), while according to circumstances, Korean children may be admitted to the latter schools and Japanese

to the former. The schools of the secondary and higher grades for vocational training are controlled in practice by the regulations governing the corresponding institutions in Japan Proper. Both Japanese and Korean students are co-educated in those schools. The statistics of schools as at the end of March, 1934 are given below:

Table 13. Statistics of Schools

(a) Schools of Elementary and Middle Grades

		No. of schools	Teaching staff	Enrolment
Elementary schools	Government	2	20	589
	Public	482	2,361	90,934
Common schools	Government	2	20	675
	Public	2,128	10,274	606,417
	Private	86	541	29,866
Middle schools	Public	11	297	6,550

		No. of schools	Teaching staff	Enrolment
Higher common schools	Public	15	360	7,783
	Private	11	229	6,245
Girls' high schools	Public	26	418	9,505
	Private	1	17	415
Girls' higher common schools	Public	7	104	2,057
	Private	10	167	3,446
Agricultural schools	Public	28	340	5,965
Commercial schools	Public	16	295	5,076
	Private	5	96	2,750
Supplementary technical schools	Government	1	3	26
	Public	88	391	4,377
	Private	3	9	258
Collegiate schools	Government	5	233	1,187
	Public	2	72	555
	Private	8	270	2,240
Fishery schools	Public	3	39	204
Normal schools	Government	3	120	2,010
Technical school	Government	1	36	208
Other schools	Public	3	46	733
	Private	2	30	693
Kindergartens		287	—	15,040

(b) Government Schools of Higher Grade

	Teaching staff	Enrolment
Keijo Law School	14	185
Keijo Medical School	40	335
Keijo Technical School	33	188
Suigen Agr. and Forestry School	23	202
Keijo Higher Commercial School	36	278

University Education.—The Imperial University of Keijo was the only government university in the peninsula. It was opened in 1926, consisting of two departments, (1) medicine, and (2) law and literature. The preparatory course of two years attached to the university was opened two years earlier, or in 1924. The course was extended to three years as is the case with the government national colleges in Japan, beginning with the academic year of 1933-34. Both the organization and details of the university are almost the same as the Imperial Universities in Japan. At the end of May, 1934 the university staff consisted of 523, the students numbered 621, while the Preparatory Course enrolled 309 students and the staff consisted of 39.

Korean students studying in Japan Proper as at the end of 1933 were 4,087 in number including two studying at official expense. Of that number, 2,782 were in Tokyo and the rest in the provinces.

RELIGION

All religious faiths enjoy equal opportunity and protection from the Government, there being no state religion in Korea. The Confucian cult is spreading among the higher classes, and Budd-

him among the lower. The latter, however, is not so prosperous as in Japan Proper. Standing between the two, Christianity has gained a great vogue among all classes.

There are some adherents of such Shinto sects as Tenrikyo, Shinrikyo, Shinshukyo, Taishukyo, Konkokyo, etc. In December, 1934 there were in Korea 123 Buddhist temples representing 26 denominations, 441 preaching places, 597 preachers, 241,800 votaries, approximately, including 8,200 Koreans. As for Shintoism, there were 244 preaching places, representing 10 sects, 501 preachers, 88,200 votaries, of whom 15,800 were Koreans. As stated above, Christianity is more influential than any other religion in Korea. There were in December, 1934 4,269 places of worship representing ten odd denominations, 2,647 preachers, 414 missionaries, 7,600 Japanese and 414,600 Korean Christians. Besides, there were more than 300 foreign Christians, making a total number of believers of 422,500.

Table 14. State of Religious Propagation

	Missions	Adherents		
		Mis-sionaries	Japanese	Natives
Christianity	4,269	3,091	*7,600	414,600
Buddhist	564	597	233,600	8,200
Shinto	244	501	72,400	15,800

* Includes foreigners.

JUDICATURE

The Law Courts in Korea at the end of 1934 comprised eleven district courts with 51 branches, three Courts of Appeal and one Supreme Court. The latest statistics of new civil and criminal preliminary affairs, etc., are as follows:—

Table 15. Civil and Criminal Preliminary Cases

Year	Civil suits			Criminal suits			Preliminary	Prosecutor's visit
	1st instance	Appeal	Supreme	1st instance	Appeal	Supreme		
1927	61,308	3,746	558	34,268	1,491	138	886	103,901
1928	58,218	3,990	517	35,344	1,549	151	980	105,688
1929	55,580	4,258	589	42,087	1,872	159	942	114,983
1930	52,715	3,926	979	47,419	2,122	187	915	123,092
1931	53,420	3,097	694	54,881	1,874	170	886	131,814
1932	48,957	2,758	685	56,436	1,800	165	779	131,360
1933	45,315	2,797	653	57,151	1,689	179	612	126,519

At the end of 1934 there were thirteen prisons for adults and two for juveniles. The number of convicts and accused classified by sex is tabulated below:

Table 16. Number of Convicts and Accused

Year	No. of convicts		Criminal defendants		In separate cells		Infants	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1928	11,615	389	1,657	60	513	23	4	3
1929	12,840	440	1,999	50	522	35	5	6
1930	14,195	449	1,822	53	651	45	7	10
1931	14,193	402	1,976	66	666	56	11	7
1932	15,279	395	2,491	83	565	51	8	5
1933	15,987	425	1,929	70	631	48	4	7

GARRISON AND POLICE

The troops in the peninsula represent two Divisions, one being quartered at Ranan and the other at Ryusan near Keijo, besides the 6th air regiment established in 1922-23. Prior to the 'independence' agitation the policing force consisted of gendarmes and police. With the reorganization of the administrative system in 1919 the gendarmes were mostly converted into police at their own option. The police force proper at the end of December, 1933 consisted of 8,182 native policemen and 11,166 Japanese policemen. The police stations numbered 251 with about 2,334 sub-stations and 197

police boxes under them. The gendarmes are now on their proper duty only. Below are given data on police offences and arrests for the last five years:

Table 17. Police Offences and Arrests

Year	No. of Police offences	No. of cases Prosecuted	No. of Persons arrested
1929	140,433	132,607	143,876
1930	178,013	169,095	187,531
1931	175,273	164,963	192,119
1932	187,608	170,187	205,477
1933	186,520	176,795	192,955

PUBLIC WORKS

Roads.—As soon as it was established, the Government-General laid out a complete system of roads consisting of 547 lines of various classes with a total length of 25,842 kilometres. The first term construction or improvement of the roads has been carried out since 1911 as a continuing work of six or seven-year-period with an outlay of ¥10,000,000. The second term work has been carried on from 1917 as a continuing work to be finished by 1938 with the total outlay of ¥31,119,000. In connexion with road-making, a number of bridges have been constructed.

Rivers.—Almost all rivers were in a neglected condition before the annexion, the damage due to floods reaching over 10 million yen in some years. In 1915 the Government-General started investigation into the Rakutoko and thirteen other rivers for purposes of systematic control.

As a result of the investigation a riparian work was started on the Bankei-ko and Sainei-ko, in 1925 as a six year-work and also on the Rakuto-ko, Daido-ko and two other rivers in the following year as a ten year-work. The sum of ¥48,400,000 was estimated as an expenditure for the improvement of these six rivers. In 1929 the sum of ¥5,000,000 was added to the estimate by reason of the necessary extension of the scope of repair involved in the two rivers of the Bankei-ko and the Sainei-ko, but later the expenditure had to be reduced and the work had to be postponed. After all the expenditure was cut down to ¥49,973,000 and the first term of the work for the six rivers is expected to be completed in 1938-39.

Harbour Work.—Harbour works were commenced with Fusan, where all the terminal facilities for the Fusan-Seoul Railway have been

completed. At Jinsen a spacious lockgate dock has been constructed to accommodate two ships of 4,500 gross tons and under, by taking advantage of the great tidal range (22-23 ft.) of the locality. The work of improvement at

Gunsan, Gensan, Mokpo, Tashitao and Yungkui was already completed, and at present a similar work is in progress at Chungjin, Jinsen, Chinnampo, Songjin. The Government encourage harbour improvement by granting subsidies.

BANKING AND OTHER FINANCIAL ORGANIZATIONS

As for organs for monetary circulation in Korea, there are first of all the Bank of Chosen (formerly called Bank of Korea) as the central bank, the Chosen Industrial Bank and the Oriental Development Company, which both make it their principal business to make advances on real estate, the Chosen Savings Bank, ordinary banks and the Chosen Trust Company. Besides, there are many credit associations and "mujin" companies as petty organs of monetary circulation for the provincial people.

Bank of Chosen.—The Bank of Chosen, of which details are given under Chapter on Banking in the present issue, was, as stated above, known as the Bank of Korea before the an-

nexation. On the promulgation of the Bank of Chosen Act in March, 1911, the Bank of Korea was renamed the Bank of Chosen. The authorized capital of the Bank at the end of December of 1934 was ¥40,000,000, of which ¥25,000,000 was paid up.

The Bank has its head office at Seoul and branch offices at Tokyo, Osaka, Kobe, Shimono-seki, Antung, Dairen, Mukden, Hsinking, Harbin, Kaiyuan, Yingkow, Lungchingtsun, Liaoyang, Tiehling, Ssupingkaï, Port Arthur, Tsingtao, Shanghai, Tientsin, New York. The results of the Bank for the past seven years are tabulated below:

Table 18. Principal Accounts of Bank of Chosen

(In thousands of yen)

	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Nominal capital ..	40,000	40,000	40,000	40,000	40,000	40,000	40,000
Capital (paid-up) ..	25,000	25,000	25,000	25,000	25,000	25,000	25,000
Reserves	1,001	1,201	2,101	2,901	3,701	4,501	5,301
Deposits	6,150,759	6,584,727	6,907,672	6,355,288	5,623,736	6,843,049	8,799,024
Loans	1,748,242	1,523,914	1,460,093	1,333,305	1,440,507	1,579,779	1,761,715
Bills discounted ..	762,429	527,460	360,923	286,038	258,950	339,700	392,186
Earnings	25,328	18,128	26,128	23,492	24,366	38,709	41,477
Expenses	23,946	26,543	24,321	21,664	22,531	36,860	39,624
Net profits	1,382	1,585	1,865	1,828	1,835	1,849	8,153
Dividend	940	930	940	940	940	940	940
Rate of dividend (%)	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0

Chosen Industrial Bank (Chosen Shokusan Ginko).—The Chosen Industrial Bank is also referred to in detail elsewhere in the present issue. It was established in 1906 chiefly for the purpose of making advances on real estate to help

promote the industry of the peninsula. It is capitalized at ¥30,000,000, of which ¥15,000,000 is paid up. At the end of 1934 the Bank had 53 branch offices and seven sub-agencies in the peninsula and one branch office at Osaka.

Table 19. Principal Accounts of Chosen Industrial Bank

(In thousands of yen)

	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Nominal capital ..	30,000	30,000	30,000	30,000	30,000	30,000	30,000
Capital (paid-up) ..	15,000	15,000	20,000	20,000	20,000	20,000	20,000
Reserves	4,953	6,003	7,043	8,083	9,123	10,163	11,203
Deposits	979,855	1,126,864	1,230,513	995,670	984,353	1,208,233	1,384,978
Loans	994,155	527,710	537,873	549,552	508,737	569,100	611,625
Bills discounted ..	191,929	192,538	180,954	139,647	150,130	182,523	199,291
Balances of debentures issued	173,445	177,223	199,685	242,158	247,558	260,992	253,482
Earnings	28,905	27,598	26,377	25,860	27,496	28,141	29,357
Expenses	26,486	25,123	23,552	22,837	24,475	25,123	26,315
Net profits	2,418	2,475	2,824	3,023	3,020	3,017	3,042
Dividend	1,172	1,320	1,609	1,770	1,770	1,770	1,785
Rate of dividend (%)	9.4	8.0	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.0

Chosen Savings Bank.—Savings deposits in Korea were handled by banks, credit associations and post offices till the Government-General issued the Savings Bank Regulations on December 24, 1928. The following year the Chosen Savings Bank was established in accordance with

the provisions of the Regulations. The Bank is capitalized at ¥5,000,000. Its head office is situated in Seoul and branch offices at Fusan, Heijo and Jinsen. Besides, it has a sub-branch at Fusan and is represented by all the offices of the Chosen Industrial Bank.

Table 20. Principal Accounts of Chosen Savings Bank

	1927 (¥1,000)	1928 (¥1,000)	1929 (¥1,000)	1930 (¥1,000)	1931 (¥1,000)	1932 (¥1,000)	1933 (¥1,000)
No. of banks	16	14	14	13	12	12	8
Nominal capital ..	32,275	29,025	28,425	26,425	26,425	26,425	26,075
Capital (paid-up) ..	16,950	15,056	15,221	14,721	14,721	14,721	14,371
Reserves	3,727	3,370	2,220	3,457	3,513	3,793	3,717
Deposits	1,272,990	1,629,253	1,678,476	1,251,474	1,109,769	1,088,201	1,298,278
Loans	618,762	740,613	790,614	722,979	664,969	599,532	638,468
Bills discounted ..	326,483	324,395	291,524	206,453	168,053	160,957	188,290
Earnings	16,238	18,372	15,570	14,997	16,034	13,527	13,742
Expenses	14,375	16,856	13,572	13,610	14,840	12,344	12,330
Net profits	1,863	1,515	1,997	1,387	1,194	1,183	1,412
Dividend	854	724	773	731	709	575	487

Ordinary Banks.—An ordinary bank was established in Korea for the first time in 1878 when a branch office of the First Bank (Daiichi Ginko) was set up at Fusan. That was soon followed by the creation of similar agencies at various treaty ports by the same bank and other Japanese banks such as the Juhachi, Gojuhachi, etc. In 1889 the Dai Kan Tenichi Ginko was established as the first banking institution formed by Korean capitalists, and in 1903 another

Korean bank (Kanjo Ginko) was brought into being. All those banks on the whole made sound developments with extended sphere of operation under the Banking Regulations enacted in 1912 (revised in 1920, amended in 1928 and has been in force since January 1, 1929). At the end of September, 1934 there were in Korea eight banks and their 93 branches and sub-branches and sixteen branches of Japanese banks whose head offices were in Japan.

Table 21. Principal Accounts of Ordinary Banks

(In thousands of yen)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
No. of bank	1	1	1	1	1
Nominal capital	5,000	5,000	5,000	5,000	5,000
Capital (paid-up)	1,250	1,250	1,250	1,250	1,250
Reserves	0	20	40	70	140
Deposits	28,931	44,361	52,027	57,145	32,903
Advances	8,463	10,522	14,136	17,662	15,086
Earnings	1,031	2,186	2,443	2,215	2,486
Expenses	961	2,043	2,298	2,052	2,248
Net profits	69	142	144	163	238
Dividend	50	100	100	100	129
Rate of dividend (%)	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0

Besides the banks mentioned above, there was a branch office of the Hong-Kong Shanghai Bank in Korea.

Trust Companies.—Trust business was introduced into Korea in March, 1908 by the Fujimoto Goshi Kaisha. In the war boom of 1919 many trust companies were established in the peninsula. At the end of November, 1934 there were two trust companies in Korea, namely, the Chosen Trust Company and the Minami Chosen Trust Company. The financial position of these two concerns may be seen from the list appended:

Table 22. Financial Position of Trust Companies
(In thousands of yen)

	Capital	Capital p.u.	Trust Reserves	Trust Property
Chosen Trust Co.	10,000	2,500	37	37,829
Minami Chosen Trust Co.	1,000	250	27	3,564

Bankers' Clearing House.—The first bankers' clearing house in Korea was established in Seoul in July, 1909. There are now similar institutions in eight other places.

Credit Associations.—The credit association

makes it its business to make loans to its members, to keep in custody industrial products, to issue warehouse receipts for them, to receive deposits from either the members or non-members, and to act as agents, with the sanction of the Governor-General, for other credit associations or banking establishments. For a village association there is, besides, a Government grant as stock fund of not more than ¥10,000. City associations operating in urban districts are allowed to engage in bill-discounting business. At the end of September 1934 there were 61 city associations and 624 village associations with a total membership of 1,077,713.

Table 23. Results of Credit Associations

(In thousands of yen)

	Associations		
	Village	City	Total
No. of associations	624	61	685
No. of branches.....	171	1	172
No. of memberships ...	1,028,627	49,096	1,077,713
Capital paid-up.....	7,560	1,996	9,556

	Associations		
	Village	City	Total
Reserves	14,640	3,097	17,737
Debts	60,543	4,873	65,416
Deposits with others ...	38,051	23,807	61,858
Deposits	82,490	40,025	122,515
Loans	123,489	25,322	148,811

Mutual Loan Companies (Mujin Kaisha).—"Mujin" business in Korea has made marked developments since the promulgation of the Chosen Mujin Business Act in April, 1921. In 1931 the legislation was amended in order to keep abreast of times. At the end of September, 1934 there were 34 mutual loan concerns. Their financial position may be seen from the table appended:

Table 24. Results of Mujin Kaisha

No. of companies	34
Capital	¥ 4,280,000
Capital paid-up	¥ 1,694,200
Reserves	¥ 1,589,140
No. of "mujin"	1,412
No. of instalments.....	76,829
Amount of contracts.....	¥107,880,650

FOREIGN TRADE

Thanks to various measures taken by the Government-General for the promotion of industry and the growth of private enterprises since the annexation, the foreign trade of Korea has gradually developed. Its pace of developments since the World War is especially remarkable.

Korea trades extensively with many countries of the world but with none more closely than with Japan Proper. As shown by the trade returns for 1933, 84 per cent. of consignments

came from Japan and 86 per cent. of shipments went thither, only 14 per cent. of shipments going abroad and 16 per cent. of consignments coming from abroad. Principal destinations of her goods are Manchoukuo, Kwantung Province, the United States of America and China, and principal countries sending goods are Manchoukuo, China, Kwantung Province, the United States, the Dutch East Indies, Russia in Asia and England.

Table 25. Korea's Foreign Trade
(In yen)(a) Merchandise Imports and Exports
To and from Foreign Countries

Year	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of imports
1928.....	32,149,187	118,151,022	150,300,209	86,001,835
1929.....	35,773,033	107,767,710	143,540,743	71,994,677
1930.....	25,852,353	88,854,562	114,706,915	63,002,209
1931.....	12,771,572	52,695,966	65,467,538	39,924,394
1932.....	29,209,754	61,685,953	90,895,707	32,476,199
1933.....	52,773,273	64,368,264	117,141,537	11,594,991
1934.....	57,673,853	79,527,309	137,201,162	21,853,456

To and from Japan Proper

Year	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of imports or exports
1928.....	333,829,337	295,839,921	629,669,258	+ 37,989,416
1929.....	309,891,023	315,325,841	625,216,864	- 5,434,818
1930.....	240,694,825	278,194,196	518,889,021	- 37,499,371
1931.....	249,726,697	217,770,365	466,797,062	+ 31,256,332
1932.....	282,144,296	258,670,063	540,814,359	+ 23,474,334
1933.....	315,854,449	339,817,196	655,671,645	- 23,962,747
1934.....	407,693,582	439,622,621	847,316,203	- 31,929,039

(b) Import and Export of Gold Specie and Bullion

To and from Foreign Countries

Year	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of imports
1928.....	—	110,838	110,838	110,838
1929.....	—	246,297	246,297	246,297
1930.....	2,450	11,594,311	11,596,761	11,591,861
1931.....	22,486	21,903,782	21,926,268	21,881,296
1932.....	30,301	753,627	783,927	723,326
1933.....	20,132	41,085	61,217	20,953
1934.....	18,531	66,851	85,382	48,320

To and from Japan Proper

Year	Export	Imports	Total	Excess of export
1928.....	3,667,777	427,053	4,096,830	3,242,724
1929.....	6,096,811	639,908	6,736,719	5,456,903
1930.....	26,801,109	137,178	26,938,287	26,663,931
1931.....	39,525,530	53,479	39,579,009	39,472,051
1932.....	28,284,905	9,850,993	38,135,898	18,433,912
1933.....	24,375,261	3,807,016	28,182,277	20,568,245
1934.....	36,331,413	335,182	36,666,595	35,996,231

(c) Staple Exports

To Japan Proper

Items	Year			
	1931	1932	1933	1934
Rice	138,428,409	144,796,809	152,693,012	222,289,526
Soya beans	13,778,412	20,484,007	19,260,706	18,142,055
Fresh fish	4,426,650	4,649,938	5,269,295	5,316,852
Dried fish	4,029,455	4,336,589	4,247,943	5,543,116
Sugar	828,368	1,097,991	244,510	1,344
Ginned cocoon	2,608,664	3,504,100	6,487,791	8,137,014
Raw silk	12,015,054	11,666,127	14,009,028	11,473,610
Cocoon	1,553,073	1,267,177	1,762,348	784,897
Wild silk yarn	6,984,593	7,763,413	9,175,747	6,542,818
Coal	3,061,053	3,841,351	4,549,402	6,003,455
Pig iron	3,027,030	9,178,657	5,085,969	7,325,277
Cows	2,787,611	3,238,022	4,237,448	4,113,590
Fertilizer	8,346,449	18,433,506	18,749,758	52,188,948
Total incl. others....	249,026,967	282,144,296	315,854,449	407,693,482

To Foreign Countries

Items	Year			
	1931	1932	1933	1934
Rice	48,946	540,416	2,013,646	1,977,653
Soya beans	29,410	55,322	14,653	17,995
Fresh fish	575,820	822,387	978,070	1,156,578
Dried fish	128,864	233,609	296,289	376,424
Sugar	1,821,129	2,350,498	2,292,857	2,522,152
Apple	154,024	413,143	939,245	487,148
Cow hide	162,173	107,024	73,369	108,260
Ginseng	1,870	23,340	187,810	1,144,432
Cotton yarn	331,952	1,242,997	974,413	1,330,623
Cement	144,573	168,143	1,203,048	1,702,897
Chosen paper	36,187	48,199	74,194	98,028
Timber	1,018,794	1,614,656	5,059,753	6,185,495
Total incl. others....	12,771,572	29,209,754	52,773,273	57,673,853

(d) Staple Imports

From Japan Proper

Items	Year			
	1931	1932	1933	1934
Rice	809,761	1,528,288	1,512,533	3,062,024
Flour	3,791,010	3,766,052	3,983,430	5,403,855
Wheat	157,026	220,355	232,895	965,395
Sugar	4,518,389	7,426,539	4,272,787	5,066,761
Saké	1,119,075	1,160,586	1,118,384	1,513,920

Items	1951	1952	1953	1954
Beer	1,727,007	1,730,031	2,110,216	1,542,354
Ginned cotton	4,317,070	6,488,242	8,553,203	11,804,860
Cotton yarn	4,069,201	5,884,644	5,993,135	9,490,865
Jeans, etc.	1,395,614	1,899,467	2,881,623	2,029,306
Woolen tissues	4,338,013	5,863,424	8,164,178	9,608,230
Silk tissues	10,606,884	3,327,765	18,440,820	24,950,176
Gunny bags	370,542	645,785	1,100,982	1,143,251
Paper	5,491,006	6,547,846	7,562,282	8,796,170
Coal	4,176,808	4,084,593	5,504,440	6,193,810
Cement	1,725,749	2,306,598	3,348,542	5,472,044
Railway building materials	2,816,149	4,253,402	5,760,604	7,017,588
Machinery	7,907,967	8,273,700	11,762,408	16,729,304
Total incl. others ..	217,770,365	258,670,063	339,817,196	439,622,621

From Foreign Countries

Items	1951	1952	1953	1954
Rice	120,620	242,721	326,894	4,226
Millet	7,931,104	16,025,129	12,874,413	15,736,957
Soya bean	2,429,283	1,814,741	2,736,942	3,460,033
Sugar	1,122,171	218,741	1,579,195	1,248,500
Salt	1,278,523	2,091,685	2,713,466	2,423,162
Leaf tobacco	1,319,953	980,213	310,539	3,070,016
Crude oil and heavy oil ..	1,187,118	1,444,662	1,979,628	2,396,428
Volatile oil	1,545,502	1,891,470	2,497,237	2,388,431
Fuel oil	1,045,027	4,036,884	1,174,358	1,576,051
Chinese linen	2,353,368	1,204,369	1,147,109	1,766,196
Gunny bags	21,461	20,962	63,220	45,576
Coal	4,344,897	3,788,658	5,231,009	6,973,028
Timber	3,222,646	2,033,567	1,605,242	2,044,507
Bean cake	2,846,234	2,529,565	3,463,193	6,018,434
Total incl. others ..	52,695,966	61,685,953	64,368,264	79,527,309

(e) Imports and Exports By Countries

(In yen)

Asia:	Export			
	1951	1952	1953	1954
China	12,086,984	947,840	1,598,605	2,007,644
Manchoukuo		22,867,847	40,588,063	48,358,325
Hongkong	21,721	108,034	394,565	543,068
British India	8,568	20,353	115,999	110,238
Straits Settlements ..	155,279	114,097	222,347	289,973
Dutch India	64,891	48,595	103,070	215,139
French Indo-China ..	33,397	4,355	4,607	20,257
Russia	22,458	67,016	79,996	3,976
Total incl. others...	12,487,060	28,601,327	48,104,447	56,839,684
Europe:				
Great Britain	3,967	2,693	11,409	3,795
Germany	4,053	3,282	710,881	2,048
Total incl. others ..	11,044	7,102	743,337	35,875
American Countries:				
U. S. A.	121,704	406,897	2,746,723	312,878
Canada	1,680	1,228	1,186	972
Total incl. others ..	123,547	408,186	2,747,916	313,891
Other States	149,921	200,139	1,177,573	484,403
Grand total incl. others	12,771,572	29,209,754	52,773,273	57,673,853

Asia:	Import			
	1951	1952	1953	1954
China	39,509,056	3,772,679	5,858,038	7,796,226
Manchoukuo		39,723,227	40,765,021	46,681,998
Hongkong	21,334	8,625	17,280	31,203
British India	357,696	220,017	763,110	2,619,459
Straits Settlements ..	184,200	259,862	127,386	75,013
Dutch India	1,487,943	616,537	2,137,666	1,431,263
French Indo-China ..	25,027	197,996	3	70,810
Russia	262,633	1,020,730	1,144,681	113,681
Total incl. others ..	42,089,469	48,940,786	55,102,443	64,756,219
Europe:				
Great Britain	1,313,419	1,545,940	988,625	975,791
Germany	1,312,121	819,286	423,182	380,138
Total incl. others ..	2,892,126	2,570,430	1,529,225	1,558,851
American Countries:				
U. S. A.	4,550,470	5,079,175	2,195,225	5,083,778
Canada	32,912	56,343	484,603	724,173
Total incl. others ..	4,627,948	5,162,511	2,713,384	6,192,770
Other States	33,294	1,471,177	652,828	1,309,816
Grand total incl. others	52,695,966	61,635,953	64,368,264	79,527,309

MONOPOLY

Ginseng.—Ginseng, a medical root highly valued by Chinese and Koreans, is famous for its quality throughout the world, and the greater part of the manufactured products is exported to China. Owing, however, to the spread of disease among ginseng and the ravages of thieves, this industry was almost ruined for a time. In 1908, therefore, a special Government office was established, where various curative and preventive measures were studied with great care and efforts, and strict control over theft was exercised. On the other hand, cultivators' associations were organized with a view to promoting the common interest, and these associations, supported by Government measures, lent impetus to the improvement of this industry. In 1908, the area under cultivation was 10,691 taubo, and production 4,000 kin (2,400 kgs.). These increased to about 2,110,000 taubo and 29,000 kin (17,400 kgs.) respectively in 1920. The production in 1933 was 48,525 kin and sales ¥1,337,941.

Salt.—Owing to its geographical features, Korea is suitable for salt manufacture by natural process. In 1907, however, from the financial and economic point of view experiments were made in the manufacture of salt by spontaneous evaporation at Shuan in Keikido. The result turned out to be very successful and the quality of the products was as good as the first or second class salt produced in Japan Proper. Thereupon the construction of salt fields at Koryo Bay and Tokudo in Heian-nando was commenced in 1908, the area being 1,205 cho or

1,195 hectares. The output is at present hardly sufficient to meet the demand in the peninsula, but with the completion of the expansion programme extending over seven years beginning in 1920, the area of salt fields increased to about 2,474 cho producing about 356 million kin in 1933. The exemption of salt from import duties resultant from the abolition of exceptions in the case of import duties in Korea enforced on and after April, 1930, however, caused a keen competition in the market. As there was further fear of speculative dealings in salt, the Government-General promulgated in March, 1930 an Ordinance providing for the import of salt from Japan Proper and abroad to stabilize its price and facilitate its supply.

Table 26. Salt Production and Import

Year	Salt-fields (cho)	Production (1,000 kin)	Import	
			(1,000 kin)	(1,000 yen)
1927....	2,446	182,949	283,629	2,219
1928....	2,446	253,756	247,400	1,851
1929....	2,446	309,638	228,778	1,435
1930....	2,446	242,167	203,671	1,042,913
1931....	2,446	243,870	320,722	1,701,524
1932....	2,474	355,742	308,416	2,072,427
1933....	2,474	336,541	311,417	2,818

Tobacco.—The manufacture of tobacco was undertaken exclusively by the Government-General under Chosen Tobacco Monopoly Ordinance promulgated in April, 1921. Exceptions were made, however, with respect to the cultivation of tobacco for personal use, the private manufacture and sale of cut tobacco and the sale of leaf tobacco by the Government, etc.

The supply of the Government manufactured cut tobacco that was received in 1923 with favour by the consumer and the improvement in economic conditions of the people rendered the above exceptions unnecessary. Thus, the sale of leaf tobacco by the Government-General was discontinued in January, 1927, and the cultivation of tobacco for personal use and the private manufacture of cut tobacco were abolished at the end of 1929. The area under tobacco and the production in recent years are as follows:—

Table 27. Area Under Tobacco and Production

Year	Area under cultivation (cho)	Production (1,000 kwan)
1928.....	21,870	6,029
1929.....	19,613	6,916
1930.....	14,229	4,027
1931.....	15,233	4,384
1932.....	13,637	5,310
1933.....	13,558	4,414

AGRICULTURE

All parts of Korea are suitable for agriculture. The growth of farm crops is especially satisfactory in the southern part of the peninsula which is marked by genial climate. The aridity of climate all the year round especially redounds to the development of agriculture. Rice plants in paddy fields have often suffered from drought for insufficient supply of water. But, this state of things has been gradually improved by the growing development of irrigation facilities. Rice is the most staple farm product, followed by barely, Italian millet, soya-beans, wheat and red beans. There are also such special products as cotton, tobacco, hemp, and ginseng. The cultivation of fruit trees has of late produced very good results and the area of plantations is

Table 28. Arable Land Under Cultivation

Year	Paddy			Upland	Total
	One crop	Two crops	Total		
1928.....	1,289,768	308,456	1,598,224	1,793,171	4,391,395
1929.....	1,264,182	344,706	1,608,888	2,783,228	4,392,116
1930.....	1,261,775	355,921	1,617,696	2,770,968	4,388,664
1931.....	1,263,045	365,939	1,628,984	2,755,526	4,384,510
1932.....	1,263,945	383,064	1,647,009	2,743,434	4,390,448
1933.....	1,265,482	394,773	1,660,255	2,751,549	4,411,804

Table 29. Farming Population

Year	Japanese		Natives		Total	
	Farming-households	Population	Farming-households	Population	Farming-households	Population
1927.....	10,300	44,177	2,768,744	14,844,540	2,781,000	14,896,000
1928.....	10,883	44,321	2,786,226	15,014,529	2,790,000	15,068,000
1929.....	10,390	45,364	2,801,827	15,153,707	2,815,277	15,210,204
1930.....	10,505	45,903	2,856,102	15,562,089	2,869,957	15,621,534
1931.....	10,827	46,258	2,868,569	15,581,611	2,881,689	15,636,024
1932.....	11,439	49,976	2,917,440	15,927,206	2,928,879	15,977,182
1933.....	9,025	39,031	3,000,830	16,079,207	3,009,855	1,617,123

* Includes Chinese and Manchurians.

Opium.—After the annexation of the peninsula the Government-General frequently issued ordinances regulating opium, setting limits to the area under poppies, receiving manufactured opium and selling it to pharmacutists specially authorized by the Government. These measures resulted in the eradication of the evils of opium smoking, but there were many persons poisoned by morphine throughout the country. In order to root out the evils, the Government-General entered the names of smokers on a register and gave them medical treatment, while at the same time it gave an authority to control the receiving of opium and the manufacture and sale of morphine to the Monopoly Bureau which commenced the work from March, 1930. The output of morphine and opium for medical use in 1933 was 433,768 gramme, of which 395,500 was supplied to private enterprise.

gradually expanding. Sericulture which had hitherto been in a very poor condition, is now, in consequence of official encouragement, being carried on everywhere. Both are conducted as subsidiary industries by the agricultural community. Livestock is also raised as a by-product of agriculture, and cattle, horses, goats and pigs are found everywhere in the country. The cattle are well known for their great size and good quality, and a large number of them are yearly exported to Japan Proper and Asiatic Russia.

According to the official returns the arable land in Korea totals 4,390,443 cho. The area, farming population and production in recent years are shown below:

Table 30. Demand and Supply of Rice

Year	Area under Cultivation (Cho)	Output (Koku)	Import (Koku)	Export (Koku)	Consumption (Koku)
1928.....	1,517,755	13,511,725	451,407	7,085,306	10,664,988
1929.....	1,632,065	13,701,746	682,990	5,388,231	8,806,484
1930.....	1,662,020	19,183,135	580,007	5,173,976	9,107,777
1931.....	1,674,610	15,872,999	65,839	7,996,199	11,250,317
1932.....	1,643,449	16,345,825	106,497	7,227,436	8,752,060
1933.....	1,697,464	18,192,720	110,978	7,646,671	8,810,132
1934.....	—	—	128,082	9,033,043	9,287,759

Table 31. Output of Staple Crops (koku)

Year	Barley	Wheat	Naked-barley	Soya beans	Red beans	Millet
1929.....	7,211,636	1,725,216	450,753	3,999,965	809,896	5,244,271
1930.....	7,567,948	1,863,151	532,940	4,490,048	898,590	5,573,256
1931.....	7,812,127	1,729,987	665,923	4,131,795	862,726	3,950,364
1932.....	8,003,756	1,778,289	837,113	4,409,677	877,236	5,539,381
1933.....	7,585,304	1,762,287	1,023,153	4,555,517	914,564	5,145,301

Table 32. Output of Special Crops

Year	Cotton (1,000 kin)	Hemp (1,000 kwan)	Ramie (1,000 kwan)	Tobacco (1,000 kwan)	Sesame seeds (koku)
1928....	170,837	5,468	139	6,029	38,286
1929....	158,238	5,333	127	6,916	39,506
1930....	168,770	5,586	130	4,027	40,049
1931....	105,913	5,238	130	4,384	37,416
1932....	154,278	5,275	145	5,310	37,866
1933....	159,416	5,267	145	4,414	39,073

As for cotton, with the exception of Kankyo Hokudo and a portion of Kankyo Nando, all parts of Korea are well suited for cotton cultivation. Since 1906 the authorities have encouraged the cultivation of the American upland variety with considerable success. The area under upland cotton, which stood at 1,268 cho in 1910, increased to 117,321 cho in 1933. Since that year, the authorities have been encouraging the cultivation of native species in the four provinces of Keiki, Kokai, Heian-Nando and Heian-Hokudo and a portion of Keisho-Hokudo which are not suited for the cultivation of upland variety. Due partly to these government encouragements and partly to favourable weather

conditions, the area under native cotton in 1933 was as extensive as 59,338.2.

Table 33. Cotton Crops

Year	Area (cho)	Harvest (1,000 kin)		
		Upland	Native	Export
1929...	186,220	113,522	44,716	11,759
1930...	192,873	127,329	41,441	17,636
1931...	192,545	78,721	37,191	8,508
1932...	159,269	111,909	42,369	8,600
1933...	176,659	114,313	45,102	14,247

Stock-farming.—Cattle reared in Kankyo-do, Northern Korea are noted for strong build and perfect flesh development. Every house there keeps a head or two, and as the region is well suited for pasture, the preserved meat business in Northern Korea has a great future. The number of cattle, which was only 700,000, approximately at the time of the inauguration of the Government-General, had increased to about 1,600,000 in 1933. A considerable number of cattle are exported to Japan Proper.

Table 34. Number of Cattle, Horses, etc.

	1930	1931	1932	1933
Cattle	1,611,585	1,637,019	1,664,435	1,663,136
Horses	55,544	54,100	53,887	52,924
Swine	1,386,891	1,348,199	912,760	976,933
Sheep	1,561	1,609	2,208	2,675
Goats	13,813	25,601	27,363	28,652
Fowls	6,146,000	6,294,672	6,601,477	6,868,037

Sericulture.—The climate of Korea is suitable for sericulture owing to the scarcity of rainfall in the rearing season. The authorities are carrying out a programme spreading over fifteen years from 1925 to 1939 for bringing the cocoon crop of the peninsula up to a million koku. A

subsidy is yearly granted to the industry to that end. The cocoon crop is so swiftly increasing that the million koku mark is expected to be attained before 1939. The general state of sericulture for 1933 may be seen from the following:

Area of Mulberry Farms	79,168.8 cho
Number of Rearing Households	812,009
Cocoon Crop:	
Spring	427,140 koku
Summer	240,894 koku
Raw Silk Output	425,568 kan

With the recent development of sericulture, the time-honoured method of hand-reeling is being fast replaced by machine-reeling. In consequence, the output of high grade silk for export is increasing. The number of pans for machine-reeling is counted by over 8,000 and the amount of raw silk turned out by these machine-reeling filatures is 296,100 kan, valued at ¥12,550,000. Adding to this silk output by hand-reeling, which is given as 128,900 kan, valued at ¥3,500,000, the total will be 425,500 kan in volume and ¥16,530,000 in value.

Table 35. Statistics of Sericulture For Last Six Years

Year	No. of Rearing households	Output of Cocoons (koku)	No. of Reeling households	Output of Raw silk (kwan)
1928	594,209	386,113	172,110	237,769
1929	648,079	484,802	188,355	280,090
1930	720,813	555,232	245,857	352,948
1931	747,084	578,261	264,270	382,107
1932	786,060	593,058	294,843	406,267
1933	812,009	668,034	282,636	425,568

FISHERY

Rounded by sea on three sides, Korea has a coast-line extending over 9,000 nautical miles, and is rich in fish, shell-fish and sea-weeds. Mackerels, sardines, Alaska pollacks, Sciaena Sp., herrings, sea-breems, cod, yellow tails, whales, and ear-shells are the principal catches. The encouragement by the Government-General and the improved methods introduced have brought about the rapid development of the industry of late. The recent situation of the business is as follows:—

Table 36. Recent Situation in Fishery

Year	No. of fishermen	Value of catches (¥1,000)	Marine Products (¥1,000)	Aquaculture
1928	Japanese	17,804	33,119	17,231
	Koreans	460,132	32,994	27,654
	Total	477,936	66,113	44,885
1929	Japanese	17,021	30,514	17,095
	Koreans	456,891	34,823	27,720
	Total	473,912	65,387	44,815
1930	Japanese	17,976	23,585	19,742
	Koreans	469,612	26,543	19,646
	Total	487,588	50,128	30,388
1931	—	46,570	27,760	2,610
1932	—	46,260	27,380	2,440
1933	—	51,370	35,590	2,900

The coast from the River Tumen downwards is noted for Myng-tai, Alaska pollacks, and cod fishing, the western sea for the Guchi, Sciaena

Sp. fishing and the southern sea, near Fusan for cod, herrings, etc.

MINING

Despite rich mineral resources and its very old origin, the mining industry of Korea had long remained quite insignificant. In July, 1906 the Government of Kankoku, as Chosen was then called, promulgated the Mining Law and Regulation for placer mining. Then in 1915 after the annexation the Government-General instituted the Chosen Mining Act and in April the following year put in force regulations for the enforcement of the Chosen Mining Act and regulations for the Chosen Mining Registration. This Act was intended to accelerate the development of the mining industry by stabilizing the security of mining rights. Later the act was amended more than once with the resultant promulgation of the legislation concerned.

General Survey of Mining Industry.—In the first year of Taicho, or 1912 the number of applications for mining operations was 633. The number gradually increased until in 1917 it reached 6,189. Later the number pursued a downward course due to abnormal economic conditions following the termination of the World War. In 1931, however, the number of applications began appreciably to increase due to the lifting of the gold embargo, which gave a fillip to gold mining. The number stood at 1,805 in that year, and increased to 3,204 in 1932 and to 5,210 in 1933, (of this number 4,800 represented silver mining). The number of mining lots for which permission had been given, as at the end of 1933 was 3,343. It showed an increase of 624. Mine output of minerals for 1933 was ¥48,301,468. Contrast-ed with the preceding year, it shows an expansion of ¥14,554,510.

Table 37. Number of Mining Lots and Mine Output

Year	No. of mining lots		Production (Yen)
	Total	Of which worked	
1928	2,151	365	26,434,972
1929	2,173	385	26,488,366
1930	2,262	456	24,654,463
1931	2,390	497	21,741,519
1932	2,719	939	33,746,953
1933	3,343	1,471	48,301,468

PRINCIPAL MINERALS

Gold—Applications for operations at gold mines for 1933 were 4,877 in number. Contrast-ed with the previous year, it shows an in-

crease of 1,865, or 61%. The mine output of gold (inclusive of alluvial gold, and gold and silver ores) was ¥31,300,891, which was ¥10,085,000, approximately larger than for the previous year. Of this mine output, the amount of bullion (inclusive of alluvial gold) was 11,500 kilogrammes, valued at ¥29,304,000. It was ¥9,761,000 larger for the previous year. Gold production is steadily on the increase. There are about twelve mines each producing over five hundred thousand yen worth of gold and twenty which are each responsible for the annual production of more than ¥100,000 of gold.

Iron.—The iron industry in Japan, which had long been in depression, began at last to revive in the latter half of 1932. Due to the growing prosperity of the munitions industry, the demand for iron increased and its price advanced in 1933. In consequence, in November of that year, the Kenjinho Iron Plant, the only iron foundry in Korea, resumed steel manufacture which had long been suspended. Pig iron production for the year under review was 163,937 metric tons, valued at ¥5,605,690. Compared with the preceding year, the volume shows an increase of only 284 metric tons, but the value a tremendous increase of ¥1,491,679 due to a rise in the market price. The output of iron ores was 522,553 metric tons. Of this amount, 264,286 tons was supplied to the Kenjinho Iron Plant for manufacture of pig-iron and 258,267 tons sent to Japan Proper. This shipment to Japan

was 106,854 tons larger than for the previous year.

Black-lead.—Market for sealy graphite which had long been under the harrow of depression due to pressure brought to bear on it by Ceylon description, more or less revived in the year under consideration. The mine output of the metal for the year was 1,937 metric tons, valued at ¥108,114. Contrast-ed with the preceding year, the volumes shows an expansion of 1,028 tons and the value ¥72,534. The output of earth graphite was 20,740,000 kilogrammes against 15,904,975 kilogrammes for the foregoing year. The greater part of the produce is shipped to Japan Proper. Shipments to foreign countries have of late years been on the increase.

Not only both kinds of black-lead are superior in quality but the richness of their deposits is of world-wide character. So this mining may be said to hold out bright prospects.

Coal.—In the year under notice coal market in Japan Proper showed such prosperity as had never been seen before owing to the animation of industries in general, especially to the booming of the munitions industry. Partly because of this situation in Japan and partly because of the activity of various industries in the peninsula, the demand for coal appreciably increased and with it the price advanced. A total of coal supply for the year under consideration was 1,306,734 metric tons. It was 202,540 tons larger than for the preceding year.

Table 38. Mine Output of Principal Minerals

Kind	Unit	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Gold	Gram	5,172,236	5,552,719	6,186,451	9,031,083	9,700,728	10,203,408
	Yen	5,692,786	5,874,658	6,618,656	9,583,950	19,633,173	26,066,784
Silver	Gram	1,744,445	1,762,155	2,101,065	11,404,022	18,351,300	21,864,573
	Yen	59,649	29,820	58,207	206,600	552,714	721,651
Gold & silver ore	Kg.	13,220	16,793	13,411	12,858	10,401	*21,683
	Yen	1,440,870	1,353,133	1,070,439	553,545	944,252	1,906,445
Copper ore	Kg.	3,980	3,935	5,647	6,156	6,543	5,914
	Yen	47,401	62,717	45,886	35,485	33,817	41,975
Crude copper	Kg.	607,459	546,857	589,342	598,446	693,961	784,825
	Yen	1,027,319	1,348,686	1,398,225	224,921	307,027	417,368
Iron ore	Kg.	504,375	551,814	532,496	164,712	151,413	258,267
	Yen	3,042,979	3,153,988	2,808,178	824,063	749,259	1,287,788
Pig iron	Ton	148,642	155,514	151,378	147,855	163,653	163,937
	Yen	7,652,924	6,795,334	5,923,071	4,588,887	4,114,012	5,605,691
Graphite	Kin	22,479,888	25,148,496	20,073,511	14,049,717	*16,813	*22,677
	Yen	440,738	511,159	423,138	231,975	255,847	465,656
Coal	Ton	815,817	937,902	884,138	936,382	1,104,194	1,279,734
	Yen	5,769,289	6,316,485	5,327,966	5,190,064	5,970,119	7,205,406
Lead	Kwan	5,322	5,109	3,832	†97,165	†492,782	†783,522
	Yen	104,041	85,004	5,200	5,800	64,375	120,783
Silica	1,000 kin	77,766	84,679	47,346	40,659	43,856	68,818
	Yen	123,125	56,623	42,532	38,993	55,332	96,545

* Metric tons. † Kilograms.

FORESTRY

The total area of Korea is 14,312 square ri, approximately. Of this area, about 10,583 square ri, or about 73 per cent. is occupied by forests and plains. As a large part of these forests and plains are in a state of desolation at the time of annexation, the Government-General has since made efforts for afforestation. As a result, forestry enterprises have sprung up in various localities. The principal species recently planted are the Akamatsu (*Pinus thunbergii*) the Chosen-karamatsu (*Larix dahurica*, var. *coreana*), the Chosen-matsu (*Pinus koraiensis*), the Kuromatsu (*Pinus densiflora*), the Manshukuromatsu (*Pinus funebris* Komar), the Rigidamatsu (*Pinus rigida* Mill.), the Kunugi (*Quercus serrata*), the Niseagashiya (*Robinia pseudo-acacia*), and the Hannoki (*Alnus japonica*).

The principal state forests lie in the districts forming the sources of the Rivers Yalu, Tumen, Taidong, Han and other main rivers. The annual amount of the fell from these forests is put at 4,670,000 shakujime, or 1,570,000 cubic metres. The principal trees used for various purposes are the Akamatsu, Chosen-matsu, Chosen-karamatsu, Ezomatsu (*Picea ajanensis*, Fisch), fir trees, and varieties of deciduous oak. The Akamatsu and other acerose trees are used chiefly for buildings, telegraph poles, bridges and ship-building, and Onoorekanba

Table 41. Timber and Other Forest Products
(In thousands of yen)

	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932
Timber	6,530	7,734	7,232	10,752	8,389	7,902	7,431
Fagots	10,253	14,456	14,210	17,860	12,208	11,358	11,180
Charcoal	2,784	2,658	2,332	3,128	2,124	2,143	1,914
Bamboo	419	520	629	650	547	470	406
Branches and leaves	21,179	17,813	18,795	19,666	19,022	15,069	13,552
Vines and ferns	16,487	18,196	18,210	19,373	18,055	19,764	18,265
By products	2,295	2,929	3,544	2,987	2,925	2,143	1,914
Total	59,946	64,306	64,952	74,416	63,360	59,399	55,070

INDUSTRY

The industry of Korea had once attained considerable developments. But it gradually declined until in the closing days of the Li dynasty it was reduced to a very depressed state representing only such goods as fabrics, ceramics, paper, hides and leathers, liquors, metals, etc. These articles were not only limited in volume but very coarse in manufacture, so that they fell far short of meeting the general requirements of the people. A considerable amount of necessities of life had to be imported from abroad. As soon as it was established, the Government-General bent every nerve to improve and develop

(*Betula Schimidtii*) called Danboku is valued as timber for vehicles.

The total forest area classified according to localities for the year 1933 is tabulated below:

Table 39. Area of Forests By Localities
(In thousands of cho)

Localities	Area with or bare trees			Total
	Area with trees	Area young trees	Area without trees	
Kyongki	559	67	228	773
North Choongchong	365	107	127	539
South Choongchong	340	93	91	497
North Chonla	418	64	105	556
South Chonla	479	168	246	881
North Kyongsang	1,223	36	372	1,379
South Kyongsang	641	108	120	853
Whanghai	703	161	171	993
South Pyong-an	710	89	298	998
North Pyong-an	1,372	481	474	2,311
Kwan-won	1,196	497	458	2,188
South Hamkyong	1,710	519	598	2,772
North Hamkyong	1,210	265	322	1,694
Total	10,918	2,654	3,610	16,436

Table 40. Area Planted and Number of Trees

Year	Area (Hectares)	No. of trees (1,000 pieces)
1927	82,837	312,838
1928	92,418	342,621
1929	87,948	300,679
1930	80,029	271,488
1931	80,887	303,259
1932	78,247	294,558
1933	71,936	257,122

the industry, which was in such a sorry plight. Thanks to these efforts on the part of the authorities, the industry has much improved in both quality and quantity. On the other hand, Koreans have so enlightened in industrial affairs that many natives have come to try factory management, added to which, capitalists in Japan Proper have increasingly extended their activity to Korea. The result is, that factories on a large scale have been established in many parts of the peninsula for the manufacture of fabrics and yarns, iron, refined sugar, pulp, porcelain, cement, flour, oil, sulphate of ammonia, etc. In-

dustrial products in Korea for 1933 totalled ¥378,710,000, approximately. Of this amount, ¥147,460,000 represented partly a household industry and partly a subsidiary industry. The total value of manufactured goods for the year under review specified according to industry is listed below:

Table 42. Value of Manufactured Goods
By Industry
(In thousands of yen)

	1933
Spinning	55,350
Mechanical	9,100
Machine and tool	8,000
Pottery	11,140
Chemical	70,500
Wood manufacture	5,970
Printing and bookbinding	10,020
Gas and Electric	10,980
Food	126,740
Others	65,170

Electric and Gas Enterprises.—At the end of March, 1934 there were 58 electric companies with a combined capital of ¥144,199,000, of which ¥105,411,800 was paid up. They represented a generating power of 620,526.8 K.W.

At the same date there were two gas companies capitalized at ¥21,000,000, of which ¥16,950,000 was paid up. They had a combined generating capacity of 6,288,486 cubic metres.

RAILWAYS

The first railway enterprise in Korea dates back to 1890 when a railway line between Keijo (Seoul) and Jinsen (Chemulpo) covering a distance of 29,485 kilometres was laid and opened to traffic by the Kei-jin Railway Company. The outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War caused the Department of War in Japan to build the Keijo-Fusan, Keijo-Shingishu and the Masan lines which were respectively opened to traffic in 1904 and 1905. In 1906 the Imperial Government of Japan nationalized the Keijo-Fusan and also took over the Keijo-Shingishu and the Masan lines

from the Department of War, placing all those lines under the control of the Railway Bureau of the Korean Resident-General. Meanwhile the work of construction was steadily pushed on and in 1910 the Heijo-Chinnampo line was completed. On the spanning of the River Yalu with an iron bridge in 1911 the peninsula railway was brought into connexion with the South Manchuria Railway line. In 1914 the Taiden-Moppo and Keijo-Gensan lines were completed, while in 1915 part of the Gensan-Kawainei line was opened. On December 16, 1934 the total length of the State-owned lines in Korea was 3,059.9 kilometres. Of this extension of lines 328.5 kilometres' length of lines has been entrusted to the South Manchuria Railway Company for management since October 1, 1933, so that the length of lines under the direct management of the Government-General is 3,077.4 kilometres. The railway lines of the peninsula in December, 1934 were as follows:—

Table 43. Railway Lines

	Dec., 1934
Keifu Line	481.5 kms.
Keigi "	610.3 "
Konan "	285.8 "
Keizen "	273.2 "
Tokai "	301.4 "
Keigen "	223.7 "
Heigen "	96.5 "
Kankyo "	660.0 "
*Tomon "	223.0 "
Mampo "	146.7 "
Keizan "	70.0 "
Total including others	3,077.4 "

* Not included in Total.

Lines under construction are as follows:—

Table 44. Railway Lines Under Construction

Keizan Line	150.1 kms.
Tokai "	397.2 "
Heigen "	117.2 "
Mampo "	169.5 "
Keizan "	71.7 "
Total	905.7 "

Results of the State Railways for the last five years are shown by Table 42.

Table 45. Results of State Railways

Year	Mileage of Railways open to traffic (Kms.)	Rolling stock			No. of Passengers carried		Volume of goods carried	
		Engine car	Passenger carriages	Freight wagons	Number	Fare (Yen)	Weight (M. ton)	Freight (Yen)
1928-29	2,551.9	307	756	3,233	22,284,840	19,377,426	5,981,486	19,995,943
1929-30	2,751.5	331	828	3,522	23,225,584	21,054,043	6,160,043	20,766,158
1930-31	2,792.5	334	829	3,632	20,649,934	17,658,154	5,936,008	19,163,532
1931-32	3,008.5	347	867	3,763	19,673,704	16,655,960	6,025,150	19,644,552
1932-33	3,142.8	360	900	3,992	20,591,638	18,111,091	6,248,863	20,575,819
1933-34	3,077.4	—	—	—	22,238,338	20,801,721	7,254,859	22,444,724

PRIVATE RAILWAYS AND TRAMWAYS

For the encouragement of private railway enterprises, the Government-General promulgated the Chosen Light Railway Regulation in 1912, making provisions for their supervision and protection. Since then the authorities have yearly inspected the projected private railway lines. The total length of private railway lines open to traffic as on December 16, 1924 was 1,322.8 kilometres, those lines which remained to

be opened 227.8 kilometres and lines for specific purposes already completed 159.5 kilometres. On December 16, 1934 there were seven private railway companies with a combined capital of ¥106,300,000 (of which ¥46,427,000 was paid up) representing 1,249.3 kilometres of lines open to business. Besides, there were four tramway companies. The total length of tramway lines open to traffic was 73.5 kilometres inclusive of 14 kilometres operated by the Heijo Government and a minor concern.

Table 46. Statistics of Communications

Year	(a) Postal Service			Parcels	
	Ordinary			No. of offices open to public	No. of parcels
	No. of offices open to public	Postal routes (Kms.)	No. of mails		
1928-29.....	700	43,651	468,906,654	699	5,614,716
1929-30.....	721	41,714	502,481,413	720	5,632,755
1930-31.....	747	41,911	492,913,547	746	5,389,064
1931-32.....	774	41,062	493,770,648	773	5,026,223
1932-33.....	785	58,817	522,472,701	784	5,138,997
1933-34.....	806	72,674	562,735,447	805	5,573,623

Year	(b) Telegraph Service			
	No. of offices open to public	Length of Lines (Kms.)	Length of Wires (Kms.)	No. of Messages
1928-29.....	744	8,532	36,521	11,485,684
1929-30.....	762	8,638	37,752	12,050,040
1930-31.....	787	8,633	39,281	11,332,115
1931-32.....	801	8,638	39,752	11,194,658
1932-33.....	819	8,668	39,987	11,515,845
1933-34.....	827	8,758	41,739	12,780,262

Year	(c) Telephone Service			
	No. of offices open to public	Length of Lines (Kms.)	Length of Wires (Kms.)	No. of Messages
1928-29.....	644	8,661	120,471	161,790,098
1929-30.....	662	8,833	128,337	175,613,290
1930-31.....	682	9,015	137,941	176,455,929
1931-32.....	698	9,147	144,168	189,408,731
1932-33.....	710	9,375	152,227	209,657,071
1933-34.....	721	9,532	164,127	231,309,215

Table 47. Postal Money Orders and Post Office Savings Banks

Year	Domestic Money Orders		Foreign Money Order		Savings Banks	
	Issued (Yen)	Paid (Yen)	Issued (Yen)	Paid (Yen)	No. of depositors	Amount (Yen)
1928-29.....	112,591,762	103,315,534	501,817	482,281	2,023,977	30,787,502
1929-30.....	111,188,655	102,144,896	489,487	369,540	2,078,602	36,286,417
1930-31.....	92,966,350	82,627,090	366,357	274,827	2,118,178	38,852,866
1931-32.....	87,125,628	77,217,215	240,660	237,322	2,284,871	41,432,670
1932-33.....	93,585,317	85,225,575	205,289	369,794	2,494,062	40,939,392
1933-34.....	108,254,429	99,723,253	302,782	701,327	2,840,656	44,807,154

ORIENTAL DEVELOPMENT COMPANY, LIMITED

(Toyo Takushoku Kabushiki Kaisha)

The Oriental Development Company is the first joint undertaking by Japanese and Koreans for exploiting the resources of Korea. It was

organized in 1908 with a capital of ¥10,000,000. In 1918 the capital was increased to ¥20,000,000. The following year it was again increased to ¥50,000,000.

While the Company was gradually increasing its capital in order to meet growing requirements of funds, the economic circles of Japan suffered

seriously from the slump of 1920 and the great earthquake and fire of 1923. In order to meet the situation the Company set about strengthening its position in 1923 by reducing dividend payments, reforming business, cutting expenditure and readjusting its controlling interests. But, as the trade depression showed no sign of recovery, especially things in Manchuria were getting worse and worse increasingly to affect its position, the Company at last found it necessary to effect fundamental readjustment of its assets and liabilities. This was carried out in 1926. Thanks to this drastic measure taken by the Company, its position has since greatly improved. Of the abovementioned capital of ¥50,000,000, ¥35,000,000 is paid up. The term of the Company is ten years. The Company is authorized to issue debentures ten times its paid-up capital. From March, 1913 to June, 1934 debentures were issued to the extent of ¥542,445,000, approximately, of which ¥353,935,000 had been redeemed and ¥188,509,000 were outstanding. The scope of the business of the Company as provided for by Article 11 of the Oriental Development Act is as follows:—

- (1) Supplying fund necessary for colonization.
- (2) Engaging in agriculture, riparian work, acquirement management and disposal of land necessary for colonization.

- (3) Collecting and distributing immigrants for colonization.
- (4) Constructing, buying and selling and renting buildings necessary for the immigrants.
- (5) Supplying immigrants and agriculturalists with things necessary for colonization and distributing their products.
- (6) Managing and supervising land on commission.
- (7) Carrying on other businesses necessary for colonization.

Besides the above forms of business the Company makes loans as an agency of the Hypothec Bank of Japan.

Sphere of Business Activity.—The sphere of the business activity of the Company is so extensive as to cover Korea, Kwantung Province, Manchoukuo, Mongolia, East Asiatic Russia, Hepei Province, Shantung Province and Kiansu Province of China, the Philippines, the South Seas, the Malay Peninsula.

The Company has its head office at Tokyo, to which it was removed in 1917 from Seoul and branch offices in nine places in Korea and five places in Manchoukuo and agencies in Tsingtao and Tientsin.

Statistics of the business of the Company are tabulated below:

Table 48. Results of Oriental Development Co.

Year	Cap. p.u. (¥1,000)	Reserves (¥1,000)	Profits (¥1,000)	Loss (¥1,000)	Net profits (¥1,000)	Dividend (¥1,000)
1928.....	35,000	1,229	13,053	17,110	1,943	5.0
1929.....	35,000	1,469	13,359	11,931	1,428	5.0
1930.....	35,000	1,704	8,498	8,222	276	3.0
1931.....	35,000	1,796	9,105	8,295	810	3.0
1932.....	35,000	1,900	10,011	10,418	—	—
1933.....	35,000	1,900	12,029	12,029	—	—

The total land exploited by the Company and the number of settlers cared for by the Company for the last six years are given below:

Table 49. Work of Oriental Development Co.

Year	Paddy	Upland	Forest and miscellaneous	Total	No. of households of settlers	Area allotted			Average per household		
						Paddy	Upland	Total	Paddy	Upland	Total
1927.....	48,134	17,593	22,984	88,711	4,044	9,151	938	10,089	2.29	0.23	2.52
1928.....	47,827	17,315	30,342	95,484	3,971	9,115	938	10,053	2.30	0.24	2.53
1929.....	46,297	16,804	41,364	104,465	3,967	9,158	934	10,092	2.31	0.24	2.54
1930.....	46,200	16,748	59,596	122,544	3,948	8,984	925	9,909	2.27	0.22	2.51
1931.....	45,902	16,666	89,341	151,909	3,921	9,062	930	9,993	2.31	0.24	2.55
1932.....	45,813	16,787	91,581	154,180	3,905	8,995	927	9,922	2.30	0.24	2.54

References: Tables 1, 6, 15, 16 & 17—Nippon Teikoku Tokai Nenkan (Official Statistical Annual of Japan), 1934. Tables 2, 9, 12, 18-22, 26 & 27—Chosen Statoku-fu Tokai (Statistical Annual of the Chosen Govt.-Gen.); 1934. Tables 3-5, 7, 8, 10, 13, 14, 23, 24, 28, 31, 33-38, 42-45 & 46—Chosen Jijo (Outline of Chosen), 1935. Table 11—Okura-sho Nempo (Annual Report of the Department of Finance), 1934. Table 25—Chosen Boeki Nempo (Annual Returns of the Foreign Trade of Chosen), 1934. Tables 29, 30 & 32—Toyo Keizai Shimpō Nenkan (Economic Statistical Year Book), published by the Toyo Keizai Shimpō-sha. Tables 39, 40 & 41—Chosen No Ringyo (Forestry of Chosen), 1934. Table 48—Takumu Yoran (Outline of Colonization Works of Japan), 1935, published by the Overseas Dept.

CHAPTER XXXV

TAIWAN (Formosa)

GEOGRAPHY

Position—119°18'—122° 6' E.L.; 21° 45'—25° 38' N.L.

Area—Main island 13,423 sq. miles. Hoko-to (Pescadores) 48 sq. miles.

The island formerly belonged to China, but was ceded to Japan as the result of the Sino-Japanese War (1894-5) by virtue of the Shimonoseki Treaty.

The total area of this insular territory almost equals that of Kyushu. The seaboard extends nearly 290 "ri", but with no good indentation except the ports of Keelung and Tamsui in the

north and that of Takao in the south.

The main island is traversed from north to south by the Taiwan range, the eastern half thus formed being steep and craggy, but the western half flat and fertile. Highest peaks are Mt. Niitaka (14,500 ft.) and Mt. Sylvia (nearly 13,000 ft.) The rivers are short with swift current.

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS

Table 1. Temperature (1932)

	Jan. c.	Mar. c.	May c.	July c.	Sept. c.	Nov. c.	Dec. c.	Aver. c.
Taihoku	15.3	17.0	24.0	28.1	26.2	19.7	16.8	21.6
Taichu	15.8	18.2	25.0	27.7	26.4	20.3	17.2	22.1
Tainan	17.0	19.7	26.1	27.8	26.9	21.8	18.4	23.1
Taito	19.0	20.7	25.2	27.4	26.4	22.0	19.9	23.4
Koshun	20.4	22.3	26.4	27.5	26.7	23.3	21.3	24.4
Bokoto (Pescadores)	16.3	18.3	24.0	27.9	27.0	21.5	18.2	22.6

Table 2. Rainfall (1932)

	Jan. mm.	Mar. mm.	May mm.	July mm.	Sept. mm.	Nov. mm.	Dec. mm.	Total mm.
Taihoku	86	177	230	230	245	67	72	2,129
Taichu	34	106	242	280	147	18	24	1,756
Tainan	21	46	182	340	168	18	16	1,725
Taito	39	59	182	367	261	52	39	1,785
Koshun	23	22	183	463	273	35	16	2,175
Bokoto (Pescadores)	24	61	112	165	103	22	18	985

INHABITANTS AND POPULATION

The inhabitants or population of the island is mainly classified into three, i.e., Japanese, natives and foreigners. The first named, namely, Japanese are those who have come over from Japan Proper and settled in the island since its occupation by Japan; the bulk of the foreign population are Chinese, the number of European and American residents being quite limited. The native inhabitants are classified into the Han race and the aboriginal race. The former is again divided into those settlers from Fukien and neighbourhood and those from

Canton and neighbourhood, and occupy about 93 per cent. of the total number of the native inhabitants. The natives, the original and oldest inhabitants of the island, are again divided into uncivilized and civilized. In the accompanying statistics which give the number of population at the end of 1933-34, the figure of aborigines is the estimate of those residing in the aboriginal district, while the number of aborigines residing in the districts within the jurisdiction of the insular administration is included in the number of natives.

Table 3. Total Population at End of 1933-34

1933	Total	Male	Female	Rate
Total population	5,060,507	2,587,100	2,473,407	100.0
Japanese	256,327	135,836	120,491	5.1
Koreans	1,191	417	774	0.0
Natives	4,759,197	2,421,881	2,337,316	94.0
Of which aborigines	146,923	73,755	73,168	2.9
Chinese	43,585	28,856	14,729	0.9
Other foreigners	207	110	97	0.0

The total number of population (excluding the aborigines dwelling in the aboriginal districts) at the end of 1933 is returned as 5,060,507 which figure, when compared with the similar figure at the end of 1905 when the first census in the island was taken soon after the

island became Japanese territory, indicates an increase of 2,020,756, this being an annual increase of about 67,358 on an average. The following figures represent the number of population as the result of census taken in 1905, 1915, 1920, 1925 and 1930:—

Table 4. Census Population By Sex

	1905	1925	1920	1915	1905
Male	2,353,288	2,052,669	1,893,541	1,813,053	1,610,816
Female	2,239,249	1,940,739	1,761,767	1,666,869	1,428,935
Total	4,592,537	3,993,408	3,655,308	3,479,922	3,039,751

The population as classified according to Japanese, natives and foreigners is as follows:—

Table 5. Population By Japanese, Natives and Foreigners

	Male	Female	Total	
1905.....	Japanese	35,923	23,695	59,618
	Natives	1,570,239	1,408,779	2,979,018
	Foreigners	7,719	504	8,223
	Total	1,613,881	1,432,978	3,046,859
1910.....	Japanese	58,580	39,468	98,048
	Natives	1,626,338	1,479,885	3,106,223
	Foreigners	13,396	1,444	14,840
	Total	1,698,314	1,520,797	3,219,111
1912.....	Japanese	82,319	59,516	141,835
	Natives	1,718,835	1,588,467	3,307,302
	Foreigners	16,902	2,680	19,582
	Total	1,818,056	1,650,663	3,468,719
1930.....	Japanese	125,238	107,061	232,299
	Natives	2,195,472	2,118,450	4,313,922
	Foreigners	32,495	14,196	46,691
	Total	2,353,205	2,239,707	4,592,912
1931.....	Japanese	131,563	112,309	243,872
	Natives	2,251,354	2,174,768	4,426,122
	Foreigners	30,707	14,577	45,284
	Total	2,413,624	2,301,654	4,715,278
1932.....	Japanese	131,612	116,916	248,528
	Natives	2,361,826	2,277,400	4,639,226
	Foreigners	27,921	14,287	42,208
	Total	2,521,359	2,408,603	4,929,962
1933.....	Japanese	136,253	121,265	257,518
	Natives	2,421,881	2,337,316	4,759,197
	Foreigners	28,966	14,826	43,792
	Total	2,587,100	2,473,407	5,060,507

The number of births, of deaths, of marriages etc., and their rate per 1,000 population are as follow, excluding aborigines:—

Table 6. Movement of Population

Year	Birth	Still-birth	Death	Marriage	Divorce	Per 1,000 Population				
						Birth	Still-birth	Death	Marriage	Divorce
1928.....	191,839	7,463	96,310	42,679	4,506	44.1	1.7	12.1	9.8	1.0
1929.....	197,967	7,559	96,870	46,816	4,463	44.4	1.7	21.7	10.5	1.0
1930.....	206,732	7,351	89,654	46,364	4,300	45.0	1.6	19.5	10.1	0.9
1931.....	217,136	7,692	101,077	42,468	3,889	46.0	1.6	21.4	9.0	0.8
1932.....	214,192	7,858	99,125	43,123	3,985	44.2	1.6	20.5	8.9	0.8
1933.....	221,350	7,885	98,507	44,078	3,949	44.5	1.6	19.8	8.9	0.8

Table 7. Population in Principal Cities in 1933

Taihoku	276,388
Shinchiku	51,920
Keelung	81,443
Taichu	64,991
Tainan	106,243
Kagi	66,853
Takao	76,380

THE ABORIGINES

There are nine different tribes, ethnologically all more or less allied to the Malay race. At the end of 1933 there were 595 communities, 24,480 households with a population of about 146,924 (13,756 males and 73,168 females), broadly classified into Northern and Southern aborigines. The former are savage head-hunters, the latter more submissive and civilized. The Northern aborigines almost exclusively belong to the Taiyol tribe and occupy a little under half the whole extent of the unexplored regions. The Southern tribes are Tsaissetto, Vorum, Tsco, Tsarien, Taiwan, Puyuma, Amis, Peipo and Yami (this on Botel Tobago island alone), and they are about four times as numerous as the other. These together occupy the region covering about one half the total area of the island, where natural resources abound.

Subjugation and Pacification.—The programme of subjugation and pacification at the cost of ¥15,000,000 was completed in about five years

ending 1915. The tribesmen were made as mark of allegiance to surrender their firearms, and the number thus captured amounted to 31,523 pieces till the end of 1927. The victims of violence by the savages markedly fell off. The total till the end of 1927 reached 6,918. The heaviest toll was 761 in 1912 as against 41 in 1918, 2 each in 1925 and 1926 and 9 in 1927.

There remain one or two communities to be accounted for, and the peaceful policy of subjugating them by clearing up the wild land is being pursued.

The tribesmen have begun to recognize the importance of education. At the end of 1933 there existed 182 teaching places with over 7,414 attendants.

The tendency to engage in various peaceful occupation is steadily growing among the tribesmen. In addition, even the good habits of industry and thrift are in evidence among them. At the end of 1933 their total savings were valued at ¥345,615.17, representing 19,016 depositors. The highest savings were ¥5,230 and the average per capital ¥18.17.

Principal occupations are rice plantation on paddy fields, Stock-farming, sericulture and cultivation of other farm products such as sugar canes, (the area under sugar canes for 1933 was given as 233 ko, the crop 19,072,049 kin and sales ¥57,860,000), tobacco, jute, tea, etc.

ADMINISTRATION

New Local Administration

In August 1920 5 prefectures, Taihoku, Shinchiku, Taichu, etc., were created much on the same lines of local administration as in Japan Proper, each under a civil governor, and with it the municipal and village self-government has come into existence. The prefecture, municipality, and village conduct their respective affairs regarding taxation, revenue, management of enterprises, etc., as assigned each by

the new legislation. Advisory councils, prefectural, municipal and village, have also been created to deliberate on the financial and legislative affairs, taxation, etc., in their respective commissions. The members of the prefectural council are appointed by the Governor-General, and those of the municipal and village members by the governor of the prefecture to which they belong, each for a term of two years and as gratuitous duty.

FINANCE

Table 8. Revenue and Expenditure

	Revenue (1,000 yen)			Expenditure (1,000 yen)		
	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
1927-28.....	93,216	45,411	138,627	71,024	30,509	101,533
1928-29.....	104,378	43,146	147,524	76,922	32,189	109,109
1929-30.....	107,582	42,659	150,241	82,804	39,492	122,295
1930-31.....	98,517	31,241	129,758	78,363	31,608	109,971
1931-32.....	93,352	22,620	115,972	77,647	22,414	99,060
1932-33.....	96,583	23,720	120,303	74,400	22,840	97,240
1933-34.....	100,664	30,148	130,812	78,998	23,231	102,221
1934-35 (Budget).....	99,787	11,034	110,821	87,157	23,664	110,821
1935-36 (Budget).....	107,661	11,319	118,980	92,385	26,595	118,980

(a) Revenue (yen)

	1934-35 (Budget)	1935-36 (Budget)
Ordinary:		
Taxes and Duties	16,732,997	18,099,068
State Undertakings and Property	77,687,691	83,948,123
Stamp Receipts	4,040,316	4,207,083
Miscellaneous Receipts	1,325,811	1,407,017
Total	99,786,815	107,661,291
Extraordinary:		
Proceeds from Sale of State Property.....	513,966	501,661
Receipts from Loans		
Miscellaneous Receipts	135,228	135,251
Surplus of preceding year transferred.....	8,889,512	8,132,536
Total incl. others	11,034,446	11,319,204
Total revenue	110,821,261	118,980,495

(b) Expenditure (yen)

	1934-35 (Budget)	1935-36 (Budget)
Ordinary:		
Administration Office	2,286,821	2,482,255
Local Governments	13,624,674	13,852,500
Customs-houses	528,262	526,897
Judicial Courts	1,299,777	1,322,738
Prisons	1,139,119	1,231,080
Police	193,000	193,000
Hospitals	1,176,096	1,204,450
Research Institute	784,354	817,514
Education	4,521,192	4,648,003
Communication	20,558,482	22,932,498
Monopoly Bureau	22,354,052	23,322,536
Forestry	3,147,843	3,230,364
Sinking fund	6,562,145	7,666,373
Total including others	87,156,547	92,385,406
Extraordinary:		
Government Undertakings	13,180,236	12,801,827
Repairs	1,892,703	3,257,709
Inspection	962,633	1,158,528
Subsidies	5,183,475	5,924,200
Industrial encouragement	1,618,839	1,984,406
Total including others	23,664,714	26,595,089
Total expenditure	110,821,261	118,980,495

EDUCATION

By the regulations promulgated in 1932 both form system of education. In the primary Japanese and natives were placed under a uni-grade, however, the native children mostly at-

tend the public schools which formerly admitted only natives to teach them Japanese.

With the creation of the normal schools in 1919 the Language School, which consisted of two departments, Japanese and native, was abo-

lished. The High School established in April 1922 is under the same regulation as that in Japan Proper. The number of schools, teachers and students at the end of March 1934 is shown below:—

Table 9. The Number of Schools, Teachers and Students

	No. of Schools	No. of Teachers	No. of Students
Elementary Schools	134	976	41,251
* Public Schools	775	5,970	344,868
Middle Schools	10	260	5,562
Girls' High Schools	13	291	5,773
Normal Schools	4	149	1,391
Agriculture and Forestry Schools	3	85	1,300
Technical School	1	69	740
Commercial Schools	2	57	1,183
Medical School	1	70	446
Higher Commercial School	1	36	257
Higher Technical School	1	57	285
Private Schools	20	273	3,934
Private Institutions kept by native teachers ..	114	151	3,956
Kindergartens	68	142	3,928
Blind, Deaf & Dumb Schools	2	21	293

* Include aborigines.

Taihoku Imperial University

This was inaugurated in April 1928 and consists of Literary and Science Departments, 24 chairs in each. The teaching staff consists of

266 members as at the end of April, 1934 and the number of students 130, of whom 26 are Formosans. The Medical Department is to be opened in 1936.

JUSTICE AND PRISONS

The law courts as they exist now in Taiwan are the High Court, with the two Departments

of Final Appeal and Revision, and three Local Courts with three branches.

Table 10. Statistics of Law Courts

Year	Civil Suits							
	1st instance		Appeal		Supreme		Total	
	No. of cases	Cases disposed of	No. of cases	Cases disposed of	No. of cases	Cases disposed of	No. of cases	Cases disposed of
1928.....	8,522	8,266	1,145	955	204	204	9,871	9,425
1929.....	8,623	8,427	1,529	1,152	218	186	10,370	9,765
1930.....	9,475	8,782	1,669	1,458	294	295	11,439	10,534
1931.....	12,032	11,377	1,617	1,747	392	384	14,041	13,508
1932.....	11,839	10,300	1,572	1,433	321	392	12,732	12,125

Year	Procurators' visits		Preliminary Trial		Criminal suits		
	No. of cases	Cases disposed of	No. of cases	Cases disposed of	*1st instance	Appeal	Supreme
	1928.....	26,389	26,717	284	303	4,243	482
1929.....	27,517	27,939	221	250	4,202	499	74
1930.....	27,197	26,629	207	198	2,962	358	70
1931.....	26,137	26,122	161	184	3,494	386	70
1932.....	26,332	26,890	174	127	3,375	364	51

* No. of cases disposed of.

There are four prisons and three branches, the inmates numbering 4,010 (65 representing suspects and accused, 3,042 convicts and 313

those who are detained) and prison officers 624 at the end of September 1934.

FORESTRY

The forest area is roughly put at 8,000,000 "ko" (1 "ko"—2.4 acres), including wilderness that occupies 70% of the total area. More than one half of it is in the aborigine district noted for vast primeval forests. Reckless felling has devastated the other half. So the authorities have instituted protection forests and are encouraging reforestation. Afforestation area from the beginning to the end of 1931 totalled 183,427 "ko", of which 32,755 "ko" was conducted by the Government and 150,672 "ko" as private undertaking.

Lumbering Work

Several lumbering enterprises have already been started, principally for utilizing the dense "hinoki" (*Chamaecyparis obtusa*) forests that exist here and there.

Arisan Forest.—Arisan is a chain of hills rising 2,800 to 8,700 ft. above the sea-level and lies to the east of Kagi city. It is sheltered on the east by Mt. Niitaka. Arisan Proper extends 15 miles from east to west and 20 miles from north to south, and covers 11,008 hectares. The contents of the forest are estimated as follow:—

Conifers 374,230 stamps yielding 2,948,590 cubic meters and broad leaved 1,112,186 stamps yielding 3,125,380 cubic meters.

As the Government utilization programme is to fell every year from 1915-'16 year 250,000 "shakujime" (12 cubic feet) of conifers and 100,000 "shakujime" of the others, their supply

is to last 25 and 186 years respectively. By properly filling up the space of felling, permanent supply may be kept up.

Lumbering rails run for 41 miles from Kagi to Nimampe, on the slope of Arisan, the work being completed by the Government-General in January, 1913, at the cost of ¥4,900,000, after the failure of the Fujita Firm which undertook the work but gave it up after laying only 9 miles. The gauge is 30 inches with a maximum slope of 1 in 20. Along the line 68 tunnels exist and also three spiral section and two switchbacks. The conversion work is done at Kagi where an extensive saw yard was constructed.

Hassenzan Forest.—The mountain, 7,824 ft. above the sea-level and lying east of Taichu, harbours a primeval forest. The area to be exploited covers 16,057 hectares and is connected with the main traversing railway by a light line. It contains 799,000 cubic meters of conifers and 1,602,000 cubic meters of broad leaf trees, producing cut trees amounting to 23,130 cubic meters in 1933. The lumbering work was started in 1915.

Taiheizan Forest.—The forest area covers 63,177 hectares and is estimated to contain about 14,076,000 cubic meters of trees twice as great a sylvan richness as Arisan, producing 48,519 cubic meters of cut trees as in 1933. The trouble is that the area is still infested by head-hunters.

AGRICULTURE

The agriculture of Formosa has so markedly developed since the island was occupied by Japan that the area under cultivation at the end of 1933 is given as 845,479 ko, which compares with 363,390 ko in 1899. Thus the area under cultivation has doubled during this comparatively short period. It bears a proportion of over 20 per cent. to the entire of the island but more than 40 per cent. to the area of the island minus the aborigine districts.

The total value of farm products for 1933 reached ¥238,000,000, approximately, which occupies about 50 per cent. of the value of the whole products of the island. The number of people engaged in agricultural pursuits as at the end of 1933 is 2,638,142, which bears a percentage of about 52 to the entire population. Of that number, 839,181 represent landowners, 998,917 tenants and 800,044 landowners being at the same time tenant farmers.

Rice is the most prominent farm product of Formosa. With the exception of the Pescadores,

the whole island, especially the western districts is so well suited for rice cultivation that the crops are reaped twice a year. Due to the strenuous efforts made by the Government-General for improvement of seedlings and encouragement of cultivation, great development has been shown by the amount of crops, the quality of the cereal, the area under cultivation, etc. The crop for 1933 is roughly 8,300,000 koku, valued at ¥120,000,000. Rice is followed in importance by sugar cane and sweet potatoes. These are known as the three great farm products of the island.

Table 11. Area under Cultivation (in 1,000 "ko")

Year	Total Area		
	Paddy	Upland	Total
1929.....	406,030	423,980	830,010
1930.....	408,972	428,330	837,302
1931.....	411,073	424,332	835,406
1932.....	439,466	400,264	839,730
1933.....	482,598	362,881	845,479

Table 12. Area under Rice

Year	1st crop		2nd crop		Total	
	Area (Ko)	Production (Koku)	Area (Ko)	Production (Koku)	Area (Ko)	Production (Koku)
1929.....	239,451	2,852,547	339,823	3,628,215	579,274	6,480,762
1930.....	275,317	3,482,637	358,127	3,887,879	633,444	7,370,516
1931.....	282,861	3,628,445	370,520	3,851,401	653,380	7,479,846
1932.....	292,145	4,221,447	392,783	4,727,769	684,928	8,949,216
1933.....	295,322	3,938,730	401,101	4,423,109	696,423	8,361,839

Like other lines of agriculture the cultivation of sugar cane has made marked developments since the occupation of the island by Japan. In the sugar year of 1902-3 the area under sugar cane stood at only 16,526 ko and the crop of cane therefrom 683,157,902 kin, which works out at 41,338 kin per ko. In 1931-2 the area sown to sugar cane was given as 109,496 ko and the crop of sugar cane 13,415,477 kin, or 122,518 kin per ko. It will thus be seen that during the three decades the area of the farm had increased by 92,970 ko, the crop 12,732,049,575 kin and the average crop per ko 81,180 kin. In the following year, or 1932-33 the area under sugar cane decreased to 83,690 ko, the crop of sugar cane to 8,782,001,849 kin and the average crop per ko to 104,835 kin. This distinct decrease in the average and the crop for the year under review is due partly to the agreement on the reduction of sugar production and partly to unfavourable weather conditions. Below are given figures for the area

under sugar cane and the crop in recent years as compared with 1902-3, in which attention was first given by the authorities to the promotion of sugar cane cultivation.

Table 13. Area under Sugar Cane

Year	Area Under Sugar Cane (ko)	Crop (kin)	Average Crop, per Ko (kin)
1902-3	16,526	683,157,902	41,338
1928-29 ...	120,046	12,291,944,205	102,394
1929-30 ...	109,397	11,618,358,936	106,204
1930-31 ...	99,094	10,944,669,505	110,447
1931-32 ...	109,496	13,415,197,477	122,518
1932-33 ...	83,690	8,782,001,849	104,835

Table 14. Area under Sweet Potatoes

Year	Area under cultivation (Ko)	Production (1,000 kin)
1929.....	127,356	1,968,097
1930.....	129,062	2,216,504
1931.....	133,241	2,404,688
1932.....	134,771	2,355,781
1933.....	138,060	2,355,781

Table 15. Production of Principal Crops

Year	Ground nuts (Koku)	Tobacco (Kin)	Beans, peas, etc. (Koku)	Jute (1,000 kin)	Ramie (1,000 kin)
1929.....	383,955	2,514,162	65,618	6,230	1,910
1930.....	465,208	2,506,626	72,952	6,482	1,965
1931.....	508,792	2,113,871	79,546	6,498	1,518
1932.....	521,207	*1,279,487	75,619	7,654	1,441
1933.....	475,512	*1,535,688	73,313	8,795	1,425

* In unit of koku.

FRUITS

Bananas are the representative fruits of Formosa. They are grown in all parts of the island, but Taichu Province is the most noted for them claiming 52 per cent. of the production of the whole island. The banana is a very important article of export coming next to rice and sugar. The export of the fruit (inclusive of shipments to Japan) for 1933 was 2,813,558 baskets, valued at ¥11,894,123. The crop of bananas for the year under review was 292,555,667 kin, which compares with 10,536,062 kin in 1909. Next to bananas come pineapples, which have also been widely grown in the island from of old. The growing of pineapples has made such marked

developments in recent years that it is regarded as one of the very promising industries of the island. The number of the fruits gathered in 1933 was 86,800,448. The export of pineapples in raw state for the year under consideration was 3,940,043 kin, value at ¥159,444. The export of tinned pineapples for the year was 2,506,240 dozens in volume, and ¥5,149,572 in value. Oranges of superior quality are also produced in the island. In particular, Ponkan with the attractive colour and delicious flavor peculiar to southern countries is known as Ponkan of Taiwan to all fruit markets at home and abroad. The other principal varieties of oranges are Taa-

kan, Sekkan, Buntan and Zabon. All these varieties are produced during the period from autumn to spring. The production of fruits in recent years is shown below (in unit of 1,000):—

Table 16. Production of Fruits

Year	Oranges (Kin)	Bananas (Kin)	Longan (Kin)	Pine-apples (Pieces)
1928.....	31,651	223,776	7,836	36,034
1929.....	34,266	197,664	24,788	46,626
1930.....	36,014	216,780	24,788	69,034
1931.....	41,922	266,993	4,810	70,764
1932.....	48,803	275,407	25,987	75,072
1933.....	49,280	292,556	8,282	86,800

Table 17. No. of Live-Stocks and Output of Cocoons

Year	Cattle	Swines	Fowls	*Cocoons
1931..	383,042	1,738,874	6,663,483	1,737.89
1932..	366,606	1,753,962	6,961,697	1,752.76
1933..	366,270	1,806,489	7,573,504	1,990.15

* In kilograms.

FISHERY AND MARINE PRODUCTS

The fishing industry, long left in a backward state, has recently made a marked improvement under official encouragement. The principal branches of the industry carried on at Keelung, Takao and Suo are bonito angling and trawl-line fishing of tunny and sword fish. Coral-reefs are found off the port of Keelung, and whale-fishing is carried on in the southern seas. The total catch of fishes during 1933 amounted

in value to ¥10,806,670, an increase of about ¥1,609,202 compared with previous year.

Aquiculture in the island is under favourable circumstances owing to the warm climate which helps the rapid breeding of fish, and the method of rearing has also improved. The culture of fresh water fish is carried on a large scale in the western coast of the island, and the area of the hatcheries all over the island is approximately 28,000 "ko" or 27,065 hectares.

The manufacture of marine products in the island has recently improved with the progress of bonito fishing. Of the total manufactures of marine products amounting to ¥1,908,982 in 1933, dried bonito contributed ¥280,000. The fishing vessels in operation in 1933 numbered 9,691 of which 850 are motor boats, 3,283 wooden boats and 5,558 bamboo rafts.

Table 18. Value of Catches and Products (in yen)

Year	Catches	Manufacture	Aquiculture	Total
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.....	9,179,468	1,545,164	3,130,800	13,873,432
1933.....	10,806,670	1,908,982	3,223,832	15,939,484

Table 19. Imports and Exports of Aquatic Products (in yen)

Year	Exports to foreign countries	Imports from foreign countries	Exports to Japan Proper	Imports from Japan Proper	Total
1931.....	19,448,759	30,858,816	201,424,107	114,763,307	366,494,989
1932.....	18,045,250	31,040,823	222,682,738	133,456,947	405,225,758
1933.....	17,666,418	35,476,543	230,745,911	149,912,395	433,802,267

MINERAL PRODUCTS AND MINING

The chief mineral products of Formosa are gold, silver, alluvial gold, copper, coal, petroleum, sulphur, phosphorus, etc., mostly found in the northeastern districts. The total number of mining lots at the end of March 1934 was 593 covering an area of 173,596,842 tsubo. The

total value of mineral output for 1932-33 was ¥13,950,889. It shows a gain of ¥613,099 over the previous year. Classified by kind of item the value of mineral production in recent years is tabulated as follows (in unit of yen):—

Table 20. Mineral Products

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Gold	625,422	636,485	722,733	1,681,592	1,581,328
Gold copper ore	3,136,877	3,457,187	3,027,792	3,709,157	3,773,194
Alluvial gold	11,047	9,421	11,611	57,017	84,730
Silver	12,997	10,790	10,003	16,632	8,472
Copper	67,655	154,799	174,419	294,388	274,484
Gold ore	69,551	81,401	70,750	78,982	66,633
Quick-silver ore	7,572	—	2,488	—	—
Coal	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
Phosphorus	—	2,448	648	—	—
Crude oil	434,735	381,304	263,631	245,944	424,677
Volatile oil	382,598	760,729	1,784,275	973,423	527,159
Carbon black	—	—	43,552	205,527	341,079
Total including others	15,090,613	15,141,198	13,337,790	13,950,889	15,196,250

SUGAR INDUSTRY

The new rulers endeavoured to improve the industry from the highly neglected state in which they found it. First they introduced the Hawaiian Rose Bamboo and Rahina varieties, but afterward these were replaced by the Javanese variety.

Stimulated by Government encouragement, the industry has made great developments. In 1901-2 there was only one sugar factory with modern equipments and its capacity limited to 200 tons. It was financed at a merger amount of ¥1,000,000. In the year 1926-27 as many as 45 factories in modern style with a total capacity of 39,414 tons were in operation. The capital involved was ¥290,520,000. Due to readjustment and

merger of companies, the capital decreased to ¥250,966,600 in 1933-34. Nevertheless the capacity of the industry increased to 44,928 tons due to the extension of factories. The sugar output of the whole island, which stood at only 90,000,000 kin in 1901-2 increased to 1,315,540,000 kin approximately, in 1928-29, which enabled the country to supply her requirements of sugar. In 1931-32 the production further increased to 1,648,410,000 kin by shattering decreased to 1,078,310,000 kin due to the agreement on the reduction of sugar production.

The following statistics shows the results of modern-styled sugar companies (from Nov. 1933 to Oct. 1934):—

Table 21. Results of Sugar Companies

Names of companies	Capital subscribed (¥1,000)	Capital Paid up (¥1,000)	No. of Refineries	Capacity (metric ton)	Raw materials used (1,000 kin)	Output of sugar (1,000 kin)	By-Product (molasses) (1,000 kin)
Taiwan Seito Co.	63,000	43,080	12	11,814	1,902,243	286,500	36,239
Shinko " "	1,200	1,200	1	952	88,929	12,469	2,578
Meiji " "	48,000	39,200	7	8,520	1,216,881	170,642	24,323
Dai Nippon " "	51,417	45,779	6	7,638	1,698,988	236,367	33,104
Ensuiko " "	29,250	17,438	6	5,880	1,202,858	163,571	22,767
Niitaka " "	28,000	10,750	2	3,284	363,557	50,547	7,659
Teikoku " "	18,000	16,195	5	3,234	584,463	81,495	13,206
Showa " "	7,000	7,000	4	2,654	217,401	30,277	4,505
Taito " "	1,750	1,750	1	560	114,067	16,409	2,598
Sango Koshi	3,350	3,350	1	392	75,309	9,062	2,044
Total	250,967	185,742	45	44,928	7,463,696	1,057,339	149,123

In addition to the above production, 21,047,567 kin was turned out at the old-styled and improved factories in the same year, the amount of raw materials consumed being 185,450,098 kin.

Taiwan vs. Java.—Though the progress made recently has been marked, Taiwan is still far behind Java in essential particulars. For instance, the yield of canes and of centrifugals is about three times the yield from the same area in Java, about 1,500 piculs against 450 of Tai-

wan, though the percentage of centrifugals is nearly the same. The fact is the Javanese canefields are better irrigated and left in fallow systematically, while in Taiwan the productive capacity is too frequently abused and irrigation is defective. Wages are only 23 or 24 "sen" in Java against 40 in Taiwan, though the former is less efficient. On the other hand, Taiwan has the advantage of improved plants and the protective tariff of ¥3.95 per picul.

TEA

Formosan teas consist of Oolong tea, Pouchong tea, Black tea, Green tea, etc. The first named three are the most important descriptions of tea produced in the island.

Oolong tea.—As a beverage possessing a special high flavour, Oolong tea is a great favourite in and about Boston and New York. It also goes to England where it is used to improve the flavour of black tea. The Oolong is admittedly superior in quality to black tea, and there is a good hope of its consumption abroad being increased when the taste of foreigners for tea becomes more refined. At present the yearly production amounts to more than 6,000,000 kin and constitutes one of the premier articles of export of the island. The export of Oolong tea (exclusive of shipments to Japan) in 1933 was 6,664,677 kin in volume and ¥2,894,245 in value, showing a slight improvement over the previous year.

Pouchong tea.—Such factors as the decline in the purchasing power of South China and Java and unfavourable relations between Japan and

China have caused the Pouchong tea market to be abnormally dull in recent years. The export of this description of tea (exclusive of shipments to Japan) in the year under review amounted to 3,672,614 kin in volume and ¥1,816,576 in value.

Black tea.—The manufacturing technique of black tea has recently made rapid progress. The export in 1933 was 845,409 kin in volume and ¥557,963 in value. Inclusive of all other varieties, the total tea export for the year under notice was 12,214,569 kin, valued at ¥5,446,499.

The area under and production of coarse tea are shown below:—

Table 22. Area under and Production of Coarse Tea

Year	Area ("ko")	Production (kin)
1929.....	474,58	18,430,186
1930.....	47,068	17,302,953
1931.....	45,948	14,959,584
1932.....	45,592	14,704,152
1933.....	45,298	15,544,877

Production of refined tea in recent years is tabulated as follows (in kin):—

Table 23. Production of Refined Tea

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Oolong	7,700,876	6,168,150	6,722,554	7,134,756	6,351,351
Pouchong	8,036,453	8,001,398	7,102,776	3,988,119	5,256,617
Green	9,410	132,672	33,160	12,570	14,200
Black	256,000	725,438	1,101,094	871,780	1,477,475
Total	16,002,739	15,027,658	14,959,584	12,007,225	13,099,643

MONOPOLY

The monopoly system was first instituted in Taiwan in regard to opium in 1896 and was subsequently extended to salt and camphor in 1899 and tobacco in 1905. Further, the monopoly of saké was established in July, 1922. The monopolizing of these industries was due not only to financial necessity, but also from consideration that it would be beneficial to public health, social welfare and productive industries.

Opium.—At the beginning of the Japanese possession of Taiwan, the question which attracted most attention at home and abroad in the administration of Taiwan was the prohibition of opium-smoking. In February, 1896, with the prohibition of the importation of opium by private persons, an opium-dose factory was established. In January, 1897, was issued the Taiwan Opium Ordinance, by which opium-smoking and dose-manufacture were strictly prohibited; smoking licenses were granted only to such as the Government deemed to be confirmed smokers, who were permitted to purchase and smoke as medicines the

doses manufactured by the Government. The Government permission was required in all cases for the sale of opium doses, the opening of opium dens, and the manufacture and sale of opium-smoking utensils. The Ordinance was put in operation in April of the same year. The number of licensed smokers and output of opium have in recent years decreased gradually, but the price does not show any decrease as the output of the 1st grade opium increased in place of the 3rd grade which has been prohibited sale since August 1927. Statistics are as follows:—

Table 24. Output of Opium

Year	(Momme)	(Yen)
1913-14.....	27,289,000	5,289,495
1918-19.....	20,845,700	6,650,764
1923-24.....	13,820,800	5,449,345
1926-27.....	10,632,600	4,193,487
1930-31.....	10,158,700	4,010,655
1931-32.....	8,409,500	3,320,071
1932-33.....	6,969,620	2,819,388
1933-34.....	5,747,520	2,350,363

Table 25. Output of Raw Opium Used

Year	Quantity (Kgs.)	Value 1,000 yen
1926.....	80,127	2,983
1927.....	58,305	1,959
1928.....	44,287	1,414
1929.....	45,251	1,244
1930.....	46,474	1,121
1931.....	69,778	1,665

Table 26. No. of Licensed Opium-smokers

Year	Natives		Chinese		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
1929....	21,057	3,569	361	35	25,022
1930....	19,395	3,842	208	23	23,468
1931....	17,767	3,531	192	20	21,510
1932....	16,278	3,254	174	17	19,723
1933....	14,841	2,979	155	16	17,991

Table 27. The Demand for Salt in the Island and Export to Japan

Year	Demand in the Island (1,000 kgs.)	Sale to Japan Proper (1,000 kgs.)	To other countries (1,000 kgs.)	Total (1,000 kgs.)	Total value (yen)
1929-30.....	44,402	63,981	14,460	122,844	2,419,151
1930-31.....	45,953	76,375	15,771	138,100	2,334,121
1931-32.....	48,864	105,660	26,450	180,974	2,459,629
1932-33.....	46,211	86,300	17,292	149,804	2,529,209
1933-34.....	50,826	81,399	12,890	145,115	2,718,840

Camphor.—Before the establishment of monopoly systems in 1899 when Taiwan became a Japanese possession, the manufacture of camphor in the island was maintained by reckless felling of the trees which were abundant and by crude manufacture. Since then, with the adoption of various measures for the promotion of the industry, the monopoly has been placed on a firm basis. The annual yield is about 3,000,000 kilogrammes claiming about 70% of the total output of natural camphor. The value of sales amounts to about ¥5-6,000,000 annually, chief customers being America, England and France. The article is chiefly used as raw material for manufacture of refined camphor and celluloid. Statistics on camphor since 1926 are not available.

Tobacco.—At the time of the creation of the monopoly system, raw material was for the most part brought from China, and its manufacture was carried on by private contract up to 1912, when it was taken over by the Government. The climate of Taiwan is very suitable for the cultivation of tobacco, and as the result of the improvement and development of tobacco cultivation due to the encouragement of the Government since the introduction of the monopoly system, Taiwan now produces excellent leaf tobacco which may be used for cut tobacco.

Salt.—The Government has given great encouragement to the improvement and increase of salt-fields and the raising of the quality of salt with good results since 1899, when the present system was brought into operation in order to regulate the abandoned salt-fields and the price of salt which were left quite uncared for. The price of salt in the island was made uniform, its supply became abundant, and the surplus is now exported to Japan Proper, Chosen, Karafuto, the Russian Maritime Province and other places. The total area of salt fields at the end of 1933-34 is given as 1,878 hectares and the output for the year as 191,000,000 kilogrammes. The demand for salt in the island and the export to Japan Proper are shown in the following table.

co. The species cultivated at present are the Chinese, the yellow and the cigar tobacco.

Table 28. Statistics on Tobacco

Year	Production			Total value of sale (Yen)
	Cut (Kwan)	Both ends cut (1,000 Pieces)	Leaf (1,000 Pieces)	
1929....	328,766	213,834	463	16,275,916
1930....	315,083	246,279	441	15,711,310
1931....	286,792	280,308	384	14,465,962
1932....	1,074,859	340,664	437	14,788,299
1933....	1,038,012	418,062	465	15,247,299

* Kilograms.

Saké.—There are but few countries in the world where alcoholic liquors are controlled as a government monopoly, and as this was a novel attempt in Japan and its working was to furnish an important example, the utmost efforts were made to carry it to success. In view of the present condition of the island the brewing of alcohol and beer and the sale of the latter are left to private management. But, as for all other alcoholic beverages, their manufacture and sale are managed directly by the Taiwan Government-General. The sales of alcoholic beverages in 1933 amounted to 285,016 hectolitres. Below are given statistics showing the figures of the output, and the import from Japan Proper and from foreign countries (in hectolitres):—

Table 29. Statistics of Saké

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Output	640,896	522,284	479,566	416,074	526,133
Import from Japan Proper.....	24,769	20,772	22,951	23,442	41,574
Import from foreign countries	2,701	2,022	989	744	2,006

The brewing factories numbered 11 at the end of 1931.

FOREIGN TRADE

The overseas trade of Formosa, which stood at only a little more than ¥30,000,000 in 1897, registered ¥433,802,267 in 1933. Thus the index number for the latter is 1,389 taking the former at 100. To refer to the situation on foreign trade for 1933, though export trade showed marked strides in camphor and black tea due to the advantageous position of the island in regard to the exchange and other favourable factors, exports to China were depressed owing to the boycott of Japanese goods, an uneasy political situation, the increase of the tariff, etc. Especially because of a serious decline in the export of cotton cloth, the export trade as a whole continued showing a decrease, amounting to ¥17,666,418. It is ¥378,832 less than the preceding year. Contrary to this decline in exports, imports increased ¥4,435,720 to ¥35,476,543. This is due to brisk demand for all goods, especially fertilizer, soya-beans gunny bags, bran and heavy oil, etc., consequent upon the economic prosperity of the island. Thus exports and im-

ports for the year under review totalled ¥53,142,961, the latter exceeding the former by ¥17,810,125.

As for the trade of the island with Japan, both branches of the trade have progressed satisfactorily. The total of shipments and consignments, which was ¥5,800,000, approximately in 1927, increased to ¥380,659,306 in 1933. Shipments to Japan for the year under consideration aggregated ¥230,746,911, which showed an expansion of ¥8,064,173 over the previous year. Exports of sugar, naphtha, camphor oil, tinned pineapples decreased. But, shipments of all other articles increased. Consignments from Japan also increased ¥16,455,448 to ¥149,912,395. A notable expansion was shown by such goods as fertilizer, iron, hat-making material, cotton and silk fabrics, cement, timber, paper, yarns, knit underwear, sake, dried and salt fish, soap. Shipments and consignments totalled ¥380,659,306, the former exceeding the latter by ¥80,834,516.

Table 30. Exports to and Imports from Foreign Countries

	(In thousands of yen)					
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Exports	33,188	22,809	19,449	18,045	17,666	26,518
Imports	64,541	45,131	30,859	31,104	35,477	38,031
Total	97,729	67,940	50,308	49,084	53,143	64,549
Excess of imports.....	31,353	22,322	11,410	12,996	17,811	11,513

Table 31. Exports to and Imports from Japan Proper

	(In thousands of yen)					
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Exports	238,705	218,633	201,424	222,683	230,747	279,410
Imports	140,370	123,127	114,763	133,457	149,912	176,991
Total	379,075	341,760	316,187	356,140	380,659	456,401
Excess of exports	98,336	95,506	86,661	89,226	80,835	102,419

Table 32. Outflow and Inflow of Bullion to and from Foreign Countries

	(In yen)					
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Exports	—	—	—	—	5,935	48,936
Imports	42	1,571,857	1,060,676	10,100	800	456,392
Total	42	1,571,857	1,060,676	10,100	6,735	505,328
Excess of imports	42	1,571,857	1,060,676	10,100	*5,135	407,456

* Excess of exports.

Table 33. Outflow and Inflow of Bullion to and from Japan Proper

(In yen)						
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Exports	37,000	195,740	221,000	—	199	—
Imports	—	—	—	—	—	—
Excess of exports.....	37,000	195,740	221,000	—	199	—

Table 34. Principal Export to Japan Proper

(In yen)							
Year	Rice	Sugar	Pine-apple canned	Camphor	Camphor oil	Alcohol	Bananas
1929.....	49,320,566	142,601,812	4,407,878	2,612,885	3,404,273	3,505,152	8,419,100
1930.....	38,695,385	141,865,177	3,481,135	1,255,781	2,422,303	2,592,076	8,369,850
1931.....	41,097,219	120,475,129	4,157,836	766,281	1,824,697	3,054,427	8,329,152
1932.....	63,074,989	121,718,906	5,151,173	963,624	2,062,234	2,975,544	6,982,753
1933.....	64,522,270	118,195,157	4,791,127	1,174,428	805,692	4,239,661	7,899,188
1934.....	101,816,421	122,321,543	4,537,125	2,175,749	1,902,033	5,256,358	8,137,941

Table 35. Principal Imports from Japan Proper

(In yen)							
Year	Wheat flour	Driedfish and salt fish	Iron	Cotton and silk tissues	Paper	Timber	Fertilizer
1929...	3,126,214	6,547,543	9,807,748	16,873,504	3,567,133	5,807,264	5,170,114
1930...	2,374,026	4,032,289	7,901,736	13,394,284	3,254,545	4,535,245	5,832,475
1931...	2,011,674	3,412,154	7,343,616	13,596,402	3,233,513	4,216,650	4,319,832
1932...	2,716,990	4,262,382	8,013,831	13,358,467	3,470,644	5,491,936	7,745,738
1933...	2,710,508	3,535,933	10,458,094	15,105,863	3,970,326	6,276,328	11,225,179
1934...	3,413,887	3,957,802	11,517,261	17,250,081	4,515,650	7,271,327	16,582,296

Rice, sugar, soy, canned comestibles, beer, tobacco, matches, cement, porcelain, iron manufactures, etc. are also principal articles of imported goods. In this table are included the imports from Chosen. The value of principal exports to and imports from foreign countries in the last six years is shown below (in unit of yen):—

Table 36. Exports to Foreign Countries

Year	Oolong tea	Pouchong tea	Camphor	Coal	Sugar	Cotton tissues	Matches
1929.....	3,423,426	5,765,940	1,653,301	3,308,530	453,671	4,646,217	231,634
1930.....	2,608,639	5,785,925	1,085,348	2,872,440	67,807	1,842,563	34,391
1931.....	2,350,845	4,489,261	1,586,448	2,295,114	2,356,530	1,199,195	155,899
1932.....	2,802,316	1,836,742	1,547,783	1,315,805	3,174,477	1,054,468	188,273
1933.....	2,894,245	1,816,576	2,962,727	1,530,557	563,245	363,346	210,244
1934.....	3,117,360	2,641,386	2,381,056	1,387,479	122,277	1,055,176	684,179

Table 37. Imports from Foreign Countries

Year	Opium	Leaf-tobacco	Lamp oil	Gunny bags	Timber	Mattings	Bean-cakes
1929.....	1,081,788	283,819	1,484,731	2,884,284	2,946,345	689,888	12,757,834
1930.....	1,122,315	343,021	1,014,775	2,407,543	1,499,969	511,633	10,252,919
1931.....	1,128,566	275,983	636,749	1,652,823	1,103,782	527,802	7,354,442
1932.....	707,792	318,361	669,892	1,327,100	556,806	488,939	10,342,041
1933.....	148,509	582,004	534,424	2,717,626	283,144	534,410	11,593,356
1934.....	120,600	396,735	375,386	3,270,092	118,273	458,085	12,204,475

Table 38. Exports and Imports Classified by Countries (¥1,000)

Nationalities	Exports					Imports				
	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Asia:										
China	10,104	8,222	6,534	4,746	8,375	22,666	16,189	15,621	6,671	6,713
Manchoukuo	—	—	27	354	439	—	—	4,020	16,604	16,617
Kwantung	610	309	1,973	1,625	2,896	821	889	913	956	1,393
Hongkong.....	3,032	2,587	2,670	2,131	2,909	70	52	31	55	33
Dutch Indies	4,175	3,262	1,601	1,095	1,546	1,212	1,025	1,622	1,389	1,542
French Indo-China	2	89	4	161	339	299	124	—	69	91
Siam	43	133	115	229	417	1,031	170	1,390	635	160
Total incl. others	18,410	14,936	13,272	11,057	18,013	29,585	21,052	26,199	29,247	29,278
Europe:										
Great Britain	1,250	866	605	1,122	1,754	2,663	2,345	598	360	2,078
France	254	127	290	434	258	59	55	22	43	15
Germany	2	2	23	39	59	7,079	4,024	1,941	3,391	3,705
Total incl. others	1,542	1,044	991	1,690	2,153	10,073	6,833	2,587	3,846	5,820
American Countries:										
U.S.A.	2,803	4,456	3,456	4,719	5,466	4,260	2,370	1,548	1,841	2,201
Canada	26	6	5	8	76	717	374	270	82	—
Total incl. others	2,829	3,462	3,759	4,726	5,542	5,013	2,744	1,821	2,012	2,519
Other States.....	28	6	23	194	810	447	230	431	317	370
Grand Total	22,809	19,449	18,045	17,666	26,518	45,131	30,859	31,041	35,477	38,031

PUBLIC WORKS

When China was in possession of the island, any roads that were found in the island had been built by wealthy individuals. The progress of road-making in recent years is tabulated below:—

Table 39. Statistics on Roads and Bridges

Year	Roads (ri)	Bridges (ken)
1914.....	3,073	33,584
1919.....	3,117	35,835
1923.....	3,663	29,973
1927.....	3,767	44,354
1928.....	3,850	45,699
1929.....	3,784	50,878
1930.....	3,844	48,607
1931.....	3,782	53,359
1932.....	3,830	46,146

Of the harbour-works in hand more important are those at Keelung, Takao, and Suwo, the first having been completed by 1930 at the cost of over ¥25 millions, the 2nd to be completed by 1935 at the cost of about ¥27 millions, while the 3rd which is a minor fishing-port was completed some years ago at the cost of under

¥700,000.

Water-works, large and small, supply water at 74 places, as at the end of 1933-34. The general expenditure involved amounts to ¥19,747-567 (inclusive of extension) and the estimated number of people to be supplied with is 1,072,765. Besides, there are three under construction and three under extension.

Irrigation is costing a great deal of money to the Government-General and islanders among whom the idea of supplying water to cane-fields and farms subject to drought existed from olden time. The Government-General started the 16 years irrigation work at the estimate of ¥30 millions, but as it was decided to help the private Taiwan irrigation with ¥12 millions out of the fund the scope of the Government undertaking has been reduced accordingly. The Government is repairing and improving the existing irrigation works with the fund and also to generate water-power. Already 32,756 "ko" of farms have been irrigated and some 7,200 h.p. water-proof been secured by utilizing the head-water.

COMMUNICATIONS

Post, Telegraph and Telephone

The postal service was for the first time opened in April, 1895, when, prior to the restoration of peace between Japan and China, the Japanese army occupied Hokoto (Pescadores) and estab-

lished there a military field post office; but when the civil administration was set up in April, 1896, the postal service for the general public was also opened under the control of the Minister of Communications, and the handling of foreign mails was begun from August, 1896.

In October, 1900, the Postal Law, the Railway and Marine Postal Law, the Postal Money Orders Law, the Postal Savings Law and the Telegraph Law, all in force in Japan Proper, were brought into operation in the island. The Wireless Telegraph Law was effected in November, 1915. With respect to the telephone

service, the Taiwan Telephone Exchange Law was promulgated in April, 1900. The service was first opened between Taihoku and Tainan in July of the same year. Since then the system has been put in complete working order. The radio broadcasting was also started in 1928.

Table 40. Statistics on Mails and Parcels

Year	Ordinary mail matters (1,000)		Parcels (1,000)		Telegrams (1,000)			No. of telephone subscribers
	Accepted	Delivered	Accepted	Delivered	Despatched	Delivered	Total	
1921-22	60,058	67,888	784	1,169	1,398	1,400	2,798	8,948
1926-27	52,089	64,193	653	1,103	1,378	1,437	2,814	11,147
1927-28	60,053	72,625	661	1,153	1,423	1,476	2,899	11,345
1928-29	62,325	73,265	679	1,219	1,475	1,501	3,976	11,640
1929-30	66,345	76,867	695	1,256	1,513	1,530	3,043	12,122
1930-31	66,793	78,453	677	1,247	1,491	1,533	3,024	12,746
1931-32	67,133	76,263	640	1,212	1,484	1,547	3,031	13,645
1932-33	70,177	81,993	648	1,231	1,566	1,634	3,200	15,110
1933-34	75,748	85,681	641	1,145	1,534	1,619	3,153	15,416

Year	Domestic money orders (issued)		Savings Bank	
	No.	Value (Yen)	No. of depositors	Amount (Yen)
1927-28	908,435	28,138,650	469,507	12,223,113
1928-29	940,943	28,497,437	483,253	13,343,016
1929-30	975,367	29,344,762	499,427	15,063,929
1930-31	976,257	26,937,014	516,040	15,074,388
1931-32	992,073	25,990,089	484,072	17,855,759
1932-33	1,042,360	27,551,267	494,847	18,147,761
1933-34	1,051,049	27,735,541	511,482	19,207,329

RAILWAYS

Government Railways.—It was not until the cession of Taiwan from China to Japan that the island began to enjoy railway facilities, for, prior to that time, the only railway existing in the island was a small light railway between Keelung and Shinchiku built at the time of the Shin dynasty of China. Soon after the cession, the Governor-General of Taiwan brought forward a plan, with the approval of the Diet, to build a railway connecting Takao with Keelung at the expense of ¥28,800,000. The work of construction was started in 1889 from both termini and finished in April 1908. This line now forms the trunk line in the insular railway system. The construction of that pioneer railway line was soon followed by the building of other lines, that is, the Kyukyokudo-Heito section (Choshu line) completed in 1912, the Taito line in 1917 and the Giran line in 1924, while many others have been built in a rapid succession since then, so that the total length of Government lines operated at present reaches 881.7 kilometers, at the end of March 1934.

Private Railways.—Most of the private rail-

ways existing in Taiwan were originally constructed by sugar refining companies for transporting sugar canes and other materials, transportation business being conducted only as a side work. The exception to this were the Taihoku Railway Company, which operated the Manka-Shinten railway of 6.5 miles, and the Taichu Light Railway line of 8.1 miles. The total working mileage of private lines open to business on March 31, 1934, was 502.6 kilometres. The number of passengers carried was 2,980,888 and the total tonnage of goods hauled 3,509,056 tons. The total receipts aggregated ¥1,998,246 or ¥408,685 less than that of the preceding year.

Tramways.—The tramways, which form an important factor in the insular communication system, have made a marked development in recent years, the total length of lines in operation at the end of March 1934, being 1,247.5 kilometres with 4,760 carriages in all, the number of passengers carried 3,303,642 and goods hauled 670,691,306 tons, the total receipts reaching ¥1,650,967.

Table 41. Government Railways

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Mileage open to traffic (mile)	549.0	549.0	549.0	881.6	881.7
No. of locomotives	210	215	208	—	—
No. of passenger carriages	476	491	499	—	—
No. of wagons	3,759	3,930	3,964	—	—
No. of passengers carried (1,000)	20,396	18,316	16,459	16,637	17,141
Goods hauled (1,000 tons)	5,164	3,960	4,767	5,121	5,087
Parcels (ton)	10,257	9,295	8,295	8,500	14,179
Receipts (¥1,000)					
Passenger	8,349	7,721	6,897	7,109	7,468
Wagons	11,916	11,392	11,367	11,742	11,863

Table 42. Private Railways

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Mileage open to traffic (mile)	1,351.4	1,367.7	1,383.1	1,418.3	1,425.8
No. of locomotives	242	232	251	—	—
No. of passenger carriages	258	272	244	—	—
No. of wagons	14,906	15,102	15,768	—	—
No. of passengers carried (1,000)	3,362	3,644	2,884	2,857	2,981
*Goods hauled (1,000 tons)	4,625	4,266	4,181	4,485	3,509
Receipts (¥1,000)					
Passenger	929	775	545	460	454
Wagons	2,346	2,186	1,753	1,914	1,499
Others	34	57	35	33	46

* Including goods for companies.

Table 43. Tramways

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Mileage open to traffic (mile)	770.5	824.9	849.8	823.6	772.7
No. of cars	5,645	5,568	5,321	5,133	4,760
No. of passengers carried (1,000)	5,251	4,006	3,499	3,179	3,304
Goods hauled (1,000 tons)	803	694	559	519	607
Receipts (¥1,000)					
Passenger	868	588	562	520	522
Wagons	1,551	1,358	1,096	1,049	1,129

BANKS AND OTHER FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS

Banks.—The necessity of establishing a special bank was recognized for the development of industry and commerce after the island became Japanese territory and in 1899 the Bank of Taiwan was brought into being. The Nippon Churitsu Bank had already established its sub-branch offices in the island. In 1899, the Bank was amalgamated with the Thirty-fourth Bank and became a branch office of the latter. The Taiwan Savings Bank was established in the same year, it being followed by the establishment of the Kagi Bank in 1904, the Shoka Bank in 1905 and the Taiwan Commercial and Industrial Bank in 1910. In 1920 another Kagi Bank under jointstock organization was formed to take over the business of the Kagi Bank which had been in the form of partnership. In 1921 the Taiwan Savings Bank was established.

In 1922 the Hypothec Bank of Japan established a branch office at Taihoku to carry on the business of granting credit on real estate and of making loans to public corporations or corporate societies, thereby facilitating agricultural finance.

The aggregate authorized capital of those banks, whose head offices are in the island as

at the end of March 1934, is given as ¥28,300,000, of which ¥20,679,850, approximately is paid up. The deposits of the banks are ¥132,260,000, approximately (inclusive of savings deposits for ¥9,410,000) and advances ¥246,690,000, bills of exchange bought and sold ¥779,420,000 and ¥843,940,000, respectively. The outstanding note issue of the Bank of Taiwan at the end of March 1934 was ¥48,990,000, approximately. Of this amount ¥5,220,000 represented the issue beyond the taxable limit.

Credit and Industrial Association.—There are two kinds of credit associations, viz., town credit associations and village credit associations. The number of the former associations at the end of March 1934 was 22 with the authorized capital of ¥3,070,000, of which ¥2,950,000 was paid up. The savings were ¥16,630,000, reserves ¥710,000, borrowings ¥140,000, advances ¥14,560,000, bills discounted ¥670,000, fund prepared for various purposes ¥1,840,000.

At the end of 1933-34 there were altogether 343 credit associations other than those for towns people. Some of these association were engaged in other forms of business as additional occupations. Investigations into 337 of these as-

sociations conducted by the Government-General show that the authorized capital was ¥12,432,000, of which ¥10,569,000 was paid up, reserves ¥8,537,000, savings ¥35,440,000, borrowings ¥7,930,000, advances ¥47,719,000, sales of products ¥3,928,000, sales of goods purchased ¥1,884,000. As may be gathered from the figures, these associations are contributing much towards the recovery of the economic life of the farming districts, while serving as an organ for monetary circulation for the populace.

The industrial associations have been slower in development than the credit associations owing to the difficulty and complicity of the management. At the end of 1933-34 there were 72 of these associations. The authorized capital of 70 of them, into which investigations had been conducted by the authorities, was ¥1,549,000, approximately, of which ¥939,000 was paid up,

reserves ¥394,000, borrowings ¥1,101,000, sales of products ¥1,608,000, sales of goods purchased ¥5,026,000.

Mujin (Mutual Loan Associations).—The legislation on "mujin" was put in force in March 1916. At the end of 1933-34 there were three joint stock companies engaging in this line of business with nine branches and six agencies throughout the island. Their authorized capital was ¥850,000, of which ¥387,500 was paid up.

Insurance Business.—At the end of 1933-34 there were in the island 24 life assurance offices (inclusive of conscript insurance) and 32 property assurance offices. These are all branches or sub-branches or agencies of the companies having head offices in Japan, with the single exception of the Taisei Fire and Marine Insurance Company. Results of various forms of insurance companies for 1933-34 are listed below:

Table 44. Insurance

Kind	No. of Contracts	Amount of contracts (Yen)	Amount of premiums (Yen)	Claims paid (Yen)
Life	114,939	175,199,253	6,197,009	1,661,737
Accident	87	155,900	661	490
Fire	52,145	328,942,591	783,639	160,535
Marine	3,082	12,108,678	347,401	122,445
Transport	20	57,740	3,973	—
Automobile	1	1,700	61	—

Contrasted with the previous year, life assurance shows an improvement of 18,677 in the number of contracts and ¥26,969,634 in the amount, accident an expansion of 24 in the number of contracts and a decrease of ¥1,080 in the amount, fire an increase of 6,855 in the number of contracts and ¥40,296,696 in the

amount, marine again of 390 in the number of contracts and a decrease of ¥149,399 in the amount, transport an expansion of 3 in the number of contracts and a decrease of ¥335,990 in the amount. The one contract for automobile insurance on the table is the first of the kind entered into in June, 1933.

References: Tables 1-7, 9, 11-29, 39-44—Taiwan Jiho (Outline of Taiwan), 1934, published by the Taiwan Govt.-Gen. Table 8—Okura-sho Nempo (Annual Report of the Dept. of Finance), 1934. Table 10—Nippon Teikoku Tokai Nenkan (Official Statistical Annual), 1934. Table 20—Hompo Kogyo no Susei (Statistical Annual on Mining Industry of Japan), 1934, compiled by the Mining Bureau. Tables 30-33—Taiwan Boeki Geppyō (Monthly Returns of the Foreign Trade of Taiwan).

CHAPTER XXXVI

KARAFUTO (Southern or Japanese Saghalien)

AREA, POPULATION, ETC.

Position—141° 51' and 144° 55' E.L.; 45° 54' N.L.

Area—36,000 square kilometers. Separated from the northern tip of Hokkaido by Soya Strait.

The island of Karafuto was occupied by the Japanese forces during the Russo-Japanese War in August, 1905, and the acquisition by Japan of the island south of the fiftieth parallel was

confirmed by the Treaty of Portsmouth concluded between Japan and Russia in October of the same year.

Table 1. Area of Karafuto By Districts

	Area (Sq. kms.)	Ratio		Area (Sq. kms.)	Ratio
Sikka	12,416.5	344.04	Motodomari	3,120.9	86.48
Tomarioru	6,902.8	191.26	Maoka	2,490.1	68.99
Otomari	4,842.9	134.19	Honto	1,566.6	43.41
Toyohara	4,750.5	131.63	Total	36,090.3	1,000.00

Table 2. Climate (in 1933)

	Temperature (C.)			No. of clear days	No. of rainy or snow days
	Average	Maximum	Minimum		
Yasubetsu	1.3	24.8	26.4	49	184
Sikuka	0.2	32.1	33.8	77	146
Ochiai	2.4	32.4	31.5	32	188
Maoka	4.0	26.5	20.5	48	175
Honto	4.4	27.2	21.1	35	180
Otomari	3.2	27.0	24.2	34	158

Population

The native inhabitants consist of various tri-

bes, i.e. Ainus, Gilyaks, Orochones and Tungues. These are gradually dwindling in number. The total population of the territory as at the end of 1933 was 300,298, of which 293,168 were Japanese, 5,043 Koreans, 1,837 natives and 250 foreigners. Contrasted with the population of 12,361 at the end of 1906, or a year after the territory was placed under the control of Japan, it shows an increase of 287,937, or about 24.3 times.

Statistics of population for the last five years are tabulated below:—

Table 3. Population By Sex and Nationality

End of December	Total		Japanese		Natives		Foreigners		Pop. per household	Male per 100 females
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female		
1929	139,501	111,812	138,404	110,724	929	992	168	96	4.90	124.8
1930	159,919	125,011	158,710	123,929	960	973	249	109	4.96	127.9
1931	161,767	125,610	160,577	124,507	1,012	997	178	106	5.01	128.8
1932	164,804	128,868	163,143	127,807	988	949	173	112	5.06	120.6
1933	167,024	133,274	165,946	132,265	932	905	146	104	5.08	125.3

Table 4. Population of Principal Towns

	No. of households	Population
Toyohara	6,464	33,474
Otomari	5,862	30,561
Shirutoru	3,827	18,877
Esutoru	4,037	21,043
Ochiai	3,468	17,567
Sikka	3,581	17,664
Maoka	3,257	16,161
Tomarioru	2,098	10,459
Honto	1,994	10,590
Rutaka	1,967	10,168

Table 5. Population By Occupations

	(End of 1933)
	End of 1933
Agriculture	41,097
Fishery	14,411
Mining	2,936
Industry	15,627
Commerce	31,582
Communications	5,467
Total including others	300,298

Table 6. Movement of Population

Year	Marriage	Divorce	Birth		Still-birth		Death	
			Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1928.....	1,492	137	4,557	4,308	301	253	2,963	2,154
1929.....	1,644	152	4,855	4,527	313	267	3,268	2,213
1930.....	1,794	168	5,407	5,245	331	270	3,330	2,464
1931.....	1,782	163	5,614	5,300	320	275	3,146	2,502
1932.....	1,829	160	5,977	5,558	284	261	3,424	2,684

Census Population

The first census was taken on October 1, 1920 and the second on October 1, 1930. Between these dates, or on October 1, 1925 rough enumeration of population was effected. The census population as enumerated in the three different years is listed below:—

Table 7. Census Population

	Male	Female	Total	Inc.	Percentage of Increase
1920	62,327	43,572	105,899	—	—
1925	122,379	81,375	203,754	97,855	92.40
1930	168,532	126,664	295,196	91,442	44.88

As will be noted from the above table, the proportion of the expansion of population in the five-year period from 1925-30 appreciably decreased. The average rate of increase was 7.70% as against 13.98 for the preceding lustre. The increase of population during the decade was 189,297 (178.75%) and the yearly average was 10.80%.

FINANCE

As regards the finance of Karafuto since the establishment of the Special Account for the territory in April, 1907, it may be noted that a fixed grant has been made annually by the National Treasury, and that this grant, together with the taxes and other sources of revenue of the territory, is used in defraying the expenses of colonization and general administration.

Table 8. Revenue and Expenditure

Year	Revenue			Expenditure		
	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
1928-29.....	18,056,310	14,590,059	32,646,370	12,672,476	13,018,793	25,691,270
1929-30.....	18,611,501	13,728,326	32,339,827	16,640,071	11,947,287	28,587,359
1930-31.....	21,028,918	5,515,613	26,544,532	15,626,775	9,002,516	24,629,292
1931-32.....	18,237,113	5,131,829	23,368,941	14,580,649	6,699,100	21,179,749
1932-33.....	17,090,154	5,548,262	22,638,416	14,657,030	6,206,749	20,863,778
1933-34.....	21,439,139	6,402,359	27,841,498	15,234,314	6,980,272	22,214,586
*1934-35.....	21,301,202	4,627,854	25,929,056	17,128,506	8,800,550	25,929,056
*1935-36.....	24,776,180	3,760,573	28,536,753	17,798,600	10,738,153	28,536,753

* Budget Accounts.

Table 9. Budget for 1935-36

Revenue		Expenditure	
Ordinary:		Ordinary:	
Taxes	¥ 1,673,545	The Karafuto Shrine	¥ 18,186
Receipts from Government undertakings and properties	20,978,163	Karafuto Administration Office..	1,353,289
Stamp receipts	277,261	Education	2,302,070
Profits of tobacco monopoly	1,252,966	Government undertakings	8,177,570
Miscellaneous receipts	594,245	Other expenses	5,947,485
Total	24,776,180	Total	17,798,600
Extraordinary:		Extraordinary:	
Proceeds of sale of State property	92,336	Government undertakings	8,054,500
Miscellaneous receipts	420	Subsidies	1,818,000
National Treasury grant	—	Special undertakings	—
Previous years' surplus transferred	3,645,840	Railway improvement	—
Total	3,760,573	Other expenses	865,653
Total revenue	28,536,753	Total	10,738,153
		Total expenditure	28,536,753

BANKING AND OTHER MONETARY ORGANS

The deposits and advances of the banks in Karafuto as at the end of 1933 were as follows:

Table 10. Bank Accounts

	Yen	Yen
Branches of Hokkaido Colonial Bank.....	16,585,702	15,390,225
Karafuto Bank	2,150,869	3,496,138
Branches of Hokumon Savings Bank.....	677,578	183,221

Industrial Associations and Industrial Federa-

tions.—Since the Industrial Association Law was enforced in 1915, industrial associations have been established in many parts of the territory, showing good results. In the year in which the law in question was put in force, only one association was organized. As at the end of 1933-34 there were 57 industrial associations. The subscribed capital (at the end of 1933-34) of 48 associations into which investigations had been made was ¥1,685,260, of which ¥1,469,658 was paid up. The working capital inclusive of

reserves and savings totalled ¥3,761,541. The total membership was 5,850. At the end of 1933 there was only one industrial federation with a membership of 45. The total subscribed capital was ¥117,000, of which ¥57,823 was paid up. Inclusive of reserves, savings, borrowings, the total working capital was ¥741,593.

At the end of 1933 there were 111 private and one pawn brokers. The former represented the balance of loans for ¥124,572 and the latter ¥16,170. Besides, there were 16 money lenders whose loans outstanding at the end of 1933 aggregated ¥126,330.

SANITATION, RELIGION AND EDUCATION

The Government keeps under its direct management three medical offices at Toyohara, Odomari and Maoka. At the end of 1933 there were 116 public and 76 private practitioners,

33 public and 21 private dentists, 233 public and 22 private midwives, 93 nurses and 171 acupuncturists.

Table 11. Statistics of Government Hospitals

Names of hospitals	No. of medical officers	No. of rooms	No. of beds	No. of outpatients	No. of in-patients
Toyohara hospital	45	53	127	9,978	1,781
Odomari "	29	19	53	3,517	438
Maoka "	26	31	65	37,426	1,990

Education.—The following table will give a general idea of the spread of education in Karafuto.

Table 12. Number of Schools, Teachers and Pupils

Schools	No. of schools	No. of teachers	No. of pupils
Elementary and Higher elementary schools ...	221	1,131	47,535
Middle schools	3	89	1,865
Girls' high schools	4	66	1,344
Private schools	5	39	291
Kindergartens	3	9	175
Supplementary schools ..	8	79	384

Religion.—There are three religions propagated in Karafuto, namely, Buddhism, Shintoism and Christianity. The relative influence of these three religions may be noted from the table appended.

Table 13. Statistics of Religion

	No. of shrines, temples or missions	No. of priests or missionaries	No. of adherents
Shintoism	41	43	16,311
Buddhism	179	176	59,428
Christianity	11	11	1,171

AGRICULTURE AND IMMIGRATION

The area under tillage in Karafuto is yearly increasing. But still it was as limited as 33,267 hectares at the end of 1933. It is only one-sixth of the arable land which is 469,000 hectares in area. Therefore, there is still room for many thousands of agricultural immigrants. Since 1906, the authorities have encouraged the immigration of farming population by extending them liberal protection and suitable help. A small sum of money is granted to those peasants

who settle down within six months of their arrival. As at the end of 1933 the number of these farming immigrants stood at 55,954, representing 11,027 houses. The number of these settlers and that of their houses occupy about 19% of the total number of population and that of houses in the territory. The total amount of farm produce for 1933 was ¥3,615,313. The number of peasant settlers in recent years is shown below:

Table 14. Peasant Settlers in Recent Years

Year	Families	Population
1928.....	1,420	5,897
1929.....	1,242	4,332
1930.....	1,132	4,997
1931.....	932	4,169
1932.....	1,341	6,357
1933.....	1,267	4,855

The total amount of various agricultural products in recent years has increased about three times as compared with ten years before.

Table 15. Total Amount of Farm Produce

Year	Total production
1926.....	¥2,941,036
1927.....	3,542,292
1928.....	4,206,000
1929.....	3,306,000
1930.....	2,999,000
1931.....	2,105,978
1932.....	2,946,591
1933.....	3,615,313

The area under various crops classified according to kind is given in the following table:

Table 16. Area under Various Crops (In hectares)

Year	Oat, barley, wheat, etc.	Beans & peas	Buckwheat	Potatoes	Grass	Vegetables & others
1927.....	5,583	591	663	1,892	2,916	1,945
1928.....	7,600	692	692	2,274	3,422	2,941
1929.....	6,425	789	710	2,078	3,526	2,925
1930.....	9,168	813	753	3,154	3,698	2,830
1931.....	8,669	1,071	1,146	2,981	4,025	2,579
1932.....	10,111	1,165	1,191	4,171	4,325	2,965
1933.....	9,836	1,189	1,146	5,144	4,056	3,071

Note:—1 hectare=1.008333 cho; 1 cho=0.99174 hectare.

Table 17. Amount of Principal Crops in Recent Years

Year	Oat, barley wheat, etc. (Hectolitres)	Beans & peas (Hectolitres)	Buckwheat (Hectolitres)	Potatoes (M. ton)	Grass (M. ton)	Vegetables & others (M. ton)
1927.....	159,700	11,510	11,906	12,631	10,308	13,914
1928.....	278,500	13,948	17,352	27,022	13,246	25,206
1929.....	250,439	12,546	11,651	17,992	14,413	23,691
1930.....	295,769	12,372	14,819	33,002	17,300	25,327
1931.....	228,608	7,976	13,802	24,035	15,976	19,046
1932.....	291,278	9,664	12,063	38,603	16,295	25,604
1933.....	313,572	18,451	19,686	49,816	19,487	38,947

FISHERY

Fishery is the oldest industry and constitutes by far the most important resources of Karafuto. The principal fish caught are herring, trout, salmon and cod. The right of fishing is granted under three kinds of license, the special, ordinary and drift-net fishing. The first is limited to bodies of fishermen on specific grounds, while the second is permitted only to those living in Karafuto. The last named was formerly issued by public tender, but now it is restricted to certain persons. The catch of herrings for 1933 amounted to 275,258,498 kilogrammes the greater part of which is manufactured into manure. With regard to the trout and salmon fisheries, it is to be noted that the authorities concerned have lately attempted artificial fecundation to ensure the multiplication of these varieties. The catch of trout for 1933 amounted to 14,304,268 kilogrammes in volume and ¥1,093,608 in value and that of salmon to 1,088,678 kilogrammes, valued at ¥168,399, totalling 15,392,946 kilogrammes, valued at ¥1,262,007. The catch of cod-fish for the year under review was 16,419,886 kilogrammes, valued at ¥656,796, and its by-pro-

duct codliver oil was produced to the amount of 8,680 boxes, valued at ¥76,775. As for crabs which constitute one of the important items among the catches, 1,643,730 were caught in 1933. Most of them are tinned or bottled. These tinned and bottled crabs amounted to 120,000 boxes, valued at ¥3,000,000 in 1931. In view of the gradual decrease in the catches, the authorities have taken measures to prevent the reckless ways of catching crabs hitherto pursued, and in 1934 effected merger of the manufacturing factories in order to unify the quality of manufactures.

Table 18. Statistics of General Situation in Fishery

Year	No. of fishing craft	No. of fishermen	Catches (¥1,000)	Manufacture (¥1,000)
1926.....	8,629	16,431	—	19,199
1927.....	10,013	20,037	—	15,735
1928.....	11,255	18,546	20,557	19,482
1929.....	12,363	20,636	20,881	18,828
1930.....	12,266	23,527	15,909	13,090
1931.....	14,111	24,764	12,750	10,497
1932.....	16,451	26,712	10,638	9,370
1933.....	16,668	25,259	13,195	10,245

Table 19. Catches of Principal Fish (In yen)

Item	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Herrings.....	14,676,736	9,811,698	8,020,723	6,756,851	6,868,066
Trouts.....	1,219,258	1,161,910	609,279	369,120	1,927,229
Salmons.....	232,904	328,340	194,625	115,885	210,498
Cods.....	1,568,439	1,220,662	916,877	878,429	845,675
Crabs.....	1,310,395	1,661,553	1,749,380	937,335	1,683,325
Laminaria.....	642,398	645,251	689,600	934,927	501,406
Shell-fishes.....	100,047	158,685	131,912	34,281	76,084
Total.....	20,880,610	15,909,075	12,750,419	10,638,131	13,195,350

FORESTRY

Karafuto abounds in primeval forests that occupy about 47% of the total area of the island and at present supply the territory with the most important natural products. Acerose trees, growing in the forests, are chiefly Ezo-matsu (*Picea ajanensis*, Fisch.) and Karafuto-rakuyosho (*Larix dahurica*, Turcz.). They grow in mixed stands, though pure forests of the larch are found in some places. The broad leaved trees among which birches, willows, elms and alders are prominent, occupy the low lying places such as the river banks. On more elevated land acerose trees (most of which are Todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu but the larch is very scarce) from pure forests, though birches are often found growing mixed with them on the mountain side. The Haimatsu (*Pinus pumila*) grows densely on the tops of high mountains, while pure forests of

birches are found on the tops of low mountains. The larch usually grows in low land. Generally speaking, the Todo-matsu and the Ezo-matsu are most plentiful, forming about 83% of the whole stock. Being very durable, the larch is in great demand for telegraph-poles, railway sleepers, and for other engineering purposes, but the larch not adapted for these purposes, is used for heating and cooking. Apart from use as timber and packing material, these acerose trees are utilized in far greater quantities as pulp wood. At present pulp factories exist at Otomari, Toyohara, Maoka, Noda, Ochiai, Shiritori, Tomarioru and Estori, and their annual output being estimated in round numbers at 162,091 tons of pulp and 129,710 tons of paper.

The output of pulp and paper is as follows:—

Table 20. Output of Pulp and Paper

Year	No. of factories	Output of Pulp		Output of Paper	
		(M. tons)	(Yen)	(M. tons)	(Yen)
1929.....	8	151,105	21,126,113	155,593	30,580,068
1930.....	8	161,703	21,103,005	139,562	30,652,270
1931.....	8	144,454	15,198,986	132,341	25,666,601
1932.....	8	128,703	13,421,184	129,711	24,537,313
1933.....	8	141,942	20,844,909	146,832	33,782,022

Table 21. Forest Products

Year	Timber (¥1,000)	Fagots (¥1,000)	By-products (Yen)	Total (¥1,000)	Year	Timber (¥1,000)	Fagots (¥1,000)	By-products (Yen)	Total (¥1,000)
1926.....	7,762	84	3,000	7,850	1929.....	10,798	127	6,741	10,933
1927.....	7,947	136	2,000	8,085	1930.....	9,580	108	2,134	9,630
1928.....	11,590	142	4,268	11,737	1931.....	8,090	107	2,282	8,190

The area of the whole forests of Karafuto is put at 2,978,867 hectares, which occupy about 83% of the area of the territory. The revenue

from the forests for 1933 was 11,547,337, which was less than 40% of the revenue of the Government of Karafuto.

MINING INDUSTRY

The strata of the island are generally of Tertiary formation and hold rich veins of coal. The coal bed consists of three measures, upper, middle and lower. The upper measure, which has a close connexion with the oil-bearing strata,

pertains to the Pliocene, and the middle and the lower to the Eocene. Each of these measures exists on the both sides of a Cretaceous mountain range running from north to south, forming many important coal fields in the island.

There are three great coal-fields, namely, the Northern, the Middle and the Southern. The Middle coal-field, which runs about 100 kilometres from north to south and has a breadth of from 2 to 5 kilometres, is the largest and belongs to the lower measure. A part of the Southern coal-fields following the western coast and the greater parts of the Northern and Eastern coal-fields belong to the upper measure. In the northern part of the western coast there are also important coal-fields belonging to the middle measure. Each of these contains at least 3 to 13 coal-seams with a thickness of from 1 to 10 metres. Investigations up to date have discovered reserves of coal amounting to approximately 1,399 million tons, and it is believed that there are reserves of more than 2,000 million tons in the island. The coal of the middle and lower measure is bituminous and that of the upper measure is lignite.

As to petroleum, the demand and supply of oil may be seen from the table given below:

Table 22. Demand and Supply of Oil

Year	Output	Import	Export	Consumption
1929...	635,515	27,404	16,380	646,539
1930...	644,947	12,687	12,646	644,988
1931...	637,962	3,960	38,079	603,843
1932...	677,389	241	51,833	625,797
1933...	889,913	—	168,604	721,309

RAILWAYS

The first railway in Karafuto was constructed by the Army Department in 1906 between Otomari (formerly Korsakovka) and Toyohara (formerly Vladimolovka), 41.8 kms. in length. It was a light railway with a gauge of 2 ft. and exclusively used for military purposes. With the withdrawal of the military government in April, 1907, the railway was transferred to the Karafuto Administration Office and opened to public traffic in August the same year.

Owing to an increase in the traffic, the gauge was widened to 3 ft. in 1910, while the construction of sections further north of Toyohara was started. The work on the Toyohara-Sakachama section having been completed in 1911, the Otomari-Sakachama section (94.1 kms.) which now forms the trunk line of the insular

railway connexion, was opened to traffic. The work of construction was pushed on and the branch line connecting the Kawakami line with Konuma and the Honto-Noda section on the west coast were completed and opened to business respectively in 1914 and 1920. Besides, the construction of a branch line which connects Toyohara, the Capital of the territory, with Maoka on the west coast was started in 1921 and completed in 1928. The railway lines in operation as at the end of 1933-34 were 343 kilometres in length. Of this length 122 was represented by the East Coast Line, 84 by Hoshin Line and 137 by the West Coast Line. Receipts from the passenger traffic for 1933-34 were ¥830,639 and those from the freight traffic ¥1,227,819, totalling ¥2,058,458.

Table 23. Results of the Government Railways

Year	No. of passengers carried	Volume of goods hauled (Tons)	Receipts from passenger traffic	Receipts from goods traffic
1928-29	1,580,684	784,788	1,076,168	1,291,523
1929-30	1,837,497	847,252	1,226,694	1,495,202
1930-31	1,592,500	872,682	1,027,407	1,503,965
1931-32	1,519,377	745,707	911,969	1,271,203
1932-33	1,405,030	631,309	812,718	1,069,949

Private Railways

At the end of 1933-34 there were three private railways, namely, the Karafuto Railway Company, the South Karafuto Railway Company and the Naihoro Colliery Railway Company. The first named company operated a line of 203 kilometres, the second a line of 19 kilometres and the third a line of 16 kilometres. The earnings of the three Railway companies for the financial year of 1933-34 totalled ¥1,025,021.

Commerce and Industry

In sympathy with the growing development of industry in Karafuto, many companies of respectable sizes for various purposes have been increasingly established of late years. At the end of 1933-34 there were 398 companies with a subscribed capital of ¥70,688,454, of which ¥39,163,915 was paid up. The number of companies specified according to industry is tabulated below:—

Table 24. Number of Companies By Industries
(At the End of 1933-34)

	No. of Companies	Paid-up Capital (Yen)
Agriculture	23	536,800
Fishery	16	157,802
Mining	3	19,500
Manufacturing Industry	88	11,280,977
Commerce	200	8,316,534
Transport	68	18,852,302
Total	398	39,163,915

Industry

The principal industrial products of the territory are pulp, sake, tinned foods. As for the output of pulp and paper, refer to Table 17. The production of sake inclusive of alcohol, shochu, etc., for 1933-34 was 58,876 hectolitres,

valued at ¥2,662,936. Tinned foods consist mostly of tinned fish and crabs, amounting to 108,257 boxes, valued at ¥2,395,697 in the year under notice.

Overseas Trade

The overseas trade of Karafuto for 1933 figured out at ¥31,689,774 in imports (of which 31,430,569 represented consignments from Japan Proper) and at ¥73,563,407 in exports (of which ¥73,455,524 represented shipments to Japan Proper), resulting in an export excess of ¥42,176,277.

As will be noted from the above, the bulk of the overseas trade of the territory is done with Japan Proper.

References: Tables 1, 3, 4, 7, 10, 11, 19, 23 & 24—Karafuto Yoran (Annual Report of the Karafuto Government), 1934. Tables 2 & 6—Nippon Teikoku Tokel Nenkan (Official Statistical Annual), 1934. Tables 5, 12-18, 20 & 22—Karafuto-cho Tokel-sho (Statistical Annual of the Karafuto Government), 1934. Tables 8 & 9—Okura-sho Nempo (Annual Report of the Department of Finance, 1934 & The Official Bulletin of Japan).

CHAPTER XXXVII

THE SOUTH SEA ISLANDS

GEOGRAPHY

Position and Area

Japan has acquired through the Treaty of Peace concluded after the World War the mandatory right over the former German South Sea Islands north of the Equator. The archipelago had been occupied by a Japanese squadron in the beginning of the World War. It consists of three groups of Mariana, Marshall, and Caroline, comprising 1,458 islands, islets and reefs, scattered over a vast expanse of water extending for about 1,200 miles south to north and about 2,500 miles east to west. In other words, the territory stretches on the one hand between 130° to 175° E.L. and on the other between 0° and 22° N.L. and is situated to the south of Japan, with Hawaii far away to the east, and adjacent to the Philippines and the Dutch Celebes to the west, while to the south there lie the Island of New Guinea and the Bismarck Group and to the north the Bonin

and Iwo Islands which form the southern extremity of the Japanese Empire. The area of the Islands is very small, the total being 960 square miles (2,149 square kilometers) and the population mostly consists of about 50,000 natives.

The number and area of the islands are as follows:—

Table 1. Groups of Islands and Their Area

Group	No. of Islands	Area (sq. kms)
Mariana	14	639 (41.43 sq. ri)
Caroline	549	1,320 (85.59 ")
Marshall	60	190 (12.30 ")
Total	623	2,149 (139.32 ")

The number and area of the islands classified according to the jurisdiction of the different branch bureaus of the South Seas Office are as follows:—

Table 2. Islands By Jurisdiction of Branch Bureaus of South Seas Office

Branch Bureau	No. of Islands	Area (sq. kms.)	Position
Saipan (Mariana Group)	14	639 (41.43 sq. ri)	145°40' E.L.—15°5' N.L.
Yap (Caroline Group)	85	226 (14.64 ")	137°58' " — 9°25' "
Palau " "	109	478 (31.00 ")	143°10' " — 6°50' "
Truk " "	245	132 (8.55 ")	151°22' " — 6°57' "
Ponape " "	138	504 (32.65 ")	158°10' " — 6°45' "
Jaluit (Marshall Group)	32	170 (11.05 ")	169°42' " — 5°48' "
Total	623	2,149 (139.32 ")	

N.B.—The 32 islands under the jurisdiction of the Jaluit branch bureau consist of 867 reefs.

The principal islands and their areas are as follows:—

Table 3. Principal Islands and Their Area

Islands	Area (sq. kms.)
Saipan (Marinan Group)	185 (12.00 sq. ri)
Tinian " "	98 (6.35 ")
Rota " "	125 (8.10 ")
Yap (West Caroline Group)	216 (14.00 ")
Palau Proper or Baobeltaob (West Caroline Group)	370 (24.00 ")
Korror Island (Palau Group)	8 (0.50 ")
Angaur (West Caroline Group)	8 (0.50 ")
Spring Island (East Caroline Group)	22 (1.43 ")
Summer Island " "	9 (0.58 ")
Wednesday Island " "	23 (1.51 ")
Ponape " "	375 (24.34 ")
Kusaie " "	116 (7.50 ")
Jaluit (Marshall Group)	8 (0.51 ")

Weather and Climate

The Islands being situated in low altitudes, atmospheric pressure is generally low and undergoes no great change throughout the year. Broadly speaking, it is comparatively low in Truk and Ponape Islands. In the western part of the Caroline Group and Mariana Group it is high in February and March, but low in October and November.

Direction of Winds.—As the Islands lie scattered over a vast expanse of water, the direction of winds varies according to the different islands, so that no accurate description can be given. Usually, however, a north-easterly wind or easterly wind prevails from November till April of the following year, while between May and October the direction of the wind varies according to different localities. Thus in the western part of the Caroline Group a westerly or southerly wind prevails, and in other localities it blows diversely from the east and from the south. There is no wind for some time when changes take place in the direction of wind.

Wind Velocity.—In the Mariana Group the wind is somewhat strong, developing a mean velocity of 4.6 m/s. for the year. It is weak in April and during August and September, but is strong from October till February of the following year. In other islands the wind is generally weak, the mean velocity registered being 2.1 m/s. In the western part of the Caroline Group, it is weak between April and June and also in September, but is strong from October till March of the following year. In the eastern part of the same group, it is weak between August and September, but is strong between January and March. There is seldom a really high wind in any of the islands.

Temperature.—Throughout the Islands, ex-

cept Saipan, temperature is fairly uniform, the mean temperature registering from 26 to 28 degrees with the mean maximum of 29 or 30 degrees and the mean minimum of 24 or 25 degrees. The thermometer seldom rises above 32 degrees or falls below 20 degrees. Throughout the year the variations in temperature are very narrow. It has been observed that the difference between the highest and the lowest on a normal day is about 3 degrees.

Humidity.—All the Islands are humid, the mean relative humidity registered throughout the year being 82%, though in the western part of the Caroline Group it is a little less. In the Mariana Group humidity is greater between September and October and less in March. In the western part of the Caroline Group it is greater between June and July and less between March and April, while in the eastern part it is greater between September and October and less between January and March. There is no great change throughout the year and the minimum of less than 60% is but rarely registered.

Rainfall.—In all the Islands, the rainfall is extremely abundant, the total quantity or rainfall in a year varying between 2,000 and 4,000 millimeters and the average reaching as much as above 3,000 millimeters. Saipan is the least visited by rain, while Ponape and Palau are most plentifully favoured by it. It is no rare occurrence in the latter two islands that the total quantity of rainfall exceeds 4,000 millimeters a year. As to the rainfall in different seasons, there are places where no clear distinction can be made between the dry and wet seasons, but July-September is generally considered as wet and January-March as dry. Nevertheless it is by no means the same every year.

RACE, LANGUAGE, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS

Race.—The natives of the Islands as a whole may be divided into two great tribes of Kanakas and Chamorros.

Chamorros.—The principal places inhabited by Chamorro tribesmen are the Mariana Group and Yap and Palau Islands in the West Caroline Group, only a few migrated Chamorros living in other islands. The ancestors of the Chamorros are said to have lived in Guam. The fact that they live mostly in the islands around and nearest to that island is probably due to the migration of their forefathers therefrom. Guam was in early days the center of the Mariana Group, and geographically it is

quite natural that Chamorro tribesmen should have crossed to Rota from that island and then to Tinian and Saipan. It seems that a great many Chamorro immigrants came to Saipan and Tinian during the Spanish regime, and those two islands were fairly densely populated by them. Owing, however, to internal strifes and massacres following on rebellions, the Chamorro population has greatly dwindled and at present taking both Saipan and Rota together they total only a little more than 2,600, and even adding those living in Yap and Palau they do not much exceed 3,000. The Chamorros living in Saipan, which contains a majority

of the Chamorros in the South Sea Islands, are said to have greatly altered through intermarriages, with the Tagala tribesmen of characteristic physiognomical features, with yellowish brown skin and black hair.

Kanakas.—The Kanaka is the general appellation for the people living in Hawaii and other Pacific islands. A great majority of the natives of the South Sea Islands belong to this race but when close observations are made, it is found that those inhabiting the western islands seem to have much affinity with the Malay race and those inhabiting the eastern islands resemble the Polynesian race, while as one goes further south the more one comes across those similar in racial type to the Melanesian race. Though there is more or less difference between these three groups of Kanakas, they are generally dark-brown skinned and commonly have black hair, in some cases curled. Their eyebrows are thick and the space between the eyebrows and eyes is rather narrow, while their eyes are deeply sunken. Further, the alar cavities of the nose are wide, the mouth large and lips thick. They have not much beard and are generally artless and mild in their expression. In stature they are of medium height, but sometimes very big and tall men are found among them, such men being especially numerous in the southern islands.

Tribal Relations of Natives.—It is a fact that Chamorros are generally more advanced in civilization than Kanakas, but this is only relatively true, even Chamorros being very backward as compared with the civilized peoples. Chamorros and Kanakas differ in language, manners and customs, and not only do not intermarry but even in daily life rarely associate with each other. Considering themselves as superior, Chamorros dislike to have any connection with Kanakas in any matter. In fact the two live quite apart and no instance of rivalry, strife or enmity between them has occurred. Nearly all the Islands except Saipan are mainly inhabited by Kanakas, Chamorros being few in number. The two groups of people have always formed separate communities and have never been in the relation of conqueror and conquered, nor will be in the future. As a matter of course, both from the administrative and legal points of view, the Japanese Government treats them equally and without any discrimination.

Anthropological Investigation.—Dr. K. Hasebe, Professor at the Tohoku Imperial University of Japan, is engaged in anthropological investigations among the natives. He was despatched for investigation to the East Caroline

Group and Marshall Group in 1915 by order of the Government, and then visited Palau and Yap Islands in 1927, Ponape and Truk in 1928, and Saipan, Ponape, Kusaie and Jaluit in 1929 under the commission from the South Seas Office to continue his research work. It is hoped that some day in the future an opportunity will present itself for the publication of the results of his research work.

Language.—Different dialects are spoken in different islands, there being no language common to all. Even in one and the same group of islands, the dialects of the principal islands are different and there are not a few cases where in adjacent islands dialects different from those of the principal islands are spoken. For instance, the natives of Yap and those of the adjacent islands speak different dialects. It is the same with the natives of Ponape and Kusaie. All this is due to the difficulty of communications between the islands which are separated by great distances, which is also a cause of great inconvenience in administration. Since the Islands were placed under the mandate rule of Japan, the authorities have established schools at important centers, and even in distant islands schools have been established at places inhabited by Japanese. As a result of the efforts made at those schools for spreading the knowledge of Japanese the number of natives able to speak the language is steadily on the increase, so that in most of the Islands the Japanese language has become the medium of communication at least in matters of daily life.

In regard to the natives who can speak English, German or Spanish, no investigation has as yet been made, but there are a number of such natives. This is due to the fact that before Japan undertook the mandatory rule of the Islands, there were not a few natives, who had been educated at mission schools or were employed by Germans, Americans or Spaniards. Those natives who are above 25 years of age and were educated at mission schools or were employed by foreigners, speak more or less one or other of the three languages above mentioned. Among such natives, there are more Kanakas than Chamorros, as the former are more numerous, but in the point of ratio to their number Chamorros probably rank above Kanakas.

Manners and Customs.—As all the islands lie within the torrid zone, the natives have little need of clothes. Originally they used to go naked and bare-footed, both men and women wearing only a loin cloth. After frequently coming in contact with foreigners, however, many of them began to wear some kind of clothes. At present men mostly have their

hair cut short and their faces shaved, and wear shirts and trousers, some even full suits, while women are generally dressed in a garment resembling the night-gown worn by European women.

As the islands lie scattered over great distances, the manners in one island are naturally different from those of another, so that no generalization can be made in this respect. But in Saipan Island and the Marshall Group, which were the earliest to come in contact with civilization, the natives imitate Europeans and wear hats and shoes, and look smart like civilized people at least in appearance. In regard to dress, things get gradually worse as one goes from the middle part of Ponape to Truk, Yap and Palau. Especially is the condition unsatisfactory in Yap, the natives of which still wear no clothes. A curious sight to be seen there is the waist-cloth worn by women. It is made of the fibres of trees or of grass and the wearer makes a rustling sound as she walks.

Ornaments.—Having little need of clothes, the natives have not been accustomed to wear ornaments. Nevertheless, they have more or less sense of beauty, and both men and women adorn themselves with something or other, each island having its own custom in this respect. The most common of decorative devices resorted to is tattooing. Simple patterns or letters of the Roman alphabet are tattooed on the limbs or on the breast, and some natives are tattooed all over their hands and feet, it being their pride to have their skin marked as extensively as possible with complicated patterns. Another way of ornamenting the body is to make scars on the arms, thighs or breast. This device is adopted for dual purposes of decoration and the expression of courage, and is most widely practised in Ponape.

In Truk Island, holes are bored through the ear-lobes and gradually enlarged, and rings made of shells or wood are suspended from them. Ear-rings and armlets are also used by natives for decorative purposes.

The above-mentioned customs are practised both by men and women, but are generally confined to people above middle age, and thanks to the spread of education, they are disappearing among the rising generation.

Diet.—The natives live chiefly on wild fruits and vegetables, occasionally taking fish and meat. Relying on nature's bounty, practically none engages in labour for the purpose of obtaining food. A few people sow seeds, but leave them entirely unattended. When the harvest comes, however, they gather more than they

can consume, a state of affairs entirely due to the abundance of Nature's favour. The staple food of the natives is breadfruits, taro potatoes, yam potatoes, and palm fruits, and besides, "hoe" and tapioca are consumed as subsidiary food. Breadfruits and potatoes are most plentifully obtained. Breadfruits, which ripen between May and November, are as large as the head of a child, and when roasted or boiled taste like bread. One is enough for two meals. Yam potatoes grow in mountainous districts and taro potatoes in low-lying land. Both are very large in size. Yams are particularly so, specimens measuring 3 feet by one foot being found. Unripen palm fruits yield juice, which makes a good drink. Ripe palm fruits contain fatty flesh, which is white in colour and has very agreeable flavour. "Hoe" is consumed in Yap, and tapioca in Palau. The former is a large-sized chestnut and the latter is a sort of starch. Both are favourite foodstuffs of the natives. Bananas, pine-apples, mangoes, papayas, lemons and oranges are obtainable everywhere and in large quantities, but are only taken as a relish. Fish are rich in kind and quantity but the method of fishing being very primitive, the catches taken by natives do not amount to much.

The supply of meat is fairly abundant as oxen, pigs, and chickens are kept everywhere. Intoxicating liquors and tobacco are coveted by the natives, but under the restrictions placed on the consumption of the former by the terms of the Mandate, the natives are not permitted to drink them except on ceremonial occasions and for medical purposes. In certain localities, some natives abstain from drinking and smoking for religious reasons.

The habit of chewing the betel-nut is widespread both in Yap and Palau, nearly all the people being addicted to it, without discrimination between men and women. Many boys and girls contract the habit at an early age.

In Ponape Island, a custom has been prevalent from early times to drink the juice extracted from a perennial herb called Shakao or Sakao by pounding its roots. This drink is taken only on such occasions as marriages, funerals, the construction of new houses, the first use of fishing nets, the repairing of roads and the clearing of the undergrowth in palm forests, when people assemble and take meals together, but it is seldom indulged in at private homes. It causes a slight excitement to the drinker and gradually makes him sleepy. The natives call it Kawakawa or Kawa wine. It is not a kind of alcoholic beverage, and contains no alkaloid similar to that found in mor-

phine or cocaine. But inasmuch as it causes such effect, and if it is abused too often it may make the drinker indolent, its consumption is permitted, following the precedent established under the German regime, only when there is good justification and when it is not indulged in more than once a week.

Dwelling Houses.—The native houses are very simple in construction and poor in appearance. As the stage of civilization attained in various Islands there is naturally a difference in the building material and in the style of construction among them. The Chamorros in Saipan, who were the earliest to come to contact with civilization, are comparatively advanced in architecture. The houses in Garapan street inhabited by them are mostly built of wood, and stand adjoining each other with stone buildings between them, so that the street has quite a European appearance. The houses in Yap are low and gloomy, giving an impression of primitiveness. Some have foundations made of stone and built of large timber, but in construction they are not much advanced beyond temporary sheds, with a sharp-pitched roof and a few windows and doors, while inside they are damp, gloomy and dark even during the daytime. In Palau, nearly all the houses have floors and are toler-

ably well provided with windows and doors. In Ponape the situation is roughly the same as in Palau, but in Truk and Jaluit the houses are very bad having no floors and are no better than temporary sheds. Occasionally, however, houses of European style are found. They belong to wealthy men or to those who have come under European influence.

Throughout the island there are buildings which go by the name of "all men houses." These are used on the occasion of meetings of villagers or for lodging visitors from other villages. Each village has one or two such houses, and a community of several villages another. All have been built by co-operation and are used for the common benefit. It is said that they are relics of by-gone fighting ages. Those in Yap are famous for their extraordinary size. In the same island, houses exclusively for women are to be found, each village having one or two of them. They are occupied by women during their monthly sickness and no man is allowed access to them. This custom is peculiar to Yap.

In 1925 the Government commissioned Mr. S. Matsuoka to study the manners and customs of the islanders. His work was published in 1927 under the title "On the Micronesian Race."

ADMINISTRATION

In December, 1914, the South Seas Defence Corps was set up to garrison and administer the South Sea Islands. The regulations for the defence corps were revised in July, 1918, and a Civil Administration Department was established which was put under the direction of the Commander of the Defence Corps to take charge of the administration, while the Corps was charged with local defence.

On the adoption by the Council of the League of Nations on December 17, 1920, of the terms of the Mandate for the German possessions in the Pacific Ocean lying north of the Equator, the Japanese Government steadily pushed on preparations for carrying out the duties entrusted to it and after 1921 gradually withdrew the garrisons stationed in the Islands. On April 1, 1922, the Government abolished the system of the South Seas Defence Corps and effected the withdrawal of the garrison, and at the same time created the South Seas Office to carry on the administration of the territory in place of the defence corps.

The South Seas Office has its headquarters in Korrer, one of the Palau Islands in the West Caroline Group. The Director of the Office or

Governor of the South Sea Islands under the direction and superintendence of the Minister of Overseas Affairs, manages the various administrative affairs of the mandated territory. With regard, however, to matters relating to post and telegraph he is under the superintendence of the Minister of Communications; in matters of currency, banking and customs duties, of the Minister of Finance, and in regard to weights and measures, of the Minister of Commerce & Industry.

The Director (Governor) is entrusted with the management of the general administrative affairs of the Islands and the issue of necessary regulations with penal clauses imposing penal servitude, imprisonment or detention for a period not exceeding one year, or fines or minor fines not exceeding 200 yen in amount. In cases of emergency and the purpose of maintaining peace and order he may issue regulations with penal clauses heavier than those above mentioned. In such cases, however, he has to ask for Imperial sanction through the Minister of Overseas Affairs immediately after the issue of the regulations, and, if Imperial sanction is not obtained he has to proclaim their

invalidity for the future.

Legally, the Director (Governor) is thus authorized to issue regulations concerning matters for the management of the administrative affairs of the mandate territory. In practice, however, all important matters are decided by Imperial Ordinances.

If and when it is necessary, in the judgment of the Director, for the preservation of peace and order in the territory under his jurisdiction, he may request the commander of a naval port or the senior officer in command of the naval forces in the neighbourhood to employ naval force.

The Director may also cancel or suspend rules and instructions issued or measures taken by officials under his jurisdiction, if he considers such to be at variance with laws and regulations, to be injurious to the public welfare or to exceed the competence of the said officials.

THE SOUTH SEAS OFFICE

The South Seas Office contains the Director's secretariat and five sections, namely, the General Section, the Financial Section, the Police Section, the Economic Development Section and the Communication Section. The Director's secretariat is in charge principally of confidential matters; the General Section, of affairs relating to local administration and public works; the Police Section, of those relating to police, hygiene and prisons; the Financial Section, of those relating to budgets and accounts; the Economic Development Section, of those relating to industry; the Communications Section, of those relating to post, telegraph, shipping and nautical marks.

Besides these six sections, there are the Saipan Harbour Works Office and the Products Museum, respectively entrusted with the construction works at the harbour of Saipan and the exhibition of products of the territory.

LOCAL ADMINISTRATION

Until the Regulations for the South Seas Islands Defence Corps were revised in July, 1918, the Islands were divided into six districts,

and the commander of the garrison in each district, assisted by a civil secretary, dealt with civil administrative affairs in that district. But after the Regulations were revised, a civil administration office was established in each of the above mentioned six districts, and civil officials were appointed to take charge of local administrative and judicial affairs. The head of such an office was empowered either ex-officio or by special authorization to issue regulations with penal clause imposing detention or fines.

On the establishment of the South Seas Office in April, 1922, the civil administration offices were abolished, and six branch bureaus were established in their place, the sphere of their jurisdiction being the same as that of their predecessors. A branch bureau is an ordinary local administrative organ having charge of all affairs relating to census, registration, charity and relief, police, prison, hygiene, collection of taxes, education, religion, industry, civil engineering works, harbours, and other matters which do not come under the competence of any specially established office.

A branch bureau has a head, who, under the direction and superintendence of the Governor or Director of the South Seas Office puts into effect laws and regulations and manages administrative affairs in the district under his jurisdiction.

With regard to administrative affairs in the district under his jurisdiction, the head of a branch bureau is empowered ex-officio or by special authorization to issue rules. He is not authorized, however, to attach thereto any penal clauses. In case the Director of the South Seas Office finds such rules to be at variance with existing laws and regulations, or injurious to public welfare, or to exceed the competence of the authority, he may cancel or suspend them.

The head of a branch bureau is authorized to arbitrate in civil disputes and to pass summary judgment with regard to certain offences. In respect of the detection of offenders, as a judicial police officer, he has the same power as the public procurator of a local court.

The names, sites and sphere of jurisdiction of the branch bureau are as follows:—

Table 4. Names, Sites and Sphere of Jurisdiction of Branch Bureaus

Name	Site	Sphere of Jurisdiction
Saipan Branch Bureau	Saipan Island of Mariana Group.	Whole of Mariana Group.
Yap Branch Bureau	Yap Island of West Caroline Group.	West Caroline Group (east of 137° E. L.)
Palau Branch Bureau	Korrer Island of the Palau Islands of West Caroline Group.	West Caroline Group (west of 137° E. L.)

Name	Site	Sphere of Jurisdiction
Truk Branch Bureau	Summer Island of Truk Islands in the East Caroline Group.	East Caroline Group (west of 154° E. L.)
Ponape Branch Bureau	Ponape Island of East Caroline Group.	East Caroline Group (east of 154° E. L.) and Marshall Group (west of 164° E. L.)
Jaluit Branch Bureau	Jaluit Island of Marshall Group.	Marshall Group (east of 164° E. L.)

Village Officials

In order to admit the appointment of natives as village officials and enable them to participate in the local administration, the offices of village chiefs and assistant village chiefs have been instituted in the district under the jurisdiction of each branch bureau. Those village officials are appointed and dismissed by the head of the branch bureau with the sanction of the Director of the South Seas Office. In conformity with old usage, assistant village chiefs assist village chiefs in the discharge of their duties or may carry out some portion of them.

The sphere of jurisdiction of a native official is determined in accordance with usage, but it may be changed by the head of a branch bureau after inviting and considering the opinions of interested officials and obtaining the approval of the Director of the South Seas Office.

A village chief or an assistant village chief shall, under the direction of the head of the branch bureau, execute his functions defined by laws, regulations and local conventions, and at the same time shall execute the following activities which concern native inhabitants.

- (1) Bringing laws and regulations to the notice of villagers.
- (2) Forwarding to the authorities of applications, reports, etc. sent in by villagers.
- (3) Transmission to villagers and the due execution of instructions issued by the head of the branch bureau.

In addition to the above-mentioned matters, a village chief or an assistant village chief is required to make a report at least twice a year to the head of the branch bureau or to the proper police officer concerning the conditions, changes in population, etc., of the village under his jurisdiction. In case epidemics break out, natural calamities happen, injurious insects appear, or any other important occurrences take place, he must immediately report it to the authorities.

A village chief may submit to the head of the competent branch bureau his opinion concerning the administration of the village under his jurisdiction.

A village chief is accorded a monthly allowance not exceeding 35 yen in amount and an assistant village chief an allowance not exceeding 20 yen in amount.

POPULATION

The total number of population as shown in the census returns taken on October 1, 1930, stood at 69,626 against 59,294 in 1925 and 52,222 in 1920. The largest percentage of Japanese inhabitants, i.e. 12,587 souls out of the total of 19,835, is in Saipan Island where they are engaged in sugar cane cultivation or sugar manufacture conducted by the Nanyo Kohatsu

(South Sea Exploitation Co.) which is doing an extensive business in the line. Of the total native inhabitants, about 92% are represented by Kanaka tribesmen, the rest being Chamorros. Below are given the results of the quinquennial census taken in 1925, and 1930 (simultaneously with Japan Proper) and the annual census taken in 1932, 1933 and 1934:—

Table 5. Inhabitants Classified By Islands

	Japanese		Natives		Foreigners		Total		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Saipan.....	1925.....	3,587	1,712	1,772	1,721	8	—	5,367	3,433
	1930.....	9,537	6,119	1,945	1,884	7	4	11,489	8,007
	1932.....	12,033	7,828	2,110	1,970	9	4	14,152	9,802
	1933.....	14,357	9,340	2,190	1,993	7	8	16,554	11,341
	1934.....	15,504	11,199	2,255	2,057	7	7	17,766	13,263
Yap.....	1925.....	95	61	3,515	3,851	12	1	3,623	3,912
	1930.....	149	92	3,146	3,340	4	4	3,299	3,436
	1932.....	165	101	3,071	3,250	5	4	3,241	3,355
	1933.....	228	132	3,131	3,224	6	4	3,365	3,360
	1934.....	276	143	3,024	3,133	7	4	3,307	3,280

(Continued)	Japanese		Natives		Foreigners		Total		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Palau.....	1925.....	208	346	3,315	2,642	19	—	4,042	2,088
	1930.....	1,266	812	3,805	2,704	13	1	4,584	3,517
	1932.....	2,009	994	3,293	2,738	12	1	5,314	3,733
	1933.....	2,307	1,350	3,295	2,775	14	2	5,616	4,127
Truk.....	1925.....	2,881	1,661	3,310	2,763	14	3	6,205	4,427
	1930.....	233	114	7,510	7,460	9	—	7,743	7,574
	1932.....	540	209	7,690	7,510	16	7	8,246	7,726
	1933.....	717	321	7,925	7,487	17	7	8,659	7,812
Ponape.....	1934.....	736	370	7,754	7,460	19	7	8,509	7,837
	1925.....	908	502	7,696	7,558	18	7	8,622	8,067
	1930.....	271	86	4,014	3,585	10	2	4,295	3,673
	1932.....	450	239	4,343	3,858	13	7	4,806	4,104
Jaluit.....	1933.....	757	384	4,383	3,951	13	11	5,153	4,346
	1934.....	886	531	4,430	3,994	12	11	5,328	4,536
	1925.....	1,145	670	4,494	4,013	11	12	5,650	4,695
	1930.....	180	37	4,846	4,576	4	1	5,030	4,614
Total.....	1932.....	320	102	5,167	4,803	18	2	5,505	4,907
	1933.....	322	135	5,100	4,770	12	3	5,434	4,908
	1934.....	287	146	5,086	4,782	10	—	5,383	4,928
	1925.....	292	147	5,091	4,780	12	1	5,395	4,928
Total.....	1925.....	5,074	2,356	24,964	23,834	62	4	30,100	26,194
	1930.....	12,262	7,573	25,596	24,099	71	25	37,929	31,697
	1932.....	16,003	9,763	25,882	34,163	68	30	41,953	33,956
	1933.....	18,801	11,869	25,886	24,201	68	32	44,755	36,129
1934.....	21,006	14,322	25,870	24,304	69	34	46,945	36,660	

N.B.—Figures for 1932, 1933 and 1934 are for the 1st of April.

As may be noted from the above table, the total population of the islands on April 1, 1934 was 85,605. Of this number, 50,174 were represented by the natives, 35,328 by Japanese and 103 by foreigners. Of the 50,174 natives, as many as 46,475 are Kanaka tribesmen and only 3,699 Chamorros. Although thus the number of the latter are quite limited, they show a very high rate of growth. The former are very moderate in expansion. They may be said to be only holding their own throughout the whole islands. Those in the islands under the jurisdiction of the Yap Branch Bureau are even decreasing yearly.

As for the Japanese residents, they were only scores in number at the time of the occupation of the islands by Japan in 1914. The number gradually increased until it reached 35,328 on the 1st of April, 1934, as stated above. They consisted of 21,006 males and 14,322 females. Most of them are in the islands under the jurisdiction of the Saipan Branch Bureau and mostly engaged in agricultural pursuits.

As for foreigner residents, the greater part of them are missionaries. Classified by nationality, the 103 foreigners resident on the 1st of April, 1934 consisted of 2 Britons, 6 Americans, 1 French, 18 Germans, 39 Spaniards, 8 Russians, 8 Belgians, 2 Australians, 15 Chinese, 1 Columbian, 3 Swedish.

The number of population and households, and density of population per square kilometer as on the 1st of April 1934, are tabulated as follow:—

Table 6. Statistics of Population

Branch bureau	Population	Area sq. kms.	Density per square km.	No. of households
Saipan ...	31,029	639	48.6	7,249
Yap	6,587	226	29.1	1,858
Palau	10,632	478	22.2	2,923
Truk	16,689	132	126.4	3,338
Ponape ...	10,345	504	20.5	2,000
Jaluit	10,323	170	60.7	1,981
Total ...	85,605	2,149	39.8	19,349

The number of births, deaths, and the death rate to 100 births for the last five years ended 1933 are returned as follow:—

Table 7. Movement of Population

Year	Total			Japanese & Foreigners			Natives		
	Births	Deaths	Rate	Births	Deaths	Rate	Births	Deaths	Rate
1929.....	846	448	53.0	675	294	43.6	171	154	90.1
1930.....	981	273	27.8	818	198	24.2	163	75	46.0
1931.....	1,178	434	36.8	1,001	309	30.8	177	125	70.6
1932.....	1,362	337	24.7	1,214	243	20.0	148	94	63.5
1933.....	1,569	468	29.8	1,411	368	26.1	158	100	63.3

(Continued)	Year	Total			Japanese & Foreigners			Natives		
		Births	Deaths	Rate	Births	Deaths	Rate	Births	Deaths	Rate
Yap	1929.....	103	209	202.9	8	2	25.0	95	207	217.9
	1930.....	150	227	151.3	16	1	6.3	134	226	168.7
	1931.....	119	201	168.9	9	3	33.3	110	198	180.0
	1932.....	141	214	151.7	11	3	27.3	130	211	162.3
	1933.....	131	267	203.8	10	1	10.0	121	266	219.8
Palau	1929.....	240	134	55.8	68	20	29.4	172	114	66.3
	1930.....	249	128	51.6	94	27	28.7	154	101	65.5
	1931.....	278	166	59.7	97	45	46.4	181	121	66.9
	1932.....	242	126	52.1	95	28	29.5	147	98	66.7
	1933.....	320	250	64.1	148	58	39.2	172	147	85.0
Truk	1929.....	374	577	138.8	17	17	100.0	357	560	136.5
	1930.....	562	335	59.6	15	6	40.0	547	329	60.1
	1931.....	358	332	92.5	42	17	40.5	316	315	99.7
	1932.....	411	363	88.3	38	11	28.9	373	352	94.4
	1933.....	676	753	111.4	60	18	30.0	616	735	119.3
Ponape	1929.....	209	238	113.9	14	9	64.3	195	229	117.4
	1930.....	296	109	36.8	37	6	16.2	259	103	39.8
	1931.....	279	140	50.2	24	8	33.3	255	232	51.8
	1932.....	299	145	48.5	58	16	27.6	241	129	53.5
	1933.....	320	221	69.1	71	24	33.8	249	197	79.1
Jaluit	1929.....	162	128	79.0	11	4	36.4	151	124	82.1
	1930.....	269	121	45.0	16	4	18.8	253	118	46.6
	1931.....	204	177	86.8	14	4	28.6	190	175	91.1
	1932.....	167	317	189.8	16	6	37.5	151	311	206.0
	1933.....	263	199	75.7	17	7	41.2	246	192	78.0
Total	1929.....	1,934	1,734	89.7	793	346	43.6	1,141	1,388	121.6
	1930.....	2,506	1,193	47.6	996	241	24.2	1,510	952	63.0
	1931.....	2,416	1,450	60.0	1,187	386	32.5	1,229	1,064	86.6
	1932.....	2,622	1,502	57.3	1,432	307	21.4	1,190	1,194	100.4
	1933.....	3,279	2,113	64.4	1,717	476	27.7	1,562	1,637	104.8

FINANCE

The Budget estimates for the South Seas Office, like the general budget of the Japanese Government, must annually obtain the approval of the Imperial Diet as required by the Constitution. The Financial Law of Japan as well as the special financial law for the South Seas Office applies to the estimates (revenue and expenditure).

The accounts of the South Seas Office are independent of the general account of the Japanese Government, and are dealt with as special accounts. The expenditure of the South Seas

Office is met from the revenue collected by the Office plus a subsidy from the general accounts of the Japanese Government. The Government should draw up estimates of the revenue and expenditure under the special accounts of the South Seas Office and submit them to the Imperial Diet together with the general budget of its revenue and expenditure.

The revenue and expenditure for the nine years from 1926-27 to 1934-35 inclusive are shown below (in yen):—

Table 8. Revenue and Expenditure

Year	Revenue			Expenditure		
	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
1929-30.....	2,839,480	4,606,636	7,446,116	2,410,638	2,091,361	4,501,999
1930-31.....	3,402,321	3,965,091	7,367,412	2,364,381	2,294,463	4,658,845
1931-32.....	4,699,059	2,999,531	7,698,590	2,432,547	2,143,889	4,576,436
1932-33.....	4,819,300	3,134,687	7,953,987	2,500,544	2,233,199	4,733,743
1933-34.....	5,011,282	3,237,488	8,248,769	2,755,171	2,527,324	5,282,495
*1934-35.....	5,349,613	286,062	5,635,675	2,978,016	2,657,659	5,635,675
*1935-36.....	5,827,266	150,430	5,977,696	3,156,214	2,821,482	5,977,696

* Budget accounts.

(Continued)	(a) Revenue				
	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34
Poll tax	93,273	87,874	95,509	81,722	78,705
Port clearance dues	891,825	1,761,691	3,074,433	3,090,000	3,037,228
Customs duties	80,379	24,288	18,918	40,428	36,179
Mining tax			143	143	143
Total	1,065,577	1,873,853	3,189,004	3,212,294	3,152,255
Revenues other than taxes:					
Income from Government undertakings and property	1,751,065	1,493,595	1,475,581	1,573,048	1,756,786
Stamp receipts	15,987	19,410	15,126	14,602	26,565
Miscellaneous receipts	6,848	15,460	19,346	19,353	75,675
Sales of Government property	11,864	20,974	18,504	12,533	17,244
Subsidies	1,500,000	1,000,000	272,459		
Surplus brought over from previous year	3,094,771	2,944,117	2,708,567	3,122,153	3,237,488
Total	6,380,538	5,493,559	4,509,585	4,741,692	5,096,514

(b) Expenditure

Ordinary:	1932-33	1933-34
	(Settled)	(Settled)
Salaries	¥ 788,147	¥ 836,757
Office expenses	936,709	1,085,234
Expenses for improvement	646,879	702,815
Education	54,375	61,727
Sanitation	18,314	7,271
Police and prison	8,239	10,285
Other expenses	23,052	27,641
National debt sinking fund & share in pensions	24,828	23,442
Reserves		
Total	2,500,544	2,755,171
Extraordinary:	1932-33	1933-34
	(Settled)	(Settled)
Public and Repair works	¥ 554,645	¥ 707,604
Improvement of Saipan harbour	62,849	
Construction of passage for Steam-launches in Palau ..	32,800	34,423
Industry	146,285	182,664
Encouragement & subsidy	1,347,890	1,185,401
Land surveying	42,923	44,482
Investigation expenses for harbour construction	45,805	
Total incl. others	2,233,199	2,527,324
Total expenditure	4,733,743	5,282,495

RELIGION

In the mandated territory the propagation of and belief in any religion is entirely free, and no restriction whatever is placed thereon, no matter whether the persons concerned are Japanese, foreigners or natives, as long as it does not prejudice the public peace or good morals. As a matter of fact, since the inauguration of the mandatory administration no instance of any prohibition or restriction on account of prejudice to the public peace or good morals has occurred in the territory.

During the Spanish and German regimes, owing to the zealous evangelistic work carried on by Christian missionaries, many natives embraced Christianity, with the result that it is no exaggeration to say that to-day the religion of the natives is exclusively Christianity. The effects of the propagation of Christianity are

so remarkable that the fact of the islanders being generally genial in disposition is said to be due chiefly to Christian influence. The East Hongwanji of Kyoto established a mission station in Saipan in 1919 and another in Palau in 1926 for the benefit of Japanese believers. Then Tenri-kyo, a denomination of Shinto, established a church at Palau and commenced the propagation of its creed in 1929. At the end of April, 1934, churches numbered 32 (composed of Christianity 25, Buddhist 5, and Tenri-kyo 2), preaching stations 117, missionaries 42, believers 64,262 composed of 40,874 Christians, 23,263 Buddhists and 126 Shintoists (Tenri-kyo). In the same period Christian schools numbered 14, staff 34, pupils 1,584 including 721 males.

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1931-32.....	4,699,059	2,999,531	7,698,590	2,432,547	2,143,889	4,576,436
1932-33.....	4,819,300	3,134,687	7,953,987	2,500,544	2,233,199	4,733,743
1933-34.....	5,011,282	3,237,488	8,248,769	2,755,171	2,527,324	5,282,495
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(Continued)	(a) Revenue				
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Extraordinary:		
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EDUCATION

In December, 1915, the Regulations for Primary Schools in the South Sea Islands were promulgated and primary schools were established in Saipan and five other places, to commence the education of native children. In July, 1918, the Regulations for Native Schools in the South Sea Islands were enacted and the primary schools were thereafter re-named native schools. The teaching staff was also augmented in force and additional schools were established.

In April, 1919, the Regulations for Primary Schools in the South Sea Islands were enacted for the education of Japanese children, and primary schools were established in Saipan and Truk, and later in Palau, Yap and Ponape.

On the establishment of the South Seas Office, the Regulations for the Organization of the South Seas Primary Schools and the Regulations for the Organization of the South Seas Office Public Schools were promulgated, defining the organization and sphere of these schools. The native schools were thereby re-named public schools, and the regulations governing primary and public schools were revised.

Further, for the vocational education of natives the Apprentice Woodworkers Training School was established in April, 1926, attached to the Korrer Public School under the jurisdiction of the Palau Branch Office.

To this school are admitted boys from all districts selected from among those who have

completed the course of instruction at public schools and have gone through the supplementary course, and there they are given instruction in building and carpentry.

Primary Schools.—The primary school is principally intended for the primary education of Japanese children and is divided into two courses ordinary and higher. On the 30th of April, 1934 there were throughout the islands 17 primary schools, three of which were provided with higher courses. Teachers numbered 74 and pupils 3,936.

Public Schools.—At the same date or the end of April, 1934 there were 23 public schools with 81 teachers and 2,945 pupils. As a rule, children eligible to attend a public school are those of natives, who are above eight years of age. The institution gives primary education to native children, its fundamental object being the imparting of moral senses as well as of such knowledge and capacity as are indispensable to the advancement of the living of the native population, with due regard at the same time, to their physical development.

Private Educational Institutions.—The educational institutions established by private bodies were formerly confined to mission schools belonging to Christian churches. In 1927, however, two kindergartens and one private public school were established. At the end of April 1934 there existed seven private schools with 17 teachers and 337 pupils.

JUSTICE AND POLICE

Judicature

Simultaneously with the establishment of the South Seas Office in 1922, the Courts of Justice therefore forming part of the machinery of the Civil Administration Department were abolished, and Local Courts and a Higher Court were established in their place, judicial officials independent of the executive being appointed thereto to deal with civil and criminal cases. All judicial affairs in the mandated territory are to be dealt with at these courts, except in such a place where there is no courts of justice, and the head of the branch bureau is authorized to deal with certain civil cases and also to render summary judgment in criminal cases of comparatively minor gravity.

Courts of Justice.—The Courts of Justice are organized on a double instance system. A court of first instance is called Local Court, and a

single judge system is adopted in such courts. A court of second instance is called Higher Court, and a bench system is here adopted, three judges constituting the bench.

The Local Court gives decisions in the first instance in civil and criminal cases, besides dealing with non-contentious cases. It also has jurisdiction over judicial reconciliation, summary procedure, compulsory execution against immovable property and vessels, the procedure for public summons, bankruptcy proceedings, reconciliation proceedings, summary proceedings for taking up entrusted criminal cases, etc.

The Judge of a Local Court deals with the drawing up of notarial deeds, the authentication of private documents and other matters included in the functions of notary in Japan, and the clerks of a Local Court deal with the delivery of documents, notifications, summons, compulsory execution against movable property

and voluntary sales by auction of movable property, the drawing up of protests for non-acceptance, the collection of fines, the disposal of confiscated articles, the execution of warrants and other matters comprised in the functions of a bailiff in Japan.

The Higher Court reviews cases on appeal from the judgments of the Local Courts, the decisions given being in the second instance and final.

A Public Procurator's Office is attached to each of the Courts of Justice, its sphere of jurisdiction being the same as that of the Court to which it belongs.

The Public Procurator directs and superintends the judicial police in the detection of the offenders, bring judicial proceedings, before the Court of Justice and directs and superintends the execution of judgments rendered.

One Public Procurator in regular employment is appointed for all the Public Procurator's Offices and is stationed ordinarily in Palau Island. The function of the Public Procurator is entrusted to Police Inspectors at the Public Procurator's Office attached to the Local Courts at Ponape and at Saipan but grave cases are usually reserved for the direct action of the Public Procurator. The Public Procurator is the central organ of detective service, and Police Inspectors and Police Sergeants, who are

administrative police officers, assist the Public Procurator and engage in detective service under his direction in the capacity of judicial police officers. The head of a branch bureau and the Police Superintendent in the capacity of judicial police officers have the same competence as the Public Procurator in regard to detective service. The Local Courts are established in three places, namely Palau, Saipan and Ponape, and the Higher Court in Palau.

In 1933 the number of criminal cases tried at the courts of justice numbered 277, persons found guilty numbered 533 including 263 Japanese.

POLICE

After the complete withdrawal of the naval forces from the Islands in April, 1922, the maintenance of peace and order in the territory was placed exclusively in the hands of the police.

This necessitated an augmentation of the police force. Accordingly, for the management of affairs concerning police, sanitation and the execution of sentences, a police superintendent, police inspectors, police sergeants and policemen have been appointed to the South Seas Office, and police inspectors, police sergeants, policemen and native policemen to each branch bureau. The number of police offices including branches and the personnel of the police at the end of August 1934 were as follow:—

Table 9. Number of Police Offices and of Police

	No. of police offices incl. branches	Police superintendents	Police inspectors	Police sergeants	Chief policemen	Police-men	Native policemen
South Seas Office	—	1	2	3	3	3	—
Saipan Branch Bureau	11	—	2	3	4	34	12
Yap " "	3	—	1	—	1	6	6
Palau " "	6	—	1	1	2	13	10
Truk " "	5	—	1	—	1	7	7
Ponape " "	5	—	1	—	2	9	8
Jaluit " "	3	—	2	—	1	4	6
Total	33	1	10	7	14	76	49

AGRICULTURE

Agricultural industry carried on by natives is in a very primitive state. They have no system of cultivation, growing extensively only a few crops such as tapica, taro potatoes and yam potatoes by rotation. Though the most part of the best situated and really fertile tracts of land belong to natives, the greater portion of such land still remains undeveloped. If they were more enlightened in agricultural knowledge and taught advanced methods of cultivation, their prosperity would be remarkably advanced. With this in view, since the Islands

came under Japanese administration, the authorities have been endeavouring in various ways to instruct and lead them in this respect, but their efforts so far have been rewarded with lamentably poor success. This is due to the bounty of nature, which frees them from the necessity of making any great efforts to idea prevailing among them that farming is work for women, which makes them indolent and indifferent towards agriculture. At the end of December, 1933, the total area under cultivation approximated 48,190 hectares of which

1,390 hectares are paddy, 13,600 hectares up- number of farming households and of population land, 33,200 cocoa plantations. The area, the at the end of December, 1933 as follow:—

Table 10. Area under Cultivation

Branch bureau	Paddy (Hectares)	Upland (Hectares)	Total (Hectares)
Saipan	0.99	11,595.70	11,596.69
Yap	937.44	575.22	1,512.66
Palau	229.24	328.09	557.33
Truk	118.60	216.29	334.89
Ponape	100.62	565.07	665.69
Jaluit	1.98	332.57	334.55
Total	1,388.87	13,612.94	15,001.81
Total for 1932	1,250.68	12,460.98	13,385.92

Table 11. Number of Farming Households and Population

	No. of farming households	Farming population			
		Male	Female	Total	
Saipan	Japanese	2,866	3,913	2,093	6,006
	Natives	549	1,452	400	1,852
Yap	Japanese	46	46	13	59
	Natives	2,163	1,654	1,109	2,763
Palau	Japanese	88	137	75	212
	Natives	712	1,999	1,664	3,663
Truk	Japanese	2	4	2	6
	Natives	2,522	4,624	3,395	8,019
Ponape	Japanese	73	79	—	79
	Natives	269	534	1	535
Jaluit	Japanese	—	—	—	—
	Natives	1,685	2,524	1,176	3,700
Total	Japanese	3,075	4,179	2,183	6,362
	Natives	7,900	12,787	7,745	20,532
Total for 1932 ...	Japanese	2,156	5,572	3,158	8,730
	Natives	8,526	13,018	7,235	20,253

Principal production for 1932-33 and 1933-34 was as follows:—

Table 12. Principal Farm Products

	1932-33		1933-34	
	Kilograms	Yen	Kilograms	Yen
Maize	133,024	12,622	100,471	10,874
Beans and pease	27,715	4,263	28,809	4,242
Sweet potato	1,568,136	62,419	1,492,189	70,875
Yam potato	1,214,859	76,309	1,933,036	132,036
Taro	1,218,816	91,189	1,171,627	54,676
Tapioca	2,537,385	123,730	4,437,563	155,793
Water melon	431,327	30,159	332,667	47,993
Pumpkin	2,146,690	30,742	2,563,326	52,158
Sugar cane	402,301,170	1,426,427	411,686,070	1,451,519
Banana	1,961,201	97,789	2,234,747	121,197
Coffee	198,300	13,088	2,927,619	199,093
Total incl. others	—	2,818,078	—	3,290,380

Sugar.—At present the sugar industry is carried on in Saipan and Tinian, and the cultivation of sugar cane is mostly confined to those two islands, the production of the other islands

being small and almost entirely consumed locally. The total area of sugar plantation in 1919-20 was 459.00 cho, but it was increased to 5,967,000.00 cho in 1933-34.

Table 13. Area Under Sugar Cane and Production

Year	Total area (Cho)	Production (Kin)	Year	Total area (Cho)	Production (Kin)
1919-20	459.00	755,599	1930-31	6,144.49	64,278,900
1922-23	1,676.50	2,131,100	1931-32	6,641.89	69,557,200
1925-26	2,756.96	15,267,600	1932-33	6,192.00	72,980,800
1928-29	3,317.13	16,423,400	1933-34	5,967.00	75,030,200
1929-30	4,590.33	34,590,700			

Coffee.—Coffee suits the climate and soil of the Islands and it has long been grown there. But the production was not large in quantity and was chiefly consumed at home. Recently many Japanese have started its cultivation in

Saipan with a good prospect of making a fair profit if the work be afforded encouragement. Accordingly the Government since 1927, has made grants-in-aid to cultivators of coffee.

FORESTRY

As the Islands are small in area, there are no forestry enterprises systematically undertaken, and no regulations have as yet been enacted concerning forestry, which is carried on in conformity with usage.

Timber trees in the Islands are *sonneratia acida*, *calophyllum inophyllum*, *terminalia catappa*, *Pterocarpus indicus*, *intsia bijuga*, *serianthes grandiflora*, *kurogaki* and *elacocarpus* sq.

As regards fruit trees, *artocarpus incisa*, *cocos nucifera*, *cocoa edulis*, *anona muricata*, *pangium edule* and *mangifera indica* may be mentioned, while fibre-yielding trees are *pandanus* sq., co-

cos nucifera, *artocarpus incisa* and *hibiscus tibiaceus*. Except *cocos nucifera*, however, these trees are not found in such large numbers as to merit special mention.

Coco-nut palms have been planted throughout the Islands for many years. They grow very well and the copra obtained from them is not only the chief forest product and one of the most important articles of export, but constitutes an indispensable item of the daily diet of the natives. The area of palm forests and the production of copra obtained from them in 1933-34 are tabulated as follows, classified according to branch bureau:—

Table 14. Area Under Palm and Copra Production

Branch bureau	Area under palm trees (Hectare)	Production of coco-nuts (Pieces)	Production of copra	
			(Ton)	(Yen)
Saipan	4,635	3,546,413	480	56,599
Yap	3,355	6,645,452	660	59,097
Palau	1,605	3,319,300	392	27,518
Truk	4,398	17,475,997	1,998	217,827
Ponape	7,363	34,628,610	2,477	187,733
Jaluit	11,820	56,631,300	4,715	309,906
Total	33,176	122,247,072	10,722	858,680
Total for 1932	31,383	120,683,312	10,063	706,312

The production of timber, fagots and charcoal in 1933-34 are as follow:—

Table 15. Production of Timber, Fagot and Charcoal (In yen)

	Saipan	Yap	Palau	Turk	Ponape	Jaluit	Total
Timber	4,894	5,583	734	895	1,891	1,195	15,192
Fagots	5,563	282	316	387	247	4,688	11,483
Charcoal	15,269	333	9,399	8,500	2,116	4,319	39,936
Total incl. others	25,839	7,092	10,479	53,129	4,392	10,202	111,133
Total for 1932	139,959	1,009	11,831	4,681	2,290	21,834	181,554

FISHERY

The noteworthy branches of fishery have hitherto been confined to the collection of sea-slugs, nilotic-top shells and tortoise shells, and in recent years bonito and tunny fishing has

been started. Some natives and Japanese catch other fish and collect other shells for their own consumption, but these are scarcely worth mentioning.

Nilotic-top shells are collected chiefly in Palau and Yap, and tortoise shells, chiefly in Palau, Yap, Truk and Ponape, but sea slugs are collected in every island. The fishing of bonito and tunny is carried on in the seas of Palau, Saipan and Truk.

In Palau and Ponape, some have been carrying on the culture of the pearl oyster. In Ponape the enterprise has, however, ended in failure owing to a lack of technical skill, but in Palau the industry has made very satisfactory progress.

In 1916 the "Regulations for the Fishing Industry in the South Sea Island" were promulgated. In these regulations it is provided that as a rule persons desiring to engage in the industry shall obtain permission from the authorities, but fisheries recognized by local usage are allowed to continue without going through such a procedure. It is also provided, for the purpose of assuring the proper multiplication of nilotic-top shells, pearl oysters and tortoises, that they shall not be taken at other times

than the specified periods. With regard to the acquisition of the fishery rights, no discrimination is made between natives, Japanese and foreigners, any and all persons who have obtained permission being free to engage in that occupation. At present 63 fishing vessels with engines are engaged in fishery (17 in Saipan, 18 in Palau, 16 in Truk, 9 in Ponape and 3 in Jaluit).

The total value of catches of fish, shell-fish and others for 1933 was ¥1,790,372. Of this amount, ¥1,512,631 was accounted for by bonito, ¥59,681 by tunny, ¥75,176 by shell-fish, of which ¥73,090 was represented by nilotic-top shells. Manufactured marine products for the year under review were ¥1,747,595. The following figures show the value of catches and manufactured marine products in the last five years:—

Table 16. Value of Catches of Fish and Others and Manufactures

Year	Total catches (Yen)	Manufactured marine products (Yen)
1929.....	342,659	220,209
1930.....	510,768	484,547
1931.....	871,490	1,064,341
1932.....	1,266,866	981,634
1933.....	1,790,372	1,747,595

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

The natives lead very simple life and are generally self-supporting as regards articles of daily use and consequently they have as a rule little purchasing power. Besides, the Japanese in the Islands number in all only about 20,000. Moreover, as the Islands are scattered over a vast expanse of water, and communication between them is difficult, commerce and industry are still in a primitive stage. Nearly all the persons engaged in commerce are small shopkeepers selling foodstuffs and sundry goods and doing brokerage business in copra. The most

important industry is the manufacture of sugar and its by-products, i.e. alcohol and alcoholic drinks in Saipan. Recently a certain number of persons have started the manufacture of refreshing beverages and canned fruits, but the amount of production is still quite small. The only handicraft of the natives is weaving fabrics from the leaves of palm and breadfruit trees, there existing no other worth mentioning. The following table shows the value and quantity of the principal goods manufactured in the Islands in 1932 and 1933.

Table 17. Principal Manufactured Goods

Year	Sugar	Refreshing beverage	Alcoholic liquor	Alcohol	Total incl. others	
1931.....	Value (yen)	9,632,902	4,517	135,740	838,330	10,229,976
	Quantity (koku)	660,946*	93	1,966	6,766	
1932.....	Value (yen)	7,317,199	3,445	212,010	333,825	8,312,841
	Quantity (litres)	677,529*	18,237	516,208	1,204,374	
1933.....	Value (yen)	10,223,420	8,351	279,451	437,877	11,432,544
	Quantity (kgs.)	44,383,010	37,955†	716,587	1,671,944	

* In piculs † piculs.

MINING INDUSTRY

The principal mineral product obtainable in the Islands and worthy of mention is phosphate. Sulphur and manganese are also found but only

in small quantities, and are scarcely worth mentioning. The mining industry in the Islands is to be undertaken in accordance with the "South

Sea Islands Mining Regulations" promulgated in 1916. The Regulations provide that persons desiring to undertake mining enterprises are to apply for and obtain permission from the Director of the South Seas Office, and that any persons irrespective of nationality may obtain mining rights. A person intending to undertake mining operations may enter on land, the property of other persons, and make surveys or investigations thereof or make use of it after obtaining permission from the head of the competent branch bureau. In that case he must pay rent to the owner of the land and pay compensation for all damages sustained.

The head of the competent branch bureau may, with the permission of the Director of the South Seas Office, issue the necessary rule for the safeguarding of public welfare and deposits of minerals.

In case a miner is injured, fallen ill or killed while working, otherwise than by his own negligence, the person undertaking the mining operations is under the obligation to support him or his bereaved family. He is also under the obligation to pay a certain mining tax.

Phosphate is mostly found in Augaur Islands, which was formerly managed by a German company called the South Seas Phosphate Min-

ing Company, Ltd. but is now placed under the management of the South Seas Office. The annual production of the mine is estimated at 60,000 tons. The quantity of refined phosphate exported in the last six years is shown below:—

Table 18. Export of Refined Phosphate

Year	Quantity (Ton)	Value (Yen)
1929-30.....	64,459	1,414,875
1930-31.....	55,455	1,153,464
1931-32.....	59,251	1,125,759
1932-33.....	64,573	1,205,172
1933-34.....	65,442	1,308,840

The Products Museums

A new Products Museum was established in 1929 in Korrer Island in the Palau Group, which is also the site of the head office of the South Seas Office. In this museum are exhibited specimens of various products of the Islands and materials of geographical, historical and scientific value, collected from various places in the territory. The museum is also intended to function as an organ for finding markets for local products as well as for assisting in transactions in them, with a view to contributing to the industrial development of the Islands and the advancement of local culture.

FOREIGN TRADE

Trade carried on in the mandated territory may be classified as trade between the territory and Japan and dependencies and that between the territory and foreign countries. Most of the trade is conducted between the territory and Japan and dependencies.

Exports and imports between the Islands and Japan and dependencies are carried on at nine ports, namely, Saipan, Tinian, Yap, Palau, Augaur, Truk, Ponape, Kusaie and Jaluits.

No duties are imposed on such imports and exports, in principle, but as an exception there is the institution of port clearance dues. Trade with foreign countries is carried on at Saipan, Palau, Angaur, Truk and Taluits. No duties are imposed on exports, but customs duties are collected on imports.

Chief exports are phosphate, copra, sugar, and alcohol, their combined value constituting

9 per cent. of the total volume of exports. Nilotic-top shells and sea-slugs are gathered, as a rule, every other year out of regard for their replenishment, so that the value of those articles exported differs from year to year. Nearly all the exports go to Japan, the exports to foreign countries being very small quantities of miscellaneous articles going to Guam from Saipan and to the Gilbert Islands from Jaluit.

Chief imports are rice and other foodstuffs and drinks, cloth and articles made of cloth, wearing apparel and trinkets, articles made of metal, timber and articles made of wood, oil and wax and fat, and articles made thereof, minerals and manufactures thereof. The combined value of those articles constitutes about 75 per cent. of the total value of the imports. Below are given the data of staple articles of export and import in the last six years:—

Table 19. Staple Exports (in yen)

Items	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Vegetables and fruits	8,574	12,736	13,264	16,310	15,331
Sugar	3,250,107	6,784,853	9,237,201	9,605,252	12,913,101
Dried bonito	146,581	298,129	701,180	905,967	1,512,171

(Continued)

Items	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Alcoholic liquor	51,637	82,532	43,401	96,767	120,926
Nilotic-top shells	80,841	57,218	58,198	77,000	88,900
Alcohol	382,320	261,000	295,344	388,055	391,019
Phosphate	1,533,174	1,185,736	864,738	1,080,984	1,361,879
Copra	1,854,339	1,709,575	1,126,783	1,173,258	1,509,385
Total incl. others	7,638,069	10,690,002	12,800,217	13,898,188	18,739,675

Table 20. Staple Imports (in yen)

Items	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Rice and paddies	800,533	767,058	756,617	1,053,839	1,245,402
Sugar	76,977	56,619	59,790	53,945	60,346
Alcoholic liquor	226,091	237,146	256,827	310,910	413,610
Cigarettes	234,749	262,888	296,325	313,290	404,821
Oil, wax and manufactures thereof	298,087	299,673	377,553	496,010	646,894
Cloth and manufactures thereof	362,294	396,537	562,160	660,778	818,468
Copra	128,504	75,790	23,068	84,038	202,864
Wood and manufactures thereof	454,235	394,951	499,423	352,989	638,949
Total incl. others	7,122,479	5,718,925	5,958,766	6,588,177	8,989,740

COMMUNICATIONS

Postal Business.—As the post-offices are located in the islands scattered over a great expanse of water and are widely separated from one another, communications are entirely dependent on ships, and all mail matters are despatched and received when vessels on regular services call at the respective islands. The occasions on which postal matters are despatched and received in a year numbered 25 at the Saipan post-office, 13 at the Yap post-office, 18 at the Palau and Angaur post-offices, and 11 each at the Truk, Ponape and Jaluit post-offices. When casual vessels call, advantage is taken of it to make an extraordinary despatch, so as to secure early delivery. Among the foreign mails, those destined for the Dutch East Indies have been allotted an exchange office, viz., the Palau post-office and they are sent thence to the post-office at Menado in the Celebes by vessels regularly plying between the two places. Also on August 1, 1927, the Jaluit post-office was made an exchange office for the British Gilbert Islands, and the despatch was commenced of postal matters to the Btaritary post-office.

Telegraphic Business.—Telegrams and wireless telegrams in Japanese or European languages, destined to or coming from Japan proper or foreign countries, are dealt with, delivered, and transmitted.

Telegraphic communication is accomplished by means of submarine cables, one being the Yap-Nawa line and the other the Yap-Guam line. The former is used for sending and re-

ceiving telegrams to and from Japan proper and foreign countries, and the latter for telegrams to and from the United States and the Philippines.

There is a wireless installation at every post-office, and the business of the coast stations and the fixed stations is dealt with there. The wireless in Palau is in direct communication with Japan Proper, and, besides connecting the Islands with Japan Proper, controls the connections between the post-offices in the Islands. The wireless in Truk chiefly functions as an intermediary between Palau and the Islands in the east, and being in direct communication with Rabaul (Bismarck Group), deals with messages between the Islands and other places in the Southern Pacific. The wireless installations of other post-offices connect with each other.

Telephone Service.—In July, 1927, the "Rules for the Telephone Service in the South Sea Islands" were issued by the South Seas Office and subsequently the Palau post-office opened the service on September 1 of the same year and the Saipan post-office on July 21, 1928.

Postal Money Order and Savings Bank Business.—Postal Money Orders for Japan Proper and foreign countries and the deposit and payment of postal savings are dealt with. The method of handling these branches of postal business is the same as in Japan Proper. Statistics on above-mentioned businesses are tabulated as follow:—

Table 21. Mail Matters

	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	
Ordinary	Received	693,969	971,673	939,143	1,047,933	1,472,360
	Delivered	988,975	1,223,947	1,334,487	1,686,323	1,994,746
Parcel	Received	6,481	7,808	8,525	10,035	10,758
	Delivered	26,354	29,009	30,628	36,727	43,740
Total	Received	680,450	979,481	947,668	1,057,968	1,843,118
	Delivered	1,015,379	1,252,956	1,365,115	1,723,050	2,038,486

Table 22. No. of Telegrams Dealt with

	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	
Domestic	Despatched	82,301	87,704	108,365	126,029	171,307
	Transmitted	101,793	83,493	111,441	140,567	193,836
	Received	89,773	95,343	105,445	111,572	151,082
Foreign	Despatched	1,211	1,573	1,570	1,751	1,788
	Transmitted	767	465	619	642	1,156
	Received	351	351	447	446	463
Total number	276,396	368,929	327,887	381,007	519,632	
Total charges (yen)	46,654	50,557	61,621	60,470	80,859	

Table 23. Postal Money Orders and Savings Bank Business

Year	Postal Money Orders				Postal Savings		
	Domestic		Foreign		Amount of deposits (Yen)	Amount of refundment (Yen)	No. of depositors
	Issued (Yen)	Paid (Yen)	Issued (Yen)	Paid (Yen)			
1929-30	4,064,534	3,502,412	6,676	1,347	1,147,714	885,337	2,241
1930-31	4,201,040	3,533,871	4,661	1,143	1,305,129	1,044,107	2,787
1931-32	4,661,741	3,758,689	2,693	3,130	1,386,646	1,231,786	2,752
1932-33	4,718,201	4,060,611	5,708	6,584	1,506,641	1,310,751	3,160
1933-34	5,834,020	5,385,546	4,058	4,349	2,131,898	1,685,623	4,276

RAILWAYS

There is no railway in the Islands for the public. The only railways existing are a light railway, 11 miles in length, in Angaur, for the carriage of phosphate, and another, 67 miles in length, in Saipan constructed by the Nanyo Kohatsu Kaisha for the benefit of its sugar industry. Of the latter railway, the section between

Garapan and Charankanoa, about 4 miles, is open for traffic for the convenience of the public. Vehicles, classified according to kinds, are: automobiles 112, autobicycles 21, bicycles 4,318, wagons 172, carts 2,439 and others 3 the total being 7,065 at the end of December, 1934.

References: Tables 1-12 & 14-23—Nanyo Gunto Yoran (Outline of the Japanese Mandated Islands in the South Seas), 1934. Table 8—Okura-sho Nempo (Annual Report of the Dept. of Finance), 1934. Table 13—Researches of the South Seas Development Co.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

SIX PREMIER CITIES

THE CITY PLANNING LAW

The rapid expansion of cities and towns in recent years has been such that their complete reconstruction is considered to be necessary as they hardly meet the radically changed requirements of modern traffic, sanitation, etc. The City Planning Law, first adopted in 1919, provides for the organization of the Central and Provincial City Planning Committees to deliberate on all important measures for preserving and promoting, in and outside the city limits, matters of public welfare and benefit.

The expenditure involved is met either by the Government or by the communal bodies according as one or the other conducts the work. Private individuals materially benefited by the new plans and arrangements may be caused to bear the whole or part of the expenses within a certain limit. For raising the necessary fund, the municipality, with the approval of the Government, may levy upon its citizens special burdens not exceeding 12½% of land tax, 40% of prefectured taxes, etc. The law came into force in January, 1920, for the six premier cities of Tokyo, Kyoto, Osaka, Kobe, Nagoya and Yokohama, the same law being extended later to over forty smaller cities throughout the country including Sapporo, Otaru, Hakodate, Sakai, Amagasaki, Nagasaki, Niigata, Hiroshima, Okayama, Shimonoseki, etc., and is expected to do much for improving them as to street plan, sanitation, sewage systems, etc., in harmony with the City Building Law passed by the Imperial Diet in April, 1919.

It may be noted that in September, 1922, Dr.

Charles A. Beard, a noted American expert in municipal administration, arrived in Tokyo in response to the invitation of the Tokyo Municipal Research Board presided over by the then Mayor Viscount (afterward Count) Goto. Before he went home in March, 1923 he handed to the Mayor a report embodying the results of his six months' study of the important problem of Greater Tokyo. It has made a profound impression on the public.

Building Regulations.—The City Building Law came into operation on December 1, 1920, when the Rules for Operation were enforced. They specify the kind of buildings not allowable in the residential, industrial, or commercial quarters. A building in the residential quarters must not exceed, as a rule, 65 feet in height and in the other quarters 100 feet, though some allowance is made for those with spacious surroundings, such as a park, a road, etc.; in particular the height of a brick or stone building must not exceed 65 feet and that for a wooden one 50 feet.

Area and Population

Of the six premier cities, Tokyo now occupies the foremost place as to area and population in consequence of the expansion of the municipal district effected on October 1, 1932, as a preliminary to the realization of the Greater Tokyo plan. The following comparative table is based on the latest census taken on October 1, 1934:—

Table 1. Area and Population of Six Cities

	Population	Household	Pop. per household	Area (sq. kms.)	Pop. per (sq. kms.)
Tokyo	5,663,050	1,216,140	4.66	553.967	10,223
Osaka	2,722,700	602,600	4.52	187.280	14,538
Kyoto	1,052,600	224,129	4.70	288.646	3,681
Kobe	853,800	—	—	83.060	10,279
Yokohama	703,900	154,181	4.58	133.875	5,259
Nagoya	1,017,700	215,600	4.72	151.044	6,738

For references' sake, below is given the comparative statistics as to area and population of Tokyo, Osaka, London and four other large cities of the world.

Table 2. Area and Population of Tokyo and Osaka Compared With Foreign Cities

Cities	Area (Sq. kms.)	Population	Pop. per sq. kms.	Cities	Area (Sq. kms.)	Population	Pop. per sq. kms.
New York	820.00	6,930,000	8,451	Berlin	878.00	4,288,000	4,884
Tokyo	553.97	5,663,050	10,223	Chicago	545.00	3,376,000	6,194
Osaka	187.28	2,722,700	14,538	Paris	104.00	2,891,000	27,798
London	299.00	4,397,000	14,706				

N.B.—The figures for London, Berlin and Paris are for 1931, Tokyo and Osaka, 1934, others being for 1930.

MUNICIPAL FINANCE

Table 3. Tax Burdens

(In unit of yen)

	National tax	Prefectural tax	Municipal tax	Total
Tokyo	77,168,264	19,515,878	35,801,411	132,485,553
Osaka	34,220,680	10,732,238	19,668,348	64,621,266
Kyoto	7,737,891	4,994,183	6,712,109	19,444,883
Kobe	8,554,496	4,178,498	5,059,427	17,792,421
Yokohama	4,973,845	3,298,190	4,266,167	12,538,202
Nagoya	7,871,802	3,258,424	5,758,770	16,888,996

Table 4. Tax Burdens per Capita and per Household

	National tax		Prefectural tax		Municipal tax		Total	
	Per capita	Per household	Per capita	Per household	Per capita	Per household	Per capita	Per household
Tokyo	14.53	62.52	3.67	15.81	6.74	29.00	24.94	107.33
Osaka	13.23	59.92	4.15	18.79	7.60	34.44	24.99	113.15
Kyoto	7.72	36.79	4.99	23.75	6.70	31.92	19.41	92.46
Kobe	10.43	46.68	5.09	22.80	6.17	27.61	21.69	97.08
Yokohama	7.52	36.00	4.99	23.88	6.45	30.88	18.95	80.74
Nagoya	8.18	34.84	3.39	14.42	5.99	25.49	17.59	74.75

Municipal Budgets

The revenue and expenditure of the six premier cities are shown below (in unit of 1,000 yen):—

Table 5. Revenue

	Tokyo	Osaka	Kyoto	Kobe	Yokohama	Nagoya
Revenue from taxes	38,673	18,780	5,061	9,670	4,721	6,350
Fees & charges	7,540	—	—	—	—	—
Subsidies	10,097	—	—	—	—	—
Loans	34,154	—	—	—	—	—
Amount brought forward	1,750	—	—	—	—	—
Receipts from sale of property	1,193	—	—	—	—	—
Total including others	199,724	52,029	15,433	24,977	13,726	36,234

Table 6. Expenditure

	Tokyo	Osaka	Kyoto	Kobe	Yokohama	Nagoya
Education	25,285	24,387	4,847	5,883	3,032	10,890
Public works	33,744	4,915	1,073	3,464	766	799
Sanitation	11,269	3,324	1,729	1,507	535	3,254
Industry	373	630	991	80	154	543
Social works	4,833	2,075	1,075	1,210	365	2,307
Office	10,364	3,175	1,595	1,730	732	1,737
Loans	26,744	—	1,004	3,996	7,723	7,812
Total including others	200,872	52,029	15,433	24,977	13,989	36,237

Municipal Liabilities

The amount of outstanding liability as existing on April 1, 1934, is as follows (in unit of yen):—

Table 7. Municipal Liabilities

	Total	Per household	Per capita		Total	Per household	Per capita
Tokyo	722,712,000	694	128	Kobe	107,777,000	—	126
Osaka	450,607,000	748	166	Yokohama	146,790,000	952	209
Kyoto	36,561,000	163	35	Nagoya	83,602,000	388	82

SOCIAL WORKS

With the growing importance of social problems in general, the municipal authorities are attending to various social and relief works, though financial considerations are hampering their activities in this direction.

Among the various social undertakings calculated to give relief to the increasing pressure on living, there are two that deserve mention, as they have been taken up in recent years by various municipal authorities especially in the six premier cities. These are (1) the "public markets" and (2) the "common dining halls."

The Public Market.—The first market of the kind was established in Osaka in 1918, soon after the "Rice Riots" which broke out in many parts of the country. At first rice was the sole article offered for sale, but subsequently the list has been very much enlarged and at present it covers most articles of food and other commodities of daily necessity. Exempt from tax, supplied direct by producers and enjoying other advantages that tend to reduce the cost, articles on sale at the public market are reputed cheaper though considered a trifle poorer in quality than those brought by errand-boys of retail-merchants to their regular customers. Those who patronize the public markets are people of middle and lower classes, and it is believed that the habit of buying direct at shops will grow, our people now being so dependent on their regular retailers as

THE RECONSTRUCTION OF TOKYO AND YOKOHAMA

Thanks to the indefatigable efforts made by both the authorities and citizens, this stupendous work of reconstructing the devastated area of Tokyo and Yokohama, covering no less than 8,783.33 acres and expending a sum of about 750 million yen, was thoroughly completed in March, 1930, when the Reconstruction Bureau of the Home Office which was created soon after the occurrence of the great disaster of 1923 to supervise the execution of the gigantic task was discontinued some items of minor importance, that unfinished, being taken over by the reconstruction sections of the respective municipalities. In Tokyo, the memor-

to leave them free to bring articles at their option. They are too indolent or shy to do shopping by themselves of such articles. The example set by Osaka has spread to other cities, and at the end of 1932 there were in Tokyo as many as 47 such markets, in Osaka 54, in Kobe 11, in Kyoto 13, in Nagoya 14, in Yokohama 6 and a number in some other cities. The public markets were at first temporary barrack sheds, but many have since been rebuilt in permanent style. At first no fee was charged on retailers using the stalls at a public market, but at present in most places the stall-keepers are charged a certain rate. Rates in Tokyo range from ¥10 to 2 per tsubo per month according to the location.

The Common Dining Halls.—Interesting to note the first common dining hall in Japan, that in Tokyo, owes its existence to a philanthropist, who with the idea of supplying cheap and wholesome food to poorer people started in 1918 the "Democratic dining hall" on the modest scale of serving 60 sitters at a time. Then appeared similar establishments in Osaka, Nagoya and other cities, most of them run by religious and other charity bodies, and a few as municipal undertakings. At first the charges were 8 sen for breakfast and 10 sen for either dinner or supper, but the tariff has been somewhat advanced lately owing to a rise of prices. At a model municipal hall in Tokyo 8 sen for breakfast and 10 sen for either dinner or supper is a rule, while in a corresponding establishment in Osaka the tariff is uniform, 12 sen.

able accomplishment of the great work was celebrated with appropriate ceremonies on March 26, 1930. A brief survey of some of the important items of the complicated reconstruction planning and its progress follows.

Street Adjustment

The main idea underlying this principal work of city planning in Tokyo was to increase the percentage of roads to the total area of the urban districts from only 12% before the disaster to 25%, nearly equal to the figures in Paris and Berlin. To enter into some details,

the present street system consists of two principal main thoroughfares traversing the city, one running from south to north with a breadth of 33 to 44 meters and the other east to west with the breadth of 33 to 36 meters, these being crossed by 52 lines of secondary main thoroughfares, each with a breadth of 22 meters or over, and 112 lines of auxiliary roads, each 11 to 22 meters wide. The spaces thus divided are again crossed by a number of small streets, each 6 to 11 meters wide. In the uptown sections outside the burnt area and the suburban districts, the cob-web pattern consisting of mixed radiating and circular lines has been adopted for remodelling the street lines according to the main road net plan mapped out in the summer of 1927. By the end of 1929 the whole of the 52 secondary main thoroughfares was completed and the auxiliary roads nearly completed in the summer of 1930.

Adjustment of Building Lots

What complicated the work of Reconstruction is that a new comprehensive city planning according to the approved principle of modern time is to be carried out without affecting the private interest of the citizens concerned. The long established system of purchasing or expropriating land necessary for the improvement of roads or canals or the erection of public schools, parks, etc. does not answer the purpose for the present reconstruction work which requires a vast area of land, approximately 700,000 tsubo (571.82 acres) being required for effecting the projected city planning. If steps were taken to purchase or expropriate such extensive area of lots and drive out the dwellers from the land thus purchased or expropriated some 200,000 citizens would be rendered homeless. For carrying out the dual work the burnt area was cut up into 65 re-plotting divisions, and in each a re-plotting committee of 16 to 25 members was elected by the landowners and tenants of the division with full authority to decide upon all matters regarding the auxiliary streets, the cutting up of blocks within its division into lots and distributing the new lots among the old owners. All the land taken for streets, parks and other public purposes in excess of 10 per cent. was paid for by the city or by the State according to the location and uses of the land condemned.

Of the 65 re-plotting divisions or sections into which the burnt area had been divided, the work in 15 divisions was taken up by the State as State undertaking and that in the remaining 50 divisions by the Municipality as municipal

undertaking. The re-plotting in the entire area was completed by the end of 1929. The number of buildings removed in the re-plotting zone aggregated 203,461, and the removal of these buildings was completed early in 1930.

Bridges

Most of the wooden bridges in Tokyo and Yokohama having been destroyed or badly damaged by the 1923 disaster over 500 bridges (over 400 in Tokyo and about 100 in Yokohama) in important places were reconstructed quake-proof and fire-proof. Among the newly built bridges in the city of Tokyo, special attention is drawn to the six large bridges on the Sumida River which were completed by February, 1928 at the cost of ¥13,000,000.

Parks

The reconstruction programme for Tokyo provided for the establishment of 3 large parks with an aggregate area of over 67,000 tsubo and 51 smaller parks with a total area of over 47,000 tsubo, the aggregate area thus coming to over 114,000 tsubo. The per capita area of parks has thus been increased from 37/100 tsubo before the disaster to 54/100.

The Fire Zones

The zones specified in 1922 for the two cities of Tokyo and Yokohama had to undergo more or less modification in the following year. One of the most important legislations newly adopted since then as regards the fire zones was the enactment in 1924 of the Building Aid Regulation. The Treasury set apart in the Reconstruction Budget a sum of 20,000,000 with the object of allowing aid at the rate of ¥20-50 per tsubo to those who construct approved permanent buildings in the fire zones. This aid spread over five years ending 1928-29. The fund has so far been left practically untouched, only about 13% being disbursed. The explanation is that the period of overhauling the temporary buildings in the fire zones has been prolonged till 1938 and also chiefly because, as is generally thought, the calamity has too seriously crippled the citizens financially to enable them to start the construction of costly fire-proof houses. It should be remembered that the building area in the fire zone of Tokyo and Yokohama as converted to one-storey level area totals 1,352,000 tsubo (1104.33 acres), but the permanent buildings sanctioned covered only 190,844 tsubo in both cities. In other words, the permanent buildings sanctioned did not exceed 14% of the total building area.

THE SIX PREMIER CITIES

TOKYO

Greater Tokyo

By absorbing the outlying districts comprising five towns and eighty-two villages Greater Tokyo was realized on October 1, 1932, the city being divided into thirty-five sections, and rising to the position of the largest city of Japan. In respect of area, the Greater Tokyo ranks fifth among the large cities of the world, covering an area of 550.248 square kilometers, and in respect of population Greater Tokyo with 5,311,925 inhabitants leads all large cities of the world, being second only to New York. Below is given statistics of the area and population of old Tokyo and new Tokyo:—

Table 8. New Tokyo Compared With Old Tokyo

	Area (Sq. kms.)	No. of households	Population
Old Tokyo ..	84.938	427,000	2,130,790
New Tokyo .	553.967	1,216,140	5,663,050

Finance of Greater Tokyo

The finance of the city is divided into two kinds, namely, ordinary and special finances. The ordinary finance covers general revenue

Table 9. Revenue and Expenditure of Tokyo

Year	Revenue	Expenditure	Per capita	
			Revenue	Expenditure
1931-32.....	158,055,132	162,721,265	76.32	78.57
1932-33.....	152,850,000	164,345,000	—	30.94
1933-34.....	165,727,000	173,489,000	—	31.62
1934-35.....	191,205,000	195,829,000	—	34.58
1935-36.....	199,724,000	200,872,000	—	35.47

N.B.—The figures for 1934-35 & 1935-36 are budget, others being settled account.

The details of net revenue and expenditure for 1935-36 are as follows (in unit of ¥1,000):—

Table 10. Details of Revenue and Expenditure

	Revenue	Expenditure
City (General)	115,695	88,901
Waterworks	27,310	15,931
Sinking fund for public loans	207	61,330
Mutual relief against fires	308	1,864
City poor-house	222	544
Electric Tramway	29,676	12,516
Electric power supply ..	12,357	8,089
Motor bus service	5,950	5,403
Total incl. others	199,724	200,872

Sewages System.—The comprehensive sewage system first adopted in 1908 and revised in 1924 is based on this datum; population to be served 3,000,000 in old Tokyo; one half of the

and expenditure such as office maintenance, education, public works, sanitation, maintenance of parks, cemeteries, etc., social works, city planning and reconstruction or rehabilitation undertakings, while other items are grouped under the head of special finance. Principal items of the special finance are civic electric railways, electric power supply, motor-houses, harbour work and water-works, etc.

The amount of net expenditure of both ordinary and special finances for 1933-34 recorded an increase of more than fifty-five times compared to that of 1898 (¥3,355,340) when Tokyo became an independent self-governing city. The municipal revenue principally consists of fees and charges, municipal loans, city taxes, government subsidy, payment on transfer, property account, treasury payment, compensation, prefectural subsidy, special assessment, proceeds of sale of property, indemnity, contribution, etc.

Below are given the statistics of net revenue and expenditure of Tokyo for the past five years (the figures covering both general and special accounts):—

daily wasted matter to be discharged in 8 hours, supposing the per capita per diem waste to be 0.167 sq. meters; maximum rainfall per hour estimated at 50 mm. The whole city is subdivided into three drainage sections in old districts and into four section in new districts and the sewer-conduits measure 1,721,000 meters in all in old districts and 112,570 meters in new districts. The area to be drained totals 6,992 hectares in old districts and 14,219 hectares in new districts. Started in 1911 the work was partially completed before the seismic disaster of September 1923, which has very much dislocated the prescribed arrangement. At present the work is included partly in the Government rehabilitation and partly in the municipal improvement programme. The former has yet apart ¥43,580,000 for the purpose, the work extending from the 1923 fiscal year to 1928.

For completing the remaining sewage work and repairing the earthquake damage something like ¥76,000,000 was necessary, a sum which the city could ill afford to meet. The municipal authorities, therefore, decided to change it to the 1919-30 period work. Meanwhile for 20 places mostly situated in the saved area of the city, which from their natural formation have frequently been flooded on occasions of heavy rain, the authorities began improvement work

at the estimate of ¥4,580,000, spread over from 1925 to 1929. With the commencement of the municipal sewage work the suburban towns have, at the instance of the city, also started their own sewage improvement.

The sewage works already completed and under construction as classified according to kind of works are shown below, with the amount of outlay and the period:—

Table 11. Sewage Works Already Completed

	Outlay		Measures completed (meters)	Time
	Estimate (Yen)	Net (Yen)		
1st-term work	15,000,000	14,618,123	105,030	1911-1923
1st-term urgent work	2,520,000	2,497,989	14,832	1916-1920
2nd-term work	20,000,000	4,311,293	34,052	1920-1923
Construction work	40,211,321	39,603,453	283,080	1923-1931
Sewer-conduits removal work	2,454,911	2,310,518	(102,577)	1923-1931
Temporary repair work	1,600,000	948,402	30,407	1926-1929
Unemployment relief work	3,249,192	2,480,351	23,517	1927-1930
Unemployment relief work	500,000	424,625	12,285	1931-1932
Total	85,535,424	67,194,744	503,203	—

Table 12. Sewage Works Under Construction

Continuing city planning work (urgent).....	5,740,695	5,689,203	31,324	1925-1932
City planning work (urgent).....	3,000,000	2,674,697	40,465	1930-1932
2nd continuing city planning work (urgent)...	8,250,000	7,511,696	100,355	1930-1932
Improvement work	8,850,000	1,082,289	10,971	1932-1936
Temporary work	27,000	23,897	637	1932-1933
Unemployment relief work	500,000	753,686	637	1932-1933
Total	26,367,695	17,735,468	186,276	—
Grand total	111,903,119	84,930,212	688,479	—

Road-making and Improvement.—The road-making and improvement programme of the prefecture and city of Tokyo has undergone radical change since the earthquake disaster of 1923. There were, however, several items for which the design remained unaltered, except for the extension of the period of completion, including one to construct around the city a "circular" 12-ken road extending 19 m. 26 ch. 6 yd., besides the urban termini of a little under 3 m. The whole is estimated to demand ¥25,000,000 approximately. The other is called the "radial" road, comprising the four national highways existing from olden time. The total length is 19 m. 16 inch. 5 yd., besides about half a mile termini in the city. The effective width will be 48 to 72 feet and the expense is estimated at ¥18,750,000. The two road-makings were originally designed for completion in nine years beginning 1921, but the period has been extended five years more.

Pavement Work.—The pavement work was started by the city in the 1921 fiscal year as a six-year programme for principal thoroughfares of 36 feet or over in width, but it was later

transferred to the control of the Reconstruction Bureau for the most part. At the same time the city took up on its own account the paving of part of the saved area as a four-year work for completion in the spring of 1926. The area to be treated totals 348,000 tsubo with the cost estimated coming up to ¥3 millions. The area of pavement work completed by the spring of 1926, was, however, only about 190,000 tsubo or 239,000 meters in length, the average cost involved being ¥45 per tsubo. The materials used are wood-blocks, asphalt concrete, and cut stones. Some parts are to be macadamized.

The length and area of roads at the end of 1933 are shown below, including those in new districts:—

Table 13. Length and Area of Roads

	Length of roads (Meters)	Area of roads (Sq. m.)
National roads	80,287	1,802,521
Prefectural "	812,359	7,340,165
Municipal "	6,407,062	32,547,041
Total	7,299,708	41,749,727

Table 14. Area of Pavement (May, 1935)

	Total area of roads (Sq. meters)	Area of pavement (Sq. m.)
Old districts	14,923,832	13,335,487
New districts	30,350,475	8,902,477
Total	45,280,307	22,237,964

Bridges.—The bridges now number more than they were before the earthquake disaster, as those burnt have been either reconstructed or repaired while several have been newly constructed. The River Sumida is now spanned by ten large bridges of which four are new. Many more were constructed in other parts of the city. Taught by the tragic experience of the 1923 disaster they have been constructed quake-proof and fire-proof. At the end of December 1934 the bridges numbered 4,517, the total length extending 41,787 meters and area amounting to 395,195 square meters.

Waterworks.—The water supply arrangements in Tokyo date back more than 350 years ago to the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate, when the primitive mode of conducting water by wooden pipes was adopted. This device was continued well into the Meiji era. In 1892-98 the work of renovation was carried out at an estimated outlay of ¥9,189,000 met by means of foreign loans. The work was based on the plan of providing for 1,500,000 people at the rate of 4 cubic feet per head. To meet the demand of the fast growing population a further expansion was decided upon in 1912 at an outlay of ¥20,720,000 on a 7-year programme, further to be increased in 1920 to ¥47,600,000 in anticipation of the probable rise of prices by 1928. The seismic disaster of 1923 retarded the expansion work intended to supply 17,280,000 cubic feet a day on an average for 3,000,000 people. In 1924, the construction of part of the second period work requiring speedy execution was started with an outlay of ¥4,700,000 as a work spread over 3 years, and in 1926 the construc-

Table 17. Result of Municipal Tramways

Year	Working mileage (km.)	No. of cars			No. of passengers carried (1,000)	Receipts (¥1,000)	Index	
		4-wheels	Bogies	Total			Passenger	Receipts
1930-31	345,318	297	1,297	1,594	369,738	23,799	77	75
1931-32	345,283	294	1,181	1,475	335,439	21,562	70	68
1932-33	345,210	227	1,112	1,339	300,782	19,198	63	60
1933-34	346,779	227	1,131	1,358	295,686	18,853	61	59
1934-35	346,647	198	1,129	1,327	287,461	18,025	60	57

Motor Bus Service.—As an auxiliary traffic organ, the Municipality runs auto bus service in various part or sections of the city with a number of cars amounting to 935 and the total mileage extending 158.3 kilometers at the end

of two new additional reservoirs for completion by 1933 at an estimated cost of ¥22,360,000 was taken up. At the end of March, 1932 the area supplied totalled 8,300 hectares, houses supplied 359,647 and people supplied 2,311,164. To meet the growing demand, the municipal authorities contemplate further extension work on the plan of providing 2,600,000 persons and to increase the daily supply capacity to 500,000 cubic meters or 185 litres per day per capita, the total outlay from the beginning to the completion aggregating to ¥74,434,248. The condition of water supply in the last three years is as follows:—

Table 15. Total Length of Service Pipes (Meters)

Year	Main	Branch	Total
1931	160,622	1,594,751	1,755,374
1932	229,552	3,348,313	3,577,864
1933	235,975	3,414,462	3,650,438
1934	285,343	4,007,058	4,292,401

Table 16. Volume of Water Supplied (1,000 cubic meters)

Year	Total	Average per day	Per day per capita
1931	153,634	420	—
1932	186,911	512	—
1933	241,816	663	174.2
1934	258,682	709	174.6

The water faucets for private use at the end of 1934 numbered 693,471 those for communal use 29,074, and the number of houses supplied totalled 629,450.

Electric Tramways.—The municipalization of street tramways was realized in 1911. The purchase of the three tramways was effected at the cost of 63,915,000. At the end of March, 1935 there were 2,946 male conductors, 257 female conductors, 1,977 drivers, 257 signal men and 264 assistant signal men, totalling 5,701 in all. The results of the municipal tramways in recent years are tabulated below:—

of March, 1935. The municipal authorities contemplated in 1933 an expansion work in new districts on the plan of two-years programme, increasing the number of cars by 250 (150 in 1933 and 100 in 1934) and the length of line

extending 45.765 kilometers, the outlay amounting to ¥2,088,500 to be raised by loans. The results of the motor service in recent years and in the outset are shown below:—

Table 18. Results of Motor Service

Year	Working mileage (kms.)	No. of Cars		Average daily car (kilometers)	No. of Passengers		Receipts	
		Total	Per day		Total (¥1,000)	Per day	Total (¥1,000)	Per day (¥100)
1930-31	122,874	652	490	58,190	39,621	141,005	3,476	9,417
1931-32	135,494	658	502	59,803	39,081	106,779	3,277	8,953
1932-33	144,600	662	508	59,498	41,233	112,968	3,096	8,481
1933-34	148,600	809	571	70,963	48,589	133,116	3,527	9,662
1934-35	158,300	935	694	93,461	71,998	197,256	4,953	13,569

Subways.—The first subway line in Japan extending 1.27 miles between Asakusa and Ueno was constructed by the Tokyo Subway Co., and opened to traffic in December, 1927. As at the end of August, 1935 the total mileage operated was 8.0 kilometres, the number of stations 12 and that of cars 54. The number of passengers for 1934-35 was 25,412,773 (daily average being 69,624) and earnings ¥1,711,656 (daily average being ¥4,689.47).

Electric Lighting.—The Municipality also operates electric lighting business which it took over from the Tokyo Street Tramway Co., when the electric tramways were municipalized. The

intrusion of the Municipality in this field has proved an occasion for breaking down the monopoly so far held by the private electric companies, and in lowering the tariff. At the end of May, 1934 the total lamps installed number 1,362,000, electric power supplied amounting to 58,887 k.w.

Municipal Assets and Liabilities

At the end of October, 1934 the total assets of the Tokyo municipality amounted to ¥849,849,611.228. It showed an increase of ¥12,214,371.334 over the like date of the previous year. The details are as follows:—

Table 19. Municipal Assets (¥1,000)

	General accounts	Waterworks accounts	Electric bureau accounts	Total
Securities	1,078	139	—	1,543
Deposit & Cash	2,446	1,163	1,456	5,211
Loans	40,488	—	—	40,488
Land	315,827	32,239	14,910	365,220
Buildings	39,394	2,154	10,709	53,983
Structures other than offices	94,800	103,473	—	198,611
Ships	4,621	39	—	4,661
Electric tramways	—	—	49,769	49,769
Electric wires & routes	—	—	47,722	47,722
Vehicles	—	—	36,025	36,025
Others	15,328	8,954	22,101	46,612
Total	513,987	148,165	182,625	849,849

Municipal Liabilities.—Total loans issued which outstanding ¥701,288,441.45 (domestic amounted to ¥772,760,451.71 (domestic loans ¥536,471,386.94; foreign ¥164,817,054.51) at ¥568,854,055.78; foreign ¥203,906,395.93) of the end of March, 1933.

OSAKA

By the absorption of the outlying district in 1926 the industrial city of Osaka outstripped Tokyo (old Tokyo before its expansion in Oct., 1932) in area and population, the ambitious programme for realizing the Greater Osaka plan having been effected by 1928 with a fund of ¥200 millions. To mention the principal features of improvement, the main thoroughfares have been widened; all wooden bridges replaced

by new structures of fire and earthquake-proof materials, the plan also providing for the construction or extension of subways, elevated street car lines, and surface electric railways. A central city market with a site of about 30 acres was established in 1928, and water supply capacity is to be increased to 128,000,000 gallons a day from 84,000,000. With the completion of the consolidation of the two adjacent countries

(Higashinari and Nishinari) with the city, it must be added, the industrial capacity has been augmented by about 150 per cent, the value of industrial production amounting to ¥110,610,000 at the end of December, 1933.

Finance

The municipal account for 1933-34 as settled on May 31, 1934 amounted to ¥140,757,000, ap-

Table 20. Revenue and Expenditure

	Net Revenue		Net Expenditure	
	Amount (¥1,000)	%	Amount (¥1,000)	%
Total	140,757	100.00	141,693	100.00
General account	32,635	23.00	31,242	22.00
Special account	108,122	77.00	110,451	78.00
{ Municipal undertakings	56,130	40.00	44,217	31.00
} Others	51,992	37.00	66,234	47.00

The revenue of ¥140,760,000 consisted of ¥59,470,000 (42%) for commission and charges for utilization (charges for electric light and power, car fare, charges for the use of waterworks, charges for bus fare, charges for the use of the central market and the bays and harbours), ¥39,010,000 (28%) for municipal loans, ¥20,910,000 (15%) for municipal taxes, ¥4,310,000 (3%) for government subsidies, and ¥17,070,000 (12%) for others. It will thus be seen that receipts from taxation were 15 per cent. as against 85 per cent. claimed by other resources.

The expenditure of ¥141,690,000 consisted of

Table 21. Revenue and Expenditure for Four Years

Year	Total		Of which General Account		
	Revenue (¥1,000)	Expenditure (¥1,000)	Revenue (¥1,000)	Expenditure (¥1,000)	expenditure per capita (yen)
1930-31	134,584	133,473	31,857	29,723	54.40
1931-32	125,737	124,989	29,818	26,685	49.61
1932-33	154,394	155,860	31,081	29,795	60.26
1933-34	140,757	141,693	32,635	31,242	53.39
1934-35	155,220	168,580	—	39,222	61.92

Principal Municipal Undertakings

1. **Waterworks.**—The genesis of the Osaka waterworks dates back to 1895 when the River Yodo that runs through the city was utilized for supplying water to 610,000 persons. This was next extended so as to provide for 800,000 and further for supplying a million more. The last work was the 4th waterwork programme commenced in 1925 and finished in February 1930, at the cost of ¥7,710,000. By the completion of this work the supplying capacity per day increased to 320 million koku, the total

proximately in net revenue and ¥141,693,000 in expenditure. Contrasted with 1898 when Osaka became an autonomic city, revenue shows forty-four-fold increase and expenditure a forty-six fold increase. Of the total amount of expenditure for the year under review, general account for 22 per cent, municipal undertakings 31 per cent. and others for 47 per cent., as shown in the table appended:—

¥42,130,000 (3%) for municipal loans, ¥28,080,000 (20%) for engineering expense, ¥20,380,000 (14%) for supply of electric light and power, ¥14,960,000 (11%) for education, ¥14,270,000 (10%) for electric railway and trams, ¥5,030,000 (4%) for waterworks, ¥4,530,000 (3%) for construction of high speed railways, ¥3,870,000 (3%) for sanitation, ¥3,610,000 (3%) for municipal expenses, ¥1,510,000 (1%) for social works, ¥950,000 (0.7%) for industries, and ¥2,380,000 (2%) for others.

The total net revenue and expenditure for the last four years are as follows:—

outlay amounting to over ¥930,000 including another construction work of water pumps and faucets commenced in 1929 to be completed by 1931. The total area supplied reached upward of 83,000 tsubo and the number of persons provided totalled 300,000. In 1933 the municipal authorities undertook the fifth expansion work in view of the fast increasing demand in recent years, as a 5-year programme with an outlay amounting to ¥17,000,000 to provide for 3,300,000 persons and to increase the daily supply capacity to 862,000 cubic meters.

At the end of 1933-34 the number of houses supplied totalled 500,435 and the total volume of water supplied in the fiscal year 1933-34 amounted to 110,688,000 cubic meters, the

average daily volume of water supplied for the total population in Osaka city amounting to 320,000 cubic meters.

Table 22. Statistics of Water Works

Year	*No. of houses supplied	Volume of water supplied (1,000 cubic meters)	Average daily volume of water supplied (1,000 cubic meters)	Volume of water supplied per household (cubic meters)
1929-30	454,345	95,719	262	211
1930-31	463,663	100,809	276	217
1931-32	473,093	105,009	287	222
1932-33	471,049	107,938	296	229
1933-34	500,435	116,688	320	233

* At the end of Dec.

2. **Electric Tramways.**—From the very outset the Street Electric Tramway within the city limits was a municipal undertaking, and at the end of December, 1934, 103.9 kilometers were open to traffic, number of passenger cars totalled 761. Data on traffic service for the six years ending December, 1934 are as follows:—

Table 23. Results of Tramways

Year	Mileage (Kms.)	No. of passengers carried (1,000)	Receipts (¥1,000)	No. of passengers per pop.
1930	102.81	285,568	16,036	116
1931	102.81	285,568	16,036	116
1932	103.63	257,747	14,170	102
1933	103.93	232,804	13,133	90
1934	103.93	238,432	13,456	90
1934	103.93	250,078	14,064	92

Since January, 1930 the Municipality has been constructing a high speed railway partly for the purpose of relieving unemployment. On May 20, 1933 a section of the railway was opened to traffic.

The working mileage of the railway at the end of December, 1934 was 3 kilometres and the number of cars in operations 10. The number of passengers for the year under review was 5,610,000 and receipts from fares ¥480,000.

The electric tramway service in the suburban districts is maintained by over ten lines conducted by seven private concerns, all connecting with the city lines at important points, their open mileage totalling 874.4 kilometers as at the end of March, 1934. The results of those private lines for the same period were returned as follows:—

Table 24. Results of Private Lines

	Mileage (Kms.)	Passengers (1,000)	
		Total	Per day
Hanshin	72.3	64,001	175
Hankyu	74.8	51,238	140
Keihan	136.4	55,641	152
Osaka Electric	137.9	41,216	113
Sangu Kyuko (Express)	175.9	4,164	11

	Mileage (Kms.)	Passengers (1,000)	
		Total	Per day
Nankai	150.7	96,492	264
Hanwa	62.8	13,466	37
Hankai	9.5	2,917	8
Osaka Railway	54.1	12,266	34
Total	874.4	341,401	935

As auxiliary transport organs in the city the Municipality is running the auto bus service in different sections, the total mileage of lines 164.4 kilometers (at end of 1933) and the service being maintained with 610 cars. The results of the service for the last three years are shown below:—

Table 25. Results Bus Service

Year	Working mileage (Kms.)	No. of passengers carried (1,000)	Receipts (¥1,000)	No. of passengers per pop.
1931	143.3	34,559	2,256	14
1932	146.1	44,286	2,634	17
1933	152.2	48,531	2,890	18
1934	164.4	56,456	3,368	21

In 1924 the Osaka Bus Service was inaugurated. As at the end of 1934 the working mileage was 89.2 kilometres, the number of vehicles in operation 650, of which 645 were buses and 5 carriages for excursion. Earnings from December 1, 1933 to of November 30, 1934 totalled ¥5,360,000. It showed an increase of ¥440,000 over the previous year.

3. **Harbour Works.**—The harbour works first started in 1897 on an 8-year programme at the estimated cost of ¥22,570,400, of which ¥4,680,000 and a portion of land valued at ¥1,900,000 came from the State treasury was followed by an extension work involving ¥2,200,000 on a 10 year programme in 1906. The whole work was completed in April 1929 after a period extending 33 years from the start, the total cost involved being ¥45 millions. The harbour covering 1,980,000 tsubo waterfront embraced by two breakwaters (54 cho and 38 cho in length res-

pectively) and a reclamation covering 1,300,000 tsubo is capable of taking in 41 steamers of 5,000 ton capacity or 8 steamers of 10,000 ton capacity at one time. As the port suddenly gained in importance with regard to import trade after the World War, further expansion work was planned and started in 1929 to be completed by 1936 at the cost of ¥9,160,000 of which ¥3,840,000 is supplied by the State treasury. In 1933 another reclamation work covering 920,000 square meters was started with a fund amounting to 5,220,000 on a ten-year programme, the land to be utilized for aerodrome and harbour.

4. **Sewage Works.**—Warned by the outbreak of virulent epidemics in 1886 and 1890 the city undertook the improvement of sewage work in 1894-99 as regards the old city. In 1911 a further improvement was planned on a 10-year

programme at an estimated outlay of ¥4,500,000, one-third of which was supplied from the State treasury. The work was started in 1909 and completed already. In September 1928 further improvement work was planned on a 10-year programme at an estimated cost of ¥17,500,000. Another improvement work is in course of construction to be finished by 1941 as a continuing work from 1931 with a fund amounting to ¥17,000,000.

Municipal Liabilities

The four big enterprises of Osaka city mentioned above involved the Municipality in a heavy debt amounting to about ¥490,615,000. The loans outstanding at the end of May, 1934 totalled ¥478,360,000. The total indebtedness works out at ¥80.00 per capita of population.

KYOTO

Municipal Finance

Classified according to items the net revenue and expenditure of the city in the last five fiscal

years are tabulated as follows, the figures for 1935-36 being budgets and not net accounts (in unit of yen):—

Table 26. Revenue and Expenditure of Kyoto

Year	General Account		Special Account		Total	
	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure
1931-32.....	9,150,208	12,592,105	31,397,730	27,452,065	40,547,938	40,444,170
1932-33.....	8,972,736	11,662,589	28,543,977	25,339,083	37,516,713	37,001,672
1933-34.....	14,804,000	12,021,000	40,490,000	34,057,000	55,295,000	46,078,000
1934-35.....	11,937,125	11,937,125	44,797,292	44,691,792	56,734,416	56,628,917
1935-36.....	15,433,000	15,433,000	46,861,000	46,861,000	62,295,000	62,295,000

Special account for 1933-34 as classified according to items is as follows:—

	City planning works	Lot adjustment works	Canal & water-power works	Electric tramway incl. water works	Public loans	Total incl. others
Revenue....	6,592,473	1,903,427	3,290,183	13,972,524	16,325,432	56,734,417
Expenditure.	6,592,473	1,903,427	3,290,183	13,972,524	16,325,432	56,628,917

Municipal Undertakings

The three leading municipal undertakings, i.e. Canal and Water-power works, Waterworks, and Electric tramway, are briefly described below:—

1. **Canal & Water-power Works.**—The first Biwa Canal, completed in 1895 at the cost of ¥1,838,317, was designed for the conveyance of passengers and goods and also for the supply of waterpower, while the second canal, completed lately at the cost of ¥4,477,805, supplies water for drinking, fire brigade and for purposes of hydro-electricity, etc.

2. **Waterworks.**—The waterworks started in 1908 were completed in March 1912, at the cost of ¥3,000,000 of which ¥750,000 came from the

State treasury. The water is drawn from Lake Biwa by means of the second canal and was designed as the first term work to provide for 500,000 people and the second work for 200,000 people. At the end of March, 1933, the condition of water supply stood as follows: Length of water pipes 654,564.01 meters; No. of houses supplied 138,824; No. of water faucets 176,737; Volume of water supplied 26,782,000 cubic meters; Receipts ¥1,403,246; Volume of water supplied per day per capita 0.136 cubic meter.

3. **Electric Tramways.**—The municipal street tramway service commenced in 1908 now extends for 60.03 kilometers.

The results of the municipal tramways in the five years ending March, 1935 are as follows:—

Table 27. Results of Tramways

Year	Open mileage (Kms.)	No. of cars	passengers carried	Passenger receipts
1930-31..	56.1	417	102,978,000	¥5,914,000
1931-32..	59.5	421	97,995,000	5,627,000
1932-33..	59.5	421	93,324,000	5,400,000
1933-34..	60.03	409	95,112,000	5,481,000
1934-35..	62.66	410	97,276,000	5,601,000

At the end of March 31, 1935 the municipal auto bus service involved 136 cars and the operating length of lines of 40.8 kilometers.

YOKOHAMA

In April 1927, the Greater Yokohama plan was put into effect by absorbing the outlying districts comprising two towns of Tsurumi and Hodogaya and seven villages, all these embracing 22,922 households with 109,193 inhabitants. By the absorption the city has had its area trebled and its population increased over 1,000 as shown in the following table:—

Table 28. Yokohama Old and New

	Area (Sq. kms.)	No. of households	Population
Old Yokohama (1911)	24.800	59,377	405,888
New Yokohama (1934)	52.129	82,229	515,081
Present Yokohama (1934)	133.875	154,181	703,900

Tsurumi being a promising thriving industrial town lying between Yokohama and Tokyo, its annexation is judged as an important addition to the prosperity of the city, which being hilly in the rear and rather narrow in extent is unfit

The number of passengers carried during 1934-35 was 10,763,000 and the fare receipts amounted to ¥921,000.

Municipal Assets and Liabilities

The municipal assets for Kyoto City on November 1, 1933, stood at ¥24,822,447.155 for general and ¥72,765,205.520 for special accounts respectively and the debts outstanding in August 1933, totalled ¥37,519,219 or ¥175,891 per household and ¥37.456 per capita of population.

for industrial activity. Tsurumi and adjacent district, while facing the water front of the harbour have sufficient level space in the rear to enable the new Yokohama to grow as an industrial city. Following this absorption the new city was divided into the following five sections on October 1, 1927:—

Table 29. Divisions of Yokohama Municipal Finance

	No. of household	Population	Pop. per household
Tsurumi-ku ...	22,342	103,200	4.62
Kanagawa-ku ..	32,080	149,700	4.67
Naka-ku	80,207	361,400	4.51
Hodogaya-ku ..	10,467	49,700	4.75
Isogo-ku	9,085	39,900	4.39
Total	154,181	703,900	4.57

The annual revenue and expenditure, both general and special of Yokohama amounted to (in ¥1,000):—

Table 30. Revenue and Expenditure of Yokohama

Fiscal year	Revenue	Expenditure	Per capita
1930-31 (estimate)	¥48,372,000	¥48,372,000	¥83.37
1931-32	41,558,000	41,558,000	67.61
1932-33	37,615,000	37,615,000	58.74
1933-34	46,225,000	46,225,000	69.87
1934-35	43,289,906	43,289,906	—

Special account of the Municipality consists of 13 items including Reconstruction work, Waterworks, Electric business, Gas works, Hospital, former Concession account, Cemetery and Crematory, etc.

Municipal Undertakings

Electric Tramways.—As at the end of March, 1935 the working mileage of the municipal tramways was 46.43 kilometres and the number of cars 200. The number of passengers carried during 1934-35 was 41,350,761, or the daily average of 110,550. Fare receipts were ¥2,667,102, which works out at ¥7,307 a day. At the end of March, 1935 the municipal motor bus

service was conducted with 106 cars, the total working mileage being 54.69 kilometres. The number of passengers for 1934-35 was 10,457,367, or 286,503 a day on the average. Fare receipts were ¥667,307, the daily average being ¥18,282.

Gas Works.—The business was first started as a private enterprise but was municipalized in 1892. The estimated account for 1934-35 put revenue and expenditure at ¥1,780,882. The pipes laid measure about 317.24 miles and about 170,000 households have connection.

Waterworks.—The Yokohama waterworks enjoy the honour of being the pioneer in Japan and the estimated account for 1934-35 is

4,074,824 both for revenue and expenditure.

Harbour Works.—The harbour works, originally started in 1900 and practically finished in 1917, sustained an extensive damage in the great earthquake disaster of 1923, and the 3rd period work which had been going on since 1921 had to be temporarily suspended. The repair of the work damaged in the disaster was mostly finished in February 1925 and the remaining work completed in 1936 at the cost of ¥22,000,000.

The Municipality obtained in June 1928 an approval for raising a loan of ¥16,477,000 to be appropriated for the re-filling-in work of the water fronts of 641,438 tsubo at Tsurumi and

Koyasu in order to establish an industrial belt there on a grand scale. The work was started in 1933 by the Government and a part of which was opened for pier in the spring of the same year.

Municipal Liabilities

The municipal liabilities outstanding at the end of March, 1934 totalled ¥158,570,246 or ¥1,060 per household and ¥232 per capita, this being the heaviest of all the six premier cities. In November, 1926 a municipal loan totalling \$19,740,000 was floated in New York. Interest on loans paid in 1933-34 amounted to ¥9,073,000.

KOBE

Finance

The annual finance of Kobe City has shown a marked decrease in recent years as shown below (figures including special accounts):—

Table 31. Revenue and Expenditure of Kobe

Year	Revenue (¥1,000)	Expenditure (¥1,000)	Per capita (Yen)
1931-32	101,852	93,364	116.15
1932-33	87,553	79,830	110.84
1933-34	43,023	43,023	51.41
1934-35	52,967	52,967	63.29
1935-36	58,724	58,724	68.78

N.B.—The figures for 1932-34, 1934-35 and 1935-36 are budgets, others being settled accounts.

The municipal liabilities outstanding at the end of March, 1935 totalled ¥107,777,000.

Municipal Undertakings

Water supply is the only undertaking Kobe conducts on its own resources, electric lighting, urban tramways, and gas works being all left to private enterprise while the reconstruction of the harbour is a State undertaking to which the city has been obliged to contribute about ¥3,000,000. Kobe is, however, free from foreign encumbrances, all the loans being domestic.

Waterworks.—The waterworks were at first designed in 1909 to supply 3 cubic feet per capita a day to 250,000 inhabitants, but the plan was later altered in scope and made to provide for 100,000 families, 25 cubic ft. a day. The work extended till 1923 and required the expenditure of ¥12,858,720 of which the State grants amounted to ¥3,403,000. In 1926 the Municipality carried out an expansion work of the water supply for the city by laying pipes in the eastern suburbs to draw more water from

the Chikari pond behind Mt. Rokko. The work has already been finished.

Electric Tramways.—The tramway system within the city limits is operated by the Municipality. There are five private tramway companies attending to the suburban service, these being the Shinyu Railway (operating Kobe-Arima line), the Sanyo Electric Railway (operating Hyogo-Himeji line), the Hanshin Electric Railway (operating Kobe-Osaka line), the Hanshin Express Electric Railway (operating Kobe-Osaka line), and the Hanshin Kokudo Electric Railway (operating the line laid in 1927 along the national road between Osaka and Kobe and forming a parallel line to the State railway).

The number of passengers carried by the municipal tramways during 1934-35 was 87,631,889 and earnings ¥4,819,037.

Besides the electric tramway service, the Municipality runs an auto bus service, the number of cars in operation at the end of March, 1935 being 183 and the working mileage 66.82 kilometres. The number of passengers carried during 1934-35 was 12,005,451 and earnings ¥1,051,703 or ¥2,881 a day on an average.

Harbour Works.—The first term work extending over 16 years, started in 1907 at the total cost of ¥15,090,000 of which ¥3,660,000 was borne by the Municipality, was completed in March, 1922. The harbour now has four quays (1,592 ken long) with berth for 19 boats of 3 to 20 thousand tons (about 400,000 tons) at the same time. The second term work which was taken in hand in 1919 as a 15-year programme with a view to reclaiming a water-front of about 91,600 tsubo at the estimated cost of ¥47,510,000, is now nearing completion. Upon its completion the harbour will have capacity for 15 more steamers of large type.

NAGOYA

Finance.—The municipal finance of Nagoya, according to the estimates for 1935-36, both in revenue and expenditure, amounted to ¥36,234,000 approximately for general account and ¥17,510,000 for special account.

Annual account of revenue and expenditure (settled account), both general and special, for the last five fiscal years is shown below (in unit of yen):—

Table 32. Revenue and Expenditure of Nagoya

Year	General Account		Special Account	
	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure
1929-30	25,390,085	25,254,185	22,430,115	18,388,394
1930-31	31,477,355	30,424,634	21,253,898	19,115,791
1931-32	37,963,010	36,073,557	20,992,182	20,259,933
1932-33	45,421,218	43,807,068	12,596,672	12,082,007
1933-34	84,689,082	84,089,785	10,667,774	10,418,829

Municipal Undertakings.—Nagoya manages on its own resources its waterworks, sewage, street tramways, slaughter-houses, public cemetery, and the disposal of garbage, etc., none of which is of a nature to embarrass the municipal finances as in the case of Osaka and Kobe. The waterworks, first completed in 1918 at the cost of ¥5,279,882, provided for supplying 4 cubic ft. per day per capita to a million people, but owing to the fast increasing consumption and the expansion of the city limits in 1921 the 2nd-term extension work was started in 1923 with an outlay amounting to ¥346,048 and the 3rd-term extension work was taken in hand in 1926 to supply

3,880,000 cubic ft. a day to 970,000 more people at the cost of over ¥6,996,603 spread over 6 years. The work was partially finished in 1928 and supplied 47,021 cubic ft. a day to 83,837 households as at the end of September 1929. In 1929 the 4th-term work extending to 1932 was started at a cost of ¥3,750,000. This being completed in March, 1933, another extension work was taken in hand in 1933 at a cost of ¥2,485,000, the total outlay from the beginning amounting to ¥18,857,533.

The results of waterworks in the last ten years are shown in the following table:—

Table 33. Results of Water Works

Year	Volume of water filtered (cubic meters)	Volume of water supplied (cubic meters)	No. of houses supplied	Total No. of pipes incl. fire hoses	Receipts (yen)
1924	16,098,095	14,519,260	61,364	46,181	716,079
1925	16,439,648	15,106,604	66,177	51,156	1,090,218
1926	16,213,943	14,867,941	71,112	55,249	1,211,435
1927	17,254,526	15,940,678	77,343	59,265	1,234,495
1928	18,356,278	17,716,565	85,816	66,407	1,255,333
1929	21,081,730	19,205,493	98,947	75,898	1,315,745
1930	21,297,948	19,701,709	106,396	81,303	1,325,622
1931	25,548,244	25,191,755	122,324	94,918	1,508,878
1932	28,853,673	28,578,712	134,137	104,807	1,624,190
1933	34,433,159	34,333,350	135,436	112,051	1,697,905

Street Tramways.—The street tramways formerly conducted by a private concern was municipalized in 1922 at the cost of ¥11,927,364. The lines, which extended for 51.16 miles and numbered 15, increased to 22 lines in 1930-31. The 1st-term improvement work was started in 1922 as a 5-year program with an outlay of about ¥10,040,000 of which ¥6,460,000 being

raised by loans. In 1926 the 2nd-term improvement work was taken up as a 9-year work with a fund amounting to ¥24,200,000, which was completed in 1930, and in 1931 the authorities undertook another extension work spreading over 3 years with a fund amounting to ¥2,960,000. The business results in recent years show some decrease yearly as shown below:—

Table 34. Results of Tramways

Year	Working kilometers	No. of cars	No. of passengers (1,000)	Train-kilometers (1,000)	Total receipts (¥1,000)	Total expenses (¥1,000)
1930-31	53.5306	—	67,917	15,580	3,715	2,217
1931-32	53.5306	—	62,516	15,379	3,411	2,155
1932-33	54.1750	—	60,399	15,693	3,286	2,101
1933-34	54.6070	314	62,755	16,237	3,505	2,836

Motor-bus.—Started in February, 1930, the monthly receipts averaging ¥27,933.50, the number of cars were only 40 in the inception but

increased to 174 at the end of March, 1935. The results of the business in the last 4 years are shown below:—

Table 35. Results of Motor-bus Service

Year	Working mileage (kms.)	No. of cars	No. of passengers (1,000)	Train kilometers (1,000)	Total receipts (Yen)	Total expenses (Yen)
1930-31.....	54,612	—	10,358	6,495	613,539	506,801
1931-32.....	67,347	—	13,802	8,413	817,037	716,036
1932-33.....	69,847	—	16,266	9,266	963,709	770,453
1933-34.....	101,047	174	19,172	—	1,097,000	—

Harbour Works.—The first work was started in October, 1907. At present the harbour have a capacity for 10,000 tons of steamers. The 4th period expansion work is in course of construction at the cost of ¥2,120,000.

Municipal Liabilities.—The indebtedness of the city as outstanding at the end of March, 1933 totalled ¥79,684,354, or ¥352.68 per household and ¥74.69 per head.

Annual liabilities stand as follows:—

Table 36. Liabilities of Nagoya (in unit of yen)

Fiscal year	Total	Rate per household	Rate per capita
1929-30....	62,179,042.49	290.31	62.06
1930-31....	67,324,014.31	304.50	64.86
1931-32....	74,259,306.48	328.64	69.95
1932-33....	79,684,354.27	352.68	74.69
1933-34....	83,602,000.00	—	—

FOREIGN TRADE OF YOKOHAMA AND OTHER PORT CITIES

The following tables will serve to show the general situation of the foreign trade of Yokohama, Osaka, Kobe and Nagoya in recent years:—

Table 37. Trade of Yokohama

Year	Trade			Export of Raw Silk
	Exports	Imports	Total	
1930....	449,838	392,838	842,676	290,794
1931....	370,662	305,637	678,299	250,694
1932....	400,658	355,357	756,015	261,252
1933....	500,888	456,354	957,242	274,691
1934....	490,201	537,316	1,027,517	204,641

Continents	Trade	
	Exports	Imports
Asia.....	150,693	122,218
Europe.....	67,511	110,385
North America.....	224,158	214,254
South America.....	8,084	4,194
Central America.....	8,394	136
Africa.....	11,922	19,102
Other.....	19,439	66,027

Osaka: Exports and imports for 1934, classified according to countries, were returned as follows (figure being in ¥1,000):—

Table 38. Trade of Osaka

Countries	Exports	Imports	Total
Manchoukuo.....	68,754	23,764	92,518
Kwantung.....	106,433	7,716	114,149
China.....	58,653	36,654	95,307
British India.....	97,588	63,271	160,859
Straits Settlements.....	15,938	4,955	20,893
Dutch East Indies.....	85,310	6,448	91,758

References: Tables 1-6 & 7—Municipal Offices of Six Premier Cities. Tables 8-18 & 19—Tokyo Municipal Office (Outline of Tokyo Municipal Administration), 1935. Tables 20-24 & 25—Osaka Shisei Gaiyo (Outline of Osaka Municipal Administration), 1935. Tables 26 & 27—Kyoto Shisei Gaiyo (Outline of Kyoto Municipal Administration), 1935. Tables 28, 29 & 30—Yokohama Municipal Office. Table 31—Kobe Municipal Office. Table 32-35 & 36—Nagoya Shisei Gaiyo (Outline of Nagoya Municipal Administration), 1935. Tables 37-39 & 40—Monthly Returns of the Foreign Trade of Japan.

Countries	Exports	Imports	Total
Great Britain....	3,575	17,901	21,758
U. S. A.....	3,694	220,560	224,254
Egypt.....	28,177	17,950	46,127
East Africa.....	18,042	10,185	28,227
Australia.....	6,325	43,153	49,478
Other.....	93,691	70,733	164,424
Total.....	586,180	523,290	1,109,470
Do for 1933..	463,529	441,692	905,221
Do for 1932..	334,212	441,692	602,199

Table 39. Kobe (Figure in unit of ¥1,000)

Year	Exports	Imports	Excess of Imports
1932.....	499,302	535,647	36,345
1933.....	650,539	641,121	9,418
1934.....	790,601	791,544	943

Continents	Trade	
	Exports	Imports
Manchoukuo.....	11,361	33,299
Kwantung.....	52,785	1,143
North America.....	139,635	290,196
British India.....	97,673	188,004
Dutch East Indies.....	50,931	26,869
Great Britain.....	42,886	22,369
Oceania.....	36,931	29,630
Egypt.....	36,369	10,279
Germany.....	10,595	45,921

Table 40. Nagoya (Figure in unit of ¥1,000)

	1932	1933	1934
Exports.....	64,458	89,420	115,515
Imports.....	69,553	91,178	88,526
Total.....	134,011	180,598	204,041

CHAPTER XXXIX

SPORTS

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Virtually every known sport is played in Japan. The principal machinery that controls sports in the Empire consists of the Japan Amateur Athletic Association, to which matters concerning international competition are generally referred to, the Nippon Rikujō Kyōgi Ren-

mei (Japan Amateur Track and Field Federation), the Nippon Suijō Renmei (Japan Swimming Federation), and the Japan Student League of Track and Field Sports. Headquarters of these organizations are located in Tokyo.

SWIMMING

The Japanese have shown ability particularly in swimming, and in this sport the country has enjoyed world-wide fame. Among the recent aquatic achievements of Japan may be mentioned the championship she won at the 10th Olympic Games at Los Angeles in 1932. There are swimming meets, well organized in every detail necessary, for students from the grammar schools up to the universities. Thus is seen the reason why talent is discovered and then developed.

In September 1935 a Japanese team defeated the best American team available by 36 to 27 points at the Meiji Shrine pool in Tokyo. This meet was declared one of the best staged in Japan and occupied the attention of the entire world, which regarded it as a preview to the races at Berlin in 1936.

Two world's records were created in this swimming classic. Jack Medica and Hiroshi Negami, captains respectively of the American and Japanese teams, were clocked at 4 minutes 45.2 seconds in the 400 meters freestyle, erasing the mark held by Shozo Makino of 4 minutes 46.4 seconds. Medica, however, was declared the winner of the race by a touch. The other world's record was established in the 800 meters relay by the Japanese team of Masanori Yusa, Sunao Ishiharada, Shozo Makino and Hiroshi Negami in 8 minutes 52.2 seconds, which smashed the then existing mark as 8 minutes 58.4 seconds set by the Japanese team of Yasuji Miyazaki, Masanori Yusa, Hisayoshi Toyoda and Takashi Yokoyama at the Olympic Games at Los Angeles in 1932.

Table 1. 1934 All-Japan Men's Championships August 11, 12 and 13 at Meiji Shrine Pool

Event	Winner	Time
100 meters freestyle	Yusa	59 secs.
200 meters freestyle	Yusa	2:17.4
400 meters freestyle	Medica (USA)	4:47.8
1,500 meters freestyle	Negami	19:16.6 (new world's record for lap time at 1,000 meters: 12:41.8)
100 meters backstroke	Weghe (USA)	1:08.8
200 meters backstroke	Weghe (USA)	2:33.2 (new world's long course record)
100 meters breaststroke	Koike	1:15
200 meters breaststroke	Koike	2:45
800 meters relay	Toeikai (Negami, Shimura, Sakagami, Makino)	9:15

Table 2. 1934 All-Japan Women's Championships August 11, 12 and 13, 1934 at Meiji Shrine Pool

100 meters freestyle	Miss Shiomi	1:16.4
200 meters freestyle	Miss Kojima	2:51
400 meters freestyle	Miss Furuta	6:36.6
100 meters backstroke	Miss Ogiso	1:30
200 meters breaststroke	Miss Mayehata	3:05.8
400 meters relay	Sugiyama Girls School (Misses Shiomi, Mayehata, Hattori, Kojima)	5:22.4

Table 3. 1934 All-Japan Students Championships
September, 1934 Meiji Shrine Pool

Event	Winner	Time
50 meters freestyle	Takahashi (Waseda)	25.8 secs. (new Japanese record)
100 meters freestyle	Yusa (Nihon)	58.2 secs.
200 meters freestyle	Yusa (Nihon)	2:14
400 meters freestyle	Makino (Waseda)	4:46.6
800 meters freestyle	Makino (Waseda)	10:01.2 (new world's record)
50 meters backstroke	Kawazu (Meiji)	31.8 secs.
100 meters backstroke	Kawazu (Meiji)	1:11.6
100 meters Breaststroke	Koike (Keio)	1:13.8 (new Japanese record)
200 meters breaststroke	Koike (Keio)	2:43 (new Japanese record)
200 meters relay	Waseda (Sakagami, Shimura, Igarashi, Takahashi)	1:46.6
800 meters relay	Waseda (Sakagami, Shimura, Kataoka, Makino)	9:08.8

Table 4. 1935 U.S.-Japan Dual Meet, Won by Japan, 36 to 27.
August 17, 18, 19 At Meiji Shrine Pool

200 meters breaststroke: won by Koike (J); 2. Hamuro (J); 3. Higgins (US); Time: 2:42.6, (new Japanese record).	Negami (J); 3. Makino (J); both Medica and Negami timed at 4:45.2 (new world's record).
200 meters freestyle: won by Yusa (J); 2. Macionis (US); 3. Lindegren (US); Time: 2:13.2.	400 meters relay: won by US (Chrostowski, Lindegren, Wolf, Fick), Time: 3:53.8 (new Japanese International record).
1500 meters freestyle: won by Ishiharada (J); 2. Makino (J); 3. Negami (J); Time: 19:12.	800 meters freestyle: won by Negami (J); 2. Medica (US); 3. Ishiharada (J); Time: both Negami and Medica timed at 10:02.4.
300 meters medley relay: won by US (Drysdale, Kasley, Fick); Time: 3:20.8 (new Japanese International record).	100 meters freestyle: won by Fick (US); 2. Yusa (J); 3. Arai (J); Time: 57.2 (new Japanese International record).
100 meters backstroke: won by Drysdale (US); 2. Branch (US); 3. Kawazu (J); Time: 1:10.2.	200 meters backstroke: won by Yoshida (J); 2. Zehr (US); 3. Kawazu (J); Time: 2:35.6 (new Japanese record).
100 meters breaststroke: won by Koike (J); 2. Kasley (US); 3. Hamuro (J); Time: 1:13.6 (new Japanese record).	800 meters relay: won by Japan (Yusa, Ishiharada, Makino, Negami); Time: 8:52.2 (new world's record).
400 meters freestyle: won by Medica (US); 2.	

Table 5. Men's Japanese Swimming Records

Event	Holder	Time	Year
50 meters freestyle	N. Takahashi	25.8 secs.	1934
100 meters freestyle	M. Yusa	57.8 secs.	1935
200 meters freestyle	M. Yusa	2:13	1933
300 meters freestyle	M. Makino	3:32.2	1933
400 meters freestyle	H. Negami	4:45.2	1935
500 meters freestyle	S. Makino	6:13	1934
800 meters freestyle	S. Makino	10:01.2	1934
1000 meters freestyle	H. Negami	12:41.8	1934
1500 meters freestyle	K. Kitamura	19:08	1933
100 meters backstroke	M. Kiyokawa	1:08.6	1932
200 meters backstroke	K. Yoshida	2:35.6	1935
100 meters breaststroke	R. Koike	1:13.6	1935
200 meters breaststroke	R. Koike	2:42.6	1935
300 meters medley relay	Yoshida, Koike, Yusa	3:20.8	1935
400 meters relay	Arai, Shimura, Hirano, Yusa	3:55.6	1935
800 meters relay	Yusa, Ishiharada, Makino, Negami	8:52.2	1935

Table 6. Women's Japanese Swimming Records

50 meters freestyle	Miss H. Matsuzawa	31.6 secs.	1933
100 meters freestyle	Miss K. Kojima	1:14.6	1935
400 meters freestyle	Miss K. Kojima	5:53	1933
50 meters backstroke	Miss M. Yokota	39.4 secs.	1933
100 meters backstroke	Miss M. Yokota	1:25.1	1932
100 meters breaststroke	Miss H. Mayehata	1:26	1935
200 meters breaststroke	Miss H. Mayehata	3:02.8	1934
400 meters relay	K. Kojima, M. Yokota, H. Morioka, Y. Arata	5:06.7	1932
300 meters medley relay	Chubu (Kitamura, Mayehata, Kojima)	4:13.4	1935

BASEBALL

Baseball is without question the most popular sports in Japan, being a favorite game among all classes of boys, from primary school children to college students. It is played during the greater part of the year on every available park in the country. It was first introduced by the American professors who were engaged in 1876 for the newly created Sapporo Agricultural College (now Hokkaido University). In reviewing the history of the sport, we may note that in 1905, the Waseda University team made the first expedition to the United States and in 1907, Keio University invited the St. Louis team of Honolulu, Hawaii. Since then, Japanese teams and those of American universities have frequently exchanged visits. Baseball has progressed to such a state in this country that it can be safely said that the leading university teams of Japan today are stronger than most of the collegiate teams of the United States.

The creation of the Tokyo Six University Baseball League (Keio, Meiji, Rikkyo, Hosei, Tokyo Imperial and Waseda) in 1925 placed the sport on a firm basis. Games of this league are played during the spring and fall and comprise the greatest event of the nation's annual sports program. The Keio-Waseda series are synonymical of the world series of the American major leagues with crowds of more than 50,000 seeing each game. Hosei emerged champions for the year 1934 (the spring and fall seasons having been combined into one through a ruling of the Department of Education). The old system of separate seasons was restored early in 1935 and Hosei defended its title successfully. Hosei and Waseda both finished their schedules with nine victories and one defeat each but Hosei was victorious by a 6 to 5 score in the special play-off game. The standing for the spring season, 1935, was:

Table 7. Baseball Standing

	Won	Lost	Pct.
Hosei	9	1	.900
Waseda	9	1	.900
Meiji	6	4	.600
Rikkyo	4	6	.400
Keio	1	9	.100
Teidai	1	9	.100

GOLF

Golfing in Japan dates back to 1907 when the first All-Japan amateur championship was played and won by a Mr. Lawson. While the game has been played chiefly by the moneyed classes, there is no doubt that it is growing in

popularity. Waseda, Meiji and Keio universities, for instance, have organized a Kanto Students Golf Federation and its first championship tournament was played in August, 1935. At present, there are no fewer than 13 clubs in the

Winners of the other principal leagues and tournaments follow:
Spring season, 1935 of Kansai Six University league: Kansai University, 19 straight victories.

Asahi Shimbun's 21st All-Japan Middle School Championship tournament, August 13-21 at Koshien stadium: won by Matsuyama Commercial school team.

Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun's All-Japan Inter-city tournament: won by Tokyo Club.

The visit of an All-American team, headed by Connie Mack of the Philadelphia Athletics, and including such stars as Babe Ruth, Lou Gehrig, Lefty Gomez, Earl Averill and Charley Gehringer, in November, 1934, was one of the bright features on the baseball program. The major leagues played eighteen games in 12 different places of the country, won them all and cracked out a total of 47 home runs.

Harvard university's team arrived at the invitation of Keio university in August, 1934 and played the following games:

Defeated Tokyo Imperial, 4-2; lost to Tokyo Club, 8-6; lost to Hosei university, 12-3; lost to Rikkyo, 9-3; lost to Meiji, 10-8; defeated Keio, 9-7; lost to Waseda, 17-2; lost to Keio, 6-5; defeated Kansai university, 3-2; defeated Keio, 13-7.

Yale university's team arrived at the invitation of Waseda university in August, 1935. The results of the games played follow:

Lost to Waseda, 8-5; defeated Waseda, 7-0; lost to Keio, 10-0; defeated Tokyo Club (night game at Tozuka), 7-5; played tie with Waseda, 8-8; lost to Meiji, 5-0; lost to Rikkyo, 4-1; defeated Waseda, 7-3; lost to Waseda, 14-0; lost to Waseda, 9-3; lost to Kansai university, 7-3.

The visit of the American major leaguers was instrumental in the formation in February of 1935 of the first professional baseball team in Japan, comprised in the main of ex-university league players. This team toured the United States under the name of "Tokyo Giants" for five months up to June, 1935 and returned to Japan with a creditable record of 75 victories and one tied game out of 110 games played.

country and some of the courses compare favorably with the best in the world.

The summer of 1935 saw the second contingent of Japanese golfers to go abroad. A six men team, comprised of Nakamura, Chin, Miyamoto, Toda, Yasuda and Asami went to compete in the American open tournament at the Oakmont course in Pennsylvania. Nakamura was the only one able to qualify with a 161. The team then toured the United States and made a creditable showing.

The first Japanese golfers ever to leave Japan for competition abroad were Asami, Miyamoto and Yasuda in 1932. It was a trip to the United States. Miyamoto later went to England and competed against some of the leading players of that country.

The All-Japan open championships, scheduled for the Hirono course in Hyogo prefecture beginning on October 5, 1934, were not held because of rain. The winners of past years follow:—

Table 8. Open Championship

Year	Winners	Location
1927 (first)	Akaboshi	Hodogaya
1928 (second)	Asami	Komazawa
1929 (third)	Miyamoto	Ibaraki
1930 (fourth)	Miyamoto	Ibaraki
1931 (fifth)	Asami	Hodogaya
1932 (sixth)	Miyamoto	Ibaraki
1933 (seventh)	Nakamura	Fujisawa
1934	Cancelled because of rain.	

Naoyasu Nabeshima of Tokyo won the All-Japan amateur crown in the championships staged for four days, beginning June 1, 1935 at the Hirono course out of 62 contestants for the third successive year. He defeated Nitta of the Musashino course 12 and 11 in the final match play.

Past title-holders of the All-Japan amateur crown since the year 1919 are as follows:

Table 9. Amateur Championship

Year	Holders	Location
1919	Kawasaki	Yokohama
1920	Malcolm	Kobe
1921	Tanaka	Tokyo
1922	Otani	Kobe
1923	(not held because of great Kanto earthquake)	
1924	Kawasaki	Tokyo
1925	Kawasaki	Tokyo
1926	Akaboshi	Hodogaya
1927	Nomura	Komazawa
1928	Akaboshi	Ibaraki

Table 12. Leading Golf Links

Name	No. of holes	Length (yards)	Area (tsubo)	Location
Kawana Golf Link	18	7,084	—	Ito, Shizuoka Prefecture
Tokyo Golf Club (Asaka Course)	18	—	220,000	Tokyo
Kobe Golf Club	18	5,000	—	Mt. Rokko, near Kobe
Hodogaya Country Club	18	6,105	—	Hodogaya, Yokohama

Year	Holders	Location
1929	Brown	Mutsnmi
1930	Akaboshi	Komazawa
1931	Nitta	Musashino
1932	Narumiya	Fujisa
1933	Nabeshima	Tokyo
1934	Nabeshima	Tokyo
1935	Nabeshima	Tokyo

Tomekichi Miyamoto, professional at the Ibaraki course, won the title in the fourth annual All-Japan professional championships played at the Hirono course for three days, beginning September 27, 1934, by defeating Ishii, Hirono professional, 3 and 1 in the final 36 hole match play. The past title-holders are:

Table 10. Professional Championship

Year	Holders
1931	Rokuzo Asami
1932	Larry Montes
1933	Larry Montes
1934	Tomekichi Miyamoto

Kanto defeated Kansai in the annual inter-sectional amateur matches, both in the men's and women's divisions by respective scores of 6.5 and 5.5 points and 9 and 3 points, played on May 7-8, 1934 in Tokyo. Past winners are:

Table 11. Inter-sectional Championship

Year	Men's Division	Women's Division
1927	Kanto	
1928	No return	
1929	Kanto	Kansai
1930	Kanto	Kanto
1931	Kanto	Kanto
1932	Kanto	Kanto
1933	Kanto	Kansai
1934	Kanto	Kanto

Kanto also defeated Kansai in the inter-sectional professional matches staged on October 2, 1934 at the Inagawa course by the score of 7 to 5 points. This put the Kanto into the lead since the start of the dual competition with two victories, one defeat and one draw.

In the first All-Japan students golf tournament sponsored by the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shim-bun, Koba of the Peers School emerged as champion when he defeated Furukawa of Kansai Gakuin 7 and 5 in the final 36 hole match play on September 6, 1935 at the Kasumigaseki course.

Leading golf links in and about Tokyo, Yokohama and other places are as follows:

Name	No. of holes	Length (yards)	Area (tsubo)	Location
Yokohama Golf Club	9	2,312	—	Negishi, Yokohama
Maiko Country Club	9	2,482	—	Tarumi, Hyogo Prefecture
Naruo Golf Club	9	3,300	—	Naruo, Hyogo Prefecture
Inagawa Golf Course	18	6,557	160,000	Inagawa, near Naruo, Hyogo Prefecture
Ibaraki Country Club	18	6,300	—	Ibaraki, Osaka Prefecture
Musashino Country Club	18	6,475	—	Kazama-mura, Chiba Prefecture
Nagoya Golf Club	18	6,063	—	Aichi Prefecture
Kasumigaseki Golf Club	18	6,600	—	Kasumigaseki, Saitama Prefecture
Fujisawa Golf Club	18	6,350	180,000	Fujisawa, Kanagawa Prefecture
Hirono Golf Club	18	—	250,000	Mino-gun, Hyogo Prefecture
Fujigaya Link	18	6,750	—	Fujigaya, Higashi Katsushika-gun, Chiba Prefecture
Takanodai Golf Club	18	6,720	200,000	Koushibashi-mura, Chiba-gun, Chiba Prefecture
Sagami Country Club	18	6,535	—	Yamato-mura, Koza-gun, Kanagawa Prefecture
Abiko Golf Club	18	6,374	—	Abiko, Chiba Prefecture

For further informations see Golf in Japan compiled by the Board of Tourist Industry (Department of Railways).

BOXING

For boxing, Japan is much indebted to Captain Warren J. Clear formerly of the American Embassy, who at the invitation of General Ugaki, then Minister of War, began instruction in 1924 of a class of 45 officers and non-commissioned officers in the art of self-defense. To the 9th Olympic Games at Amsterdam in 1928, Japan sent two champions, Usuda and Okamoto. The former had had experience and fought his way to the semi-finals in his division. In 1932, five men were sent to the Olympic Games in Los Angeles.

Through the organization of the All-Japan Professional Boxing Federation in the fall of 1934, professional boxing took a great spurt. For the first time, champions for the respective divisions were decided after an elimination tournament between November 5 and December 26, 1934, the finals being held at the Kokugikan wrestling arena of Tokyo. The following champions were crowned:

- Flyweight: Yoichiro Hanada, Imperial Boxing Club.
- Bantamweight: Otsu, Kyokuto Boxing Club.
- Featherweight: Tsuneo (Piston) Horiguchi, Nippon Boxing Club.
- Lightweight: Kotaro Suzuki, Imperial Boxing Club.
- Welterweight: Yoshio Natori, Tokyo Boxing Club.

More than 20,000 persons saw a 10-round bout between Joe Teiken, Korean boxer who had been in the United States for several years, and Cris Pineda, bantamweight and featherweight champion of the Philippines, on September 7, 1935

at a special outdoor arena at Yatsuyamashita, Shinagawa, Tokyo. Pineda won the decision. Foreign talent, particularly from the Philippines, is being continuously invited to stimulate interest in the sport. As yet there has been no fighter of any ability produced in the heavier ranks, which include the middleweight, light heavyweight and heavyweight divisions. As a matter of fact, the first heavyweight bout ever to be staged in Japan was held in the spring of 1935 between Big Martinez of the Philippines and Tony Gora of Honolulu, Hawaii, under the auspices of the All-Japan Professional Boxing Federation. The decision was won by Gora.

Amateur boxing is an important sports event in the country's inter-collegiate circles and is gaining in popularity. The All-Japan amateur championships were held at the Hibiya Public Hall auditorium on December 15-16, 1934. The winners were:

- Flyweight: Nakano, Kanto district.
- Bantamweight: Hiroaka, Kansai district.
- Featherweight: Boku, Korea.
- Lightweight: Nagamatsu, Kanto district.
- Welterweight: Sakurai, Chubu district.

Results of inter-college dual tournaments in 1934 follow:

- Kansai university defeated Keio, 6.5 to 2.5 points.
- Meiji defeated Keio, 5 decisions, 3 defeats, two draws.
- Meiji defeated Kansai university, 5 to 4.
- Meiji defeated Waseda, 7 to 3.

BASKETBALL

Basketball had a hard struggle to get a start in Japan, and it was not until the fall of 1921 that a tournament was run off in connection with the annual track and field championships, four teams responding, all from the Y.M.C.A.'s of Tokyo, Yokohama and Osaka. Eager to master this sport, the Japanese have been practising conscientiously and have developed players to such a stage that a representative all-star Japanese team is able today to provide interesting competition for the best clubs in the world.

The visit of an American team, comprised of collegiate stars in May, 1935, was a highlight in the basketball program during the past year. While the visitors won all 10 games

played, they were impressed with the development shown by the Japanese in this sport.

In the 14th All-Japan championships played at the outer court of the Meiji Shrine grounds in January, 1935, the Tokyo Imperial university five won the title by defeating the All-Keijo team from Korea, 54 to 36 in the finale. The same Tokyo Imperial university quintet won the Kanto Students' championships for the year 1934 with 10 straight victories.

In the women's division, the Kisarazu team emerged champions by defeating the Kyoto Prefectural second school team by the score of 32 to 28.

TRACK AND FIELD ATHLETICS

The tremendous development of Japan in track and field athletics was shown by her champions in a series of meets held in the autumn of 1934 with an All-American team comprised of the following: John Anderson, Cornell university; Robert Clark, University of California; Frank Crowley, Manhattan College; Glenn Cunningham, University of Kansas; Gordon Dunn, Stanford university; Donald Favor, University of Maine; Phil Good, Bowdoin College; Howard Greene, Abilaine Christian College; Charles Hornbostel, Indiana university; Walter Marty, Fresno, Calif.; Ralph Metcalfe, Marquette university; Charles Parsons, University of Southern California; Wirt Thompson, Yale university; Dudley Wilkins, Louisiana. John J. Magee was coach and manager of the team.

The American team won by 84 to 75 points in the first America-Japan meet at the Meiji Shrine grounds on September 8 and 9 but the Japanese athletes scored revenge by 77½ to 75½ points in a return meet at the Koshien stadium, near Osaka, on September 15 and 16.

America-Japan Meet, September 8 and 9, 1934

Meiji Shrine Grounds, Won by US, 84 to 75
100 meters: won by Metcalfe (US) 2. Parsons (US) 3. Yoshioka 4. Suzuki. Time: 10.5 secs.
200 meters: won by Metcalfe (US) 2. Parsons (US) 3. Taniguchi 4. Yoshioka. Time: 20.2 secs. (new world's record).
400 meters: won by Hornbostel (US) 2. Greene (US) 3. Imai 4. Miyanagi. Time: 49.2 secs.
800 meters: won by Hornbostel (US) 2. Aochi 3. Cunningham, 4. Amachika. Time: 1:54

(new Japanese International record). Aochi's time: 1:54 (new Japanese record).

1,500 meters: won by Cunningham (US) 2. Tanaka 3. Aochi 4. Crowley. Time: 4:08.6.

5,000 meters: won by Yanagi (J) 2. Crowley (US) 3. Minami 4. Cunningham (US). Time: 15:41.8.

110 meters high hurdles: won by Good (US) 2. Murakami 3. Clark. Time: 14.6 secs. (new Japanese International record). Murakami's time of 14.7 secs. (new Japanese record).

400 meters relay: won by United States (Clark, Greene, Parsons and Metcalfe). Time: 41.3 secs. (new Japanese International record); 2. Japan (Sasaki, Suzuki, Taniguchi, Yoshioka); time: 41.5 secs. (new Japanese record).

Sweden relay: won by United States (Parsons, Metcalfe, Greene, Hornbostel). Time: 1:57.6 (new Japanese International record).

Running high jump: won by Asakuma (J) 2. Yada (J) 3. Marty (US) 4. Clark (US); height: 1.95 meters.

Running broad jump: won by Harada (J) 2. Clark (US) 3. Tajima 4. Wilkins (US); distance: 7.53 meters.

Hop, step and jump: won by Oshima (J) 2. Harada (J) 3. Wilkins (US) 4. Marty (US); distance: 15.28 meters.

Pole vault: won by Ohye (J) 2. Thompson (US) 3. Nishida 4. Favor (US); height: 4 meters.

Shot put: won by Dunn (US) 2. Takada (J) 3. Anderson (US) 4. Nishimura (J); distance: 15.26 meters (new Japanese International record). Takada's distance: 13.77 meters (new Japanese record).

Discus throw: won by Dunn (US) 2. Anderson (US) 3. Fujita 4. Kikumoto. Distance: 47.42 meters (new Japanese International record).

Hammer throw: won by Abe (J) 2. Favor (US) 3. Tsukamoto (J) 4. Anderson (US). Distance: 48.98 meters, (new Japanese record).

Javelin throw: won by Nagao (J) 2. Suzuki (J) 3. Clark (US) 4. Dunn (US). Distance: 62.70 meters.

America-Japan Meet, September 15-16, 1934.

Koshien Grounds, Won by Japan, 77½ to 75½

100 meters: won by Metcalfe 2. Parsons 3. Yoshioka 4. Taniguchi. Time: 10.3 secs. (equalling world's record).

200 meters: won by Metcalfe 2. Yoshioka 3. Parsons 4. Suzuki. Time: 21.4 secs.

400 meters: won by Hornbostel 2. Greene 3. Imai 4. Miyanagi. Time: 49.2 secs.

800 meters: won by Hornbostel 2. Cunningham 3. Amachika. Time: 1:57.4.

1,500 meters: won by Cunningham 2. Tanaka 3. Aochi 4. Crowley. Time: 3:58.4 (new Japanese International record); Tanaka's time: 4:00.4 (new Japanese record).

5,000 meters: won by Crowley 2. Yanagi 3. Minami 4. Cunningham. Time: 16:08.6

110 meters high hurdles: won by Murakami 2. Good, 3. Shimizu 4. Clark. Time: 14.6 secs. (new Japanese record).

400 meters relay: both teams were disqualified.

Sweden relay: won by Japan (Yoshioka, Taniguchi, Miyanagi, Imai). Time: 1:57.5 (new Japanese record).

Running high jump: won by Asakuma 2. Marty

3. Yada. Height: 2 meters (new Japanese record).

Running broad jump: won by Harada 2. Clark 3. Tajima 4. Wilkins; distance: 7.59 meters.

Hop, step and jump: won by Oshima 2. Harada 3. Clark; distance: 15.82 meters (new world's record).

Pole vault: won by Ohye, 2. Nishida 3. Thompson 4. Favor. Height: 4.20 meters.

Shot put: won by Dunn 2. Takada 3. Anderson 4. Nishimura. Distance: 15.62 meters (new Japanese International record); Takada's distance of 13.86 meters, (new Japanese record).

Discus throw: won by Dunn 2. Anderson 3. Kikumoto 4. Fujita. Distance: 46.43 meters.

Hammer throw: won by Favor 2. Abe 3. Tsukamoto 4. Anderson. Distance: 51.16 meters (new Japanese International record); Abe's distance of 48.23 meters (new Japanese record).

Javelin throw: won by Nagao 2. Suzuki 3. Favor 4. Dunn. Distance: 62.98 meters.

An All-Philippines track and field team arrived in June, 1935 but were no match for the Japanese. Scores of the three principal meets were as follows: Kanto district, Kinki district and Philippines triangular meet at Koshien, June 9, 1935: Kanto, 106½; Kinki, 94½; Philippines, 66; All-Japan-Philippines meet at Meiji Shrine grounds, June 15, 1935: Japan, 98; Philippines, 50; All-Students, 68; Philippines, 47.

The following are the champion women athletes of Japan for the year 1934:

Table 13. Women Champions (1934)

Event	Name	Time, Distance or Height
60 meters dash	Miss Inui	7.8 secs.
100 meters dash	Miss Watanabe	12.4 secs.
200 meters dash	Miss Morita	26.9 secs.
400 meters run	Miss Morita	1:04.1 m.
800 meters run	Miss Idota	2:28.6 m.
80 meters hurdles	Miss Mitsui	12.7 secs.
400 meters relay	Kyoto Nijo School (Kodani, Yamamoto, Nakamura, Takino)	52.6 secs.
800 meters relay	Sugiyama Girls School (Hattori, Kondo, Mizutani, Terai)	1:52.9 m. (New Japanese record)
Running high jump	Miss Hirohashi	1.50 meters.
Running broad jump	Miss Watanabe	5.63 meters.
Hop, step and jump	Miss Hayashi	11.24 meters.
Shot put	Miss Kojima	11.05 meters. (New Japanese record)
Discus throw	Miss Ishizu	34.98 meters.
Javelin throw	Miss Yamamoto	41.28 meters.
Pentathlon	Miss Kakida	195 points

VOLLEY-BALL

Volley-Ball was introduced to Japan hand in hand with basketball, and is now quite popular among school girls. The National Championship games are held annually. At present the Kobe

Higher Commercial School holds the honor. Girls' championship games also take place every year.

SOCCKER AND RUGBY

Perhaps as a result of the presence of the then British Ambassador Sir Conyngham Greene at the Kanto matches, a silver cup was presented in March, 1919, by the Football Association in England to the Japan Football Association, which latter, however, did not come into existence until October, 1921, when it was organized in Tokyo with Mr. J. Imamura as president and Prince I. Tokugawa and the British Ambassador as honorary presidents. With the formation of the Association the National Championship game was started.

Soccer.—In January 1932, the Japan Foot-

ball Association invited Canadian Rugby team, the first foreign team that has ever made a trip to Japan to play this game, and Japanese made a fair showing against such a team of year's tradition and practice. Soccer is less popular than Rugby but it is contested every year at the Meiji Shrine Stadium among the leading Universities and Colleges. At the 1934 contest of Kwanto vs. Kwansai University league held at the Meiji Shrine stadium, the Waseda University got the championship beating the Kyoto Imperial University with a score of 5—2. The annual record is as follows:—

Table 14. Soccer Results

1929.....	Tokyo Imperial University	8—2	Kwansai Gakuin
1930.....	" " "	2—1	Kyoto Imperial University
1931.....	" " "	2—2	Kwansai Gakuin
1932.....	Keio University	2—1	Kyoto Imperial University
1933.....	Waseda University	5—2	" " "
1934.....	" " "	5—0	" " "

HOCKEY AND CRICKET

Hockey.—This Western game is of the latest introduction in Japan, and it was only in November, 1926, that the first national championship tournament was held, when the Waseda team came out first in the final. This same team with the strong addition from other colleges made up a newly combined Japanese team and participated in the 10th Olympic Games at Los Angeles and acquired a second position beating the United States team by 9—2, and

trailing the British-Indian team with 10—1. It was rather a remarkable achievement for any hockey team to score even a single point against the strong and well-balanced team such as Indian. In the All-Japan Championship contest held at Toyama School grounds (Tokyo) in the autumn of 1934, the Tokyo University of Commerce won the championship beating the Nagoya Commercial School with a score of 9—1. The annual record is as follow:—

Table 15. Hockey Championship

	Winner		Winner
1923.....	Keio Univ.	1929.....	Waseda Univ.
1924.....	Toyama School	1930.....	Tokyo Univ. of Com.
1925.....	Meiji Univ.	1931.....	Waseda Univ.
1926.....	Waseda Univ.	1932.....	Keio Univ.
1927.....	Meiji Univ.	1933.....	Keio Univ.
1928.....	Keio Univ.	1934.....	Tokyo Univ. of Com.

An event of international importance was the visit in March, 1930 of the Battlesford Millers ice hockey team of Saskatchewan, Western Canada, which won all seven matches played against the best talent available in the Empire. The Canadians displayed excellent teamwork in their passing attack and the handling of their sticks superb. Though they won with one-sided scores, the Japanese teams seemed to improve with each

game and clearly demonstrated they were learning much from the performance of the visitors.

Rugby.—First introduced by Mr. G. Tanaka who studied at Cambridge the sport is now as well developed in the Kwansai district as in the Kanto district.

In January and February, 1934, a series of international football tournaments was held between various Japanese teams and the visiting

student rugby team from Australia, the matches being held in Tokyo and Kobe. The scores were as follow:—

Table 16. Rugby Results

Australian	33—15	All-Kwansai team
Keio Univ.	16—8	Australian
Meiji	36—8	"
Australian	21—6	Waseda Univ. team
"	18—8	All-Univ. League
"	23—11	Doshisha Univ.
All-Univ. League	14—9	Australian

At the Kwanto vs. Kwansai 8th contest for 1934 the Kwanto team won with a score of 8—6. The Kyoto Imperial University, Doshisha and the 3rd High School represented the Kwansai while the Keio, Waseda, Meiji, Rikkyo, Tokyo Imperial University and Tokyo Commercial University the Kwanto district, the annual record being as follows:—

Table 17. Football Results

1928.....	Kwanto	9—6	Kwansai
1929.....	"	17—6	"
1930.....	"	37—5	"
1931.....	"	13—8	"
1932.....	"	33—22	"
1933.....	"	54—16	"
1934.....	"	40—3	"
1935.....	"	8—6	"

LAWN TENNIS

Lawn tennis has the distinction of being the first Japanese sport that has laid a claim to international notice and gained for Japan entry in the world tournament of Davis Cup. It was Kumagai, Shimizu and Kashio, who for the first time in 1921 played for Japan. In the 1929 competition Japan, represented by Harada, Ohta and Toba in the American zone tournaments, defeated Mexico, then Canada, but in the final contest was beaten by the French team. Since then the Japanese team has been fighting its way through the European zone instead of American zone where repeatedly Japanese were repulsed by the team from the United States and never has it been fortunate enough to reach the final of Inter-zone matches. In 1933, Japan went to the second round without having the first matches, beat the Greek team five to nothing, Denmark five to nothing, but in the semi-final challenge round was beaten by the strong team of Italy by three matches to two. Kuwabara, Satoh and Miki were Japanese representatives. Later in the same season J. Satoh and Miki went to England and showed their skill and stamina in the Wimbledon Tournament, though beaten by Austin of England in the semi-final of men's single.

Football.—The past year saw the organization of the Tokyo Intercollegiate American Football League with Meiji, Rikkyo and Waseda competing, the championship being won by the first mentioned aggregation. The first full-fledged American style football game in Japan was played on Thanksgiving Day, November 29, 1934 at the Meiji Shrine grounds between an all-collegiate team against the Yokohama Country and Athletic Club eleven. Though outweighed heavily, experience was a stronger factor and the students won by a 26 to 0 score.

With the view to educating the public on American football, the Asahi Shimbun of Tokyo invited a group of 35 American collegiate football stars, comprising blue and red teams under the management of Albert Maloney, former star player of the University of Southern California, to Japan in early spring of 1935. They played exhibition games in Tokyo and in the Kansai. Needless to say, the visitors had no trouble winning from Japan in the first dual competition held in this sport.

Five university teams battled for the 1935 championships, which was won by Meiji University.

To the Davis Cup contest (European zone tournament) held in May and June, 1934, Japan sent Satoh, Yamagishi, Nishimura and Fujikura. In the singles, Japan (Yamagishi and Fujikura) was defeated by Australia with 1 to 3, and in the doubles too, Japan (Nishimura and Yamagishi) was again defeated by Australia with 1 to 3. It was a great loss not only to Japan but also to the world athletic circles that Satoh who had established a world-wide fame in this branch of athletics in the previous contests died while on way to Europe. It is, however, gratifying that the Japanese champion Miki secured the championship honor with Miss Round of England at the All-British Championship Tournament at Wimbledon in July the same season.

For the 1935 Davis Cup international tennis competition, Japan sent only two players, Jiro Yamagishi and Hideo Nishimura, both of Keio university and first and second ranking players, respectively, of the country, to the European zone. Although they defeated Holland in the opening round at The Hague, they were eliminated in the second round by Czechoslovakia at Prague.

ROWING

This sport was originated by the Tokyo Imperial University about the year 1880, and fostered by the young Englishman, Prof. Strange. The Sumida River in Tokyo, the Seta River and Lake Biwa, both near Kyoto, are regular scenes of contests for the championship in spring or autumn every year. The adoption in 1920 of the international standard boat with eight outrigger sliding seats at the instance of Dr. S. Kishi (late Chairman of Japan Athletic Association) revived this sport which had lost much of its interest. In that year the Japan Amateur Rowing Association with Dr. S. Kishi as chairman

was organized by all the collegiate institutions of the country.

In the 1932 Olympics, Waseda represented Japan in eight oar boat and Keio in four oars in the water contest. Though both of them did not come through in the first preliminary heats, Japan expects much from this branch of sports in the coming Olympics.

In the All-Japan Championship contest for 1934 the Keio University won the honor in eight oars and the Nihon Medical University in four oars.

WRESTLING

Though a national game of Japan of ancient origin and still popular among all classes of people, this manly sport suffered decadence after the overthrow of feudalism, but it soon recovered popularity with the rise of militarism. It is now in danger of again losing its hold on popular fancy, owing to the encroachment of the more thrilling display of modern sports imported from the West.

The Tokyo Professional Wrestlers' Association possesses an amphitheatre at Ryogoku, Tokyo, capable of accommodating 13,000 persons. Tokyo and Osaka are two headquarters of the game where there are some 200 professional wrestlers who are classified into nine grades of which only those of the first two or three, numbering in all ten, occupy the front rank. Grandmatches are given twice a year, January and May, ten days on each occasion. For convenience of public display, the wrestlers are divided into two opposing "camps," eastern and western, and each wrestler is pitted with one on the opposite side, till the whole ten in the rival camps have gone through the matches in the prescribed ten days. There are two grades of champions, namely the

Yokozuna (who alone is entitled to hang round his waist the honored straw festoon) and next the Sanyaku (or three services which are the Ozeki, Sekiwaki and Komusubi). The Association is composed of retired champion wrestlers, limited to 80 in number, wrestlers on active service and umpires. Regular income of wrestlers is very small, and it is on account of the share they are allowed in the profit of the Association and especially of the gifts they receive from their regular patrons that the wrestlers are able to maintain themselves. Wrestlers indeed are considered from former times as pets of society, from their simplicity and disinterestedness as compared with more artful and worldly actors. The traditional tricks and dodges of wrestlers number forty-eight based on the fundamental "hand," viz., "nage" (to throw), "kake" (feet entangling), "hineri" (to twist) and "sori" (to uplift). In practice, however, tricks as used on the ring number some two hundreds.

Wrestling is also popular among college boys and several times a year they hold matches at either Tokyo or Osaka to contest the championship.

WINTER SPORTS

SKATING AND SKIING

Skating is an ancient pastime in north-eastern Japan but the regular dates some thirty years back and was introduced by foreigners. As a sport for general public a performance was first given about 1907 on Lake Suwa (in Nagano prefecture), about 40 miles north-west from Tokyo, and with the shores abounding in hot springs. Lake Matsubara, also in Nagano, is another popular skating rink. Several lakes at the north-eastern foot of Mt. Fuji are also

visited by skaters. The Ice Sports League now exists as rival to the Japan Skating Association. The 6th All-Japan championship contest for figure was held in January (26-27), 1935, at the Shibaura link, hockey at the Shibaura link and the Sanno Hotel link on January 25-27, 1935, and the speed at the Hosoo link, Nikko, on January 22-23, 1935, the 1st winners for contest being as follow:—

Table 18. Ski Championship

Figure:	7 points..... {school...948.80} Katayama {free.....703.08} (Kwanto Gakuin)	
Speed:		
500 m.....	45.5"	S. Ishiwara
1,500 m.....	2' 28.0"	Kin (Kanto)
5,000 m.....	8' 49.9"	Kin (Kanto)
10,000 m.....	18' 24.5"	Kin (Kanto)
Hockey:		
Tomakomai	6-8	Nikko

Miss Fritzi Burger, Austrian queen on the ice, who placed second in the women's figure skating competition at the last Olympics in 1932 was in Japan early in 1935 through an invitation extended by the Asahi Shimbun. Her exhibitions at the Shibaura rink of Tokyo and at Osaka, without a doubt, contributed greatly to the development of this sport in Japan. She took particular pains to coach Japanese talent while on her visit.

Skiing was introduced about 1910 by an Austrian officer attached to a Japanese regiment in Takata, Niigata-ken, one of the most snowy dis-

tricts in Japan. The favorite skiing slopes as they exist at present are Seki, Taguchi and Akakura on the slope of Mt. Kyoko, about 10 hrs. from Tokyo; Numajiri at the foot of Mt. Bandai (about 8 hrs. from Tokyo) which was chosen by the Waseda Ski Club in 1923 as its training ground; Goshiki about 2 m. up Mt. Azuma, situated close by Itaya station on the O-u railway Line, about 10 hrs. from Tokyo. Owani in Aomori-ken, Takata in Niigata-ken, Sapporo and other slopes in Hokkaido are also good skiing grounds. Skiers in the Kyoto-Osaka district enjoy the sport on Mount Ibuki standing near the shore of Lake Biwa.

Hannes Schneider, noted Austrian skier, came to Japan in the spring of 1930 and made a lecture on skiing in Tokyo. He visited leading skiing grounds in Northern Japan and Hokkaido, where he gave lectures or coached the Japanese skiers.

The 13th All-Japan Ski championship contest was held in February 9-11, 1935 at Miyanomori near Sapporo, Hokkaido, the winners of the 1st honor being as follow:—

Table 19. Records for Young Men

Events	Records	Holders
50 kms.....	5' 22.22"	Okazaki (Oyubari)
18 ".....	1' 20.23"	Yamada (Aomori)
Doubles.....	393.5 points	Sekiguchi (Hokkaido Imp. Univ.)
Jumping	219.0 "	Adachi (Sapporo Ry. Region)
32 km. relay	2' 57.25"	Aomori team
Records for Adults		
18 kms.....	1' 36.7"	Minami (Sapporo)
Doubles	420.7 points	Takahashi (Morioka)
Jumping	201.0 "	Akino (Otaru)
Records for Boys		
18 kms.....	1' 25.54"	Murai (Nayori Middle Sch.)
Doubles	384.0 points	Fuyeno (Toyohara)
Jumping	207.7 "	Kamegamori (Hokkai Middle Sch.)

HORSE RIDING AND RACES

Horse racing has revived prosperity with the permission of pari mutuel tickets under strict restriction in 1923. The Government is encouraging racing by granting aids. Eleven race clubs exist, as Hanshin at Naruo, Tokyo at Fuchu and Nippon at Yokohama, etc. There are 8 others in the provinces, races being held semi-

annually, namely in spring and autumn.

In the spring races of 1933 there were altogether 507,445 admissions, prizes awarded amounting to ¥1,700,982, tickets sold ¥37,342,000 and amount distributed ¥31,501,000.

The fastest records published in July, 1934, are as follow:—

Table 20. Japanese Bred

Distance	Name	Age	Record	Gallop	
				Club	Year
1,600 meters	Yae-hikari	4	1' 42.0"	Hanshin	1934 (Spring)
1,800 "	King II	7	1' 52.4"	Fukushima	1932 (")
2,000 "	Efford	5	2' 05.2"	Hanshin	1934 (")

Hurdle

Distance	Name	Age	Record	Club	Year
2,000 "	Yamayasu	5	2' 05.2"	Niigata	" (")
2,400 "	Hanryu	5	2' 32.0"	Fukushima	" (")
2,600 "	Asahagi	6	2' 45.3"	Hanshin	" (")
3,200 "	Hakuko	5	3' 26.0"	Nakayama	1933 (Autumn)
3,400 "	Hakuryu	5	3' 44.0"	Tokyo	1932 (Spring)
4,000 "	"	5	4' 23.4"	Nakayama	1932 (")
2,000 "	Royal Cup	5	2' 12.1"	Hanshin	1933 (Autumn)
2,200 "	Pino	7	2' 29.2"	Sapporo	1933 (Spring)
2,400 "	Shaidai-Noboru	6	2' 38.0"	Hanshin	1934 (")
2,600 "	Yamamichi	7	2' 52.2"	"	" (")
2,800 "	"	6	3' 06.1"	Niigata	1933 (")
3,200 "	Asbel	6	3' 35.0"	Sapporo	1933 (Spring)
3,300 "	Shaidai-Noboru	6	3' 59.2"	Hanshin	1934 (")

Trot

3,200 "	Yamajiman	6	5' 31.2"	Kokura	1933 (Autumn)
3,400 "	Manri	4	5' 11.1"	Hanshin	1934 (Spring)
3,600 "	Bordeaux	4	5' 31.4"	"	" (")
3,800 "	Fast arrow	4	5' 58.0"	"	" (")
4,000 "	Manri	4	7' 00.0"	"	1933 (Autumn)
4,200 "	Harbin	4	6' 51.0"	Nippon	1933 (Spring)
4,400 "	Seiyu	4	7' 04.2"	"	" (")
4,800 "	"	4	7' 20.3"	Hanshin	" (")
5,000 "	"	4	7' 56.0"	Tokyo	" (")
5,200 "	Tokachi Faster	4	8' 11.2"	Kyoto	" (")
6,000 "	King Trotter	4	10' 10.4"	Hanshin	" (")

Table 21. Foreign Bred (Gallop)

Year	1.2 miles			1 mile		
	Place	Name	Speed	Place	Name	Speed
1926	Tokyo	Sonohana	2' 45.59"	Tokyo	Sonohana	1' 47.00"
1927	"	Asbel	2' 44.00"	Yokohama	Shirano	1' 46.40"
1928	"	Chishima	2' 40.55"	Tokyo	Bisk	1' 47.85"
1929	"	Virginia	2' 51.78"	"	Rina	1' 48.70"
1930	"	"	2' 51.90"	"	Chishima	1' 48.10"

Leading horserace clubs are as follows:—

Table 22. Horse Race Clubs

	Established	Location
Tokyo Race Club	May, 1919	Fuchu-machi, near Tokyo
Nippon Race Club	December, 1905	Negishi, Yokohama
Hanshin Race Club	March, 1907	Naruo-machi, Hyogo Prefecture
Kyoto Race Club	March, 1907	Mukojima-machi, Fushimi-ku, Kyoto
Kokura Race Club	July, 1910	Kokura, Kyushu
Niigata Race Club	December, 1907	Sekiya-machi, Niigata City
Nakayama Race Club	July, 1907	Katsushika-machi, Chiba Prefecture
Hakodate Race Club	May, 1900	Yukawa-mura, near Hakodate, Hokkaido
Sapporo Race Club	April, 1907	Sapporo, Hokkaido
Fukushima Race Club	April, 1908	Fukushima City, Fukushima Prefecture
Miyazaki Race Club	September, 1907	Miyazaki City, Kyushu

Horseanship has also gained some popularity among college students and even women. There are at present about 15 equestrian clubs in larger cities while many universities and collegiate schools have their students' horse-riding societies.

MOUNTAINEERING

Mountaineering as a pious act of religious sentiment of those who are inclined to test their sturdy legs and power of endurance by mountain climbing. The example was first set by foreigners.

Sacred peaks visited by mountain pilgrims are found almost everywhere in Japan, but of these the most popular are Fuji, Ontake, Tateyama, etc.

Fuji (12,387 ft.)—Fuji, though the highest in Japan proper, is the easiest ascend, and also in the season best provided with accommodations and facilities. Even a post office is opened then. There are five regular paths leading to the summit, viz., Omiyaguchi (about 20 m. to top), Gotemba-guchi (20 m.), Subashiri-guchi (13 m.), Suyama-guchi (18 m.) and Yoshida-guchi (18 m.). The first four lie along the Tokaido railway while the last is approached from the opposite side.

"Japanese Alps."—It is generally believed that this name was first given by an English mountaineer to the mountain ranges extending from the Pacific to the Japan Sea, the broadest region of Hosshu, and lying approximately between 35°-37° N. and 137°-139° E. The Japanese Alps are commonly divided into three groups, viz., Northern Alps, Central Alps, and Southern Alps, with peaks standing 10,000 ft. or thereabout as follow:—

Higashidake
Shiomidake
Shirane-Ainotake
Shirane-Nodoridake
N.B.—The Japanese words "take," "take," "yama," or "san" signify "mount" or "peak."

Of the three groups the northern one is most popular, on account of comparatively easy access, presence of several thermal springs existing in the valley, as Kamikochi (5,000 ft.), Shirahone (4,000 ft.) and Hirayu (4,000 ft.), and richness of flora. The Southern Alps are deep and their peaks are difficult to ascend owing to the presence of foothills and primeval forests; also wild beasts are still met with now and then.

Hodaka, consisting of three peaks, is noted for rock-climbing, for which fact the chain is compared with the European Alpine peaks, and as the three Hodakas stand lofty, steep, liable to crumble, and therefore require help of roping appeal strongly to the adventurous spirit of bold climbers. It was probably on that account that Prince Chichibu (Hon. Mem. of the Alpine Club), climbed Hokada in 1928 with Mr. Maki, a mountaineer of international fame who scaled Mt. Alberta of the Canadian Rockies in July, 1925, and with some other mountain climbers of note.

Table 23. Peaks

Northern Alps:—	Tsubakurodake
Ontake	Tsurugidake
Norikuradake	Central Alps:—
Yakedake	Kiso-Komagatake
Hodake	Enadake
Yarigatake	Southern Alps:—
Tateyama	Kai-Komagatake
Shirouma	Jizodake
Jonendake	Senjogatake
Dai-tenjodake	Akaishidake
Arakawadake	Shirane-Kitadake

Mountaineering and Exploration

Peak-hunting is no longer the main object of mountaineering in Japan as no peak worthy of name is left unexplored. The attention of a mountaineer of any pretension is now chiefly directed to exploring little known valleys and river sources, or a primeval forest district as in the so-called "Kishu Alps." By calling in the help of ski, the explorers have in the winter season extensively covered Shirouma, the Tateyama range and other peaks.

References: Tables 1-19—Undo Nenkan (Sports Year Book), 1935, published by the Asahi Shimbun-sha, Tables 20-22—Tokyo Horse Race Club,

SUPPLEMENT

DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SERVICE (FOREIGN AND JAPANESE)

The present directory or who's who in diplomatic and consular service does not cover the changes occurring after October 1, 1935.

FOREIGN EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS IN TOKYO

EMBASSIES:

- Belgium**—33, Shimoniban-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Kudan 3556).
Ambassador—Baron de Bassompierre.
Secretary—Maurice Iweins d'Eeckhoutte.
Secretary-Interpreter—Ferdinand Buckens.
- Brazil**—2, 3-chome, Omote-cho, Akasaka-ku (Tel. Aoyama 5668).
Ambassador—Carlos Martins Pereira e Souza.
1st Secretary—A. Moreira de Abreu.
- China**—14, 6-chome, Iigura-machi, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 81, 82).
Ambassador—General Tsiang Tso-Ping.
Counsellor—C. K. Ting.
Military Attache—Major-General S. S. Hsiao;
Assist. Military Attache—Lt.-Colonel H.P. Chow. 1st Secretary—S. T. Ly; 2nd Secretaries—C. Sun, H. L. Young, Dr. T. Mar; 3rd Secretaries—T. S. Wen, Y. S. Chu; Attaches—Y. Hoa Sun, N. K. Lee, H. C. Wang, Chang Hung-Pin.
- France**—33, Fujimi-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Takanawa 90.)
Ambassador—Fernand Pila.
Counsellor—Jean-Baptiste Barbier.
Military Attache—Lt.-Col. Charles Emmanuel Mast.
Naval Attache—Captain de Vaisseau Joseph Rosati.
Air Attache—Wing-Commander Max Bruyere.
3rd Secretaries—Maurice Peyregne, Baron James Baeyens; 1st Secretary-Interpreter—Georges Bonmarchand; Secretary-Archivist—François Guezennec; Second Secretary-Interpreter—D. Joly; Commercial Attache—Alfred Fischbacher.
- Germany**—14, 1-chome, Nagatacho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 2317, 2318, 3033).
Ambassador—Dr. Herbert von Dirksen.
Counsellor—Dr. W. Noebel.

Counsellor (of Legation)—Dr. H. Kolb.
Military Attache—Colonel E. Otto.
Naval Attache—Captain Wencker.
Chancellor—H. Schultze; Commercial Secretary—W. Haas.

Great Britain—1, Goban-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Kudan 2706 & 2707).
Ambassador—Sir Robert H. Clive.
Counsellor—W. B. Cunningham.
Military Attache—Colonel E. A. H. James.
Naval Attache—Captain J. G. P. Vivian.
Air Attache—Wing-Commander R. W. Chapell.
Commercial Counsellor—G. B. Sansom (absent),
Acting Commercial Counsellor—H. A. Macrae.
Acting Commercial Secretary—R. L. Cowley.
2nd Secretary—H. A. Clarke; 3rd Secretaries—G. W. Harrison & D. F. MacDermot; Assist. Naval Attache—Com. G. C. Ross; Acting 3rd Secretaries—H. N. Brain & W. W. McVittie; Student Interpreters—D. J. Cheke & F. S. Tomlinson; Archivist—J. M. Tabor; 2nd Archivist—W. E. D. Massey; Naval Attaché's Office—Lt.-Com. R. B. Leggatt (retired); Military Attache's Office—H. T. Langstone; Air Attache's Office—G. H. P. Bell; Commercial Attache's Office—M. Goss.

Italy—28, 1-chome, Mita, Shiba-ku. (Tel. Mita 1580).
Ambassador—Giacinto Auriti.
Counsellor—Luigi Mariani.
Military & Air Attache—Lt.-Colonel Guglielmo Scalise.
Naval Attache—Captain Alberto Ghe.
1st Secretary—Livio Garbaccio; 1st Secretary-Interpreter—Aimo G. Melkay.

Manchoukuo—50, Sakurada-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 7055).
Ambassador—Hsieh Chieh-shih.
Counsellors—Yu Ching-Yuan, Torao Kawasaki.
Military Attache—Major-Gen. Tsao Ping-sen.
1st Secretaries—Masakazu Tanaka, Yeh Yao-kun;

- Commercial Attaches—Kanichi Utsumi, Shinya Rokugo, Tadashi Nakao; Assist. Military Attache—Lt.-Colonel Y. F. Jao; 3rd Secretary—Yu Hsiao-lan; Chancellors—Tu Hsiao-chen, Soji Yamamoto, Otohiko Murakomi, Keihachi Sakurai, Hsueh Ta-chang; Attache—Sun Tsuo.
- Turkey**—47, Kasumi-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 4520).
Charge d'Affaires—Nevil Bey.
Military Attache—Major Rustu Erdelhun.
2nd Secretary—Dr. Nureddin Naci Akinci.
- The United States of America**—1, Enokizaka-machi, Akasaka-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 421, 422, 423, 424, 525, 1409).
Ambassador—Joseph Clark Grew.
Counsellor—Edwin L. Neville.
Military Attache—Major William C. Crane.
Naval Attache—Captain Fred F. Rogers.
Commercial Attache—Frank S. Williams.
1st Secretary—Erle R. Dickover; 2nd Secretaries—Edward S. Crocker & Cabot Coville; 3rd Secretaries—William T. Turner, Morris N. Hughes, George D. Andrews; Assist. Military Attache—Captain John Weckerling; Assist. Naval Attache—Lt.-Commander Ralph Andrew Ofstie; Attaches—Charles C. Cooper & Gerald Warner. Honorary Attache—J. Graham Parsons, Jr.
- U. S. S. R.**—1, Mamiana-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 138, 139).
Ambassador—Constantin Youreneff.
Commercial Counsellor—Vladimir Kotchetoff.
Counsellor—Nicolas Rayvid.
Military Attache—Jean Rink.
Naval Attache—Alexandre Kovaleff.
1st Secretaries—Arcadii Askoff & Isaac Deitchman; 2nd Secretary—Jean Jourba; 3rd Secretary—Boris Guintze; Assist. Military Attache—Nicolai Vishnevetsky; Assist. Naval Attache—Konstantin Ganulich; Japanese Language Secretary—Mihail Andreeff.
- LEGATIONS:**
- Afghanistan**—7, Aoba-cho, Shibuya-ku (Tel. Aoyama 5790).
Minister—Habibullah Khan Tarzi.
Secretary—Abdul Rauf Khan.
- Argentina**—67, Shinsaka-machi, Akasaka-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 3290).
Charge d'Affaires a. i.—Arturo Alvarez Montenegro.
- Canada**—16, 3-chome, Omote-cho, Akasaka-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 2078).
Minister—Herbert Marler.
1st Secretary—Dr. Hugh Ll. Keenleyside.
- 1st Secretary—James A. Langley.
2nd Secretary—Kenneth P. Kirkwood; Assist. Commercial Attaches—A. Keith Doull, Theodor J. Monty; Attache—F. McKeek Irwin.
- Chile**—7, 1-chome, Shirokane Dai-machi, Shiba-ku. (Tel. Takanawa 3141).
Minister—
Counsellor, Charge d'Affaires a. i.—Sergio Montt.
Commercial Counsellor—Arturo Rose-Innes.
- Colombia**—Imperial Hotel, Uchiyamashita-cho, Kojimachi-ku.
Minister—Dr. Domingo Esguerra.
- Cuba**—11, Shinryudo-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 5840).
Counsellor, Charge d'Affaires a. i.—Dr. Americo Cruz y Fernandez.
- Czechoslovakia**—22, Kasumi-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 7004).
Minister—Frantisek Havlicek.
- Denmark**—8, Nakadori, Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Marunouchi 967).
Charge d'Affaires a. i.—Hugo Hergel (Counsellor).
Assist. Commercial Attache—Aage Henriksen.
- Finland**—62, Tansu-machi, Azabuku. (Tel. Akasaka 205).
Minister—Hugo Valvanne.
Secretary-Archivist—Toivo Ilmari Kala.
- Iran**—55, Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 3010).
Minister—Mirza Bagher Azimi.
Counsellor—Mirza Ahmad Khan Ardeshir.
- Mexico**—21, 2-chome, Nagata-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. 4494, 4495).
Minister—General Francisco J. Aguilar.
1st Secretary—Carlos A. Baumbach.
- Netherlands**—1, Sakae-cho, Shiba-ku. (Tel. Shiba 3045, 130).
Minister—General J. C. Pabst. (absent).
Charge d'Affaires a. i.—Comte W. C. Van Rechteren Limpurg; Secretary-Interpreter—J. B. Snellen; Assist. Interpreter—Dr. R. H. van Gulik; Attache—Lieutenant Y. A. L. Muller.
- Norway**—2, 3-chome, Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku. (Room No. 419, 4th Floor, Mitsubishi Building No. 21.) (Tel. Marunouchi 3790).
Charge d'Affaires a. i.—Christian Prahls Reusch.
- Peru**—13, Shinsaka-machi, Akasaka-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 5820).
Charge d'Affaires a. i.—(1st Secretary) Jorge Bailey Lembcke.
Military Attache—Commander Juan Mendoza.

- Poland**—3, Hiroo-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Takanawa 2308).
Minister—Michel Moscicki.
Military Attache—Commander Brevete Adam Przybylski.
Secretary—Jacek Trawinski; Chancellor—Marja Remiszewska.
- Portugal**—1, Sannen-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 1048).
Minister—Dr. Thomaz Ribeiro de Mello.
Secretary—Dr. Waldemar da Fonseca Araujo.
- Rumania**—55, Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 8024).
Charge d'Affaires—Georges G. Stoicesco.
Military, Naval & Air Attache—Lt.-Colonel G. Bagulesco.
2nd Secretary—Radu Flondor.
- Siam**—2, Dai-machi, Akasaka-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 4337).
Minister—Phra Mitrakarm Raksha.
- 3rd Secretary—Luang Ratanadeb; Atche—Arun Vichitrananda.
- Spain**—2, 1-chome, Ichibei-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 462).
Minister—Santiago Méndez de Vigo (absent).
Charge d'Affaires a. i.—Juan Gomez de Molina y Elio.
- Sweden**—63, Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 5770).
Minister—Dr. J. E. Hultman.
Secretary—Ragnvald Bagge.
Interpreter—John Widenfelt.
- Switzerland**—1, Shimoniban-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Kudan 2302).
Minister—Walter Thurnheer.
- Uruguay**—Rooms Nos. 251-252, Osaka Building, 3, 1-chome, Uchisaiwai-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 2002).
Charge d'Affaires a. i.—Eduardo Daniel de Arteaga. (Secretary).

FOREIGN CONSULATES IN JAPAN

* Consulate-General; C.G.=Consul-General; C.=Consul; H.C.=Honorary Consul; V.C.=Vice-Consul; H.V.C.=Honorary Vice-Consul; Aux. C.=Auxiliary Consul.

- Argentina:**
Kobe Francisco Ortiz (C. G.)
Nagoya Manpei Abe (H. V. C.)
Osaka Shozo Murata (H. C.)
Yokohama Ikuro Atsumi (H. C.)
- Austria:**
Tokyo {Ernst Stoeri (H. C. G.)
 {Dr. Otto Kresta (H.V.C.)
- Belgium:**
Dairen (Kwantung) Josaku Furusawa (H.V.C.)
Keijo (Chosen) ... Masaju Hirayama (H. C.)
Kobe Henri Melchior (H. C.)
Nagasaki J. Vachier (H. C.)
Osaka Katsutaro Inabata (H. C.)
Yokohama Adhemar Ronvaux (H. C.)
- Bolivia:**
Kobe Gisaku Takikawa (H. C.)
Osaka Katsutaro Inabata (H. C.)
Yokohama Tetsuro Ono (H. C. G.)
- Brazil:**
Kobe {Oscar Correia (C. G.)
 {Egydio da Camara Souza (Aux. C.)
 {Pedro Vicente Couto (H. V. C.)
 {Ryuzo Tawara (Consular agent)
- Nagasaki Yutaka Ota (H. C.)
Yokohama Renato Carneiro da Cunha (Charge d'Affaires C.)
- Chile:**
Kobe Alberto Meinhold (H. C.)
Tokyo Carlos de la Barra (H. C.)
- China:**
Fusan (Chosen) ... {Chen Tsu Kan (C.)
 {S. Y. Chen (V. C.)
 {Tsen Ting Kuin (Chancellor)
- Gensan (Chosen) ... {Ma Yon Fa (V. C.)
 {Hu Chi Chuan (Eleve C.)
 {W. Y. Miao (Eleve C.)
- *Keijo (Chosen) ... {H. S. Fan (C. G.)
 {G. I. La (V. C.)
 {Wei Hsi Keng (V. C.)
 {Y. C. Su (V. C.)
 {O. S. Ling (Eleve C.)
 {Y. S. Chang (Eleve C.)
 {H. Yu (Chancellor)
- *Kobe {H. P. Kiang (C. G.)
 {Jen Kia Fong (C. in charge of Osaka Bureau)
- *Nagasaki {Ken Shang Ying (V. C. in charge of Nagoya Bureau)
 {K. Y. Pang (Eleve C.)
 {Ling Yeng Fang (Eleve C.)
- Nagasaki {J. H. Liu (C.)
 {T. M. Chow (V. C. in charge of Moji Bureau)
 {K. S. Sun (Eleve C.)
 {P. S. Soong (Chancellor)

Shingishu (Chosen)	{ C. W. King (C.) H. Chang (V. C.) N. S. Chang (Chancellor)	Nagasaki	Vachier (Consular agent)
*Taihoku (Taiwan)	{ Y. M. Kuo (C. G.) T. H. Chang (V. C.) Y. T. Shu (Elevé C.) W. T. Wong (Chancellor)	Tansui	(in charge of British Consulate at Tansui)
*Yokohama	{ H. N. Wang (C. G.) M. S. Ling (C. in charge of Hakodate Bureau) S. Y. Cheng (C.) K. Y. Liu (V. C.) T. C. Shieh (V. C.) T. S. Choo (Elevé C.) Chen Li (Chancellor)	Yokohama	{ Louis Jules René Jousset (C.) Robert de Fransueville (V. C.)
Colombia:		Germany:	
*Yokohama	Carlos Cuervo Borda (C. G.)	Dairen (Kwantung)	{ Dr. E. Bischoff (C.) Benno Greiser (Secretary)
Cuba:		*Osaka	{ Dr. W. Wagner (C. G.) Dr. Hoops (Attache) W. Schmaltz (V. C.) R. Krueger (Chancellor) B. Schrobitz (Secretary) K. Schäfer (")
Kobe	Placido M. Dominguez y Romay (C.)	Yokohama	{ Dr. Crull (C. G.) D. Christians (Chancellor)
Czechoslovakia:		Great Britain:	
Osaka	John Waelchli (H. C.)	Dairen (Kwantung)	{ R. Mep. Austin (C.) G. J. Edmondson (Clerical Officer)
Tokyo	Antonin Raymond (H. C.)	Hakodate	Alfred George Denbigh (Consular Agent)
Yokohama	Sigmund Issacs (H. C.)	Jinsen (Chosen)	W. G. Bennett (Consular Agent)
Denmark:		Keijo (Chosen)	{ G. H. Phipps (C. G.) (absent) D. W. Kermoda (Acting C.G.)
Kobe	R. W. Pearce (H. C.)	Kobe	{ A. R. Ovens (C. in charge) H. A. Graves (C.)
Nagasaki	C. O. Spamer (H. C.)	Nagasaki	F. C. Greatrex (C.)
Osaka	R. W. Pearce (H. C.)	*Osaka	{ Oswald White (C. G.) H. N. Brain (Acting C.) J. R. Donaldson (Pro-C.)
Tokyo	Aage Helborn Hansen (H. C.)	Otaru	Stanley Howard Dawes (Consular agent)
Yokohama	John Chester Gould (H. C.)	Shimonoseki	Robert Mckenzie (Consular agent)
Dominique:		Tansui (Taiwan)	C. H. Archer (C.)
*Kobe	Isidore Bickart (H. C. G.)	Tokyo	W. J. Davies (C.)
Egypt:		*Yokohama	{ E. H. Holmes (C. G.) H. H. Thomas (Acting C.) W. J. Ham (Shipping Clerk)
Kobe	{ M. Fawzy (C.) Ahmed M. Farrgg (Chancellor)	Greece:	
Ecuador:		Kobe	{ Hamish Colin Macnaughton (H. C.) Douglas M. Young (H.V.C.)
Yokohama	Dr. Carlos Puig V (C. G.)	Osaka	T. Yamada (H. C.)
Estonia:		Yokohama	F. Gandossi (Charge d'Affaires C.)
Dairen (Kwantung)	Alfred Ruthe (H. C.)	Guatemala:	
Ethiopia:		Kobe	{ Enrique Bayle (H. C.) (absent) J. Mustarosa (Charge d'Affaires C.)
Osaka	Chuzaburo Yukawa (H. C.)	Tokyo	Bunshiro Hattori (H. C.)
Finland:		Yokohama	Tetsuro Ono (H. C.)
Dairen (Kwantung)	Paul Pansing (H. V. C.)	Haiti:	
Osaka & Kobe	Henrik Wilhelm Arvid Ouchterlony (H. C.)	Kobe	Friedrich Cords (H. C.)
Yokohama	Bertram Robert Berrick (H. C.)		
France:			
Dairen (Kwantung)	{ Pierre Crepin (C.) Felix Bryner (Consular agent)		
Keijo (Chosen)	Pierre Marcel Depeyre (C.)		
Kobe	{ Armand Hauchecorne (C.) Camaly (V. C.)		

Honduras:		Paraguay:	
Kobe	Wilhelm Bastel (H. C.)	Kobe	Kazuo Fujimura (H. C.)
Tokyo	Kei-ichi Ito (H. C. G.)	Tokyo	Robert Faulkner Moss (H.C.)
Yokohama	Tokugoro Tanabe (H. C.)	Peru:	
Italy:		Kobe	José Varela Arias (C.)
Keijo (Chosen) ...	(in Charge of British Consulate-General at Keijo)	Yokohama	Pedro E. Paulet (C.)
Kobe	A. Gasco (C. G.)	Poland:	
Nagasaki	F. C. Greatrex (Consular agent)	Osaka	{ Katsutaro Inabata (H. C.) Taro Inabata (H. V. C.)
Taihoku (Taiwan)	Arundel del Re (Consular agent)	Tokyo	(in charge of Jacek Trawinski, Attache of the Polish Legation)
Yokohama	{ A. de Prospero (C.) (absent) A. Gasco (in Charge)	Yokohama	Toshijiro Watanabe (H. C.)
Jugoslavia:		Portugal:	
Osaka	{ Ei-ichiro Ueyama (H. C.) Kantaro Ueyama (H. V. C.)	Kyoto	Katsutaro Inabata (H. V. C.)
Latvia:		Kobe	Francisco X. da Silva e Sousa (H. C.)
Tokyo	Hans Hunter (H. C.)	Moji	Horace Nutter (H. V. C.)
Luxembourg:		Nagasaki	S. A. Ringer (H. V. C.)
*Tokyo	Kaichiro Imaizumi (H.C.G.)	Nagoya	Morimatsu Ito (H. V. C.)
Mauchoukuo:		Osaka	Taro Inabata (H. V. C.)
Moji	Sazo Idemitsu (C. H.)	Shimonoseki	Horace Nutter (H.V.C.)
Shingishu (Chosen)	Yuan Tao (V. C.)	Tokyo	J. Abranches Pinto (H. C.)
Mexico:		Rumania:	
Kobe	David Latuf (H. C.)	Osaka	Katsutaro Inabata (H. C. G.)
Yokohama	Armand Amador (C.)	Salvador:	
Norway:		*Tokyo	{ Leon Siguenza (C. G.) Hachiro Asano (Consular agent)
Dairen	G. I. Larkins (C. H.)	Siam:	
Kobe	T. B. Gansmoe (H. C.)	Kobe	Mitsuzo Enami (H. C.)
Nagasaki	S. A. Ringer (H. C.)	Nagoya	Katsutaro Kato (H. C.)
Shimonoseki	Robert McKenzie (H. V. C.)	Osaka	{ Isaburo Azumi (H. C.) Etsutaro Azumi (H. V. C.)
Tansui (Taiwan)	(in charge of the British Consulate at Tansui)	Spain:	
*Tokyo	(in charge of the Legation at Tokyo)	Kobe	Francisco del Castillo (C.)
Yokohama	H. E. Standage (C. H.)	Yokohama	Juan Plaenas Canameras (H. V. C.)
Netherlands:		Sweden:	
Dairen (Kwantung)	W. H. Winning (H. V. C.)	Dairen (Kwantung)	W. H. Winning (H. C.)
Keijo (Chosen)	P. A. Plaisant (H. V. C.)	Kobe	Ernest William James (H.C.)
*Kobe	W. H. de Roos (in charge)	Moji	R. McKenzie (H. V. C.)
Nagasaki	F. G. Greatrex (H. V. C.)	Nagasaki	F. E. Ringer (H. V. C.)
Nagoya	Sadazumi Ishihara (H.V.C.)	Osaka	Ernest William James (H.C.)
Shimonoseki	R. Mckenzie (H. V. C.)	Shimonoseki	R. McKenzie (H. V. C.)
Taihoku (Taiwan)	W. J. van der Star (H. C.)	Yokohama	G. B. T. Guston (H. C.)
Tokyo	G. J. Mulder (H. V. C.)	Switzerland: (Consular affairs in charge of the Legation in Tokyo)	
Yokohama	M. S. Wiersum (H. C.)	Turkey:	
Panama:		Tokyo	(Consular affairs in charge of the Turkish Embassy in Tokyo)
Osaka	Ernesto Bellino (H. C.)		
Yokohama	Julio E. Briceno (C.)		

Osaka.....	Heibei Mori (H. C.)
Yokohama	Zen-ichiro Hara (H. C.)
U. S. A.:	
Dairen (Kwantung)	Stuart E. Grummon (C.) Arnold van Benschoten (V. C.) Troy L. Perkins (V. C.)
*Tokyo	Arthur Garrels (C. G.) J. Holbrook Champman (C.) Charles A. Hutchinson (V. C.) John M. Allison (V. C.)
Kobe	Howard Donovan (C.) Kenneth C. Krentz (C.) Frank A. Schuler (V. C.) Water P. McConaughy (V. C.) Otis W. Rhoades (V. C.)
Nagasaki	C. O. Spamer (C.) Glen W. Brunner (V. C.)
Nagoya	Charles H. Stephan (V. C.)
Keijo (Chosen)	William R. Langdon (C.) Ralph Cory (V. C.)
Taihoku (Taiwan)	Edwards Maney (C.)
Yokohama	Richard F. Boyce (C.) Gregor C. Merrill (V. C.) Raymond P. Luddon (V. C.) Alvin T. Rowe (V. C.)

JAPANESE EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ABROAD

EMBASSIES:

Belgium (1, Boulevard General Jacques, Bruxelles, Belgique)	Ambassador—Hachiro Arita (also Minister to Luxemburg) Counsellor—Shin Sakuma Military Attache—Lieut.-Colonel R. Sumita Secretaries—(1st) G. Omori; (3rd) K. Kubota
Brazil (75, Rua Voluntarios da Patria, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil)	Ambassador—Setsuzo Sawada Counsellor—J. Uchiyama Secretaries—(3rd) S. Shibusawa, F. Muria
France —(24, Rue Greuze, Paris 16e, France)	Ambassador—Naotake Sato Military Attache—Lieut.-Colonel R. Sumita Naval Attache—Commander S. Yamada Secretaries—(1st) Takanobu Mitani, Shinichi Chiba; (2nd) K. Suzuki, F. Minoda.
Germany (Berlin, W. 62, Ahornstr. 1, Deutschland)	Ambassador—Viscount Kimitomo Mushakoji (absent) Counsellor—Kojiro Inouye Military Attache—Colonel Hiroshi Oshima Naval Attache—Commander Tadao Yokoi. Secretaries—(1st) Y. Sugimoto, E. Fukuda, M. Morishima; (2nd) T. Masatani

U. S. S. R.:

Dairen (Kwantung).....	Efime Goloubtsoff (C.)
Hakodate	Israil Karas (C.)
*Keijo	Yurii Maltseff (C. G.)
*Kobe	Peter Krauze (C. G.)
Otaru.....	Peter Ryjoff (V. C.)
*Tokyo	Isaac Deitchman (D. G.) Georgu Schadrin (V. C.)
Tsuruga	
Uruguay:	
Kobe	Yoshiteru Asai (H. C.)
Tokyo	(in charge of Uruguay Legation)
Yokohama	Hiromu Yamanoi (H. C.)
Venezuela:	
Kobe	Genji Kato (Consular agent)
*Tokyo	Dr. Carlos Rodriguez Jimenez (C. G.) Takemaro Kobayashi (H. C.)
Yokohama	Takemaro Kobayashi (Consular agent)

Commercial Secretary—Alexander Nagai

Great Britain (37, Portman Sq., London, W. 1, England)
Ambassador—Tsuneo Matsudaira (absent)
Counsellor—Keinosuke Fujii
Military Attache—Lieut.-Colonel M. Maruyama
Naval Attache—Captain R. Fujita
Secretaries—(1st) K. Miyazaki, T. Hachiya; (2nd) T. Terasaki; (3rd) M. Hasegawa, A. Miyazaki
Commercial Counsellor—Shinjiro Matsuyama
Commercial Secretary—I. Asahi

China (Peiping, China)
Ambassador—Akira Ariyoshi (Shanghai)
Counsellor—Kaname Wakasugi
Military Attache—Major-Gen. R. Isotani
Naval Attache—Captain Osamu Sato
Secretaries—(1st) K. Horiuchi, Y. Suma, Y. Muto; (2nd) H. Ashino, M. Arino; (3rd) Via. S. Motono, M. Matsuura, S. Beppu, K. Toyoda, T. Hagiwara
Commercial Counsellor—Heitaro Yokotake (Shanghai)

Italy (Viale Regina Margherita 260, Rome, Italia)
Ambassador—Dr. Yotaro Sugimura
Counsellor—Shoichi Nakayama
Secretaries—(1st) Toshiharu Harima, Nobuo Watanabe; (3rd) T. Kudo, N. Katsuda
Military Attache—Lieut.-Colonel T. Numata

Naval Attache—Commander S. Kojima	
Manchoukuo (Hsinking, Kirin Province, Manchoukuo)	
Ambassador—Gen. Jiro Minami Counsellors—Masayuki Tani, K. Moriya Military Attache—Major-Gen. Seishiro Itagaki Naval Attache—Captain K. Oshima Secretaries—(1st) S. Matsukuma, S. Otaka, H. Kawamura, K. Yamamoto; (2nd) K. Hayashide, K. Tsutsui, Y. Hanawa; (3rd) H. Yoshida, S. Yuki, A. Oye	
Turkey (Ayaz Pacha 77 Pera, Stamboul, Turquie)	
Ambassador—Iyemasa Tokugawa Military Attache—Major W. Yoshinaka 2nd Secretary—O. Saito Commercial Secretary—S. Muto	
United States of America (2514 Massachusetts Av., N. W., Washington, D. C., U.S.A.)	
Ambassador—Hiroshi Saito Counsellor—Seijiro Yoshizawa Military Attache—Colonel Kenji Matsumoto Naval Attache—Captain Tamon Yamaguchi Secretaries—(1st) T. Miura; (2nd) K. Okazaki; (3rd) S. Kawara, T. Hayama Commercial Secretaries—Y. Shuto (Central & South America), T. Inoue	
U. S. S. R. (Malaya Nikitskaya 13, Moscou, U. S. S. R.)	
Ambassador—Tamekichi Ota Counsellor—Hidekazu Sakoh Military Attache—Lieut.-Colonel H. Hata Naval Attache—Lieut.-Commander K. Nakase Secretaries—(1st) K. Sasaki, M. Shichida; (2nd) S. Shimada, S. Kase, I. Kameyama; (3rd) W. Miura Commercial Secretary—K. Kawatani	
LEGATIONS:	
Afghanistan (Kaboul, Afghanistan)	
Minister—Masamoto Kitada	
Argentina, Paraguay & Uruguay (Calle Reconquista 336, Buenos Aires, La Argentina)	
Minister—Jiro Yamazaki 1st Secretaries—Hirobumi Terajima, Chibata Miyakoshi Naval Attache—Lieut.-Commander K. Ito 1st Interpreter—T. Wakabayashi	
Austria & Hungary (Kolbglasse 1, Wien III, Osterreich)	
Minister—Naokichi Matsunaga (absent) 1st Secretary—Tautomu Suwa	
Canada (Victoria Bldg., 14 Wellington St., Ottawa, Ontario)	
Minister—Sotomatsu Kato	

Military Attache—Lt.-Colonel U. Hirota Naval Attache—Captain T. Seno-o 2nd Secretary—I. Goto
Chile (also Bolivia) (552 Calle Dieciocho, Santiago) Minister—Makoto Yano Naval Attache—Lieut.-Commander K. Ito. 1st Interpreter—S. Hayao
Colombia (Edificio de Banco de la Republica, 520-522, Bogota.) Minister—Yoshio Iwate
Cuba (Ad. de Belgica entre Av. de los Aliados Y. Victoria, Altura de Almendares Havana, Cuba) Minister—Hiroshi Saito (Ambassador in Washington) 2nd Secretary—Tomoo Watanabe (Consul)
Czechoslovakia (Palace "Fenix" C. 60-62, Vaclavaske Namesti, Praha-11) 1st Secretary—Noboru Ogawa
Greece (also Albania) (23 Av., de la Reine Sophie, Athenes) Minister— 1st Secretary—Dr. Shigetomo Sayegusa
Iran (Av. Pahlavi, Teheran, Iran) Minister—Takezo Okamoto 1st Interpreter—K. Izumi
Latvia (Tura Alunama iela 2 dz 2, Riga) Minister— 1st Secretary—Shin Sakuma Military Attache—Lieut.-Colonel S. Ouchi
Mexico (Avenida de Los Insurgentes 190, Mexico) Minister—Yoshitaka Hori Military Attache—Major T. Hamada Naval Attache—Commander Y. Okuma 2nd Interpreter—M. Izawa
Netherlands (1, Guliana Vau Stolberglaan, Den Haag, Pays-Bas) Minister—Toseihiko Taketomi 3rd Secretary—G. Yamaguchi
Peru (Av. Arequipa 610, Lima, Peru) Minister—Yoshiharu Murakami 3rd Secretaries—K. Kasuga, N. Fujimura
Poland (Ulica Bronislawa Piarackiego 10, Vroavovic, Poligne) Minister—Dr. Nobufumi Ito Military Attache—Colonel M. Yamawaki 1st Secretary—Atsushi Kimura 2nd Secretary—Kyuichi Kano
Portugal (Praça do Rio de Janeiro 14, Lisboa, Portugal) Minister—Dr. Akio Kasama (absent) 1st Secretary—Taneki Kumabe
Rumania (also Jugo-Slavia) (33, Strada G. Gogu Constacuzino, Bucuresti, Roumanie)

Minister—Eisuke Fujita
 Military Attache—Colonel M. Yamawaki
 2nd Secretary—Rokuro Suzuki

Siam (545, Raja Prarob Road, Makasan, Bangkok)
 Minister—Yasukichi Yatabe
 1st Secretaries—Takashi Mori, Shinro Miyazaki
 (Consul)
 2nd Secretary—T. Takatsu
 3rd Secretaries—T. Kasahara, S. Sano (Vice-Consul)

Spain (87, Calle de Alcalá, Madrid, Espana)
 Minister—Arata Aoki
 2nd Secretary—Tei-ichiro Takaoka

Sweded (also Norway, Denmark & Finland) (Strandvagen 25, Stockholm, Suede)

Minister—Toshio Shiratori
 Secretaries—(2nd) H. Ichikawa, Baron Keizo Fujii

Switzerland (95, Thunstrasse, Berne, Suisse)

Minister—Masaaki Hotta
 2nd Secretary—G. Inoue

Japanese Office for International Conferences
 (Geneve, Switzerland)

Director—Masaaki Hotta

Deputy Director—Masayuki Yokoyama

Commissioners—R. Kiuchi, K. Nishimura, M. Yugawa

JAPANESE CONSULATES-GENERAL ABROAD

London (1, Broad Street Place, Finsbury Circus, London, E. C. 2, England)
 Consul-General—Shinjiro Matsuyama
 Vice-Consul—Isohi Asahi

Hamburg (Hamburg, Alsterdamm 39, Europahaus, Deutschland)
 Consul-General—Sentaro Yedo
 Vice-Consul—O. Yoshimura

Geneve (Switzerland)
 Consul-General—Masayuki Yokoyama
 Consuls—R. Kiuchi, K. Nishimura

U. S. S. R. (Asiatic Russia):

Vladivostok (24, Pekinskaya Ulitsa, Vladivostok)
 Consul-General—Rikei Watanabe

Alexandrovsk (3, Ulitsa Imeni Dzerzinskavo, Alexandrovsk, Sakhalin)
 Consul-General—Seishuku Ogata

Habarovsk (54, Komsomolskaya Ulitsa, Habarovk)
 Consul-General—Masayasu Shimada

MANCHOUKUO:

Harbin:

Consul-General—Shoshiro Sato
 Consul—Kaneyuki Akiyama

Hsinking:

Consul-General—Hiroshi Kawamura
 Consuls—Sanjiro Hanawa, Takaichi Nakano

Chientao:

Consul-General—Kiyoshi Nagai
 Consul—Isamu Shoji

Kirin:

Consul-General—Shohei Morioka
 Vice-Consul—Manjiro Machida

Mukden:

Consul-General—Uzuhiko Usami
 Consuls—Toshiji Koizumi, Nobuo Shigematsu, Nagatoshi Osawa

CHINA:

Tientsin:

Consul-General—Shigeru Kawagoe

Tsingtao:

Consul-General—Toshiyoshi Tajiri

Tsinan:

Consul-General—Koichi Nishida

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Nanking:

Consul-General—Yakichiro Suma

Hankow:

Consul-General—Yoshiaki Miura

Fuchow:

Consul-General—Toyoichi Nakamura

Canton:

Consul-General—Tatsuo Kawai

Hongkong:

Consul-General—Kosaku Mizusawa

Hanoi (76, Boulevard Carnot, Hanoi, Tonkin, Indo-chine)

Consul-General—Ushio Munemura

Singapore (Union Bldg., Colleyer Quay, Singapore, Straits-Settlements)

Consul-General—Ki-ichi Gunji

Consul—I. Shibata

Manila (G. de Las Reyes Bldg., Planza Cervantes, Manila, P.I.)

Consul-General—Kiyoshi Uchiyama
 Vice-Consul—S. Kihara

Batavia (3, Gang Scott, Batavia, Java)
 Consul-General—Saichiro Koshida

Vice-Consul—T. Odani

Calcutta (Royal Insurance Bldg., Dalhousie Sq., Calcutta, India)

Consul-General—Tetsuichiro Miyake

Consul—S. Sugita

Alexandria (7, Nebi Daniel, Alexandrie, Egypte)

Consul-General—Tokuji Amagi

Sydney (17, Castlereagh St., Sydney, New South Wales, Australia)

Consul-General—Kuramatsu Murai

Consul—T. Kuroki

Honolulu (1742, Nuuanu Av., Honolulu, Hawaii)

Consul-General—Teijiro Tamura

Vice-Consul—T. Yamazaki

San Francisco (Postal Telegraph Bldg., Battery St., San Francisco, Cal., U.S.A.)

Consul-General—Shu Tomii

Consul—K. Umase

Vice-Consul—K. Yanegaki

New York (500 Fifth Av., New York City, N. Y., U. S. A.)

Consul-General—Renzo Sawada

Consuls—Masutaro Inouye, Toyoji Inouye

Mexico (c/o Japanese Legation, Mexica City)
 Nagamine (in charge)

San Paulo (83, Av. Bringadeiro Luiz Antonio, San Paulo, Baazil)

Consul-General—Kozo Ichige

Consul—Masaki Yodokawa

Vice-Consuls—Tetsuo Umimoto, Keizo Hikikawa

Ribeirao Preto Branch (Rua General Osorio 112, Ribeirao Preto, Brazil)

Vice-Consul—R. Naruse

JAPANESE CONSULATES ABROAD

(V.C.)—Vice-Consul

Belgium:

Anvers—T. Tamaki

England:

Liverpool—J. Noda

France:

Lyons—J. Tomoda

Marseilles—Y. Yamashita (V. C.)

Italy:

Milan—Chancellor R. Masaki (in charge)

Sweden:

Stockholm—Chancellor Sasamoto (in charge)

U. S. S. R.:

Odessa—M. Hiraia

Blagovestchensk—S. Shimomura (V. C.)

Novosibirsk—Y. Koyanagi

Petropavrovsk—S. Ogata, S. Aburabashi (V.C.)

Manchoukuo:

Suifenho—Y. Okutsu (V.C.)

Manchouli—B. Tanaka

Hailar—T. Yonaiyama

Tsitsihar—G. Uchida, J. Otani (V.C.)

Chenchiatun—S. Takiyama

Antung—H. Masutani, Y. Nakatsumi (V.C.)

Yingkow—T. Mimura (in charge)

Chinchow—R. Goto

Chihfeng—C. Seino

Chengteh—N. Nakane (V. C.)

China:

Changchiakow—M. Hashimoto (V. C.)

Chefoo—S. Yamazaki

Hangchow—Y. Matsumura (V. C.)

Suchow—T. Kawanishi

Wuhu—T. Yoshitake (V.C.)

Kiukiang—S. Tanaka

Ichang—S. Shibasaki

Changsha—S. Takai (V. C.)

Amoy—Y. Yamada, T. Mizumoto (V.C.)

Chungkiang—R. Kasuya

Shashi—M. Sonobe (in change)

Swatow—C. Harada

Yunnan—S. Kawanami

Philippines:

Davao—T. Kaneko (V.C.)

Java:

Sourabaya—J. Aneha, N. Mizuta (V.C.)

Sumatra:

Medan—J. Arakawa

Siam:

Bangkok—S. Miyazaki, S. Sano (V.C.)

French Indo-China:

Saigon—S. Takasawa

Rangon—K. Yutani (in charge)

India:

Bombay—S. Kurihara, M. Ishikawa, K. Iwanaga (V.C.), S. Mochizuki (V.C.)

Colombo—H. Otozu

Egypt:

Port Said—M. Ohno (V.C.)

East Africa:

Mombassa—C. Mogaki

British South Africa:

Cape Town—T. Ota

U. S. A.:

Los Angeles—K. Hori

Portland—K. Tsurumi

Seattle—I. Okamoto

Chicago—S. Iguchi

New Orleans—Y. Sato (V.C.)

Canada:

Vancouver—Y. Isnii, S. Shirokura (V. C.)

Ottawa—Chancellor Nakayama (in charge)

Cuba:

Havana—Tomoo Watanabe, Ryuji Ito

Panama:

Yoriyoshi Saida (V.C.)

Mexico:

Mazatlan—Yashichi Otani

Peru:

Lima—K. Kasuga, N. Fujimura

Argentina:

Buenos Aires—H. Terajima, C. Miyakoshi

Brazil:

Rio de Janeiro—Shunichi Komine (V. C.)

Bauru—Shichiro Haraguchi (in charge)

Belem—Mitsuo Hamaguchi

JAPANESE HONORARY CONSULS ABROAD

(* Consulate-General)

Albania:

Tirana—Alexandre Hobdari

Austria:

Vienna—Hans Carl Zimmermann

Belgium:

Liege—Armand Baar Magis

Bolivia:

Labas*—Victor Munoz Reyes (C.G.)

Trinidad—Samuel Avila Alvarado

Brazil:

Manaos—Aluysio de Araujo

Chile:

Iquique—Don Haracio Mujica

Colombia:

Bogota—Don Luis Carles Corral

Denmark:

Copenhagen*—Henrik Gether (C.G.)

Dominica:

Santo Domingo—Esteban Prieto Peña

Ecuador:

Guayakil—Pedro V. Miller

France:

Algier—Pierre Marie Auguste Ferrat

Bordeaux—Edouard C. Faure

Beylute—Edouard Soubret

le Havre—Charles Francis Langstaff

Tunis—Jules Charles Prat

Dankirk—Jean Philippe Maries Sebaux

Casa Blanca (Morocco)—Albert Emile Henri

Croze

Germany:

Bremen—F. H. Noltenius

Leipzig—Alfred Selter

Munchen*—Edouard Schussel (C.G.)

Stettin—Arthur Kunstmann

Great Britain:

Adelaide (Australia)—Frank Lancelot Parsons

Brisbane (Australia)—Frederic Ewen Loxton

Broome (")—Arthur Male

Cardiff—Ronald Howard Evans

Dublin—A. M. Weatherill

Durban—William Robert Wright

Gibraltar—W. H. Smith

Glasgow—Urquhart F. Burrell

Manchester—William Peer Groves

Melbourne (Australia)—Davio York Syme, P. J.

Black (V.C.)

Middlesborough—Alfred William Bulmer

Valetta—Robert Howard

Wellington (New Zealand)—Norris Stephen Falla

Greece:

Salonika—Edwin N. Saltiel

Hungary:

Budapest—Hollos Odön

Italy:

Genoa—Lionel Canali

Livorno—Comte Giorgio de Chayes

Naples—Marques de Compolattro, Charles Emile

Capomazza

Venice—Giuseppe Fujinato

Jugoslavia:

Belgrade—Milutin Stanojevitch

Luxembourg:

Luxemburg*—Jean Pierre Arendt (C.G.), Casimir Theisen

Netherlands:

Rotterdam*—Hendyik Pieter Van Vliet (C. G.)

Amsterdam—Williem Rehbock

Norway:

Oslo*—Arthur Hervich Mathiesen (C.G.)

Peru:

Trujillo—Carlos Larco Herrera

Arequipa—Francisco Gomez de la Torre

Portugal:

Oporto—Ricardo Spratly

Spain:

Barcelona—Georges Delgado Lauger

Sweden:

Gothenburg—Tor Erland Johnson Broström

Switzerland:

Basel—Edouard Zellweger

U. S. A.:

Boston—Richard Ely Danielson

Philadelphia—J. Franklin McFadden

Galveston—J. H. Langben

Mobile—Henry H. Clarke

San Juan—Asisclo Marxuach

Venezuela:

Caracas—Santiago Sosa Gonzales

Occupants of Leading Manchoukuo Government Posts, 1935

Minister of the Imperial Household..... Hsi Chia (熙洽)
 Lord Keeper of Privy Seal Yuan Chin-kai (袁金鎧)
 Chief Aid-de-Camp..... General Chang Hai-peng (張海鵬)
 President, Privy Council Tsang Shih-i (臧式毅)
 Vice-President, Privy Council Kumashichi Chikushi (築紫熊七)
 Member, " " Kuei Fu (貴福)
 Member, " " Harumichi Tanabe (田邊治通)
 Member, " " Tsueng Yun (曾韻)
 Member, " " Shichitaro Yada (矢田七太郎)
 Member, " " Pao Hsi (寶熙)
 Member, " " Hu Ssu-yuan (胡嗣瑗)
 Member, " " Shen Sou-ling (沈瑞麟)

State Council

Prime Minister..... Gen. Chang Ching-hui (張景惠)
 Minister of Civil Affairs Lu Jung-huan (呂榮寰)
 Minister of Foreign Affairs Chang Yen-ching (張燕卿)
 Minister of Defence Gen. Yu Chi-shan (于芷山)
 Minister of Finance Sun Chih-chang (孫其昌)
 Minister of Industry Ting Chien-hsiu (丁鑑修)
 Minister of Communications Li Shao-keng (李相庚)
 Minister of Justice Feng Han-Ching (馮涵清)
 Minister of Education..... Yuan Chen-tse (阮振擇)
 Minister of Mongolia Administration Chi-mo-te-se-mu-pi-lo. (齊默特色木丕勒)
 Director of General Affairs Board..... Ryuichiro Nagaoka (長岡諒一郎)
 Vice-Director of General Affairs Board Shigeo Odachi (大達茂雄)*
 Director of Legislation Bureau Shigeo Odachi (大達茂雄)*
 Director of Decorations Bureau Kazuo Fujiyama (藤山一雄)
 Director of State Highways Bureau Rintaro Naoki (直木倫太郎)
 Director of Capital Construction Bureau... Cheng Yu (鄭禹)

Supervisory Council

President..... Lo Chen-yu (羅振玉)
 Chief Justice, Supreme Court Lin Chi (林榮)
 Chief, Supreme Procurator's Office..... Li pan (李榮)

Diplomatic and Consular Service

Envoy to Japan..... Hsieh Chieh-shih, Ambassador Extraordinary
 and Plenipotentiary (謝介石)
 Consul at Blagoveschensk..... Kuei Heng-chi (黃鴻埤)
 Consul at Chita Li Huan (李垣)
 Consul at Shingishu Yuan Tao (袁濤)
 Honorary Consul at Moji Sazo Idemitsu (出光佐三)
 Foreign Affairs Commissioner at Harbin Shih Li-pen (施履本)*

Governors of Provinces

Fengtien Province Pao Kang (葆康)
 Kirin Province Li Ming-shu (李銘書)
 Lungkiang Province..... Chin Pi-tung (金燧東)
 Pinkiang Province Yen Chuan-fu (閻傳紱)
 Chinchow Province Hsu Shao-ching (徐紹卿)
 Antung Province Wang Tsu-tung (王茲棟)
 Sankiang Province Ching Ming-shih (金名世)
 Heiho Province..... Chuan Yu (鍾毓)
 Chientao Province Tsai Yun-sheng (蔡運升)
 Jehol Province Liu Meng-kang (劉夢庚)
 Hsingan East Province E. Le-chun (額勒春)
 Hsingan South Province..... Yeh-hsi-hai-shun (葉喜海順)
 Hsingan West Province Cha-ko-erh (札噶爾)
 Hsingan North Province Ling Sheng (凌陞)

Mayors of Special Municipality

Hsinking Special Municipality..... Han Yun-hsieh (韓雲階)
 Harbin Special Municipality..... Shih Li-pen (施履本)*

Officials of the Central Bank of Manchou

President..... Jung Hou (榮厚)
 Vice-President Kyoroku Yamanari (山成喬六)
 Directors Isoichi Washio, (鷺尾磯一) Wu En-pei, (吳恩培)
 Tomio Takeyasu, (武安福男) Liu Chao-fen,
 (劉矯菴) Yasushi Igarashi, (五十嵐保司) and
 Liu Shih-chung (劉世忠)
 Auditors Kiichi Sakatani, (阪谷希一) Kan Chao-hsien,
 (關潮先) Ting Shih-yuan (丁士源)

Foreign Advisors or Counsellors

Counsellor, Dept. of Foreign Affairs..... Arthur H. F. Edwardes
 Counsellor, Dept. of Foreign Affairs..... George Bronson Rea

* Those holding two or more posts concurrently.

WEIGHTS, MEASURES AND MONEYS
(MANCHOUKUO)

Measures

Length	
1 hao (毫)	= $\frac{1}{10,000}$ chih (尺) = $\frac{1}{30,000}$ meter
1 li (釐)	= $\frac{1}{1,000}$ chih (尺) = $\frac{1}{3,000}$ meter
1 fen (分)	= $\frac{1}{100}$ chih (尺) = $\frac{1}{300}$ meter
1 tsun (寸)	= $\frac{1}{10}$ chih (尺) = $\frac{1}{30}$ meter
1 chih (尺)	= $\frac{1}{3}$ meter
1 chang (丈)	= 10 chih (尺) = $3\frac{1}{3}$ meters
1 pi (引)	= 100 chih (尺) = $33\frac{1}{3}$ meters
1 li (里)	= 1,500 chih (尺) = 500 meters

Area	
1 kung (弓)	= 25 sq. chih (尺) = $2\frac{1}{6}$ sq. meters
1 hao (毫)	= $\frac{1}{1,000}$ mu (畝) = 1 sq. meter
1 li (釐)	= $\frac{1}{100}$ mu (畝) = 10 sq. meters
1 fen (分)	= $\frac{1}{10}$ mu (畝) = 100 sq. meters
1 mu (畝)	= 9,000 sq. chih (尺) = 1,000 sq. meters
1 tien (天)	= 10 mu (畝) = 10,000 sq. meters
1 ching (頃)	= 100 mu (畝) = 100,000 sq. meters

Quantity

1 tso (撮)	= $\frac{1}{1,000}$ sheng (升) = 0.001 cubic meter
1 shao (勺)	= $\frac{1}{100}$ sheng (升) = 0.01 cubic meter
1 ho (合)	= $\frac{1}{10}$ sheng (升) = 0.1 cubic meter

1 sheng (升)	= 27 cubic chih (尺) = 1 cubic meter
1 tou (斗)	= 10 sheng (升) = 10 cubic meters
1 shih (石)	= 100 sheng (升) = 100 cubic meters

Weights

1 ssu (絲)	= $\frac{1}{1,000,000}$ chin (斤) = 0.0000005 kg.
1 hao (毫)	= $\frac{1}{100,000}$ chin (斤) = 0.000005 kg.
1 li (釐)	= $\frac{1}{10,000}$ chin (斤) = 0.00005 kg.
1 fen (分)	= $\frac{1}{1,000}$ chin (斤) = 0.0005 kg.

1 chien (錢)	= $\frac{1}{100}$ chin (斤) = 0.005 kg.
1 liang (兩)	= $\frac{1}{10}$ chin (斤) = 0.05 kg.
1 chin (斤)	= $\frac{1}{2}$ kg.
1 tan (擔)	= 100 chin (斤) = 50 kgs.

Moneys

10 li (厘)	= 1 fen (分)
10 fen (分)	= 1 chiao (角)
10 chiao (角)	= 1 yuan (圓) (23.91 grs. of Pure Silver)
M. ¥ 1.00 = G. ¥ 1.00	(Japan) (September, 1935)
	= \$ 0.2903 (U.S.) (" ")
	= 1 s. 2.098d. (" ")

1 fen (分) (Copper) Weight 3.5 grammes (Copper 95%, Tin 4%, Zinc 1%)
5 fen (分) (Nickel) Weight 2 grammes (Nickel 25%, Copper 75%)
1 chiao (角) (Nickel) Weight 3 grammes (Nickel 25%, Copper 75%)

Notes

Coins	
5 li (厘) (Copper) Weight 2.5 grammes (Copper 95%, Tin 4%, Zinc 1%)

5 chiao (角)	10 M.¥ (圓)
1 M.¥ (圓)	100 M.¥ (圓)
5 M.¥ (圓)	

CHAPTER I

GEOGRAPHY & GEOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

The Empire of Manchoukuo, roughly speaking, is a country forming the northeastern littorals of the Asiatic continent, running from the Gulf of Pohai in the south to the more or less mountainous regions in the north marked off by the long stream of the Amur. In the west, beyond the long sweeping range of the Greater Hsingans the country trails off into the sands of Mongolia, and in the east, is walled in by the Changpaishan range which runs along the Korean border, reaching far up behind the Maritime Province. It is a country somewhat greater than twice the area of Dutch Borneo and about equal to those of New South Wales and New Zealand combined, inhabited by a population estimated at something like 31 millions or approximately corresponding to that of Poland.

The Hsingan mountain range forms a natural boundary on the western side. Between this range and the Changpaishan range in the south-east, one running in parallel to the other, there lie extensive plains under tillage or forests. This level land is crossed by a number of streams navigable to great distances.

Manchoukuo, except in the limited parts which were early opened to outside intercourse, still remains unexplored or unsurveyed. Facts and figures are often found wanting at this stage. No little part of information available at present as to the geography of the new empire will undoubtedly have to be later corrected or revised in the light of progress which is being made in all phases of her national life. However, insofar as possible, the official and other authentic information and figures have been taken as a basis for the present chapter.

PHYSIOGRAPHIC DIVISIONS

Manchoukuo falls into the following physiographic divisions:—

1. **The Great Central Plain of North & South Manchuria.**—An extensive level land forming the basin of Manchuria. It extends from the shore of Gulf of Liaotung in the south to the regions bordering on the rivers Nonni and Sungari in the north. To these regions the Japanese have given the nomenclatures of North and South

Manchuria, though such division has been a matter of more or less conjecture in some points. The line of demarcation, according to the Japanese geographers, is a mountain range which rises between Hsinking (Changchun), the capital of the Empire, and Kungchuling in the south and runs westwards almost in a straight line somewhat beyond Taonan. This range, rising nowhere higher than 330 metres and scarcely perceptible to ordinary travellers on the railway, forms a climatic and faunal line of division. The rivers on its southern side flow southwards, contributing to the Liao river which eventually empties into the Gulf of Liaotung, while the streams on its northern side follow the opposite direction to flow into the Nonni and Sungari.

South Manchuria or the country lying south of the above line of division, quite open to the sea in the south, has heavier rainfall, rains being more abundant farther in the interior towards Hsinking. North Manchuria or the country on the northern side of the divisional line is much drier, except in small portions in the east and those close to the eastern side of the Hsingan mountains.

The plain of South Manchuria is traversed by the river Liao which has its origins in the mountains of Jehol. Where this river is joined by the streams of the west or Hsi Liao and Huangho on the west and by the east or Tung Liao on the other side there lie great fertile plains which, because of their agricultural possibilities and other favourable conditions, became the birthplace and centre of the earliest civilization of Manchuria, Liaoyang, the capital of ancient Manchuria, being situated approximately at the centre. Yinkow at the mouth of the Liao had for many ages been the only and the most important commercial port of the country until its trade was diverted to Dairen. Tungliao or Chengchiatun, where, as its name indicates a Hun tribe obtained a concession about a century ago from the Mongol king, developed into the commercial centre of trade with eastern Mongolia and remained a brisk mart until the railway deprived it of its bean trade. The river Hunho which joins the Liao near Niuchuangcheng, because of its shipping facilities, gave birth to the industrial city of Mukden. Hsing-

king, an ancient city situated farther up the river, was chosen by the founder of the Manchu dynasty for the site of his government until it was transferred to Peking.

The extensive plain region formed by the main and tributary streams of the Sungari and the Nonni, coming down, through the virgin country of north Manchuria, is marked by the city of Harbin, for many years the centre of commercial activity in this part of the country, and the growing cities of Tsitsihar in the north and that of Fuyu in the south. These regions have always been known as the granary of Manchuria.

2. Forest Zone of the Northeast and East.—

A U-shaped stretch of wooded country which begins with the Hsiao or Little Hsingan range in the north and runs in a southeasterly direction along the Amur, taking in the major portions of Kirin Province and the eastern parts of Fengtien, finally joining the Changpaishan mountains of the Korean border. This wooded mountainous zone forms the watershed of the Sungari in the northeast and those of the rivers Tumen and Yalu in the southeast. The regions along the converging streams of the Nonni which spring on the southern side of the Hsiao Hsingan mountains are notably marked with by the presence of soil containing abundant sodium, a condition which has prevented agricultural activity in these parts. The sections in the east and southeast, accessible to many streams, have since old days been the source of timber supplies to not only south Manchuria and north China but to Inner Mongolia as well.

3. Dry Area of the Northwest.—A far sweeping line of level country lying on the west side of the Ta or Great Hsingan mountains, taking in part of Jehol. The entire region forms a pasture land. The city of Hailar is the centre of cattle raising which is about the sole industrial activity of the whole land. Except its growingly intimate relations with North China, Chahar and Outer Mongolia, the importance of this part of Manchoukuo will chiefly be confined to certain lines of agricultural work which still remain to be developed.

4. Forest Zone of the North.—The wooded mountainous region which extends on the west from the northern parts of the Great Hsingan system to the Little Hsingans on the east, embracing extensive areas along the river Amur. Though unexplored for the most part, the timber resource of this region alone is said to surpass those of the islands of Saghalien and Hokkaido combined. The construction of the railway running through the country to Heiho, facing the

Russian city of Blagoveschensk, will go a long way toward opening the virgin forests which are also said to guard rich gold veins at not a few places.

Boundaries.—Manchoukuo is composed (1) of what were formerly known as the Three Eastern Provinces, i.e., Liaoning also known as Fengtien, Kirin and Heilungkiang, (2) of the province of Jehol which with Chahar formerly formed eastern Inner Mongolia, and also (3) of what was created in the earlier days of Manchoukuo as the province of Hsingan out of part of Liaoning and Heilungkiang and which has since the end of 1934 been divided into four administrative sections.

The territory of the Empire of Manchoukuo extends from the Kwantung Leased Territory, which rises at the southern extremity in 38° 43', to the river Amur, reaching into 53° 30' north latitude. The farthest point of Manchoukuo's western boundary lies in 115° 20' East Longitude while the eastern end runs to 135° 20' East Longitude, marked by the confluence of the Amur and Ussuri rivers.

Area.—The area of Manchoukuo which had long been a matter of more or less conjecture, was officially announced on March 25, 1935, for the first time in the history of the country, though the figures in more than one case are given out in the form of advance estimates. The area of the Empire according to the different administrative districts, including the railway zone under Japanese jurisdiction, are as follows:—

Table 1. Area

Province	Sq. Km.	Sq. Li
Kirin	89,910.352	459,641.408
Lungkiang	125,536.551	502,146.204
Heiho	109,813.005	439,252.020
Sankiang	107,544.608	430,178.432
Pinkiang	143,425.463	573,701.852
Chientao	29,394.896	117,579.584
Antung	48,225.735	192,902.940
Fengtien	85,546.224	342,184.896
Chinchow	39,461.643	157,846.572
Jehol	96,585.470	386,341.880
Hsinking Special City	191.000	764.000
Harbin Special City	929.500	3,718.000
North Manchuria Special District	1,147.167	4,588.668
West Hsingan ..	80,410.552	321,642.208
South Hsingan ..	79,021.515	316,086.060
East Hsingan ...	106,751.007	427,004.028
North Hsingan ..	160,396.731	641,582.924
Total	1,303,143.252	5,212,573.008

Mountains.—The most prominent mountains are the Hsingan Mountains which are composed of the following three systems:—

The Great Hsingan Mountains form a natural border of Inner Mongolia extending from the Wutaishan mountains bordering the northern side of the Yellow River to the western region of Heilungkiang, separated from the Yablonoi and Stanovoi mountains by the river Amur. These long mountainous ranges are for the most part gently rising ground, seldom rising higher than 2,000 metres, though 200 kilometres wide at some points.

Among the more prominent peaks are Soyulachi, Boktokhol and Yaku, all of which, however, fall below the height of two thousand metres.

The Iihuli Mountains begin where Mount Iihuli forms a right angle with the northern extremities of the Great Hsingans, close to the northern border. Thence these mountains run down along the curving stream of the Amur losing themselves in the Little Hsingans. The highest peak, lying westwards of Heiho, is known as Erhkoshan, a volcano about 600 metres high. In the southeastern part of this system is the dormant volcano Uyunkholdongi, well known to geographers.

The Little Hsingan Mountains begin in the neighbourhood of Uyunkholdongi and run in an eastern direction. This mountain range, nowhere rising above 1,200 metres, presents the general appearance of wooded plateaus, rising out of the marshy low plains. These mountains form the watershed of the branching streams of the rivers Amur and Sungari in these parts of North Manchuria.

The Changpaishan Mountains are a far stretching system running in parallel to the Great Hsingans, from the Korean border to the coast of Ussuri Province. The southern section branches off into another system forming the backbone of the Liaotung Peninsula. The middle section forms the watershed of the Tumen and Mutankiang, running northwards, and the Sungari and Yalu running westwards and southwards respectively. Except the highest peak, Peitushan, 2,744 metres high and lying in the middle part, the mountains are below two thousand metres in their height, presenting rather features of extensive wooded plateaus. The northern portions branch off into the ranges known respectively by the names of Laoyehling, Laochangkuangtsailing, which reach as far north as the mountainous range of Huantashan. Among the more familiar peaks of those forming the ridge of the Liaotung peninsula are Fenghuangshan and Motienling of more or less historic interest, and Chienshan and Tahoshangshan often mentioned because of their scenic attraction.

The watershed of the Liaoho and Heilungkiang, forming a natural line of division between North and South Manchuria, is a line of gently sloping ground running from Mount Changpeishan in a northwesterly direction until it reaches the eastern slope of the Great Hsingans. The whole divide extends over a distance of more than 800 kilometres, though it seldom rises more than 250 metres in height.

The Yinshan Mountains are joined to the southwestern end of the Great Hsingans in the west and decline to the plains of the Liao river in the east. The peaks of this system are generally high and marked with sharp declivities and rocky features, forming defiles and glens at many places. The two ranges, branching off in a northeasterly direction, parallel to one another, are known respectively as the Lengyuan and Sungtsen ranges.

Volcanoes.—In addition to those already mentioned the following are recorded; Shater, 123° 37' E. L. and 49° 47' N. L.; "Kankui" named by Mr. Niiobi of the South Manchuria Railway, 124° 35' E. L. 49° 38' N. L.; Koronan 125° 14' E. L. 49° 14' N. L. These volcanoes, though prominent for topographical reasons, are not high, assuming in most cases the form of a cinder cone.

Plains and Stepes.—The plains of Manchuria, roughly speaking, extend over the great basin formed by the mountain ranges on the east and the west sides. The plain of North Manchuria, lying north of the divide running from east to west below Hsinking (Changchun) and drained by both Nonni and Sungari, are generally formed of alluvial deposits, with grass-covered, sandy ground at places. The soil is suitable for growth of beans and wheat.

The plain south of the above divide is drained by the river Liaoho and its tributaries. This part of the country is somewhat lower in comparison with the area on the other side of the divide and is of diluvial formation with occasional occurrences of alluvial deposits mixed at places with loess. The southern portion of these central plains is suitable for cultivation of beans and kaoliang.

These eastern slopes of the Great Hsingan mountains, in which the Liaoho, Heilungkiang, Nonni and Sungari have each their origins, form extensive steppes good for cattle breeding.

Rivers.—The rivers of Manchoukuo fall into two systems, the one of those streams which flow in northerly or northeasterly directions to empty into the Japan Sea; and the other of those which run in a southwesterly direction to flow into either the Sea of Pohai or the Sea of

Pechihli. Among the first group are to be noted Amur, Sungari, Nonni and Tumen. The second group includes Liaoho, Yalu and Talingho. What may be noted as characteristic of all the Manchoukuo rivers is that their waters are turbid, containing a considerable amount of mud or sand, and that their lower courses are marked with many turns and bends.

The Heilungkiang or black Dragon river in Chinese, better known abroad by the Russian name Amur, forms the northern boundary of Manchoukuo. This river, the upper reaches of which are known as the river Argun, has its origin on the western side of the northern extremities of the Great Hsingans. Later joined by the river Onon, the Amur runs in an easterly direction, forming gorges through the Hsingan mountains until it receives the waters of the Sungari and Ussuri rivers. At this point the Amur turns northwards and empties into the Sea of Tartary, north of Nikolaevsk. The total length of the Amur is roughly estimated at some 4,000 kilometres of which three-quarters drain Manchoukuo soil. The navigable distance is about 2,000 kilometres. The river begins to freeze up during the first three weeks of November, and the thawing sets in between the close of April and the early part of May, free navigation being possible for not more than 155 to 200 days in the year.

The Sunghuakiang or more popularly known by the Russian name Sungari, forming the biggest tributary of the Amur, rises in the northwestern part of Mount Paitoushan and, passing by the city of Kirin in its northerly course, flows through the central plain, until it is joined by the Nonni near Fuyu. Making a turn here in an easterly direction, it goes on to form the boundary between the Heilungkiang and Kirin provinces as far as Ilan or Sanhsing, where it receives the waters of the Mutankiang. Thence following a northerly course and passing by the city of Harbin, the Sungari joins the Amur at Tungkiang or Lahasusu. The total length is something more than 2,000 kilometres. The river drains for the most part what is known as the granary of North Manchuria.

The Sungari, from its natural features, may be divided into four sections; (1) from the upper reaches to the city of Kirin, 595 kilometres; (2) from Kirin to the Nonni, 392 kilometres; (3) from the Nonni to Harbin, 245 kilometres; (4) from Harbin to the Amur, 695 kilometres. The first course, because of many shoals and rapids, is negligible from the point of view of shipping, being open to navigation only by flat bottomed river boats. The section between

Kirin, which is the terminal point for ordinary shipping, and the Nonni is navigable by steamers of light draught. The course between the confluence with the Nonni and Harbin is 250 to 850 metres broad and 7 feet deep, though there are frequent shoals where the depth is not more than 354 feet. The river extends near Harbin to a width of one kilometre, though it, falls off to less than 500 metres broad in the low water season. The course between Harbin and the Mutankiang, though abounding in shoals alternating with deep pools, are quite possible for navigation by steamships of more than 1,000 tons. The deeper parts range from 7 to 14 feet, some places being even as many as 30 feet deep. The last course between the confluence with the Mutankiang and that with the Amur offer better conditions of navigation, the depth ranging from 5 to 20 feet. The watercourse in this part is from 200 to 300 metres broad. The Sungari is frozen for six months of winter, the section around Harbin freezing between the close of October and the middle of the next month. The thawing in this part sets in from April 1st to the middle of the same month. The lower section around Lahasusu is seldom freed from ice before the end of April. The Sungari, generally speaking, is open to navigation for 200 to 210 days in the year.

The Nonni originates in the Iihulishan mountains and runs down southwards, draining the northwestern regions of North Manchuria. Receiving the waters of many tributaries on its course, it passes through the regions of Mokhen (Nenkiang) and Tsitsihar until it is farther on joined by the river Taorho, in the west. Thence the stream goes on in a southeastern direction and flows into the Sungari. The total length of the river is given at some 800 kilometres. Though shipping has seen but little development upon the Nonni or its tributaries, the course between Tsitsihar and the Sungari, a distance of 450 kilometres, offers good conditions of navigation, there being about 30 metres of water along the central water course. The section between Tsitsihar and Mokhen, though 150 to 420 metres broad and quite deep, is being avoided of only by sailing boats at present. The Nonni is closed to shipping by ice from the first week of November to the early part of April next year.

The Tumenkiang or the river Tumen springs from the eastern side of Paitoushan and flows northwards, swelling on its way with the tributary waters of Korea and Kirin. Northeast of Yenki, of Chientao, the river makes a sharp

turn in a southeasterly direction and flows into the Sea of Japan, south of Possiet Bay. The Tumen whose total length is estimated at something like 300 kilometres, forms for the most part the boundary between the Korean peninsula and the southeastern region of Manchoukuo, and that between Korea and Soviet Russia towards its end. Despite its length, the Tumen is navigable only about a distance of 95 kilometres from its mouth up to the confluence with the river Hunchun. The river is frozen from the middle of November to the end of March.

The Yalu rises on the southern side of Mount Paitoushan and follows a northwesterly course as far as Linchiang where it turns southwards, forming the boundary between Korea and Manchuria. Joined by the Hunho and later by the Aiho, both coming down the Manchurian plain, the main stream empties below Antung into the Yellow Sea forming extensive deltas at its mouth. The total length is given as upward of 790 kilometres. Though navigable up to Antung, a distance of 28 kilometres, the watercourse is narrow and featured with many bends making navigation both difficult and dangerous.

The Liaoho is composed of two streams, the Hsiliaoho whose upper reaches are known as Shiramuren rising on the eastern slopes of the Hsingan range in Jehol, and the Tungliaoho originating on the western side of Mount Saghaljan of the Changpaishan system. The western stream, absorbing a number of tributaries of more or less size, flows in northeastern directions until it is joined by the eastern stream near Sanchiangkou, or below Chengchiatun, to swell into a watercourse of considerable magnitude. From that point the river follows a southern course receiving the confluent streams of Tatzuho and Hunho, finally emptying below Yinkow into the Bay of Liaotung. The total length of the Liaoho, taking the longer course of the western Liaoho, is about 2,540 kilometres. The river is navigable by small boats up to Chengchiatun, a distance of about 880 kilometres. The presence of silting sand at its mouth considerably deprives it of its value as a watercourse. The river is frozen for four months of winter.

The Talingho rises in the Sungling mountains east of Chienping, Jehol, and, joined by a number of tributaries on its southeastern course, flows into the Bay of Liaotung eastwards of Chinchow. The total length is about 500 kilometres.

The Luanho originates on the western side of the Yinshan range in Jehol and flowing in a southeasterly direction close by the city of Jehol, passes into Chinese territory eventually to em-

pty into the Sea of Pohai. The length of the river is some 400 kilometres.

The Mutankiang, also known as Ningtaho, second in size only to the Nonni among the tributaries of the Sungari, rises on the northern slope of the Changpaoshan range and flows northwards until it joins the Sungari near Sanhsing beyond the North Manchuria Railway line. The river forms on its way Lake Chingpo, also known as Lake Pirton. The length of the river is some 475 kilometres. While the stream is suitable for flowing down rafts, it is not navigable because of its swift currents and rocky bottom. The river is frozen from the close of November to the middle part of April.

The Hulanho is a slow moving stream running down the southern slopes of the Folun mountains and joins the Sungari just below the city of Harbin. The length of the stream is about 375 kilometres. With 3 to 8 feet of water under ordinary conditions, the river is navigable up to Hulan by steamboats of 3 to 3.5 feet draught. It is closed to traffic by ice from November to April.

The Ussulikiang or Ussuri river has its sources, on the Manchurian side, in the northern parts of the Changpaoshan range. Joining the Mulingho, it flows into the confluent waters coming down northward by the town of Iman. From that point onward the Ussuri forms the boundary between Manchoukuo and the Maritime Province of Soviet Union, until it eventually flows into the Amur near Habarovsk. The total length of the river is estimated at 905 kilometres, including the longest tributary of Hula. With its water seldom falling below four feet and usually rising to 15 feet in the high water season, the river is navigable by ships of four feet draught. On its tributaries Mulingho and Naoli as well there is heavy traffic of small steamboats and junks. The Ussulikiang is closed by ice from the middle of November to the middle of April.

Lakes.—Two types of lake occur in Manchuria; the one is an ordinary permanent lake of fresh or salt water; and the other, what is called lakes of playa type, which are dessicated in the dry season. Of the latter sort the most conspicuous instance is Tabusu-nor, a round shaped lake about 8 kilometres in diameter, lying 95 kilometres southeast of Taonan. When dry, the lake appears white with the heavy deposits of salt.

Among the permanent lakes the largest is Lake Hsingkai or Hanka the northern portion of which belong to Manchoukuo and the southern portion to the Soviet Union. It measures about 90 kilo-

metres from north to south and 50 kilometres from east to west.

Lake Tapaku or Lesser Hanka lies north of Hsingkai with which it is joined by a river. Its circumference is about 60 English miles.

Lake Chingpo or Pirton lies on the upper course of the Mutankiang, about 50 kilometres south of Ninguta, Kirin Province. It is about 40 kilometres from north to south and 8 kilometres from east to west. The northern part is called North Lake and the southern part South Lake.

Dalai-nor, also known as Lake Hulun, lies in the western part of Hsinging province, south of Manchuli. It measures about 40 kilometres in length and 8 kilometres in width.

Lake Bail-nor (Buir-nor) is a salt water lake lying south of Dalai-nor and a half as large in its water area. These two lakes are joined by the Urson river.

Yuehliangpao is a lake about five English miles in circumference, lying north of Talai and connected with the Nonni river. The lake abounds in fish.

Coastline.—The coastline of Manchoukuo, extending from the mouth of the Yalu river to Shanhaikwan, where the Great Wall comes down to the sea, is marked with few harbours or bays. The total coastline is no more than 700 kilometres, slightly more than one eleventh of the total outline of the country. The coast of the Yellow Sea runs almost in a straight line from northeast to southwest. Because of the existence along the whole line of shoals from 2 to 6 kilometres broad, the waters are shallow and offer little shipping facilities. The coast line of the Pohai Sea, however, is longer and more irregular in its contour, providing harbours of more or less value, amongst which may be mentioned Yinkow on the Liaoho and Hulutao on Lienshan Bay.

Harbours.—The most important is Dairen, known in the late nineteenth century as Victoria Bay and later as Dalny under Russian administration on the eastern side of the Liaotung peninsula, 20 miles northeast of Port Arthur. Protected by land on three sides, the harbour is open on the east, with island Erhtaohsu lying off the entrance. The harbour is provided with breakwaters eight in number and extending in all over more than 4,000 metres, and the water within the breakwater covers an area upward of 3,100,000 square metres. The depth of the water within the harbour is 8 to 11 metres at the lowest tide. The harbour is capable of berthing at a time 37 steamships of 5,000 tons. While the harbour is not free from ice between

December and February, the sea routes are kept open by means of ice-breakers.

Port Arthur is a land-locked harbour situated at the southern end of the Liaotung peninsula and the only port in Manchoukuo that is free from ice all winter. As its Chinese name Liushun—available travel route—indicates it was known from ancient times as the landing place for those proceeding into the interior of Manchuria. Fortified first under the Manchu dynasty, and later leased by Russia and next by Japan, it remained as a naval base under the administration of the Japanese navy until in 1927 it was made a commercial port in a full sense of the term.

The eastern section of the harbour, having a depth of 8 to 9 metres, is taken as a naval base. The western portion, known as Western Harbour, is open to commercial shipping; but shoals are frequent in that part. The only anchorage available for steamers measures but 430 metres wide and 1,280 metres deep, though its water of 9 metres easily harbours steamships of 6,000 tons. The section used for junks is 2 to 4 metres deep.

Hulutao is a piece of land projecting into the sea of Lienshan Bay, approachable by a railway, about 12 kilometres long, branching off at Lienshan station, 33 miles west of Chinchou. The water is deep and free from ice all the year round. The harbour construction scheme was originally conceived and undertaken by the Chinese authorities to provide a rival port of Dairen. After repeated abortive attempts to carry out the scheme, the Mukden authorities concluded in January, 1930, a construction contract with the Netherlands Harbour Construction Company for 6,400,000 gold dollars. The work was begun in July of the same year, but had to be stopped in September of the next on account of the Manchurian Incident. While the Manchoukuo Government is said to be in favour of continuing the harbour work of Hulutao, the construction so far made consists of a breakwater of about 500 feet long, running out into the sea from east to west. Steamships anchor about 300 yards off the breakwater, the loading and unloading of cargo being done by junks and lighters.

Yinkow harbour, situated at the mouth of the river Liaoho, was established in 1861 when the British Consulate was transferred here from the old port town of Niuchuang, some 80 Chinese miles farther up the river, one of the first five ports opened by the Tientsin treaty concluded in 1858 between China and Great Britain. The harbour had grown since then to be the

busiest port of South Manchuria until Dairen, under Japanese lease began to take away its trade through its better facilities and equipment as a commercial port. Although the section used for mooring steamships is about 13,500 metres in length, the quay for berthing ocean going craft is no more than 4,486 metres long. The section outside the harbour is used exclusively by junks.

The depth of the river Liaoho is constantly changing on account of the sand washed down by the stream. At the entrance to the harbour there are extensive sand bars where the water is no more than 8 to 9 feet deep at low tide. The river within the harbour is on an average 750 metres wide, though it narrows to about 560 metres around the wharf of the South Manchuria Railway. The depth within the harbour is from 20 to 33 feet at low tide, the deepest portions being as many as 50 to 70 feet deep. The harbour is practically closed by ice from the middle of December to the latter part of March.

Antung, which is among all Manchuria harbours the most important as a shipping port for timber, is situated 25 miles above Hsintao at the mouth of the Yalu River. The water around Antung is 1,000 to 1,500 metres wide and 3.7 metres deep at low tide. The steamships entering Antung are limited to tonnages below 7 to 8 hundred. The lower reaches where the water is about 10 feet at low tide are used

as the anchorage for vessels of 1,200 or more tons. Between Antung and Hsintao and Santaolang steam launches and lighters are operated. The port of Antung is closed to traffic by ice during the four months of winter.

GEOLOGY OF MANCHOUKUO

Although considerable light has been thrown upon the geology of Manchuria and Mongolia during the last century, the available information is still, for the most part, either fragmentary or local. Insofar as this field of science is concerned, the whole country of Manchoukuo remains a matter of more or less conjecture. Generally speaking, the land of central Manchuria and Mongolia is marked by the presence of rocky formations of high antiquity and by the frequent occurrences of very recent rocks, lacking in strata of intervening periods. The strata of the former description are, for the most part, marine while those of the latter are terrestrial. What is more, the strata are generally found in horizontal lines, showing that the land, except the limited areas affected by greater warping movements, has been under relatively little pressure.

Manchuria.—A general idea of the geology of Manchuria, so far as has been investigated, may be had from the table below.

(Chiefly based on the report by Professor Murakami)

Table 2. Geologic Formation of Manchuria

Geological Period	Principal Rocks	Principal Fossils
Cainozoic Era:		
Quaternary Period	Sands, gravels, clays loess, basalts.	Mammoth, bison, deer, reindeer, elk, rhinoceros.
Tertiary Period	Shales, sandstones, tuffs, basalts, trachyte, andesite.	Ferns, sago-palms, Glyptostrobus, Comtoriphyllum, Populus, insects, spiders, tortoise, fresh-water fishes, etc.
Mesozoic Era:		
Cretaceous Period	Sandstones, shales.	Eggs of sea turtles, fresh water fishes, etc.
Jurassic Period	Sandstones, shales, marls, conglomerates, coals, granite-porphry, quartz-porphry, liparite.	Ferns, sago-palms, gingo-trees, conifers, bivalves, primordial mammals, etc.
Triassic Period	(Wanting).	
Paleozoic Era:		
Permian Period	Limestone, sandstones, shales, coals.	Lepidodendron, Sphenopteris, cordaites, Fusulia japonica, crinoids, corals, etc.
Sub-carboniferous Period	(Wanting).	
Silurian Period		
Devonian Period		

Geological Period	Principal Rocks	Principal Fossils
Ordovician Period	Limestone, shales, clay-slates, marls, sandstones.	Cephalopods (orthoceras, etc.), gasteropods (maelurea, etc.), brachiopods (Obolus, etc.), trilobites (Ptychasyis), fucoids.
Cambrian Period	Limestone, marls, shales, clay-slates, sandstones, conglomerates, gabbro, Granites, porphyrites.	Brachiopods (obolus, obollela, etc.), pteropods, lamelli brachia, gasteropods (more than 70 species), trilobites, etc.
Proterozoic Era	Crystalline schists, silica, clay-slates, Lydian stone, limestone, dolomite, ironstones. Granites, gabbro.	Fucoids.
Archaeozoic Era	Gneisses, crystalline schists, silica, crystalline limestone, granites.	

The following may be enumerated as geological characteristics of Manchuria: (1) granite and other rocky strata of high antiquity are seen in well developed states; (2) conspicuous absence of Silurian, Devonian; Sub-carboniferous and Triassic rocks; (3) scarcity of volcanic action and earthquakes, showing relatively small areas of exposed recent volcanic rocks; (4) the long geological history of the land as shown by a wide distribution of granite areas and extensive exposure of rocky beds of high antiquity, a point also confirmed by the fact that the rocky beds later than of the middle of the Mesozoic era are invariably either terrigenous or lacustrine.

What stand out as notable characteristics from the tectonic point of view, are the Hsingan and the Changpaishan ranges, forming between them the extensive basin of south and central Manchuria. The former mountain range is formed by a long folding of rocks the western side of which is covered by sand, presenting an appearance as of plateaus. The eastern side of the range is marked by precipitate declivities with an occasional presence of small faults. The latter range is the western ridge of the above central basin.

What is of considerable geological interest is the Sungling mountain range which forms the boundary between Jehol and Fengtien provinces, close to the Pohai Sea. The northern section of the range follows a northeasterly course as far as Tiehling on the main line of the South Manchuria Railway, above Mukden, and then turns eastwards reaching as far as Paitoushan

mountain close to the Korean border. The areas south of this range abound in strata and beds of Cambrian, Ordovician and even earlier times, embracing extensive veins of anchritic, fire-proof clays, magnesite and haemetite. The land north of this range is wanting in those ancient rocks or any of those valuable mineral deposits, the granite and gneiss beds being generally under the Mesozoic strata. Along the above mountain range are noted conspicuous overthrusts of Palaeozoic strata above more recent rocky formations. These overthrusts, not without association with the general warping of the Mongolian land, are attributed to the middle part of the Tertiary period. As a stratigraphic feature of more recent date may be noted the Sungling range passing almost east and west, south of Hsinking, forming the watershed of Heilungkiang and the Liaoho plains, which joins the above Sungling east of the South Manchuria Railway line. This elevated system in parts still continues its upheaval movements. The western sector, as shown by the evidence of recent volcanic action, must have ceased its movement only recently. The eastern extremities of this mountain range, close to the eastern coast of the Korean peninsula, still continue the perpendicular movements which commenced in the latter part of the Tertiary period.

Geology of Mongolia.—Of the geology of Mongolia, which remains for the most part to be investigated, a general idea may be had from the table below, largely based on the work of Berkey, Morris and Grabau:

Table 3. Geologic Formation of Mongolia

Geological Period	Principal Rocks	Thickness in meters	Principal Fossils
Cainozoic Era:			
Quaternary Period	Alluvium	1-30	Elephas antiquus, horses, rhinoceros, etc.
	Diluvium		
	Sands, Gravels, Clays, Lacustrine deposits, Loess.		
	Sands, Clays, Gravels, Loess, Volcanic products.	30-300	

Geological Period	Principal Rocks	Thickness in meters	Principal Fossils
Tertiary Period	Clay, Silt, Sands, Gravels, Shales. Basalts.	1200	Elephas antiquus, rhinoceros, boars, hipparion, serridentius, boluchitherum, Menodus, Protitanotherium, Teilhardia, Eudinoceras. Schlosseaia, Paleostylops.
Mesozoic Era:			
Cretaceous Period	Granular red sandstone, Clays, Sands, Shales, Granites, Phosphories, etc.	300-600	Protoceratops, Ignanodontia, Prodeinodon, Protiguano-don, fresh-water shells, etc.
Jurassic Period	Conglomerates, Sandstones, Shales, Marls, Coals, Eruptive blocks, granites, Porphyries, etc.	150-3,000	Small fragmentary botanical fossils.
Palaeozoic Era:			
Permian Period	Conglomerates, Sandstones, Shales, Limestones, Marls, Granites, etc.	15-600	Productus, Orthotychia, Martinia, Lyttonia, Spirifer, Spiriferella, Streptorhynchus, Camarophoria, Hemiptychina, Enteleles, Marginifera, etc.
Dinantian Period	Conglomerates, Sandstones, Clay-slates, Limestones, Dolomites, Batholites of Granite, Intrusive Rocks, etc.	15-300	?
Proterozoic Era:			
Older (Huanhai System)	Grits, Clay-slates, Igneous Rocks, Veins & Stocks.	3,000-6,000	?
Newer (Wutai System)	Crystalline-schists, Phyllites, Limestones, Dolomites, Quartzite, Greenstones, Intrusive Igneous Rocks, etc.	?	
Archaeozoic Era:			
(Taishan System)	Crystalline Limestone, Crystalline-schists, Gneisses, Intrusive Igneous Rocks, etc.	?	

Of the geological features of Mongolian land the following points may be noted, in addition to those which are common also to Manchuria: (1) the comparatively low areas are under desert sand, seldom exposing rocky beds; but the mountainous regions as a rule consist of rocks of high antiquity; (2) the Jurassic rocks are notably differentiated from the Cretaceous and later formation in the points mentioned below:—

(A) There occurs a great unconformability between the Jurassic and the Cretaceous rocks. The stratified formations of the former period are marked with frequent and complex plications and faults under the pressure of the movements of upheaval. The mountains bear marks of severe destructive work of magma and scarcely less destructive effects of weathering. The rocks of Cretaceous and later times as a rule exhibit perfect conformability, though they have evidently lain under warping movements on gigantic scales at one time or another. (B) The former rocks which A. W. Grabau has termed as Mongolian geosyncline are marine forma-

lated and of considerable thickness. The latter are without exception fresh water or wind-borne formations, being narrowly distributed and generally in thin layers. (C) The former have gone through heavy metamorphic processes in consequence of the intrusion of igneous rocks, while the latter exhibit little evidence of such phenomena. (D) After the Cretaceous era there were generally up and down warping movements on large scales; nor were block movements absent. However, the stratigraphic layers lie as a rule horizontally. As a consequence of the same warping movements what had been sea was turned into land and still later converted into quasi-plains by secular weathering. Upon the depressions caused by subsidence were laid fragmentary deposits.

The deposits made under these conditions were invariably terrestrial. The altitude of the mountains existing about the country seems to have been determined sometimes around the Cretaceous or Tertiary period. The linear directions of these mountain ranges, therefore, run generally in conformity with those of the basins.

On the same view is it explicable that the Hsingan mountains, among others, were upheaved by the subsidence of the Mongolian basins.

From the above it is to be concluded that the above line of distinction of geognostic and stratigraphic importance, drawn so clearly through the middle part of the Mesozoic era, is due to the heavy igneous eruptions of the period preceding it and the total subsidence of the same in the period following.

CLIMATE

Manchuria, Mongolia and the contiguous regions are important from the climatic point of view, chiefly because they are the areas of continental cyclones which frequently disturb monsoonal winds at certain seasons. Great diurnal as well as seasonal variation in the temperature is another characteristic of the climate of Manchoukuo. The climate of North Manchuria is marked by continental features, while that of South Manchuria is considerably tempered under the influence of the sea.

Cyclones.—The cyclones that cross the eastern littoral regions of eastern Asia and appear on the China and Japan Seas generally originate in Mongolia and along the Yellow River. They as a rule follow an easterly course and, passing through or near Japan, proceed on the Pacific. While on the continent these cyclones are but lowly developed, their first effect is seen in the disturbed state of the monsoonal winds. This

is specially notable in winter. The northerly or northwesterly winds, the prevailing winds of the season, suddenly drop when a cyclone rises in Mongolia or eastern Siberia, and this condition is followed by cloudy skies, or by more or less rain or snow where the cyclonic centre moves. Out upon the Japan Sea, the cyclone suddenly develops its strength, with the result that the prevailing north or northwestern wind gathers violent force for a certain length of time, accompanied by a sudden barometric fall. These continental cyclones in their passage over the Mongolian deserts take up sand at dry seasons to such degrees that the sky is overcast as by heavy clouds. The wind-borne sand is sometimes carried even as far as the western shores of Japan.

Temperature.—Manchoukuo approximately lies in the same latitudes as southern Europe, but its temperature is continental, showing little oceanic influences. The highest temperature on record is 42°.6 centigrade at Chalantun (July 23rd, 1919), while the lowest record is 50°.1 Mientuho (January 16th, 1922). The hottest month is July and the coldest January. Observations show that the mean temperature falls as we move further inland in a northwesterly direction from Dairen to Manchouli.

The monthly averages of maximum July temperature and minimum January temperature as observed at various, widely scattered points are shown in the table below.

Table 4. Monthly Temperature Averages

Place	January		July			
	Average Maximum	Variation Minimum	Variation	Average Maximum	Average Minimum	Variation
Hailar	-24.4	-35.3	10.9	27.5	14.1	13.4
Chalantun	-14.2	-25.2	11.0	28.2	16.4	11.8
Angangki	-15.8	-29.0	13.2	30.2	17.7	12.5
Harbin	-15.7	-27.7	12.0	29.2	18.2	11.0
Yenki	-8.1	-21.4	13.3	28.8	17.3	11.5
Hsinking (Changchun)	-11.7	-24.5	12.8	29.1	18.8	10.3
Mukden	-6.2	-19.1	12.9	30.4	20.2	10.2

Note: The sign " - " denotes "below zero."

From the above it may be seen that the diurnal variation on an average is 10 to 13 degrees, the range being somewhat greater in winter than in summer.

Distribution of Temperature.—The distribution of the temperature over Manchoukuo may be seen from the following table, showing the mean temperatures of January, the coldest month, and of July, the hottest month, at various points of the country, in comparison with some towns in eastern Siberia and North China.

Table 5. Mean Annual Temperature

Place	January	July	Average Annual Temperature
Manchouli	-26.5	21.2	-1.5
Hailar	-29.7	21.2	-2.4
Mientuho	-29.1	20.0	-2.9
Pukotu	-23.3	19.2	-1.1
Chalantun	-20.1	22.0	2.4
Angangki	-23.0	23.8	2.5
Anta	-23.0	23.7	2.5
Harbin	-22.0	23.5	3.0
Yaomen	-20.0	23.4	4.0
Imienpo	-20.3	22.9	3.5
Mutankiang	-22.1	22.5	2.7

Place	January	July	Average Annual Temperature
Taipingling	-20.2	20.5	1.9
Yenki	-14.9	22.6	5.3
Sanhsing	-22.1	22.7	2.4
Hsinking (Changchun)	-18.5	23.4	4.7
Mukden	-13.1	24.7	7.4
Dairen	-5.7	23.2	10.1
Peiping	-4.5	26.4	11.5
Vladivostok	-16.1	18.6	4.1
Blagoveschensk	-22.4	22.3	0.3
Irkutsk	-20.3	17.4	-0.9

The isothermal of 0°, which comes from northern Saghalien to descend along the Maritime Province, runs between Pukotu and Chalantun and from that point on tends northwards as it farther proceeds westwards, until it passes south of Baikal lake, eventually reaching as far as the north of the Baltic Sea. It may be seen from this that the greater portion of Manchuria and Mongolia is enclosed between the thermals of 10° and 0°. The regions of north Manchuria, because of their proximity to the coldest Siberia areas, register an average annual temperature of 4° or so below zero. The difference of temperature between the north and the south areas may be seen from the fact that the average tempera-

ture in January at Dairen is 5°.7, while that at Boklovska, close to the Siberian border, is 31° below zero, there being differences of more than 25° degrees. The isothermal of 20° below zero runs westwards from Taipingling, east of Kirin, and passes between Hsinking (Changchun) and Harbin until it extends into the areas south of Lake Baikal. Under this condition the average temperature of Mongolia in January falls below 20° below zero. The northern areas are situated close to Siberia, where the mean temperature in winter falls below 30° below zero, being one of the coldest spots in the world. The average temperature of July ranges between 20° and 24°, showing relatively but small regional variations. The isothermal of 24° runs in the east from the mouth of the river Tumen of the Korean border, following a northwesterly direction to pass between Mukden and Hsinking and proceed thence in a westerly direction, ultimately traversing the plains of Mongolia. It may therefore be seen that the average temperature in July throughout Manchoukuo is around 24°, though the eastern regions close to the Maritime province and those up in the north close to the Siberian borders, register temperatures below 20°.

Table 6. Monthly Mean Temperature or Air (in °)

Locality	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Manchouli	-26.5	-22.0	-12.6	1.6	10.7	17.8	21.2	18.0	10.3	0.1	-1.40	-22.4	-1.5
Hailar	-29.7	-24.0	-14.9	1.1	10.7	17.6	21.1	18.0	10.2	0.0	-14.5	-24.3	-2.4
Mientuho	-29.1	-23.8	-14.9	0.1	9.9	16.2	20.0	16.7	9.2	-0.8	-14.6	-23.6	-2.9
Pukotu	-23.3	-18.9	-10.9	0.7	9.8	15.8	19.2	16.2	9.2	0.2	-11.9	-19.1	-1.1
Chalantun	-20.1	-15.2	-6.4	4.6	13.3	19.1	22.0	19.4	12.6	3.4	-8.9	-15.7	2.4
Angangki	-23.0	-16.7	-6.8	5.5	14.4	21.2	23.8	21.5	14.0	4.1	-9.5	-18.0	2.5
Anta	-23.0	-16.7	-6.8	5.3	14.2	21.0	23.7	21.2	14.0	4.1	-9.3	-18.3	2.5
Harbin	-22.0	-15.9	-6.4	5.7	14.5	20.9	23.5	21.4	14.6	5.1	-7.9	-17.2	3.0
Yaomen	-20.0	-13.7	-5.5	6.2	14.9	21.3	23.4	21.4	14.6	5.6	-6.2	-15.0	4.0
Imienpo	-20.3	-14.4	-5.5	6.2	14.0	20.0	22.9	20.9	14.2	5.5	-6.3	-15.0	3.5
Mutankiang	-22.1	-15.6	-6.3	5.3	13.2	19.0	22.5	21.0	13.7	4.8	-6.5	-16.7	2.7
Taipingling	-20.2	-14.5	-7.8	3.4	11.2	16.8	20.5	19.4	12.6	4.0	-7.1	-15.5	1.9
Yenki	-14.9	-11.0	-3.4	6.5	13.6	18.6	22.6	22.5	15.3	6.7	-3.4	-11.2	5.3
Sanhsing	-22.1	-16.2	-8.0	4.3	13.4	18.4	22.7	20.9	14.0	4.5	-7.3	-16.8	2.4
Hsinking	-18.5	-12.0	-4.0	6.6	15.0	21.2	23.4	21.8	15.0	6.3	-4.8	-13.8	4.7
Mukden	-13.1	-7.5	-0.6	8.8	16.3	22.1	24.7	23.8	16.9	8.8	-1.3	-10.3	7.4
Dairen	-5.7	-3.1	1.9	9.3	15.3	20.4	23.2	24.4	19.8	13.3	4.9	-2.5	10.1
Peiping	-4.5	-3.1	4.3	12.7	20.0	25.3	26.4	25.1	19.8	12.1	2.3	-2.4	11.5
Vladivostok	-16.1	-10.3	-5.9	4.1	9.0	13.7	18.6	20.8	16.5	8.8	-1.6	-10.3	4.1
Blagoveschensk	-22.4	-18.9	-8.9	3.1	11.9	17.3	22.3	20.4	11.5	2.8	-12.0	-22.7	0.3
Bokurovka	-31.2	-26.7	-14.1	-0.7	8.9	15.1	19.5	17.4	7.7	-1.8	-18.7	-31.8	-4.7
Irkutsk	-20.3	-17.9	-8.9	0.3	8.5	15.3	17.4	15.6	8.7	-0.5	-11.1	-18.4	-0.9

Rainfall.—The year is distinctly divided in the wet and dry seasons, the former from the beginning of June to the end of September and the latter from the beginning of November to the end of April. Taking the rainfall at Hsinking as representative of the general precipitation of Manchoukuo, observations show that the rains during July and August make up 55% of the total annual fall, while the falls during four

months ending September make up 77% of the total annual fall.

In point of distribution of precipitation, the areas along the main line of the South Manchuria Railway form a dividing line. In the areas to the east of this line have a rainfall ranging from 600 to 1,000 millimetres, while the areas to the west have a fall from 600 to 100 millimetres. The precipitation grows less as

we wave farther west. The rainfall at Manchouli is less than 300 millimetres. The areas along the above railway line record a fall ranging from 600 to 700 millimetres.

The heaviest rainfall recorded in twenty four hours was at Yinkow August 13th, 1911, when 209.3 millimetres of rain fell. On the same day Mukden had a fall of 148.7 millimetres which remains a record volume of this city. To the west of the Hsingan mountains the fall diminishes to 80 millimetres. Although no observation has been made farther out in the Mongolian regions, the annual rainfall may be assumed to be about 250 to 350 millimetres, since those of Irkutsk and Urumtsi are known to be respectively 428 and 259 millimetres.

From the agricultural point of view, it may be observed that the rainfall during July and August seems to afford adequate volume of rain for the growing season. As representative of the central grain belt of Manchoukuo, the rainfall of Mukden may be taken for example. Between the beginning of May and the end of October the fall is recorded at 602 millimetres. For comparison the same seasonal rainfall of some northern cities of Japan, where the same months

are also the growing season, may be taken: the city of Sapporo registers 558 millimetres and Niigata, on the Japan Sea coast, 834 millimetres, while the city of Tokyo records 1070 millimetres. Mukden has more rain than Sapporo. The figures of Niigata and Tokyo are affected by the reason that this particular time embraces the season of typhoons which are accompanied by rain, as a rule.

Table 7. Rainy Days

Place	Days	Place	Days
Manchouli	68	Yaomen	97
Hailar	102	Imienpo	144
Mientuho	101	Mutankiang	119
Pukotu	85	Taipingling	123
Chalantun	85	Yenki	92
Angangki	73	Sanhsing	108
Anta	77	Mukden	93
Harbin	108	Dairen	77

Wet Days.—Manchoukuo has few places where on the whole more than 100 wet days are experienced in the year. At some places the number of wet days is less than 70. The following shows the annual number of wet days at more important places of this country.

Table 8. Amount of Rainfall (in mm.)

Locality	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Manchouli	0.9	1.8	3.4	2.7	17.3	38.2	69.8	82.3	42.1	>10.3	8.5	3.3	>280.6
Hailar	2.5	4.9	2.5	6.7	27.8	41.3	94.9	61.7	47.7	10.9	6.5	5.0	312.8
Mientuho	3.2	5.8	3.4	10.9	36.8	56.8	61.2	89.2	71.5	>7.0	6.3	5.2	>358.4
Pukotu	0.9	2.0	1.2	>3.8	36.0	58.9	106.2	116.1	90.0	6.4	4.3	0.9	>426.5
Chalantun	1.5	3.6	5.1	4.8	45.0	58.8	136.2	106.7	86.3	8.5	9.3	1.7	466.5
Angangki	1.6	4.6	4.5	3.2	29.0	39.5	72.2	63.2	50.9	9.9	7.1	4.4	290.2
Anta	1.0	31.1	5.1	3.3	32.2	57.1	110.1	107.5	64.5	10.1	6.1	1.8	402.0
Harbin	2.7	11.1	16.5	14.1	63.1	85.6	130.6	127.0	51.7	30.4	15.8	6.1	552.9
Yaomen	4.5	8.6	17.5	14.7	26.2	68.3	158.2	125.5	57.5	38.0	11.1	6.6	541.9
Imienpo	6.8	11.4	19.5	26.2	62.5	79.1	176.0	171.4	63.6	53.1	22.9	12.2	704.6
Mutankiang	1.9	3.3	17.1	25.5	49.1	42.8	105.1	132.8	51.5	36.0	9.2	6.1	485.3
Taipingling	>2.2	4.7	11.9	25.1	64.7	66.1	102.9	122.1	68.7	39.9	>11.5	>7.3	>527.1
Yenki	2.0	5.2	12.8	14.5	39.4	61.1	75.1	123.7	39.9	34.0	9.8	5.3	423.1
Sanhsing	3.0	6.8	>7.2	22.2	52.0	64.8	117.7	133.7	56.0	25.3	7.4	5.3	421.8
Hsinking	7.7	7.2	19.6	14.0	42.7	71.5	177.8	183.0	65.7	35.4	14.4	9.3	>648.4
Mukden	3.8	9.9	23.0	30.3	50.1	78.0	152.3	211.4	63.5	46.8	33.8	14.9	712.9
Dairen	6.7	6.4	18.9	35.1	35.5	33.1	141.8	138.3	121.1	28.8	23.9	10.1	599.6
Peiping	2.5	2.0	16.8	37.2	26.3	39.6	200.4	143.1	54.3	33.2	3.7	1.1	560.2
Vladivostok	7.0	21.8	27.9	37.9	68.9	67.8	71.4	130.8	135.9	58.0	35.2	36.0	698.6
Blagoveschensk	5.3	6.2	6.5	31.4	47.4	122.4	101.9	95.0	57.2	19.3	12.9	8.4	513.8
Bokurovka	5.2	6.4	4.4	22.9	18.4	73.5	111.3	85.5	65.4	16.4	10.4	5.4	425.3
Irkutsk	10.0	7.4	7.1	20.9	33.8	56.5	89.2	95.6	49.3	18.8	17.7	21.2	427.5

Humidity.—The average humidity of Manchoukuo ranges from 60 to 68%, or 10 to 20% less than that of the mean humidity of Japan. The driest months are April and November. In the former month especially, the humidity not uncommonly falls to 10% at Hsinking.

Evaporation.—Evaporation in Manchoukuo is from 1,400 to 1,600 millimetres annually, approximately twice the mean figure recorded in Japan. The highest figure is for May when the

monthly average from various towns is upward of 200 millimetres. The lowest figure is for January when the monthly average falls below 50 millimetres.

Amount of Cloud.—The lowest amount of cloud on record is the annual average of 3.5 per cent at Chengkiatun. The average annual amount from various towns of the country is below 5 per cent. More than 200 days of the year are clear. Except the three summer months,

fair or clear days prevail in unbroken succession. In winter especially, the skies are without a speck of cloud, as a rule. The annual sunshine hours, though subject to variation according to latitudes, number from 2,500 to 2,900, or approximately 20 per cent more than the figure credited to Japan.

Velocity and Direction of the Winds.—The velocity of the wind, as may be expected under the continental conditions of the atmosphere, is not great, as a rule, in comparison with places under the influence of the sea. However, during three months in spring ending in May, strong winds prevail every day. The number of the so-called storm days, when the velocity of the wind is greater than 10 metres per second, as recorded at the Dairen observatory on top of Wakakusa hill, is on an average 121 in the year, while the observations made at the old establishment placed under shelter, registered but 17

days of storm. The annual records made at Kungchuling and Hsinking are respectively 50 and 62 days. The greatest velocity of wind recorded in Manchuria is 46.3 metres per second at Kungchuling March 23rd, 1919. Stormy winds are rare up in North Manchuria.

At Dairen, Port Arthur and other southern places in the areas close to the sea, the northwesterly winds prevail in winter and southerly winds in summer. These southerly winds turn southwesterly as they proceed further inland. In the northern portion of South Manchuria where Kungchuling and Hsinking are situated, and in the eastern section of North Manchuria marked by towns like Imienpo and Mutankiang, southwesterly winds prevail throughout the year, with practically no change in their direction. In the western areas of North Manchuria northwesterly winds generally prevail at all seasons.

Table 9. Direction of Winds

Locality	Direction	2.3 metres	2.7 metres	7
Manchouli	Southwesterly	1.1	2.0	3
Hailar	Westerly	1.1	2.0	16
Mientuho	Westerly			
Pukotu	Northwesterly			
	Easterly & Southeasterly	3.7	2.2	19
Chalantun	Northwesterly	3.2	2.3	0
Angangki	Northwesterly	3.9	4.8	27
Anta	Westerly	3.6	3.6	9
Harbin	Westerly	5.3	5.2	13
Yaomen	Southwesterly & Westerly	2.3	3.2	34
Imienpo	Southwesterly	3.5	2.8	11
Mutankiang	Southwesterly	2.3	2.4	15 or less
Taipingling	Northerly	4.5	2.9	7
Yenki	Westerly	3.1	1.4	16
Sanhsing	Southeasterly	3.6	2.1	9
Hsinking	Southwesterly	2.7	2.2	21
Mukden	Northerly	2.1	1.9	6
Dairen	Northerly	5.2	4.9	121
Vladivostok	Southwesterly	8.4	7.2	93

Frost and Snow.—The earliest date of frost is September 3rd at Mientuho, North Manchuria, and the latest is November 13rd at Port Arthur in the southern section. The frost sets in the early or middle part of September in the areas west of the Hsingan mountains, and in the opening part of October at Harbin, Anta and Sanhsing. The area embracing Imienpo, Hsinking, Kungchuling, Kaiyuan, Toanan, etc., see the first frost in late September, while Yinkow and Mukden follow about a week or ten days later, as a rule.

The end of frost is in the south regions towards the end of April and in the northern parts mostly between the close of April and the middle of May.

Snow begins to fall in the north about the end of September and in the south around the

end of October, a difference of one full month. The greater portions of the country seldom see the first snow before the latter part of October. The snowy season in the north closes around May 10th and in the south about April 10th, a difference of one full month also. In other words, the northern regions have two more months of snow than the southern areas. Snow falls on an average on from 20 to 40 days in the year. The depth of snow generally falls short of 10 centimetres.

Observatories.—Meteorological observatories are established at the following places at present:—

Port Arthur, Dairen, Yingkow, Chengteh, Mukden, Hsinking, Hailar, Heiho, Ssuping kai, Chih-feng, Suifenho, Harbin, Manchouli, Koshan, Hsingan.

FLORA

As general characteristic of the Manchoukuo flora, it may be noted that the central plains of alkaloid soil is covered by grass, with no occurrence of trees except a genus of elms (*Ulmus pumila*). Wherever immigrants have recently settled are to be seen a cluster of willow and other trees. However, the northern section of the Great Hsingans, Little Hsingans and the mountain ranges in the eastern parts of Manchuria, embrace vast domains of virgin forests. The mountain range of the Liaotung peninsula and the Sungling range are bare save for small wooded areas seen at places.

Native Flora.—Upon the central plains occur *Quercus mongolica* in the north as well as in the south, besides the particular elm specie above referred to. Of the conifers the Mongolian red pine (*Pinus sylvestris* var. *mongolica*) is confined to the region west of the northeastern section of the Hsingan mountains, while the Korean pine (*Pinus Koraiensis*) spreads over the Little Hsingan and other mountains in the eastern part of Manchuria. South of Tieling the Manchurian black pine (*Pinus tubulaeformis* var. *mukdensis*) is of frequent occurrence, while in the Liaotung peninsula this is replaced by the Manchurian red pine (*Pinus tubulaeformis* var. *rubescens*).

In contrast to the western side of the Hsingans where grows the Mongol red pine as mentioned above, the eastern side, though totally wanting in the same specie, offers what is regarded as a purely Mongolian specie of vine, *Vitis amurensis*, besides *Phellodendron amurensis*, *Juglans manchurica*, *Schizandra chinensis*, etc.

The watershed along the Antung-Mukden railway seems to form a line of division between the floras of Korea and South Manchuria. To the east, but not to the west, of this line are found varieties of violets such as *Viola xanthopelala*, *hirtipes*, *Raddeana*, *albida*, *Savatieri*, *Persicaria Makinoi*, and others like *Iris Rossii*, *Epimedium*, *macranthum*, *Pulsatilla daurica*, *Jeffersonia dubia*, etc.

In the southern parts of the Liaotung peninsula occur some flora of the temperate zone such as *Zizyphus vulgaris* var. *spinosus*, *Vitex incisa*, *Euonymus Kiautschovica*, *Gleditschia Koraiensis*, *Ailanthus glandulosa*, etc. The frostless period in this part is as long as 200 days in the year.

Exotic Flora.—Quite many varieties of species have intruded from other countries. Among them may be noted *Robinia pseudacacia*, *Amorpha fruticosa*, *Acer negundo*, *Populus pyramidalis*, *Laburnum vulgare*. Of these the first and third

mentioned species predominate. The former is distributed as far north as Harbin, while for the latter the line of Hsinking (Changchun) seems the northern limit.

Interesting Manchurian Plants.—There are varieties of flowering and other plants not without special interest. Amongst these the following points may be noted.

The maiden-hair tree is found on islets near Dairen and Port Arthur, though the sago-palm of Japan occurs in no part of this country. The specie seems confined to the peninsula and islands in its proximity.

Varieties of iris are found practically all over the plains of Manchuria. Of these, *Iris lactea* var. *chinensis* is most frequently met with. Its characteristic, not unlike that of other species of the same genera, is seen in its leaves growing in a twisted form. Other common species are *Iris orientalis*, *ventricosa*, *ensata*, *laevigata*, *tigridia uniflora*, *Rossii*, *manshurica*, *minuta*.

Upon the sunny hillside *Selaginella Rossii* is seldom missed. *Hyoscyamus niger* var. *chinensis* the seed of which is valued in China for its medicinal properties is of not rare occurrence on the plains north of Tangkangtzu and Lienshankwan. *Glycyrrhiza echinata* the root of which is valued as a simple, is of frequent occurrence upon the grassy plains of Inner Mongolia. Among the common herbs and flowering plants may also be noted *Convalaria majalis* in northern regions, six different species of the lilacs of which *Syringa* predominat, *Amblygonum pilosum*, the Chinese aster (*Callistephus chinensis*), *Delphinium grandiflorum*, a specie of the peony (*Paeonia albiflora* var. *spontanea*).

The commonest among the lilies is *Lilium concolor* luxuriating on all hillsides. There are also found *Iilium tenuifolium*, *Cernuum*, *Callosum*, *amabile*, *danicum*, *Maksimowiczii*, *tigrinum*, *distichum*. The chrysanthemum species are a Siberian specie (*Chrysanthemum sibiricum*) and the no less common *Chrysanthemum laevulaefolium*.

What may also be noted as a predominating feature of the Manchurian flora is that many varieties of the bramble and wormwood are met with almost all over the country. It is also noteworthy that not a few species of seaside flora are found far inland, a fact to be accounted for by the soil being impregnated with salt. The following species may be found as far north as Chengchiatun, Taonan, Tsitsihar and Manchouli:—

Tribus terrestris, *Apocynum venetum*, *Atriplex patula*, *Statice chinensis*, *Triglochin palustre*.

Amongst the seaside flora *Salicornia herbacea*,

which in Japan is confined to a few seaside places in Hokkaido and Shikoku, is met with in all parts of the Manchurian seashores. Among the species similar to those of Europe are *Statice chinensis*, *Bulomus umbellatus*, *Lemnatrisulca*.

Sand Dune Flora.—Upon the sand dunes of Manchuria and Inner Mongolia the willow and elm frequently occur, showing that these sandy places are by no means without subterranean water. The species special to the sand dunes are *Imperata cylindrica*, *Tournefortia sibirica*, *Corispermum stauntoni*, *Agriophyllum arenarium*.

Forest Zone.—The great forests of the Hsingan mountains chiefly consist of *Larix dahurica*, *Betula latifolia*, and *dahurica*. The above specie of the pine is for the most part found on the northern side of the mountains. The mountainsides all along the western section of the North Manchuria Railway line are bare in consequence of uncontrolled disafforestation. These places are covered with carpets of flowering plants during the three summer months. In the eastern mountains we find some species of pines (*Abies holophylla*, *Larix dahurica* var. *Principis Ruprechtii*). The other common species are *Acer ginnata*, *Vitis amurensis*, *Juglans manchurica*, *Schizandra chinensis*.

The mountains in the Liaotung peninsula are without forest of any notable size. The Mongolian oak (*Quercus mongolica*) and the Manchurian black pine (*Pinus tubulaeformis* var. *mukdensis*) are not infrequently met with, though the hillsides are generally covered by grass.

FAUNA

While the fauna of North Manchuria has been fairly well studied by European, especially Russian naturalists from early times, that of central and southern Manchuria has been almost totally neglected. This is especially true with regard to Jehol where, except a scientific expedition sent out in 1933 under the auspices of the Japanese newspaper *Asahi Shimbun*, nothing like research has been made in its history. The following is based on the information so far available on the subject.

Mammals.—Of the mammals of Manchuria more than 100 species have been described. Among the common inhabitants of the eastern mountains are the sable, the Manchurian ermine, the Siberian weasel, the lynx, the Amur racoon-dog, squirrel, the Korean striped squirrel, the flying squirrel, the Manchurian assapan, the Manchurian hare, the red deer, the Korean antelope. The grassy plains and deserts in the western regions are the habitats of the vole, the

ground squirrel, varieties of mouse, the flying hare, the badger, the fox, the sheep, the argali.

What is remarkable about the Manchurian fauna is the abundance of large mammals such as the tiger, the leopard, the lynx, the wolf, the red wolf, the Korean black bear, the ground bear, etc.

Fur-bearing Animals.—In the abundance of fur-bearing animal life Manchoukuo is surpassed by few countries of the world. To catalogue the more common species: the sable, the ermine, the weasel, the fox, the racoon, the badger, the lynx, the mountain cat, the wolf, the otter, the hare, the squirrel, the vole, the antelope.

Avifauna.—Of the rich avifauna of Manchoukuo more than 400 species have been observed. One of the remarkable features is the abundance of birds of prey throughout the country. In the eastern mountains are found mostly those species which nest up in the trees. Among these are the owl, many species of singing birds, the pidgeon, the cuckoo, the woodpecker. Upon the hills and plateaus of the western regions, as may be expected from the physiological condition of the country, we find those birds which live in undergrowth, such as the quail, the bustard, the partridge.

The regions around Chengchiatun, Taonan and Anganki are a rich reservoir of partridges. The mountains along the eastern section of the North Manchuria Railway abound in pheasants and ptarmigans. Bustards are most common around Payintala. To the rivers Liaoho and Sungari huge numbers of water fowl such as ducks, will geese and swans are attracted in autumn, to migrate in winter to southern latitudes. Of the avifauna there are but few species that are not common to Europe.

Reptiles and Amphibians.—Of these general about a score of species of reptiles and as many species of amphibians have been observed. Mention must be made of snapping turtles which are abundant in the rivers Liaoho and Sungari, because any sort of turtle is taboo in China. The edible green frog, which the Chinese call "farm chicken" and the brown frog which they call "mountain clam," are both valued for their eggs.

Fishes.—There are more than a hundred varieties of fresh water fish found in Manchoukuo. Lake Dalainor and the river Sungari are specially rich in big fishes such as carp, crucian, sturgeon, catfish and those called: by the Chinese as *Pangtongyu*, *Paiyu*, *Kantiaoyu*. Among the last named fish some measure six feet long. "Paiyu"—white fish—of the Sungari is regarded as one of the delicacies to adorn the festive

table in China, especially at New Year's time.

Nothing has been done by way of investigating the sea fish of Manchuria. The species most commonly seen are those of shallow waters such as codfish, hair-tail, guchi, flatfish (*Paralichthys olivaceus*), halibut, shark, sea-bream, *Pseudosciaena japonica*.

In molluscs the Manchurian shores are rich. Abundant prawns and sea-slugs are caught. Likewise for food are caught jelly-fish, cuttlefish, octopus. Among the shellfish may be noted oyster, clam, *Corbicula leana*, sea-mussel, a specie of pullet (*Tapes philippinarum*), razor-shell, *Solecurtus constricta*, whelk.

With regard to the insect fauna no research has yet been made, except in certain limited ways. The Chinese oak silk-worms are extensively bred in the Liaotung peninsula and on the lower courses of the Yalu. Some varieties of beetles and scarabs are found practically in all parts of Manchuria. The mountain streams in the northern and eastern regions abound in Daurian crayfish.

Distribution of Fauna.—The Manchoukuo fauna belong to the boreal zone. From the geographical and climatic conditions, however, the country falls in three sub-regions: (1) Mongolian, (2) Siberian and (3) North China.

The Mongolian Sub-Region embraces the area west of Taonan, Chengkiatun and Paintala, where desert animal life is represented by such mammals as Manchurian mole, Mongolian vole, the

shrew, the flying hare, the Mongolian badger and a specie of mountain cat, desert fox, the argali. The mountain quail, a specie of pheasant, bustard and lark are the more representative ones of the avifauna of this sub-region.

The Siberian Sub-Region covers the area of North Manchuria which is drained by the Sungari and Nonni rivers. The animal life of these areas are also common to Siberia. Principal mammals are mole, Ussuri vole, hedge-hog, lynx, leopard, racoon, sable, ermin, weasel, Amur badger, hare, squirrel, red deer, musk-deer, east Siberian reindeer, etc. The avifauna is represented by pheasant, ptarmigan, grey starling, snow-owl, and varieties of woodpeckers. Of the reptiles, the Saghalien viper and the Siberian lizard are noteworthy. The typical amphibians are the salamander and Manchurian toad. Among the finny tribe may be noted the salmon, sturgeon and the river lamprey.

The North China Sub-Region covers the area drained by the river Liaoho and the Liaotung peninsula, the part popularly known as South Manchuria. The fauna of this part is common to North China and Korea. Among the mammals are Korean mole, ground mouse, Korean porcupine, racoon, a specie of wild dog called *Nukute*, squirrel, etc. The representative birds are the Korean pheasant and Peking coal-tit. The typical fishes are the eel, *Zacco platypus*, a specie of sheat-fish, a specie of killie-fish (*Poecilia latipes*), Korean goldfish.

CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL OUTLINE

MANCHURIA AND NON-CHINESE TERRITORY

Manchuria first emerges in history as the homeland of the nomadic Tungus, a race quite different from the Chinese in all essential and dominant characteristics. These original inhabitants of present Manchoukuo were known by the Chinese people as the Suchen, and in a later period as the Ilou or Wu-chi, etc. They mostly inhabited the upper reaches of the Hurka River and along the Sungari. Their fortunes waxed and waned as they came into contact, and often into conflict with other peoples, who came to claim their territory that swept to the west and to the south. But those early twilight days of history are lost in misty records of which there are but few. It is known, however, that in the year 352 A.D., when the Mujung declared independence and as late as the beginning of the Ming Dynasty, Manchuria and Korea were ruled by Non-Chinese tribes. But it was not until 1636, when Nuerhachi, the leader of the Nurchens, established the Taching Dynasty, that the name of Manchuria entered history.

About the year 244 B.C., Chao Hsing, ruler of the Yen Kingdom, began to build a barrier in what is modern Shansi against the barbaric tribes in the west and in the north. The work begun by Chao was continued by later emperors until it was completed during the Ming dynasty, forming what is known as the Great Wall and extending over a distance of 2,000 miles from Eastern Turkestan to northern Hopei, down to the sea at Shanhaikwan. This gigantic work was conceived and built as a barrier against the Mongol and Manchu tribes who had frequently raided Chinese territory.

It is a matter of historical truth that the Chinese in those remote days and for centuries after, looked on those tribes on the other side of the Wall as alien enemies and the vast territory there as alien lands. Changes in the situation were seen only in the Han, Tang and Ming Dynasties when the Chinese influence extended over a portion of what is present Manchuria and Mongolia. This expansion of Chinese was set back by Manchu and Mongol Tartars who under the leadership of such rulers as of Khitan and Nurchen, and like Genghis Khan

broke through the Great Wall and ruled part or the whole of China.

Coming down as recently as the middle of the 17th century, Manchuria was regarded by the Manchu emperors as a sort of reserve or crown land, separate from China and closed for many years to Chinese immigration. At the dawn of the present century, Manchuria incorporated into China under one and the same Manchu dynasty and so recognised in the treaties made between China and other nations, was under the management of a regional head who ruled it in the capacity of "Commander-in-chief." It is too well known what attitude the late Chang Tso-lin took until his end, towards the National Government then at Peking. Whatever might have been the general impression as to his position, there was no doubt about his disposition when he, acting quite independently of Peking, concluded in 1924 an agreement with Soviet Russia relating to the Chinese Eastern Railways.

The Mukden regime went on drifting farther and farther from the central authorities, until in 1928 Marshal Chang Tso-lin came in clash with the Southern Armies, headed by General Chiang Kai-shek. There was every indication that the Southern troops would have gone over the Great Wall into Manchuria but for Japan's determined attitude which was made known by her note of protest.

Under Marshal Chang Hsueh-liang, the successor of Chang Tso-lin, Manchuria or the Four Eastern Provinces, as it had come to be known, passed more and more under autonomous local government. This state of affairs, both political and economic, prevailed until the Sino-Japanese clash of September 18, 1931. Upon overthrow of the Chang regime, the three provinces of Fengtien, Kirin and Heilunkiang declared their independence, and these provinces, later with the addition of Jehol, were incorporated into the new state of Manchoukuo which declared its independence of the Republic of China in March of the following year, and to which Japan gave formal recognition six months later, or in September, 1932.

References: Table 1—Manchoukuo Nienpao (Official Annual Report of Manchoukuo), 1934. Tables 2-8 & 9—Chiri Koza (Lectures on Geography), Vol. 1, (Outline of Asia, Manchuria and Mongolia), published by the Kaizo-sha, 1934.

Aboriginal Tribes and Their Kingdoms

Amongst a number of aboriginal tribes who made their abode in Manchuria at one period or another, the most important is undoubtedly the Tungus who are known to have been there as early 2000 years before the dawn of the Christian era. There were also tribes, known amongst the Chinese for many centuries by the names of Suchen, Tung-hu, Mais, Fuyu, Kaokuli, Khitan, Nurchen, etc. They were hunters and herdsmen, leading a life nomadic and of primitive order. It was therefore but natural that when they came in contact with Chinese refugees and immigrants of superior culture, they absorbed something of what had been brought from beyond the Great Wall. These aboriginal tribes gave rise to a number of Kings which are known on record as Fuyu (37 B.C.—494 A.D.), Kaokuli (37 B.C.—668 A.D.), Pohai (717—927 A.D.), Khitan (916—1125 A.D.), Chin (1115—1234 A.D.), and Later Chin (1616—1644 A.D.).

These tribal kingdoms, though some of them had reason to enter into tributary relations with China, were all independent in a full sense of the term. They made war and peace at their pleasure and sent envoys to foreign courts.

The people of Fuyu, an agricultural tribe of considerable means and power, inhabited the plains of Kirin and Taonan, a number of them having settled on the plains surrounding the present capital city of Manchoukuo, Changchun, now called Hsinking.

The Kaokuli who were of the same origin as the Fuyu were a warlike people and mostly lived in the valley of the Yalu River, dominating at a time the northern part of Korea and the greater part of South Manchuria, with the River Liao as its western boundary. It was with the object of checking the activity of this warlike people that the Han Dynasty of China maintained friendly relations with the Fuyu. With the Kingdom of Kaokuli, which later formed one of the three kingdoms into which Korea was divided, Japan engaged in warfare more than once. The Kaokuli conquered the Fuyu in 493, but when they were in turn threatened by Chinese invasion in 662, they made an alliance with Japan, though they were to be overcome by the Tang Emperor a couple of years later.

Upon the heels of these two states came the Kingdom of Pohai which marked the appearance of a northern tribe called Khitan upon the plains of Manchuria. The new born kingdom

practically covered the territories of the old Fuyu and the Kaokuli. It lasted about 300 years, until it was subdued by the Khitan Tartars. While it lasted, this kingdom maintained friendly relations with both China and Japan. History records that Pohai and Japan exchanged envoys and had trade relations.

While Pohai was evolving from a tribe to a state in Kirin and elsewhere, another group of nomads, the Khitans, steadily rose to power near the southern part of Jehol and west Fengtien. A small tribe in the beginning, the Khitans, under the able leadership of their chieftain Yalu Apochi, came in course of time to extend their territory both westward and eastward, until at the beginning of the 10th century they ruled over 8 administrative areas and 41 districts. Yehlu Apochi still went on making conquests and in 916 proclaimed himself emperor of an independent state, with the dynastic title of Liao. His son Yehlu Takuang further extended the power of the Khitans as far as the northern parts of Chihli and Shansi. Peking was for the first time raised to the status of a capital where the Khitan ruler now chose to reside. The great Empire now extended over Mongolia, Manchuria, the northern China and through North Korea as far as coast on the Japan Sea.

The tribe next to come to power was the Nurchens or Golden Tartars, who were originally one of the Moho tribes and were also known as the Black River Moho. They are known to have made their home in certain parts of Heilungkiang (Amur) Province, but it was not until the first half of the 10th century that they began to be known as Nurchens. They revolted against Liao in 1114 A.D., under the leadership of their chieftain Akuta. They were so successful in their military campaign that the Nurchens leader established in the following year an empire with the title of Chin (Gold). They carried everything before them until in 1122, Peking having been taken by assault, the Khitan Emperor sought safety in flight. The reign of the Northern Sung Dynasty was then overthrown. By 1129 the whole of China north of the Yangtze River was under the rule of the Chin Emperor, a regime that was to last until 1234 when the irresistible Mongols rose to supremacy.

While nothing could withstand the advance of the Mongol hordes, the Nurchens themselves were responsible in part for their own downfall. When they came in contact with the Chinese and their ways of life, the hardy warriors of the north were quickly softened by

the ease and luxury of the Sung civilization, so much so that when the Mongol Tartars rose under the mighty Genghis Khan, the once conquering race of Chin proved itself utterly helpless against the invading forces. And as if to hasten their downfall that was already in sight, the Chinese, true to their traditional diplomatic axiom, deserted the people with whom they had sworn friendship much to their own advantage, and now leagued with the new rising Khan against the tottering regime of their brother kingdom. Only in this case the double-crossing diplomacy, so often successful, failed to work out so well; for the Chinese themselves were later to be trampled upon by the warriors from the Mongolian plains.

The Mongols who conquered the major part of Asia and a portion of Europe originated in Northwestern Manchuria, near the Hsingan Mountains. They were hunters and herdsmen and remained in obscurity until the great Genghis Khan rose to organize them into an invincible military force. They swept Manchuria and crushed the Kingdom of Chin. The once mighty Dynasty of Sung had completely passed away when Kublai Khan established himself at Peking in 1264.

The Mongols gave the Chinese the first foreign dynasty in their history—the Yuan Dynasty. But the Chinese began to revolt against the Mongol rule in 1341, and twenty-seven years later, 1368, the Yuan Dynasty was overthrown, to be replaced by a Chinese Dynasty, the Ming.

Although defeated and subjugated by the Mongols and now falling back before the rising force of the Ming, the old tribesmen of the old Chin, the Nurchens, were never annihilated. One group of them, called Haisi Nurchen, was still in possession of the western portion of the valley of the River Sungari, from the present Petuna to Harbin; for, the Ming Dynasty, even in the heyday of its career, never extended much further than what is present Fengtien or Mukden Province. Another group of these tribesmen had established themselves in the section of the country from the east of the Changpel Range to the valley of the Hurka, all about the Sansing district. They were called Chienchou Nurchen. There was still another group settled over the banks of the Amur River—the Wild Nurchen.

It was from amongst these tribesmen of the north that a man, a young chieftain, was to appear who was destined to change the course of Chinese history and his descendants sat on the Dragon Throne in Peking for nearly three hundred years. Based in the castle at Hotuala

and known by the name of "Dragon-Tiger General," Nuerhachi, the young leader, soon brought together the Nurchen tribes under his control. In 1616 Nuerhachi rose against the Ming, calling his domain the Kingdom of Later Chin. He took Mukden, Liaoyang and Kaiyuan, driving the Chinese into the valley of Liao. While achieving brilliant military success in many directions, the Nurchen leader was never successful enough in his lifetime to break through the Great Wall into northern China.

Upon his death in 1626 his fourth son Tait-sung succeeded him and headed the house of Aisin-Chuehlo, the ruling house of what was later to be titled by him the Taching Dynasty, discarding the title of Later Chin. It was this young leader who gave the name of Manchuria to the land of the Nurchens for the first time in its history.

But it was not Tait-sung, the founder of the Taching Dynasty, who dealt the last and final blow to the Ming regime of China. It was his younger brother, acting as Regent of the infant successor, that now led the Nurchens finally to complete the work of the late chieftain, his elder brother—the conquest of China. The Manchu leader entered Peking in May, 1644. The infant Manchu Emperor moved his capital from Mukden to Peking in September. The Manchu dynasty of Taching was proclaimed over all China in October of 1644.

Manchuria Under Manchu Rule

After the House of Aisin-Chuehlo had taken Peking and consolidated its position in China, many Manchus, especially officials known as "bannermen," migrated to China, while the homeland of the Manchu rulers was regarded as an extramural region apart from China. Manchuria was treated as "a crown land" and reserved exclusively for the Manchu race. Heilungkiang and part of Kirin were kept as royal parks where people were altogether forbidden to go. The Chinese people were carefully excluded from Manchuria, and this situation would have lasted but for the depopulation and impoverishment that Manchuria was later to see; an alarming state of affairs which eventually gave rise to Chinese immigration northward beyond the eternal Wall.

The Manchu ruler established a military administration over Manchuria, maintaining the old Manchu personnel and customs wherever possible. Mukden, Kirin and Heilungkiang had each a military governor vested with complete authority, both civil and military. These posi-

tions being open exclusively to officials of Manchu origin, Manchuria was always under rule of its natives, Manchu Tartar or "Banners", and this state of affairs continued down to 1907, when an Imperial edict was promulgated relating to provincial governors in the Three Eastern Provinces of Manchuria, by which these provinces, like those of China proper, were placed under rule of civil administrators under a Viceroy or Governor-General.

For 268 years Manchuria remained under the rule of Taching, or the Manchu Dynasty. In 1912 China went through a great political upheaval, changing from a monarchy to a republic, and the last of the Manchu Emperors, Pu Yi, declared his abdication.

In point of international intercourse, the first instance of Manchuria having anything to do with an outside nation other than China was recorded in 1687, when disputes arose with Russia over some boundary questions. Next, when Great Britain and France waged war with China, their combined squadrons made use of Port Arthur as the base of operations. Two years later, Newchuang was opened to foreign trade. But it was not until the coming of the aggressive Russians some three decades later that Manchuria really assumed importance as a factor of international significance.

Manchuria Under the Republic

The first change to be made in the administrative system of Manchuria or the Three Eastern Provinces upon the establishment of the republican regime, was the appointment to each province of both a civil governor and a military governor. The latter under the orders of the President and the Minister of War at Peking concerned himself only with military affairs. But the powers of these military governors steadily increased as the central authority declined, so much so that when the question arose of joining the Allies against Germany in 1916, the military governors, amongst whom Chang Tso-lin of Mukden was prominent, asked President Li Yuan-hung to dissolve the Parliament which was opposed to the contemplated step, and amend the Constitution so that war could be declared without the consent of the Legislature. When the President turned down their request, Chang Tso-lin and other military governors declared their provinces as independent of the central Government, a stand which eventually led to their secession.

When Soviet Russia concluded a separate treaty of peace with Germany at Brest-Litvosk,

China had reason to fear a possible extension of Russian disturbance into her territory. Chang Tso-lin was appointed in September, 1918, Governor-General of the Three Eastern Provinces and named in 1921 Superintendent-General of the Mongolian Frontier. In the spring of the following year Chang Tso-lin had trouble with General Wu Pei-fu, a leader of the Chihli party. In the ensuing civil war the Mukden chief was defeated and forced to withdraw his troops from the province of Chihli. President Hsu Shih-chang immediately issued an order dismissing him from the posts he had held. But a number of associations in Manchuria joined in passing a resolution against the presidential order, stating that the lives of 30,000,000 people of Manchuria depended on the fate of General Chang.

He himself was quick to rise to the occasion. In May, 1922, he made a declaration of independence of the Three Eastern Provinces, which was communicated to the foreign ministers at Peking and to the foreign consular body at Tientsin. This declaration of independence ran in effect as follows:

(1) The Three Eastern Provinces of Manchuria, and Mongolia, Inner and Outer, cannot be recognized as parts of the Republic of China.

(2) Chang Tso-lin who holds a peculiar position in these regions shall hold himself responsible for safeguarding life and property therein, maintaining at the same time cordial relations with foreign nations.

(3) The Treaties hitherto concluded between the Mukden Dynasty and the Chinese Republic shall be respected.

(4) Any foreign minister or consul desiring to negotiate should apply to his office.

(5) Any treaty to be concluded by the Peking Government relating to Manchuria must have his direct approval.

Whatever Peking might have said to this, Chang Tso-lin now considered himself and acted as the de facto ruler of an independent Manchuria. A couple of years later, or in October of 1924, he concluded, without reference to Peking, a separate agreement with Soviet Russia relating to the Chinese Eastern Railway, in the name of the "Government of the Autonomous Three Eastern Provinces of the Republic of China."

Chang Tso-lin now turned his eye towards Peking. The October of the same year saw him engaged in war with Marshal Wu Pei-fu of Chihli. In December of the following year he clashed with Marshal Feng Yu-hsiang, and four months later he was again fighting with

Feng. This time he was so successful that he entered Peking in December. He had in the meantime assumed the leadership of the so-called anti-"Nationalist" armies in North China. There was now little doubt that Chang was aspiring to the office of president on which he had his eye some long time since. He held a series of councils with military leaders about him and, ostensibly at their request, he was installed on June 18, 1927 as Tayuan-shuai, i.e., Grand Marshal of the Military Government of the Republic of China, and declared the vast territory north of the Yangtze under his rule.

The Grand Marshal, however, was not left unchallenged. The "National armies" under the command of General Chiang Kai-shek, Marshal Feng Yu-hsiang and General Yen Hsi-shan were ere long pushing their campaigns against Peking. In the spring of 1928 the Grand Marshal found the situation so unsatisfactory that he decided in June to withdraw from Peking to old Mukden. It was on this trip back to the Manchurian capital that Chang Tso-lin was fatally injured by an explosion caused in the train he and his suite were travelling.

Upon the death of Chang Tso-lin the control of Manchuria passed to his son, Chang Hsueh-liang who, unlike his father, pursued a policy of reconciliation with the National Government at Nanking. When civil war broke out in 1930 between the Nanking Government and the coalition armies of Yen Hsi-shan and Feng Yu-hsiang, the young Marshal of Mukden observed neutrality, until a turn in the situation gave him a chance to make an armed mediation and a pretext to send his military forces beyond the Great Wall. The Manchurian forces took the first opportunity to take possession of the railway zones in both Chihli and Honan Provinces. These provinces were formally placed under Chang Hsueh-liang when he accepted office with the Central Government as Deputy Commander-in-Chief of the National Army.

Manchuria under its often aggressive military ruler, Chang Tso-lin, for the most part remained free from political or other disturbance, though her military forces had more than once entered within the Great Wall to engage in warfare of one kind or another. Under the strong ruling hand of Mukden it had preserved a peaceful order of things internally; and except at the time of Kuo Sung-ling's revolt in December, 1925, it had never been menaced externally. But Manchuria, under the rule of young Chang Hsueh-liang, was to involve itself in serious troubles of international

character; first with Soviet Russia in 1929, and next with Japan in 1931.

Russia's Eastern Penetration

It was the Russian fur-hunters who blazed the trail across the vast country of Siberia in the 16th century. Their adventures, purely commercial in motive, proved so lucrative that they went farther and farther eastward until they penetrated through Siberia to the Behring Sea, and even across the straits of Alaska. These commercial men were followed by armed forces. The 17th century saw the presence of Cossacks on the Upper Amur, frequently engaging in warfare. In 1689 a treaty was concluded at Nerchinsk between Chinese and Russian envoys. It was the first treaty China made with a European nation; certainly the first foreign treaty relating to Manchuria. This historic treaty of Nerchinsk extended the Russian empire to the northern boundary of Manchuria along the Argun River, a tributary of the Amur, and from the mountain range of the Kamennul out to the Okhotsk Sea.

Russia never released the hold it had now on Manchuria. While the Peking Court was distracted by the trouble it was having with Britain and France, Muraviev, Viceroy of Eastern Siberia whose name was to rise with the Eastern policy of the Russian Empire, sectioned more than 12,000 Cossacks at strategic points along the Amur. Against this background he managed, with comparative ease, to wrest from China the now famous Aigun Treaty of May, 1858. It virtually gave away to Russia the whole vast territory north of the Amur River to the Behring Sea, and another large territory extending from east of the Ussuri River as far as to the Sea of Japan and the Korean frontier, the present Maritime Province were placed under the common over-lordship of China and Russia.

In 1859 General Ignatieff entered Peking as the Russian Minister. In the autumn of 1860 the allied armies of Britain and France marched on Peking. The Imperial Court fled to Jehol, while the capital was in a stage of extreme turmoil. The Russian Minister offered his services as intermediary. The effete Peking court could repose neither his offer nor the terms of Britain and France. When the European troops had withdrawn upon ratification of the Tientsin treaties, Russia followed with the demand for what she called her services on behalf of China. The Peking Treaty of November, 1860, was the outcome. By this Russia assumed absolute control of the Maritime Province.

Russia now closed on Manchuria on the east as on the north, down to the mouth of the Tumen River on its Korean frontier. A foothold secured on the seaboard, Muravieff founded the port of Vladivostok on Peter-the-Great Bay, providing it adequately as a port for Russia's Pacific fleet.

Russian Treaties and Huge Undertakings

The Trans-Siberian Railway was logically a part of Russia's Imperialist policy in the Far East. The enterprising Emperor Alexander III had an able lieutenant in Sergey Yulyevich Witte who was appointed as Minister of State of Finance in September, 1892. With the position of Ussuri Railway connecting the new port with Habarovsk had been begun in May, 1891. The Siberian Railway had now advanced into Trans-Baikalia. The situation not unnaturally suggested new possibilities. Russia conceived the idea of a railway direct through Manchuria as a short-cut to Vladivostok, in preference to her scheme of building a road to be built following the course of the Amur River.

In 1894 Japan went to war with China. As victor Japan demanded cession of the Liaotung peninsula. It was so provided in the Shimonsaki Treaty. But the idea of China ceding the peninsula to Japan seemed to put a stick in the wheel of Russian diplomacy bent on further territorial penetration to the south. Witte, in view of the situation, initiated the now famous triple intervention of Russia, France and Germany. Japan had practically no choice but restore the Liaotung to China. It was also through the arrangements made by the same Russian diplomat that a certain French syndicate undertook to furnish China with a loan toward the end of paying the indemnity to Japan, this being a 4 per cent loan of 400,000,000 francs under a Russian guarantee. In the meantime, the Russo-Asiatic Bank was brought into being as an official organ to participate in financial activities in China.

Russia was alive to every occasion to advance her cause. By a series of acts adroitly managed she went on consolidating her position in China. In April, 1896 Li Hung-chang was sent to Russia to attend the Czar's coronation, a mission more important for the new agreement that the Russian Minister Cassini managed to obtain at the time. This pact, made in treaty form as the "Treaty of Alliance between China and Russia," was kept in strict confidence for many years, being only known apo-

cryphally as the "Cassini Convention." Through this secret treaty providing for a Russo-Chinese alliance against Japan, Russia obtained formal consent of China to extend the Trans-Siberian Railway straight through Manchuria to Vladivostok. This railway, 919 miles in length and running through the heart of Manchuria, was known as the Chinese Eastern Railway, the company of the same name being organized in 1896. In August of the following year, work of construction was begun on this road which was to shorten the Trans-Siberian Railway exactly by 568 miles.

The contract for the construction and operation of the Chinese Eastern Railway was signed at Berlin between the Chinese Minister to Russia and the Russo-Asiatic Bank, in whose name the charter had been given. By the 5th article of the same Agreement, both civil and criminal jurisdiction in the railway zone was granted to the Chinese Eastern Railway Company, an arrangement tantamount to a consular jurisdiction. "Absolute and exclusive right of administration" in the Railway Zone, it was provided, should be given to the Company.

Russia now turned her eyes elsewhere. Not quite satisfied with Vladivostok which is ice-bound for more than six months of winter, she sought a better outlet on the sea. She had less than a year to wait. When Germany acquired the lease of Kioochou harbour and the railway concession in Shantung Province in the spring of 1898, Russia likewise obtained, by a convention concluded in March of the same year, a lease of Port Arthur and Dalny (Dairen), and the adjacent territory and territorial waters for a period of 25 years. It was also agreed that the Chinese Eastern Railway Company should construct a branch line of 624 miles from Harbin to Dalny and to Port Arthur on the same conditions as those of the Chinese Eastern Railway, including civil and criminal jurisdiction and administrative power in the Railway Zone.

Russia lost no time to carry out her programme with vigour and thoroughness. A railway to Dalny and a branch to Port Arthur were built; the latter place was reconstructed as a naval base, with an extensive system of fortification; the harbour and city of Dalny were constructed as a terminal of the branch line; the modern city of Harbin was built as a junction of the Chinese Eastern main line with its South Manchurian branch to Dairen. Russia had practically completed all these undertakings before the Russo-Japanese war broke out. She was said to have spent more than 188,000,000 roubles.

The following table is eloquent of the grandiose undertakings Russia carried out in these parts of Manchuria:

	Roubles
Construction of the Chinese Eastern Railway (including branch line to Port Arthur)	375,000,000
Additional expenses of construction	75,560,000
Dalny Harbour construction expenses	10,000,000
Dalny City construction expenses	8,800,000
Dalny land purchase expenses	1,380,000
Port Arthur Harbor and City expansion expenses	17,400,000
Harbin City foundation expenses	100,000,000
Total	588,140,000

In addition, many millions of roubles were spent for the fortification of Port Arthur, though the matter was kept in strict confidence.

The Boxer trouble of 1900 furnished Russia another excuse to garrison large military forces through Manchuria, materially strengthening her position there. In reply to the representations made by Japan, Britain and the United States, the Russian Government repeatedly assured that her troops would be withdrawn, a promise that she never carried out. The situation in Korea had in the meantime become critical through Russian encroachment. Japan's sincere efforts to reach a friendly adjustment of the situation as regards Manchuria and Korea proved unsuccessful. The result was the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-5. By the Treaty of Peace made at Portsmouth, Russia ceded to Japan her railway from Changchun to Dalny and Port Arthur, together with the territorial lease of the Kwantung Peninsula.

Russia had to change her policy in the Far East after the war with Japan. What she retained of the railway was now to be managed more as a commercial undertaking. Her attention had now to be turned to the Balkan Peninsula and Morocco where the German activity had become menacing. Under the circumstances Russia saw wisdom in a friendly co-operation with Japan in Manchuria, a policy which materialized in her convention and treaty with Japan made respectively in 1907 and 1910. The scheme of double tracking the Chinese Eastern Railway was now abandoned, and instead Russia built the Trans-Amur Railway, establishing a direct railway line between Europe and Vladivostok within Russian territory throughout. This railway of 1,240 miles was begun in 1908 and completed in 1916 at a cost of 295,000,000 roubles.

Chinese Eastern Railway After Bolsheviki Revolution

The Bolsheviki Revolution in the autumn of 1917 had more disastrous effects upon Siberia than on European Russia. The country was politically convulsed, and economically paralyzed. Chaotic conditions prevailed throughout the country. China lost no time to rise to the occasion. On December 13, 1917, Chinese military forces virtually seized a part of the Chinese Eastern Railway Zone. They were encouraged by the new policy of the Soviet Government which was so anxious to obtain Chinese recognition that it renounced "all rights, privileges and concessions" acquired in China by the former Czarist Government. In 1920 the Chinese authorities took a bold step in their attempt to recover military and police power as well as judicial and municipal administration in the Railway Zone. The Chinese attempt, however, proved futile through the creation of the inter-allied Railway Committee, formed by the representatives of Britain, France, Japan and the United States, which took charge of the operation and supervision of the Chinese Eastern Railway from January, 1919, to October, 1922. After the evacuation of the allied military forces from Siberia in 1922, the new status of the Chinese Eastern Railway and its zone were established by two agreements made in May, 1924, at Peking between the Republics of China and Soviet Russia after protracted negotiations.

One of these agreements provided for the establishment of normal diplomatic and consular relations. The Soviet Government agreed to abandon its extraterritorial rights in China and to restore all concessions to China, and renounced its claim to the balance of the Boxer Indemnity. The contracting parties reciprocally agreed not to recognize any treaty with a third power affecting the sovereign rights of the other. With regard to the Chinese Eastern Railway it was agreed that Russia's economic ownership would be recognized, while political sovereignty in the Railway Zone, "such as judicial matters, and those relating to the civil administration, military administration, police, municipal government, taxation," etc., would be handed over to China.

The main feature of the other agreement in question was the Sino-Soviet joint management of the Chinese Eastern Railway, with five Russian directors and as many Chinese directors on of the railway, however, Russian preponderance was guaranteed by the arrangement that the

manager and one of the two assistant managers should be Russians, while China was to have but one assistant manager.

These were followed three months later by another agreement between the Soviet Government and the Government of the Autonomous Three Eastern Provinces which were at the time under the rule of Chang Tso-lin who refused to recognize the authority of Peking. This agreement signed on October 8 at Mukden, was practically the same as the previous agreements of Peking so far as the Chinese Eastern Railway was concerned. In both the Peking and Mukden agreements each party pledged itself against propaganda in the territory of the other. The only point of difference was seen concerning the period of concession of the Chinese Eastern Railway. While the Peking agreement made no reference to this point, the Mukden agreement provided that the time limit as provided in Article XII of the contract for the construction and operation of the Chinese Eastern Railway of September 8, 1896, should be reduced from 80 to 60 years. Regarding the redemption of the same railway, the Peking agreement went no farther than stating that "China may redeem the railway at some future time," while the Mukden agreement explicitly provided that China should obtain possession of the railway and appurtenant property without compensation at the end of 60 years. By the terms of the Mukden agreement, the Government Board of the Chinese Eastern Railway was reorganized with the appointment of directors and managers by both the Soviet and Mukden Governments.

Chinese Eastern Railway Under Sino-Soviet Management

The Sino-Soviet management which undertook the operation of the Chinese Eastern Railway was destined to experience a stormy career. Almost from the beginning the Soviet representatives on the Governing Board resorted to their own tactics. Wherever the board of directors was called to meet to consider some important questions, the Russian members consistently absented themselves, thus preventing the necessary quorum of seven. It was thought that Soviet Russia by such management contrived to leave the full control of the railway in the hands of the Russian general manager. As a matter of fact, the Soviet members seem to have taken such an attitude in order to avoid difficulties with the Chinese authorities who, being dominated at the time by the new national spirit of "Recovery of sovereign rights," were

showing an attitude of growing aggression in their eagerness to live up to the order of the day. In January, 1926, when the general manager, Mr. Ivanoff, refused to transport Chang Tso-lin's soldiers without receiving advance payment of fares as prescribed in the Agreement of 1896, he was placed under arrest. The Soviet Government immediately issued an ultimatum, giving the Chinese three days to reconsider their act, and Mr. Ivanoff was released. However, in the following month the Russian Municipal Council at Harbin and other places within the Railway Zone were abolished and replaced with local Chinese administration. In September the Chinese authorities seized the ships of the Chinese Eastern Railway on the Sungari, occupying at the same time the offices and other shipping facilities on land. The educational administration maintained by the railway Company within the Railway Zone was also taken over by the Chinese authorities. What is more, the Chinese police officials raided the Soviet Consulate in Harbin on May 27, 1929. The Chinese demands presented on this occasion included the following points: the Russian chief of the Commercial Department, who did all the purchasing for the Railway Company, and the Russian chief of the Accounting Department, should be replaced by Chinese; the telephone and telegraph system in the Railway Zone should be incorporated in the Chinese system; all lands controlled by the Company within the Zone should be returned to China; and the mines and forests owned by the Company should be surrendered to China. The police raid on the Soviet Consulate, however, was a matter not to be dismissed lightly. It was inevitable that there should arise serious dispute between China and the Soviet Union. For a period of more than half a year, the Chinese Eastern Railway, an important link in the international traffic chain, was seriously menaced and often disturbed, under the circumstances which eventually developed into open warfare.

JAPAN IN MANCHURIA

Japan on the Scene

Although Japan's relation with Manchuria began early in the 8th century when she opened trade with the Kingdom of Pohai, a relation that was to continue more than two centuries, it was not till the time of the Sino-Japanese war of 1894 that Japan came to regard Manchuria as a political proposition of international importance. In the course of the war

with China which was caused by a controversy over Korean independence and lasted six months, the Japanese armies took possession of the southern parts of Fengtien (Mukden) Province from the Yalu River to the Liao River at Newchwang. Port Arthur and Weihaiwei successively fell. The Japanese forces were preparing for an attack on Peking, when the war ended by the Treaty of Shimonoseki of April 17, 1896.

By the same Treaty China ceded to Japan in perpetuity the territory south of the line of demarcation drawn from the mouth of the river Yalu to Yingkou (Newchwang) through Fenghuang and Haicheng, a region commonly known as the Liaotung Peninsula, covering an area of about 10,582 square miles. At this moment Russia, France and Germany stepped in and advised Japan "in a spirit of cordial friendship" to restore Liaotung to China, concentrating at the same time their naval forces in the North China waters. Under the circumstances Japan had no choice but to accept their "advice" and return the same territory to China.

The Shimonoseki treaty of peace, if it benefited Japan nothing by way of territorial acquisition, at least served to pave for her commercial activity in China after the war. It gave Japan a chance to have access to ports and waterways which had hitherto remained closed. Japan seized this opportunity to open China to world commerce. By the terms of the above mentioned treaty, foreigners were able to "engage in all kinds of manufacturing industries in the open cities, towns and ports in China." Until this time Newchwang had been the only port in Manchuria opened to foreign trade, and Japan's trade through this port had been practically insignificant.

What was the first and foremost to attract Japanese attention in Manchuria was bean and bean cake. They discovered the great commercial possibility of the former as material for foodstuff manufacture and that of the latter as rice-field fertilizer. Bean cake had till this time had its only outlet in South China where it was used on the sugar plantations as fertilizer. The Japanese farmers who had been buying expensive fish fertilizer now turned to this bean product so eagerly that Japan was buying by 1899 this stuff to amounts excessive of her total export to South China. It was through the export of bean cake that Manchuria rose in importance in the commercial scale of Japan, stimulating at the same time other lines of merchandise. Up to the time of the Russo-Japanese war, Japan, Great Britain and the United States

accounted for the major part of the foreign trade of Newchwang. Japan was the heaviest purchaser of Manchurian products, while Great Britain and the United States were the largest suppliers of cotton goods.

Russo-Japanese War

Russian designs upon the Far East became vividly clear soon after the triple intervention. In March 1898 she leased the Kwantung Peninsula, the southern part of the Liaotung Peninsula, from which she had helped China to oust Japan but three years before. When the Boxer trouble broke out in 1900, the Russian troops occupied Newchwang and the city of Mukden, placing the former place under the administration of the Russian consul. While peace negotiations were in progress at Peking, the world heard, a surprising report that Russia, by a new convention with China, was planning to close Manchuria to all foreigners except her own nationals. In view of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance which was made just about a year later as a check on Russian encroachment, and in view also of the protests made by other nations, the Russian Government, by the Convention of April 8, 1902, modified its demand in respect of Manchuria and promised to evacuate the territory; a promise that it never carried out. In the spring of the following year Russia, again assuming an aggressive attitude, demanded for her evacuation a series of conditions, which Japan regarded as contrary to the principle of equal opportunity for other nations and also an infringement of Chinese sovereignty. Russia's growing military activity not only in Manchuria but in northern Korea, and her strengthening of naval forces in the Far Eastern waters left her true design no longer in doubt. Japan's interests, political and economic, which she had acquired in Korea subsequent on her war with China, were now seriously menaced by Russian encroachment. Japan's consistent efforts to arrive at a peaceful settlement of the questions at issue in Manchuria and Korea by diplomatic negotiation, eventually proved unsuccessful. On February 5, 1904, Japan took independent action to safeguard her "established rights and legitimate interests" in those countries, and followed it with a formal declaration of war against Russia.

After a series of successful fighting, the Japanese troops drove back the Russians across the Manchurian plains. The Japanese had advanced as far north as Changchun, when through the mediation of the American President, peace

was made on September 5, 1905, by the conclusion of the Treaty of Portsmouth. In this war with Russia, Japan lost 120,000 lives and spent 2,000,000,000 yen. Instead of an "indemnity" Japan asked Russia for "reimbursement" of the cost of the war, and obtained but 100,000,000 roubles for payment of Japan's expenses in caring for the Russian prisoners of war. By the Treaty of Portsmouth Russia transferred to Japan her lease of the Kwantung Peninsula, the railway between Port Arthur and Changchun and its branches as well as the coal mines along the railway, together with various rights appertaining thereto. This was followed by the Treaty of Peking, signed on December 22, 1905, which was concluded "to obtain the consent of the Chinese Government" concerning the above-mentioned transfers to Japan. By an additional agreement, China also gave Japan "the right to maintain" and "improve the military railway line between Antung and Mukden" built during the war by the Japanese troops, so as to make it "fit for the transport of the commercial and industrial goods of all nations." By a protocol appended to this treaty, China pledged herself to Japan "not to construct any main line in the neighbourhood of and parallel to" the South Manchuria Railway, "or any branch line which might be prejudicial to the interest of the above-mentioned railway."

Japan's Open Door Policy

Japan, since the earliest days of her entry into Manchuria, has been consistently following the open door policy. Her earliest effort in the same direction was seen in the agreement she made with China supplementary to the Peking Treaty of 1905. By the additional agreement, Japan caused China to open 10 cities and towns in Manchuria, amongst which the more important are Liaoyang, Hsinmintun, Tiehling, Kirin, Harbin, Tsitsihar, Aigun and Manchuli. The question of maintaining equal opportunity for all nations and the territorial integrity of China, which Japan had declared to be her policy in Manchuria and in following which she envisaged no little trouble, a special commission was appointed in November 1905 for the purpose of studying the lines along which Japanese enterprise in Manchuria should be directed. This commission which was known as the Post-bellum Enterprise Commission consisted of Marquis (now Prince) Saionji, the then Prime Minister, Baron (later Count) General Kodama, Chief of the General Staff, and chiefs of other departments concerned. The

fundamental principles recommended by this Commission, which was settled on and announced after Marquis Saionji's visit to Manchuria, consisted of the following points; namely, to maintain Chinese sovereignty and equal commercial opportunity; to encourage joint enterprises of Japanese and Chinese; and to supersede Japanese military administration by civil Chinese administration as quickly as possible. This policy was submitted to a council of Cabinet Ministers and Elder Statesmen before the Imperial Throne on May 22, 1906, and was formally approved.

On June 7, 1906, the South Manchuria Railway Company was formally organized, and took over the management of the newly acquired railways in Manchuria from the military who had in the meantime attended to their operation. In the following month, July 30, 1906, an Imperial Ordinance was promulgated for the establishment of the Government-General of Kwantung, which placed the leased territory under its civil administration, superseding the military administration hitherto conducted by the army authorities. This administrative change was made so early, although Manchuria, according to the Treaty of Portsmouth, could remain under the military administration of Japan and Russia until the end of March, 1907, if so desired. Japan's action was accounted for by her eagerness to see the Open Door in Manchuria under Chinese administration. The preliminary agreement relating to the restoration of Newchwang was signed at Peking on October 2, 1906. The final memorandum was signed on December 5 and the Japanese military administration was withdrawn the next day, handing all Customs administration to the Chinese authorities.

On August 22, 1906, the Japanese Government informed the Powers of the formal opening of the port of Dairen as a free port as from the first day of next month. An agreement was signed at Peking on May 30, 1906, by which the Chinese Customs Office was established at Dairen on July 1, and merchandise brought there by sea was to enter free of duty, excepting those goods proceeding beyond the Leased Territory, which were levied on by the Chinese Customs.

International Controversies

It is not unnatural that Japan, in the course of development of her interests in Manchuria, has had to deal with a number of international issues of controversial character. Some of

them are very significant for the light they throw on the lines of Chinese diplomacy with which Japan has had to contend with at one time or another, and which was later to culminate into the policy of the Mukden rulers until their downfall in 1931.

The first of such an instant occurred in 1907, when Japan learned, to her surprise, that China was about to grant a British firm, Pauling and Co., a concession to finance the construction of a 50 mile railway from Hsinmintun to Faku-men, with the ultimate right to extend it as far as Tsitsihar, 400 miles further north, on the Chinese Eastern Railway. Japan repeatedly protested against the concession in question on the ground that it would violate the terms of the protocol attached to the Peking Treaty of 1905, by which China agreed not to construct any line "in the neighbourhood of and parallel to the South Manchuria Railway." When the contract for the same concession was signed in November despite Japanese repeated protests, Japan promptly opposed it. In February, 1908 she proposed to China a plan of compromise, by which she engaged to endorse the Chinese plan if the latter would agree to extend the contemplated line to Tiehling or some other point to be selected on the South Manchuria Railway. China, however, refused to accept this, suggesting that the question be referred to the Hague Tribunal. When Japan refused to entering this, the matter was brought to a deadlock, never to be taken up again.

In 1909 the South Manchuria Railway had trouble with the Chinese authorities when it began in January to convert the narrow-gauge line between Mukden and Antung to one of standard gauge, the right to do which was granted Japan by the protocol appended to the Treaty of Peking of 1905. After unsuccessful negotiations lasting several months, Japan sent to China on August 6, 1909, an ultimatum notifying that she would take independent action carrying out the undertaking which she believed to be her treaty rights.

Another source of controversy between Japan and China was concerning the question of the Korean boundary, involving the Chientao District, lying to the north of the river Tumen. Dispute arose as to the rightful possession of this district, covering an area of some 1,550 square miles, with a population which was in 1909, 82,999 Koreans and 27,371 Chinese. In the years 1885 and again in 1887, a "Boundary Commission" was despatched to this district by both the Korean and Chinese Governments, but they failed to reach any settlement as to

the long standing question of the frontier. In the meantime the Korean settlers of the district became subject to many forms of maltreatment under Chinese administration, on one hand, and, on the other, to not infrequent visitations of the Manchurian bandits. The Koreans constantly asked their home Government for protection. This state of affairs went on until the establishment of the Japanese Protectorate in Korea, when she took up the matter with Peking.

With all these controversial questions pending, the relation between Japan and China was becoming anything but assuring. However, in view of the situation and of the importance of maintaining peace in the Far East, the two Governments finally came to an understanding and signed on August 19, 1909, a memorandum relating to the Antung-Mukden Railway, by which China recognized Japan's right to reconstruct the same railway. This was followed a few days later by two conventions, one of which is now as the "Convention Relating to Manchuria" and the other the "Convention Relating to Chientao."

By the first of these conventions, China engaged to consult Japan beforehand on any question of railway extension, where the interests of the two countries were likely to conflict, as for instance in the case of the proposed Hsinmintun-Faku-men Railway. Satisfactory agreement was also reached concerning other pending questions, such as, recognition of a branch line of the South Manchuria Railway, Tashichiao to Yingkou, extension of the Peking-Mukden Railway up to the wall of the latter city, and the coal mines of Fushun, Yentai, etc.

By the convention relating to Chientao, Japan waived Korea's long-standing claim to the Chientao District, recognizing China's territorial sovereignty therein. In return for this concession, China agreed to open four towns in Chientao to international trade and residence, a concession to the demand that Japan had made according to her unchanging policy of the Open Door policy in Manchuria. Japan also took the initiative in withdrawing her extraterritorial jurisdiction in China by recognizing Chinese law and jurisdiction over the Korean settlers in the Chientao District, while China on her part recognized land ownership by Koreans and pledged herself to protect Korean rights "equally with those of Chinese subjects".

Four-Power Consortium

With the international financial consortium

consisting of France, Germany, Great Britain and the United States, Japanese and Russian banks joined in 1912, with the reservation that they would withdraw in the event of the proposed business appearing to prejudice their national interests in Manchuria and Mongolia. In 1913, however, the American banks withdrew from the Consortium, which lost still another member when Germany withdrew upon the outbreak of the European War.

In 1918, however, the United States Government proposed to Great Britain, France and Japan the formation of another banking consortium with the object of financially aiding China, in view of "the change in international relations, both diplomatic and commercial, brought about by the war." While the Governments of these countries were making study of the proposal, the bankers of these four countries met in Paris to consider the matter, even going into discussion of its terms. Mr. Thomas W. Lamont, of G. P. Morgan & Co., who was at the time in Paris as financial adviser to the American delegation to the Versailles Conference, was a leading figure on the occasion. Japan expressed herself quite in agreement with the American plan, except that "all rights and options held by Japan in the regions of Manchuria and Mongolia where Japan had special interests" should be excluded from the scope of the proposed undertaking, saying that such reservation was "based on the very special relations which Japan enjoys geographically and historically with the regions referred to, and which have been recognized by France, Great Britain, the United States and Russia on various occasions." However, the United States and Great Britain opposed the Japanese reservation regarding Manchuria and Mongolia.

The negotiations continued without tangible results until Mr. Lamont, with the approval of his Government, came to Tokyo when he found common ground for compromise with the Tokyo Government, and to this arrangement the other Powers agreed. On the basis of the same compromise, notes were exchanged between the representatives of the Japanese and American groups on May 11, 1920, covering in substance the following main points:—

(1) That the South Manchuria Railway and its present branches, together with the mines which are subsidiary to the Railway, do not come within the scope of the Consortium.

(2) That the projected Taonan-Jehol Railway and the projected railway connecting a point on the Taonan-Jehol Railway with a seaport, are to be included within the terms of the Con-

sortium agreement.

(3) That the Kirin-Huining, the Chengchiatun-Taonan, the Changchun-Taonan, the Kaiyuan-Kirin (via Hailung), the Kirin-Changchun, the Hsimintun-Mukden, and the Ssupingkai-Chengchiatun Railways are outside the scope of the joint activities of the Consortium.

Washington Conference and Nine-Power Treaty

The Washington Conference, which was in session from November 12, 1921 to February 6, 1922, was important, apart from the question of disarmament it dealt with, for the part it played in disposition of questions bearing on the Far East. At the first opportunity given, the Chinese delegation demanded in strong form readjustment of a series of international arrangements existing in their country. At the meeting on November 29 of the Committee on Pacific and Far Eastern Questions, Mr. Alfred Sze, a Chinese delegate, demanded that all "unauthorized" foreign troops, police and telegraph and wireless systems should be withdrawn from Chinese soil. Mr. Hanihara, of the Japanese delegation, stated in reply that while Japan was willing to withdraw her troops from China proper as soon as conditions should warrant, it was impossible for Japan "to forego the right, or rather duty, of maintaining railway guards in Manchuria, whose presence is duly recognized by treaty."

Again at the meeting of the same Committee on December 3, Mr. Wellington Koo, of the Chinese delegation, reiterated the Chinese demand for annulment and termination of the foreign leaseholds, with particular reference to the Japanese leaseholds in Manchuria of Kwantung, including Port Arthur and Dairen. To this Mr. Hanihara replied saying that Japan had "no intention at present to relinquish the important rights of the leaseholds which she has acquired lawfully and at no small sacrifice."

At the meeting on December 14, of the Committee, Mr. C. H. Wang, another member of the Chinese delegation, strongly asked that "the treaties and Exchange of Notes of 1915" be "re-considered and cancelled." In reply Mr. Hanihara said that any question, if there was, of the "validity of the Treaty or Agreements of 1915, or the change or abrogation thereof," should be taken up, and at the Conference, but between Japan and China. At the meeting of the Committee on February 2, Baron Shidehara, of the Japanese delegation, anticipating the further

discussion of the same question, issued a statement to the effect that the Japanese delegation, while appreciating the difficult position of the Chinese delegation, could not concur to the procedure taken by China "with a view to cancellation of an international engagement which she entered into as a free sovereign nation." It was also stated that "if it should once be recognized that rights solemnly granted by treaty may be revoked at any time on the ground that they were conceded against spontaneous will of the grantor, an exceedingly dangerous precedent will be established, with far-reaching consequences upon the stability of the existing international relations in Asia, in Europe and everywhere."

However, in view of certain changes seen in the situation since the conclusion of the Treaties and Notes of 1915, the Japanese delegation took occasion to declare in regard to Manchuria as follows:

(1) Japan is ready to throw open to the joint activity of the International Financial Consortium recently organized, the right of option granted exclusively in favour of Japanese capital, with regard first, to loans for the construction of railways in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, and, second, to loans to be secured on taxes in that region. But it is understood that this declaration by no means affects the understanding arrived at by the exchange of Notes in connection with the Consortium Agreement of 1920.

(2) Japan has no intention of insisting on her preferential right under the Sino-Japanese arrangements in questions concerning the engagement by China of Japanese advisers or instructors in political, financial, military or police matters in South Manchuria.

Baron Shidehara, in concluding his statement, said that Japan, in coming to this decision, had been guided "by a spirit of fairness and moderation, having always in view China's sovereign rights and the principle of equal opportunity."

Japanese Railway Undertaking For China

In view of great agricultural possibilities of the vast areas of Eastern Inner Mongolia on one hand and of the lumber industry in the wooded areas of Kirin Province on the other, the Chinese authorities of the Three Eastern Provinces began to formulate toward 1925 an extensive programme for railway construction. The main point of their new scheme was to establish efficient lines of communication between

the capital cities of the three provinces. The first contract made with the South Manchuria Railway was for the construction of the Taonan-Anganchi Railway, 143 miles long. This road, crossing the Chinese Eastern Railway at Angangki, was to connect Tsitsihar, the capital of Heilungkiang (Amur) Province, with the South Manchuria Railway at Ssupingkai via the Taonan-Ssupingkai Railway. The construction work was commenced in June, 1925 and completed in July of the following year. It was provided in the contract that should the Chinese Government fail to pay the expense of construction within one year after the completion of the line, the outstanding amount should be converted into a railway loan.

Another line constructed under contract with the South Manchuria Railway Company is the Kirin-Tunhua line, covering 130.4 miles, being a part of the Kirin-Huining line of 260 miles, which was to have connected the capital of Kirin with the Korean railway at Huining. Of the capital for building the Kirin-Huining line which was to have been furnished by three Japanese chartered banks, an amount of 10,000,000 yen was advanced to the Chinese Government at interest of 7½ per cent per annum. However, owing to political disturbances in China, the construction of this railway was left eventually to be undertaken after the birth of the new state of Manchoukuo.

By a contract signed on December 24, 1926, the South Manchuria Railway Company undertook the construction of the Kirin-Tunhua line, running 130 miles west of Kirin at a cost of 24,000,000 yen. Work was started in June 1926 and completed in October 1928. It was agreed in this instance, too, that if the cost of building this railway should not be paid within one year after its completion, the amount should be converted into a railway loan. The construction of this line covered exactly one half of the proposed line between Kirin and Huining (Kainei), Korea.

In 1927 Mr. Jotaro Yamamoto, the then President of the South Manchuria Railway Company, visited Marshal Chang Tso-lin at Peking, where he headed the Military Government of the Chinese Republic, and concluded a preliminary control for construction for China of five railway lines. They were (1) the remaining half of the Kirin-Huining Railway, (2) Changchun-Talai Railway via Fuyu, (3) Taonan-Solun line, (4) Kirin-Wuchang line, and (5) Yenki-Hailin line. The formal contract for building the first two lines was signed on March 15, 1929, and the work of construction

consisting of France, Germany, Great Britain and the United States, Japanese and Russian banks joined in 1912, with the reservation that they would withdraw in the event of the proposed business appearing to prejudice their national interests in Manchuria and Mongolia. In 1913, however, the American banks withdrew from the Consortium, which lost still another member when Germany withdrew upon the outbreak of the European War.

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(2) That the projected Taonan-Jehol Railway and the projected railway connecting a point on the Taonan-Jehol Railway with a seaport, are to be included within the terms of the Con-

sortium agreement.

(3) That the Kirin-Huining, the Chengchiatun-Taonan, the Changchun-Taonan, the Kaiyuan-Kirin (via Hailung), the Kirin-Changchun, the Hsimintun-Mukden, and the Ssupingkai-Chengchiatun Railways are outside the scope of the joint activities of the Consortium.

Washington Conference and Nine-Power Treaty

The Washington Conference, which was in session from November 12, 1921 to February 6, 1922, was important, apart from the question of disarmament it dealt with, for the part it played in disposition of questions bearing on the Far East. At the first opportunity given, the Chinese delegation demanded in strong form readjustment of a series of international arrangements existing in their country. At the meeting on November 29 of the Committee on Pacific and Far Eastern Questions, Mr. Alfred Sze, a Chinese delegate, demanded that all "unauthorized" foreign troops, police and telegraph and wireless systems should be withdrawn from Chinese soil. Mr. Hanihara, of the Japanese delegation, stated in reply that while Japan was willing to withdraw her troops from China proper as soon as conditions should warrant, it was impossible for Japan "to forego the right, or rather duty, of maintaining railway guards in Manchuria, whose presence is duly recognized by treaty."

Again at the meeting of the same Committee on December 3, Mr. Wellington Koo, of the Chinese delegation, reiterated the Chinese demand for annulment and termination of the foreign leaseholds, with particular reference to the Japanese leaseholds in Manchuria of Kwangtung, including Port Arthur and Dairen. To this Mr. Hanihara replied saying that Japan had "no intention at present to relinquish the important rights of the leaseholds which she has acquired lawfully and at no small sacrifice."

At the meeting on December 14, of the Committee, Mr. C. H. Wang, another member of the Chinese delegation, strongly asked that "the treaties and Exchange of Notes of 1915" be "reconsidered and cancelled." In reply Mr. Hanihara said that any question, if there was, of the "validity of the Treaty or Agreements of 1915, or the change or abrogation thereof," should be taken up, and at the Conference, but between Japan and China. At the meeting of the Committee on February 2, Baron Shidehara, of the Japanese delegation, anticipating the further

discussion of the same question, issued a statement to the effect that the Japanese delegation, while appreciating the difficult position of the Chinese delegation, could not concur to the procedure taken by China "with a view to cancellation of an international engagement which she entered into as a free sovereign nation." It was also stated that "if it should once be recognized that rights solemnly granted by treaty may be revoked at any time on the ground that they were conceded against spontaneous will of the grantor, an exceedingly dangerous precedent will be established, with far-reaching consequences upon the stability of the existing international relations in Asia, in Europe and everywhere."

However, in view of certain changes seen in the situation since the conclusion of the Treaties and Notes of 1915, the Japanese delegation took occasion to declare in regard to Manchuria as follows:

(1) Japan is ready to throw open to the joint activity of the International Financial Consortium recently organized, the right of option granted exclusively in favour of Japanese capital, with regard first, to loans for the construction of railways in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, and, second, to loans to be secured on taxes in that region. But it is understood that this declaration by no means affects the understanding arrived at by the exchange of Notes in connection with the Consortium Agreement of 1920.

(2) Japan has no intention of insisting on her preferential right under the Sino-Japanese arrangements in questions concerning the engagement by China of Japanese advisers or instructors in political, financial, military or police matters in South Manchuria.

Baron Shidehara, in concluding his statement, said that Japan, in coming to this decision, had been guided "by a spirit of fairness and moderation, having always in view China's sovereign rights and the principle of equal opportunity."

Japanese Railway Undertaking For China

In view of great agricultural possibilities of the vast areas of Eastern Inner Mongolia on one hand and of the lumber industry in the wooded areas of Kirin Province on the other, the Chinese authorities of the Three Eastern Provinces began to formulate toward 1925 an extensive programme for railway construction. The main point of their new scheme was to establish efficient lines of communication between

the capital cities of the three provinces. The first contract made with the South Manchuria Railway was for the construction of the Taonan-Anganchi Railway, 143 miles long. This road, crossing the Chinese Eastern Railway at Angangki, was to connect Tsitsihar, the capital of Heilungkiang (Amur) Province, with the South Manchuria Railway at Ssupingkai via the Taonan-Ssupingkai Railway. The construction work was commenced in June, 1925 and completed in July of the following year. It was provided in the contract that should the Chinese Government fail to pay the expense of construction within one year after the completion of the line, the outstanding amount should be converted into a railway loan.

Another line constructed under contract with the South Manchuria Railway Company is the Kirin-Tunhua line, covering 130.4 miles, being a part of the Kirin-Huining line of 260 miles, which was to have connected the capital of Kirin with the Korean railway at Huining. Of the capital for building the Kirin-Huining line which was to have been furnished by three Japanese chartered banks, an amount of 10,000,000 yen was advanced to the Chinese Government at interest of 7½ per cent per annum. However, owing to political disturbances in China, the construction of this railway was left eventually to be undertaken after the birth of the new state of Manchoukuo.

By a contract signed on December 24, 1926, the South Manchuria Railway Company undertook the construction of the Kirin-Tunhua line, running 130 miles west of Kirin at a cost of 24,000,000 yen. Work was started in June 1926 and completed in October 1928. It was agreed in this instance, too, that if the cost of building this railway should not be paid within one year after its completion, the amount should be converted into a railway loan. The construction of this line covered exactly one half of the proposed line between Kirin and Huining (Kainei), Korea.

In 1927 Mr. Jotaro Yamamoto, the then President of the South Manchuria Railway Company, visited Marshal Chang Tso-lin at Peking, where he headed the Military Government of the Chinese Republic, and concluded a preliminary control for construction for China of five railway lines. They were (1) the remaining half of the Kirin-Huining Railway, (2) Changchun-Talai Railway via Fuyu, (3) Taonan-Solun line, (4) Kirin-Wuchang line, and (5) Yenki-Hailin line. The formal contract for building the first two lines was signed on March 15, 1929, and the work of construction

was to be commenced within one year. Nothing, however, was done on this line, since Marshal Chang Hsueh-liang, succeeding to the ruling power of Manchuria, showed no disposition to execute the contract made by his late father.

Japanese Investments in Manchuria

Japanese investments in Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, as may be expected, increased in proportion as her relations with these regions developed in industrial and economic lines, as chiefly seen in manifold activities

of the South Manchuria Railway Company. At the end of March 1931 the Japanese investments were officially returned as totaling over 1,715,000,000 yen.

Japanese investments since 1932 have increased at a significant rate. In the three years commencing 1932 the total Japanese investments, as compiled by the South Manchuria Railway Company, increased by ¥480,531,000. Japanese investments at the end of March, 1931, and those for the three years commencing 1932 are classified by items below:

Table 1. Japanese Investments in Manchuria

(Up to Mar. 31, 1931)

Investors	Items of Investment	Amount (Yen)
South Manchuria Railway Company	Railway	270,230,960
	Railway Workshops	6,465,032
	Harbours and Wharves	83,200,948
	Coal Mines	117,871,977
	Oil Shale Plant	8,824,461
	Iron Works	27,716,716
	Chemical Fertilizer Manufacturing Plant	50,939
	Sanitation	15,842,006
	Education	14,304,671
	Municipal Undertakings	146,125,530
	Others	51,435,966
	Total	742,069,206
	Securities of affiliated Companies and Public Bonds.	93,391,089
Loans to Chinese Railways and for Encouraging Industries	69,185,869	
Cash Advanced for Contract Construction of Chinese Railways, Deposits, Uncollected Credits, etc.	158,158,384	
Total	320,735,342	
TOTAL	1,062,804,548	
Japanese Government's Guarantee	Loans to Chinese Government	98,730,823
Japanese Corporations	Loans to Chinese Government and Individuals	20,282,080
Japanese Corporations	Capital Funds invested by Corporations	439,003,410
Japanese Individuals	Capital Funds invested by Individuals	94,991,560
	Total	554,277,050
GRAND TOTAL		1,715,812,421

In addition, the property owned by the Kwantung Government and the Japanese Army and the private property owned by Japanese nationals in Manchuria amount to a considerable value. With addition of these investments

as well as the annual grant from the Tokyo Government for the past quarter of a century, the total investment of Japan was said to have exceeded the total of 2,700,000,000 yen, at the end of 1934.

Table 2. Japanese Investments since 1932

(In yen)

Items	1932	1933	1934	Total
Call on subscriptions to S. M. R. . .	50,000,000	36,000,000	36,000,000	122,000,000
Net increase of debentures of S. M. R.	40,000,000	60,000,000	85,000,000	185,000,000
Net increase of debentures of affiliated Cos. of S. M. R.	—	13,700,000	18,450,000	32,150,000
Paid-up capital of newly established affiliated Cons. of S. M. R.	1,100,000	18,435,000	3,187,000	22,722,000

Items	1932	1933	1934	Total
Paid-up capital of other newly established Cos.	7,857,000	17,473,000	33,329,000	58,659,000
Manchoukuo Loan	20,000,000	—	—	20,000,000
Chien-Kuo Loan (Foundation Loan)	—	30,000,000	—	30,000,000
Undertakings Loan	—	—	10,000,000	10,000,000
Total	118,957,000	175,608,000	185,966,000	480,531,000

CHAPTER III

RACES AND TRIBES

The Prehistoric Peoples of Manchuria and Mongolia.—Varieties of neolithic remains are distributed throughout China, Manchuria, Mongolia and Siberia. Some of them, such as ancient Chinese copper vessels, earthen tripods and polished stone tools, are common to China, Manchuria and Mongolia, a fact suggestive of the relations which existed between the peoples of these countries in prehistoric ages. In contrast to this, however, must be noted an outstanding fact that the palæolithic remains unearthed further north in Manchuria and Mongolia are exclusively crude tools of chipped flint. The line of distinction is so clearly drawn there that one may doubt if these northern inhabitants had any close ethnic affinities with those in the south. Theories have been advanced as to the prehistoric inhabitants of these countries, but none of accepted authority as yet. Much remains to be done in these lines. In the meantime we shall have to confine our attention to those peoples whose history has been preserved in one form or another, and also to those whose racial and tribal life continues to this day.

PEOPLES OF MANCHU

Suchens.—The Suchens, also known as the Chishens and Hsichens, are the oldest people known in history. They are recorded to have presented thorn arrows and stone bows to Wu Wang, the founder of the Chou dynasty, who ruled China in the twelfth century B.C. Through misinterpretation of ancient chronicles, this people have been identified with the I-lous of Tungusic origin who rose to prominence as inhabitants of the Ninguta region in the Han period (206 B.C.—25 A.D.). They are described as inhabitants of the "north country" in the histories written in the times of the Ch'in and Han dynasties. It is a matter of historical truth, however, that at this period "the north country" did not extend so far north as to embrace what is at present Manchuria. The Suchens must have inhabited Jehol or southern Mongolia.

Ancient Ch'aohsien (Korean) Tribe.—Legend makes Chitzû or the Viscount Chi, a former vassal of the Chou dynasty, the father of the

Korean people. While he was a Han or Chinese, as his followers were, the people he ruled represented one of the earliest tribal indigenes of Manchuria. This tribal people has never been really identified; but in San Kuo Chih (History of the Three Kingdoms), compiled in the Chin period, reference is made to this under the head of the Wei tribes. They are said to have lived in the region of Liaoyang.

Shanjungs.—They are a tribe of unidentified origin who lived to the west of Shanhaikwan. They are recorded to have been frequent invaders of China in the time of Huan Wang, the 14th emperor of the illustrious Chou dynasty. Against this tribe the lord of Yen had to appeal to the Chou emperor for his military aid. From this it may be assumed that the Shanjungs were quite equals of the Cathayans in point of military equipment, having developed iron arms and a military art of quite their own.

Tungus.—This tribe next appears in history towards the close of the Chou dynasty (1122—255 B.C.). **Tunghu—Eastern Hu tribe**—was so named because they lived to the east of the state of Chao whose historians refer to them as lightly armoured and well mounted barbarians. They made repeated attempts to invade the states of Yen and Chou. While their kingdom has never been exactly identified or traced back, their western border was in constant contact with the 'Huns' of western Chahar. Their eastern limit extended about as far as Liaoyang, occupying extensive areas, running from east to west, outside the Great Wall. This tribal kingdom was overthrown by the Huns about the time Han was at war with Chu. The defeated tribe broke up in two groups, the one later known as Wuhuans and the other as Siempis.

Wuhuans and Siempis.—Of the Wuhuan tribe nothing is heard of for more than a hundred years, until in 73 B.C., in the reign of Emperor Chao Ti, of Former Han, "the Wuhuans of Liaotung" are recorded to have revolted. The rebel tribe was successfully overcome by a Cathayan force of 2,000 horse. It is presumable that the Wuhuans had grown into a military factor of not inconsiderable strength.

The Siempis remain in obscurity for about two hundred and fifty years. In the time of Kuang Wu Ti, the first emperor of the Later Han dynasty (25—55 A.D.), they are said to have invaded Liaotung. Later, under the leadership of Tanshihuai the Siempis rose to power. Their royal court was set up near Changchiakou. Having conquered all the eastern territory of the Huns in the 11th century, the Siempi kingdom, according to a Chinese historian, had extended over a distance of more than 12,000 li from east to west and more than 7,000 li from north to south, "embracing therein mountains and rivers, and marshes and briny lands." In 178 A.D. they are said to have defeated great Han armies. The Siempis maintained their power until their Northern dynasty was overthrown by a Sui emperor. A part of the Siempis emerged as Mujungs in the time of the Chin, while another became the Khitans in the period following the Sui and Tang dynasties.

Fuyus.—In the first description given of the Fuyus in the above quoted "San Kuo Chih," they are represented as a tribe living south of the Sungari, having as their neighbours the Kaokulis in the south, the I-lous in the east and the Siempis in the west. Physically, large framed, and by nature cautious and non-aggressive, they are represented as an agrarian tribe of quite peaceful disposition. In contrast, it may be noted that the Kaokulis, though apparently of the same racial stock, are described as "impulsive by nature and of aggressive bent of mind." What is noteworthy is that the Fuyus wore garments of white cloth as the Koreans do at present, and their strongholds were built in a circular form, as mountain castles of Korea are known to have been in old times.

Mals and Kaokulis.—What is called the Mai tribe in Chinese history was another of those closely allied with the original stock of the Korean race. They are said to have inhabited at "Tonmolou", which is now by common consent considered around the confluence of the Amur and Sungari. The Kaokuli tribe is generally regarded as of Fufu origin. They first made their home in the valley of the Tungchia river, a tributary of the Yalu. Later, they extended their influence further northwards. Under the leadership of Chumêng or Tsoumou, the Kaokulis had extended their rule in the first quarter of the 4th century as far south as the Daidoko or Taidong-gang river in northern Korea. They rose at a time to such power as few ancient tribes of Manchou ever did. Their civilisation, too, was by far above that of the others.

Their kingdom came to an end in the Tang period (615—907 A.D.).

I-lous.—This tribe sprang into prominence during the Han period. They lived over the area extending from Ninguta to Vladivostock. Physically, not unlike the Fuyus, their language was different to that of the Fuyus or the Kaokulis, according to San Kuo Chih. They were cave-dwellers. They lived on corn and clothed themselves in hemp and animal hides. They were one of the stone-age tribes, judging from the fact that they used poisoned stone arrow-heads; but they were not strangers to the plough, since it is also stated that they lived on "five sorts of corn and were possessed of hemp cloth."

Wei.—The Han period finds a tribe known as Wei living in Manchou, side by side with the Fuyus. They were later overcome by the latter tribe, with the result that they separated themselves in three groups one of which migrated to Korea, while the others lost themselves amongst the other tribal inhabitants they later came in contact with.

Wuchis.—Of this tribe of uncertain origin the Wei Shu, the history of the wei dynasty or the House of Toba, says in part as follows: "The Wuchis live north of Kaokuli, where once the Suchens had lived. Each village is ruled by its own master. There is no unity among them. Bold and brave, they are the strongest among all the eastern barbarians. Their language is different from the others... They live in fortified caves, shaped like a mound and opening above. Ladders are used for ascending and descending. Their land is without cattle, and the cart horses are used for ploughing. They have millet and wheat."

These people made an alcoholic drink by chewing rice. They generally decorated their heads with the tails of tigers and leopards.

Among the Japanese antiquaries it is generally held that this tribe lived around Shihtou-chengtzu between Hsinking (Changchun) and Harbin.

Shihweis.—This tribe rose to power contemporaneously with the Wuchis, of whom they were close northern neighbours. They were nomads at some season, while at other times they were engaged in agriculture and cattle breeding. They spoke a language not unlike that of the Khitans. Composed of five tribal groups, they rose to considerable power in the period of Sui and Tang. Legend has it that the later Mongols of historic fame sprang from this tribe.

Mujungs.—A tribe probably of Sienpi origin. The early part of the Chin dynasty, or the fourth century A.D. found this growing tribe on the lower course of the Shiramuren which is the upper portion of the Liao river. Under the direction of successive able leaders, this tribe gradually rose to power. Mujungtsun, one of their chieftains, having captured Peking, declared himself Emperor of Yen and called his territory Ch'ien Yen. His capital was removed from Lungcheng to what is at present Chengteh. His territory extended chiefly over a northern part of China and a western part of Manchou, including the Liaotung peninsula. The dynasty of the Mujungs is generally called Ch'ien or former Yen in contrast to the dynasties of Later Yen, Western Yen, North and South Yen that followed in that order.

Mohos.—The Moho tribe is of historical import because of the kingdom of Pohai they founded and also because they figured as a chief civilising influence of the Far East in the Tang period. History first records the Mohos as composed of seven tribal groups of which the two groups of Sumo-moho and Heishui-Moho are most important. The former inhabited the region of Kirin along the Sungari, while the latter were on the lower course of the Amur. Ta Tsujung, the founder of Pohai, is generally thought of Kaokuli origin, but it seems equally true that his followers were mostly Sumo-mohos who had early come in contact with the civilisation of Tang through their sojourn in Yingchu and Yuchow. Pohai, until it was overthrown by the Khitans in 926 A.D. after two centuries' existence, materially assisted in introducing the civilisation of Tang to Manchuria and Japan, with the latter having diplomatic and other relations for many years. When the Pohai kingdom came to an end, more than 100,000 Mohos found shelter in the Korean peninsula where they must have influenced in no mean measure the civilisation of the peninsular inhabitants.

Khitans.—This tribe, undoubtedly closely related with the Mohos, are first found along the upper course of the Shiramuren. After unsuccessful struggle with the Turks in the west, the Khitans became tributary to the Sui dynasty. They were later divided in eight groups which in the tenth century A.D. were again united by an able chieftain named Yeh-lu A-pao-chi who later became Emperor T'ai-tsu of the Liao Kingdom. In developing his country, this emperor made free use of the cultural and industrial attainments of Cathay. Iron and salt deposits were exploited; and agriculture was

encouraged under Chinese direction. Liao steadily grew until at the period of Sung (960—1127 A. D.) its territory embraced practically all of North China, bordering on Manchuria and Mongolia. When the Liao kingdom was overthrown by Kin in the first quarter of the twelfth century, it meant that the last of those of direct Sienpi origin had passed out of the history of the Far East.

Nurchens.—The Nurchens, who have been called Manchus since their Ching dynasty was established over China in the 17th century, are the only tribal entity remaining from antiquity. They were erroneously confused with the Suchens by some Chinese historians. They originally lived on the upper reaches of the Sungari, not far from the headwaters of the Yalu and mount Chngpaishan. They were known to Cathay of the Tang period. In 1115 a Nurchen chieftain named A-ku-ta declared himself the Emperor of the kingdom of Chin (Gold). In consequence of successful military adventures, he eventually annexed the Khitan kingdom in 1125. In the following year the Chin army occupied Pienching, the present Kaifeng in Honan province, the capital at the time of Sung. When the Chin kingdom was overthrown by the Mongols in 1234, the surviving Nurchens left China, returning to their original homeland in the north.

The Nurchens now made their abode around the region of Sansing or Ilan, on the right side of the Sungari. The Chienchou-Nurchens who are of the most historical importance among the three groups into which they had now divided themselves, later moved to the region of Kirin. These Nurchens were again divided in three sections of Chienchou Guard, Chienchou Left Guard and Chienchou Right Guard. From the first named came Nurhachi, the founder of the Ching or Manchu dynasty. In 1616 he declared himself the emperor of the kingdom of Ta Chin and in 1636 his grandson occupied Peking to inaugurate the Manchu rule in China, the regime which, though it saw the illustrious age of Chienlung, was by revolution brought to an end in 1911. The child emperor Hsuan Tung abdicated. Fate disclosed to none at the time how this child ruler was to become some two decades later the Emperor of the Manchou empire.

Of the Manchu population some estimate it at as many as 7,000,000 while others give something less than 1,000,000, the lowest estimate being around 600,000. From their physical characteristics the Japanese anthropologists differentiate them from those who are

called by European scholars by the generic, and often misleading name of Tungus. The Manchu is regarded as a distinct type evolved from the ethnic stock that early made its abode around the foot of Mount Changpaishan. The Manchu is smaller of stature than the Chinese. He is also characterized by olive or light brown complexion, slightly prominent cheek bones, black hair and eyes, the shape of the eye resembling that of the Mongol type, beards and whiskers sparse and shaven except by old men. The women are smaller than the men, showing little difference to the Chinese women in point of stature. They have never practised foot-binding, though in all other points they have completely become Chinese.

RACES AND TRIBES OF NORTH MANCHURIA

Tunguses.—Several tribes of pure Tungus origin are found in some northern parts of Manchuria. The name Tungus embraces a number of Orochon tribes which are often designated by the animals they breed or the characteristics of their habits, such as (1) Reindeer Orochons; (2) Horse Orochons; (3) Dog Orochons; (4) Steppe Orochons; (5) Forest Orochons. The Tunguses are indigenes of Siberia, who are in Manchoukuo more or less distributed through Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces. The more important of these tribes are described below.

(1) **Gold or Goldis.**—Of all Tungus tribes this particular group most resembles the Mongol in external characteristics. They speak the same language as the Mongols. They are met with about Sansing, being the descendants of the Heishui Mohos. Because men's heads are clean shaved, the Chinese referred to them as "fish-skin pated" or "hairless" men. Their complexion is almost sickly pale. The face is long, the forehead low, the eyes narrowly slit, and the body of medium size. Their disposition is simple and peaceful, with artistic bent of mind as is shown in their carvings.

(2) **Orochons.**—They are mostly found on the upper and middle courses of the Amur and in the Hsingan mountains. Those who live in the former region, as their tribal name Orochon, "reindeer owner", indicates, train the wild reindeer both for mounts and pack animals. Hunting is their chief pursuit. Those who live in the Hsingan mountains raise horses instead of reindeer. Physically, they are small and lean. The head is broad, the features flat, the chin protruding, the nose small, the lips thick, while

the eyes are either brown or dark and narrow, and the beards sparse.

(3) **Daours (Dours).**—This tribe is found in the region around Tsitsihar. It is one of the richest and by far the most cultured of all northern tribes. Those who are at present entrusted with local administration of the same region are mostly men of this tribe.

(4) **Solons.**—This tribe, often erroneously described by Japanese as cannibalistic, inhabits from the west of the Hsingan mountains to the river Hailar and its tributaries. It is hardly possible to distinguish this tribe from the Mongols. Known as goods fighters from early days, the men of this tribe formed the backbone of the resistance offered to the invading Cossacks in the 17th century. They are characterized by tall stature, hardy frame, elongated head, deep black hair, round broad features, narrow eyes, flat nose, big mouth and thick lips. They are mostly nomadic.

Giliaks.—This ancient tribe of which there is no more than 5,000 population represents, with the Ainos of Hokkaido, the oldest denizens of north Asia. Approximating the Tungus in many physical points, this tribe is distinguished by the black lank hair common to the men who are often hairy. Other physical characteristics are prominent cheek bones, small deep set eyes, flat nose, yellowish skin, broad head, and low stature. They live in caves in winter and in huts in summer.

RACES AND TRIBES OF MONGOLIA

The inhabitants or indigenes of Mongolia were, from an ethnologic point of view, unknown to China before the Chou dynasty (1122-255 B.C.), when they began to be described as northern barbarians.

Hsiungnu (Huns).—This tribe was the first to come into the history of ancient Cathay. The period of Ch'in and Han, more than two centuries before the dawn of the Christian era, found this tribe as a powerful factor among the northwestern neighbours. They inhabited the present Inner and Outer Mongolia, later separating in northern and southern groups. The latter was at a time powerful enough to impose peace upon the Han dynasty. They later met with reverses at the hand of the Siempis and Wu-huans, until eventually they broke up in small groups, fleeing westwards.

Tingling.—This northern tribe of uncertain origin is described to have been a terror to the northern group of the Huns in the Later Han period (25—221 A.D.). In a historical account

of the Chin period, the 4th century, a portion of this tribe is described to have penetrated as far south as Shansi. The theory held by some European antiquaries that this tribe was a pure indigene of Siberia is unsupported by fact.

The House of Toba.—This tribal group, like the Mujung, is of Sienpi origin. In the last quarter of the 4th century it rose to prominence. Invading what is modern Shansi after successful military campaigns against the Huns and Wuhuans, it set up in 386 the dynasty of Northern Wei. This dynasty eventually acquired control of all China north of the Yangtze, flourishing under a succession of able rulers. However, in 535 the kingdom was divided into Eastern Wei and Western Wei.

Juanjuan.—This is a group originated from the Tunghu stock, being related with the Toba. It is said that Tai Wu Ti of the Wei dynasty, in contempt of the ignorance of this tribe, so called it, comparing it to crawling insects. This, however, appears doubtful in the light of what is written of the tribe in the Nan Chi (Southern History), where it is said that the men of this tribe wore brocade and other clothing of high craftsmanship. Their territory at a time extended "from the western frontier of Korea to the end of the Gobi desert." They were dispersed after disastrous struggle, first, with the above Wei emperor and, next at a later period, with Wen Ti of the Ch'i dynasty and, at the last, with the Turks.

Turks.—The Hsiungnu, undoubtedly of mongrel stock, are also called Turks because, it is said, in their early days they held their stronghold for generations at a fortified hill called Chinshancheng which, because of its likeness to a helmet was called Dürkō, the origin of the name Turk. Living close to the northwestern frontier of China, they had developed into a powerful kingdom in the period of Sui and Tang. They made frequent incursions into China. The Emperor Wu Ti of the later Chou took a Hsiungnu woman for his consort. At the close of the Sui dynasty a number of Chinese are said to have joined the Turks. Later, this tribal kingdom was split into an eastern and a western group. Their final downfall came about in the 7th century when the Ouigours (Wigours), a tribal force of the same ethnic stock, became ascendent.

Tiehlo.—This is another offshoot of the Hsiungnu tribe. Under this general tribal name existed a great number of divisions over areas extending to the east of Hsiai, mostly in the mountains. North of the river Loho about

20,000 of their soldeirs had established themselves at the period of Sui. Farther west, as many of their soldiery were found close to Mount Paishan. They served under the eastern and western Turks. They were nomadic, fierce of nature, making predatory raiding their chief pursuit. They were good horsemen. Those who lived to the west are said to have been skilled in horticulture.

Mongols.—The Mongols, in a broad sense, include those of pure Mongol origin, who are represented by the Khalkas, and those of mixed Mongoloid origin such as Kalmuks, Buriats and other Mongolian inhabitants of more or less allied ethnic stock. Some hold that the Mongol is of the same race as the Tartar, and some consider the latter as offspring of the former. All these, however, still remain disputed points.

Khalkas.—The Khalkas comprise a number of related tribes such as Kalmuks, Paerhhu (Barokh), Buriats, Ordos, Wulyanghai, etc. Of these, the first and third mentioned are best known. Those of pure Khalka origin are mostly found in eastern Mongolia, numbering about 250,000. The mighty Jenghis Khan is said to have been offspring of this tribe. They are not tall of stature, but strongly built with broad shoulders, though the neck is rather small and short. Other external characteristics are black hair, broad flat features, prominent cheek bones, flat nose, pointed chin, sparse beard, oblique and dark brown eyes and yellowish tan skin.

Kalmuks.—This Mongol tribe is said to have originated in the Sungaria region. They call themselves "Eleuths" and "Oelöd." They inhabit the southwestern region of Mongolia, Sungaria, and as far as the Tibetan frontier. In Russia, they are distributed over some southern areas and the regions of the Don and Volga. Modern anthropologists call them Western Mongols. Their present population is estimated at 500,000. In old times they were strong and warlike people, but they have scattered over wide areas through war and migration. They are generally characterized by a hardy frame, though medium of stature, round head, short limbs, narrow eyes of lifted outer angle and also eyes set widely apart, flat features, etc. Both males and females are good riders.

The Kalmuks also comprise a number of tribal sub-divisions such as Sungars, Torgods, Khoshods, etc.

Buriats.—While the name Buriat is used to

designate one of the great tribal divisions of Mongols, some scholars consider them as a part of the Khalkas, estimating their population anywhere between 120,000 and 250,000. Those who regard the Buriats as Siberian indigenes seem to have confused them with Siberian Yakuts and Tunguses. This is, however, still a disputed point. They all live after the fashion of nomads, being distributed over Mongolia and Siberia, mostly clustering around the tundra and lake Baikal regions. In external characteristics they are, generally speaking, low of stature and short of limbs. Their skin is dark brown and the head round and big. They live in tents and clothe themselves in skin and fur. The women are decorative. They are industrious and thrifty, many of them being prosperous.

Ch'en Pa-erh-hu.—What the Chinese call the Ch'en Pa-erh-hu (Old Barga) is a tribe resembling the Daur. Though few European scholars have noted this tribe, its tribesmen, according to the Chinese historians, constituted one of the eight banners from very early days. Of the Pa-erh-hus, the older group was called Ch'en Pa-

erh-hu and the new group Hsin Pa-erh-hu (New Barga). Because of their military occupation they in part settled on the frontier of Heilungkiang province and in part over areas extending from the Nonni to Holunbuir which is commonly called Barga. Both old and new groups live in nomadic fashion. The older tribesmen resemble the Solons in physical characteristics, but speak a different tongue. A number of the new group which is now found in Outer Mongolia, had formerly lived on the northern slopes of the Hsingans, until they were transferred southwards by the Manchu authorities at the beginning of the 19th century.

Wulyanghai.—This tribe is said to have been the origin of the Khorchins. It was undoubtedly first found in east Mongolia. The first emperor of Ming, according to Chinese history, receiving their homage, organized them as an outer guard force and stationed them at Ulyangha. Geographically, they are allied with the Olot tribe, but generally described by the Chinese as a separate tribal group.

CHAPTER IV

FOUNDING OF MANCHOUKUO

As a result of the downfall of Chang Hsueh-liang in Manchuria, subsequent on the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese conflict in September, 1931, a movement for independence was started in many parts of the country. This movement resulted in the establishment of independent or self-governing organs of administration in important localities under such men as Yuan Chin-kai of Mukden, Tsang Shih-i of Mukden, Hsi Chia of Kirin, Chang Ching-hui of Harbin, Kan Chao-shan of Peishan-Taonan, Kan Chang-shan of Ssuningkai and others. They became leaders of this movement in their respective localities. In Inner Mongolia, the sentiment for independence also became very strong.

In the latter part of September, 1931, shortly after the outbreak of the Mukden incident, some Manchurian newspapers reported that the Commander of the Japanese army in Kwantung had dispatched a messenger to Chang Hsueh-liang at Peking, requesting him to return to Mukden and take charge of the affairs of the Three Eastern provinces. When this report was published, those connected with the movement for creation of a new state in Manchuria and Mongolia, promptly expressed their objection to the return of Chang Hsueh-liang and made an appeal to the Japanese Commander. In this appeal, signed by a number of legal bodies and representatives of Liaoning (Fengtien) Province, they objected to Chang Hsueh-liang's return on the grounds that his administration had brought about a general state of disorder and corruption in Manchuria and Mongolia.

As a transitional measure what was known as the Local Order Maintenance Committee was organized. On November 7, the Committee issued the following announcement to apprise the public of its temporary assumption of administration in Liaoning Province:

"Since the outbreak of the recent incident, the administration of the province has been suspended, and the Committee has undertaken the maintenance of order. Apart from the question of inquiring into what has taken place or what is likely to occur in the future, this Committee takes over the administration of the

province in an effort to protect its inhabitants. The Committee is endeavouring to sever relations with the former Chang Hsueh-liang government and the Nanking Government, to safeguard the people in their work, to define the duties and functions of the officials, and to enable the people to be at ease and observe laws. We hereby declare to the people that all central government offices as well as prefectural offices should strictly observe the orders of this Committee. Dated November 7. The Committee: Yuan Chin-kai, Yu Chung-han, Chang Cheng-chi, Chin Liang, Kan Chao-hsi, Weng En-yu, Ting Chien-hsiu, Kao Yu-chun."

In Kirin also, a similar movement became active, and the Governor of the Province announced the principles of the new administrative policy which was to be based upon the wishes and interests of the people. The leaders of this movement conceived a plan of unifying Manchuria under a government independent of the Nanking Government or of the influence of Chang Hsueh-liang. On January 17, 1932, these leaders met at Mukden and made basic arrangements for the establishment of a new government.

The first practical step towards the realization of this scheme took shape at the "State Founding Conference" held at Mukden for three days, February 16 to 18. Those present at this conference were Tsang Shih-i, Ma Chan-shan, Yu Chung-han, Hsi Chia, and Chao Hsin-po and it was called the conference of the "Five Big Leaders." At this conference, all important preparations for the formation of a new state in Manchuria were completed. On February 25, the Executive Committee, on the founding of a new government, made an epoch-making announcement, declaring that the new state to be formed in Manchuria would be called "Manchoukuo" and the new era would be called "Tatung." Also it was announced that Pu Yi, the former Emperor of China, would be installed as Chief Executive of the new state. The Executive Committee then announced the organic law governing the formation of the new Manchurian state.

Declaration of Establishment of the New State

The declaration of the establishment of the new government in Manchuria was formally made on March 1, and it marked the founding of a new nation in Manchuria and Mongolia. On March 1, all Manchuria feted the birth of the New State. The declaration of the establishment of Manchoukuo by the Government of Manchuria reads as follows:

"March 1st, 1932

(First Year Tatung)

"The Territory of Manchuria and Mongolia is a region remote and isolated on the Continent of Asia. In the records of the past, it is noted that its history is long; that the country often experienced unifications and disruptions within its border; that the soil of the land is fertile and that the people had exhibited honesty and simplicity in their manners and customs. After, however, opening the country to intercourse with outside countries the population increased in number and the products in volume, thus turning the country into a land of abundance and promise. On the contrary, since the establishment of the Republic following the Revolution of 1911, the military factions of the Eastern Provinces, taking advantage of civil wars in China proper, usurped administrative power and brought the Three Eastern Provinces under their control. Twenty years will have passed since the revolution, during which time warlords have sprung up in succession who, completely disregarding the welfare of the people, indulged themselves in greed, extravagance and dissipation. While they were bent upon the pursuit of self-interest and greed, the people, on the other hand, were subjected to extreme torture with the burden of over-taxation at the will of the war-lords. As a result the currency system was completely ruined, and the business conditions of the country became stagnant and finally ruined.

"At such a critical moment, however, the warlords, giving rein to their ambition, advanced their army south of the Great Wall, thus causing unnecessary strife and killing and wounding a large number of people. Although they met with reverses many a time, never did they come to a realization of their own folly. They lost the faith and respect of the foreign powers. They engaged in wars with neighbouring countries. With utter disregard of the spirit of friendliness and cordiality of foreign coun-

tries, they encouraged anti-foreign movements.

"Laxity in the police administration provoked disturbances in the country, permitting ravages by thieves and bandits. The acts of looting, arson and massacre by these lawless elements drove the entire population to terror, exposing them to hunger in all corners of the country. To leave these thirty million people of Manchuria and Mongolia in their hands means their exposure to atrocity and lawlessness, finally leading to their extinction. It is the people's desire to extricate themselves from the extreme danger and horror. Happily, through the aid of the army of a neighbouring country, it was made possible to expel these corrupt elements from the area where they had built a stronghold for many years past. Thus the home of misrule and corruption is now put to a thorough cleansing. This, we believe, is a Heaven-sent opportunity to the people of Manchuria and Mongolia for their resurrection. We should rise to the occasion and strive for our regeneration and rebirth with courage and determination.

"In turning our eyes to China proper we note that rival warlords have been engaged in intermittent warfare ever since the revolution took place. In late years despotic rule was exercised over the country by one party alone. Under the guise of the Three Principles of the People, the people are put to death in the name of Min-shen; their leaders are bent upon only self-interest and moved by greed while they go in the name of Min-chuan, and in their eyes there is nothing but their own party, although they profess the principle of Min-tsu. In this manner, though they profess that the country is ruled with fairness and equality, the practice of the party leaders is in utter contradiction to what they profess, thus not only deceiving themselves but the people at the same time.

"Of late years, internal strife has become frequent, with rivals aiming to partition each other's territory. It is to be noted that even the existence of the ruling party itself is now in danger. In these circumstances, it is impossible to expect from them consideration of the national welfare. At this time the country is overrun by Communist bands whose baneful influence is fast penetrating into the flesh of the people and into the very heart of the national government. Facing these deplorable conditions we are compelled to look back to the days of the Ching and Min dynasties and also to the Yao and Shun, and deplore to see how far away we have gone from the golden

age in our history. What is important, this feeling of ours is equally shared by friendly nations abroad.

"The result of twenty years' experiences has convincingly taught us that we must bravely face the realities and take the task upon ourselves to reform our national life and seek a revival of the old golden age. The fact must be borne in mind, however, that evil influences are still at work amongst us, and should we evade the issue at this time and fail to check the spread of Communism, it is but obvious that the destruction of the nation would be inevitable. At this critical moment unless the people of Manchuria and Mongolia awake in good season to a realization of the heaven-given call for their liberation from the most corrupt political state, their extinction will be also inevitable.

"After thorough deliberations for several months past and after a number of meetings held by the leaders of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang and Jehol Provinces, Harbin Special District, and also those under the various banners of Mongolia, the conclusion was made with unanimity that they should look for a practical application of good rule rather than for mere expressions in words in administration of state affairs. Be the form of government what it may, the primary duty of the state is to give assurance of peace and security to the people.

"Manchuria and Mongolia had been, in the past, a separate state detached from China proper. In the present situation we are pressed to strive for national independence. In accordance with the will of the thirty million people, we hereby declare on this day that we sever our relations with the Republic of China and establish the State of Manchoukuo and that we hereby make a public proclamation of the fundamental principles on which this new state has been established.

"It is believed that statecraft should be founded upon the principle of Tao, or the Way, and Tao should be of Tien, or of Heaven. The principle on which this new state is founded is to follow the way of "Tien" (Heaven); that the people will have peace and security. The government must conform to the will of the people and not personal views should be permitted to prevail in the affairs of the state.

"There shall be no discrimination, with respect either to race or creed, among those people who now reside within the territory of the new state, including the races of the Hans, Manchus, Mongols, Japanese and Koreans; nationals of other countries as well may upon

application acquire as permanent residents equal treatment with others and their rights shall be guaranteed thereby.

"It shall be the internal policy of our new state to renounce such policies as were adopted in the dark days of the past, to revise laws and enforce local autonomy, to draft able men into the service of the government and elevate officers deserving of promotion, to encourage industry, unify the currency system, open the national resources, maintain the standard of living, adjust and regulate the administration of the police, eliminate banditry, and to further promote and popularize education, to respect Li-chiao, the teaching of Confucianism and to apply the principle of Wangtao Chui and practice its teachings. Thus it is designed to give enlightenment to the people who live within the state and maintain the honor of perpetuating the peace of Eastern Asia, thus setting a model example of good government to the world.

"The foreign policy of the new state shall be to seek and further promote cordial relations with foreign powers, win their faith and respect, strictly observing international conventions. The debt obligations accruing within the territory of Manchuria by treaty stipulation with various countries prior to the establishment of the new state shall be acknowledged according to the usage of international convention. Foreign investment by all nationalities uniformly shall be welcomed for the furtherance of trade and exploitation of natural resources, thus bringing the principles of the open door and equal opportunity and the like to a fuller realization.

"The foregoing articles hereby proclaimed are the fundamental principles whereon the new state has been established. The newly-formed government will assume all responsibilities from the day of the establishment of the new state, and the government hereby declare under oath made to the thirty million people, with sincerity and good faith, that these things shall all be fulfilled."

Simultaneous with the issue of the above declaration, the Organic Law of the Central Government, the Law Guaranteeing the Rights of the People, and other regulations were promulgated. These laws and regulations were intended to be the basis of the provisional constitution pending the enactment of formal ones.

A new era dawned in Manchuria and on its thirty million people on March 9, 1932 when Pu Yi, the former boy-emperor of the Ching dynasty of China, was inaugurated as "Chieh Cheng" (Chief Executive) of the New State of

Manchoukuo at Hsinking, the capital, with proper ceremonies and public acclamation that marked the inauguration of the long-desired autonomy and the emancipation of the people from the tyranny of military rulers.

In the presence of all noted leaders of Manchuria, Provinces of Mongolia, the public and many foreign residents, the State Seal and the Seal of the Chief Executive were formally offered to Pu Yi. Upon the acceptance of the post of "Chieh Cheng" by Pu Yi, Cheng Hsiao-hsu read the public declaration of the Chief Executive which was as follows:—

Public Declaration of the Chief Executive

"Humanity should uphold morality. There are different races in the world, and if self-advancement is attempted by any race by oppressing another, morality will be lost. All mankind should respect humanity and justice. But there are international conflicts. To harm others and to profit oneself is against humanity and justice. In establishing this State, morality, humanity, and justice have been adopted as the basic principles. When racial differences and international conflicts are removed, we shall be able to establish an eternal reign of justice. All our people should therefore devote their efforts to the realization of this ideal."

The New Flag

Shortly after the ceremony of inaugurating the Chief Executive, that of hoisting the new national flag was held. The new flag of five colors, representing the five races or the Hans, Manchus, Japanese, Koreans, and Mongols, was formally hoisted while Pu Yi, other dignitaries of the new Government and the public assembled on the occasion saluted this national emblem of peace and unity.

On March 10, the following day, the Government of the new country was formally organized with the appointment of important officials. The new era was titled Tatung (great unity) and the territory governed by the new government of Manchoukuo consists of the former three provinces of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang, and the new province of Jehol. Hsinking, the most important city located in the center of the territory, was selected as the new capital.

Foreign Minister's Note

Desiring to have the new state of Manchoukuo recognized by the Powers of the world Foreign Minister Hsieh Chieh-shih of Manchou-

kuo sent a note to all Foreign Powers on March 12, requesting recognition. The same note read as follows;

"Sir:

I have the honour to inform you that the Provinces of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang and Jehol, the Tungsheng Special District and Mongolian Mengs (Leagues) under several banners, have united themselves to establish an independent government severing their relations with the Republic of China, thus creating "Manchoukuo" (State of Manchuria) on March 1, 1932.

"It must be known to you that the old military authorities, headed by Chang Hsuehliang, who ruled the North-Eastern Provinces, sought only their self-interest and failed to give adequate consideration to the welfare of the people; further, that the entire populace was subjected to extreme suffering through outrageous exactions which were results of a corrupt discipline in official circles; and that the relations with foreign nations were greatly impaired through the enforcement of anti-foreign policies. Furthermore, in China proper there is to be found no unified and stable government due to constant factional strifes of a murderous nature among various military leaders of their own race, which makes it impossible for the people at large to enjoy a single day of peace.

"Thereupon, the people of Manchuria, at the opportune time of the downfall of the old military power, have established a new State with a unity of effort and a single purpose.

"The Government of Manchuria proposes to perfect the institutions of law, to establish security for the life of the people and to exert all possible power for the promotion of their happiness and peace.

As regards relations with foreign nations, it has been definitely decided that diplomatic intercourse should conform to the several principles herewith stated, that is to say;

"1. That the Government will conduct the affairs of the State according to the primary principle of good faith and confidence and according to the spirit of harmony and friendship, and pledges itself to maintain and promote international peace.

"2. That the Government will respect international justice in accordance with international laws and conventions.

"3. That the Government will take over those obligations incurred by the Republic of China by virtue of treaty stipulation with countries, in the true light of the law of nations, and discharge these obligations with good faith.

"4. That the Government will not infringe upon the acquired rights of the people of foreign countries within the limits of the State of Manchuria, and further that their persons and properties shall be given full protection.

"5. That the Government welcomes the entry of the people of foreign nations into, and their residence in, Manchuria and that all races shall be accorded equal and equitable treatment.

"6. The trade and commerce with foreign countries shall be facilitated, thus contributing to the development of world economy;

"7. That with regard to the economic activities of the people of foreign nations within the State of Manchoukuo, the principle of the Open Door shall be observed.

"It is the earnest desire of this Government that your Government will fully understand the object of the establishment of the State of Manchuria of which you are herewith appraised and that formal diplomatic relations will be established between your Government and the State of Manchuria.

"With assurances of highest esteem and distinguished consideration,

Respectfully,

HSIEH CHIEH-SHIH
(Signature)

Minister for Foreign Affairs.

March Twelfth, First Year
of Tatung."

Upon the formation of the new government of Manchoukuo, all officials and people turned their utmost efforts to perfect the administrative organs and, employing many Japanese experts either as advisors or officials, many improvements were immediately effected over the old corrupt system. Particularly, with a view to improving the currency system, the Central Bank of Manchoukuo was established in May, and the unification of currencies was carried out by fixing the official exchange rates of all former currencies in circulation.

The Government of Manchoukuo also took over the Customs and the Postal Service, though not without some difficulty because of the objection made by the Nanking Government.

Despite the frequent activities of bandits and plainclothes men of Chang Hsueh-liang bent on disturbing the peace of the new State, the new country has seen a career of steady progress.

The State of Manchoukuo was given the first formal recognition by Japan on September 15,

1932, when a protocol was signed between Manchoukuo and Japan. Soviet Russia's recognition is also expected before long in view of the interest she has in the country, and of the sanction she has given as to the stationing of Manchoukuo Consuls in Siberian districts.

The Protocol signed between Japan and Manchoukuo on September 15, 1932, is as follows:—

JAPAN-MANCHOUKUO PROTOCOL

"Whereas Japan has recognized the fact that Manchoukuo, in accordance with the free will of its inhabitants, has organized and established itself as an independent State; and

"Whereas Manchoukuo has declared its intention of abiding by all international engagements entered into by China in so far as they are applicable to Manchoukuo;

"Now the Governments of Japan and Manchoukuo have, for the purpose of establishing a perpetual relationship of good neighborhood between Japan and Manchoukuo, each respecting the territorial rights of the other, and also in order to secure the peace of the Far East, agreed as follows:—

"1. Manchoukuo shall confirm and respect, in so far as no agreement to the contrary shall be made between Japan and Manchoukuo in the future, all rights and interests possessed by Japan or her subjects within the territory of Manchoukuo by virtue of Sino-Japanese treaties, agreements or other arrangements or of Sino-Japanese contracts, private as well as public;

"2. Japan and Manchoukuo, recognizing that any threat to the territory or to the peace and order of either of the High Contracting Parties constitutes at the same time a threat to the safety and existence of the other, agree to cooperate in the maintenance of their national security; it being understood that such Japanese forces as may be necessary for this purpose shall be stationed in Manchoukuo.

"The present Protocol shall come into effect from the date of its signature.

"The present Protocol has been drawn up in Japanese and Chinese, two identical copies being made in each language. Should any difference arise in regard to interpretation between the Japanese and the Chinese texts, Japanese shall prevail.

"In witness whereof the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective Governments, have signed the present Protocol and have affixed their seals thereto.

"Done at Hsinking, this fifteenth day of the Ninth month of the Seventh year of Showa, cor-

responding to the fifteenth day of the Ninth month of the First year of of Tatung.

(L.S.) NOBUYOSHI MUTO

Ambassador Extraordinary and
Plenipotentiary of His Majesty
the Emperor of Japan.

(L.S.) CHENG HSIAO-HSU

Prime Minister of Manchoukuo."

BIRTH OF IMPERIAL REGIME

In accordance with the basic principle which guided its birth and after two years of preparations, the State of Manchoukuo adopted an Imperial rule on the auspicious day of March 1, 1934, marking the second anniversary of its founding, and its Chief Executive Pu Yi was enthroned as first Emperor of the new Empire.

Simultaneous with the adoption of the Imperial rule, various governmental systems were revised. The name of the country remained the same as before as Manchoukuo but that of the era was changed from Tatung to Kangte. On and after March 1 the Empire of Manchoukuo is ruled over by an Emperor. With the honor and prestige of the Emperor unimpaired, His Majesty presides over the administration of the country as Ruler, gives sanction to various laws to be enacted, orders their promulgation, oversees the judicial authorities in their administration of justice and controls the army, navy and air force of the rising State.

Prior to the enforcement of the Imperial rule Premier Cheng Hsiao-hsu of Manchoukuo issued a statement in which he expounded the general principle of the new rule to the 30,000,000 people of Manchoukuo and explained the great undertaking and ideal of constructing the new State to the world. A lengthy but historic statement as it is, it shall be partly reproduced herewith:

"Two years have passed since the Chief Executive took over his duties amid the general welcome and rejoicing of the people. During the period the Chief Executive devoted himself to the duties of the State in an effort to embody the Will of Heaven in building up a new state and bringing about prosperity and happiness to the people of the country.

"His work has been rewarded and peace and order have been restored. The friendship of the country with its neighbors has deepened and the knowledge of the people in general has been promoted. Manchoukuo's finances have been placed on a solid basis and its industries developed.

"An unprecedented bumper crop was realized last fall and the farmers, enriched by the bountiful harvests of the season, came to adore the benevolent rule. We find deep significance in the virtuous administration of the country by Chief Executive Pu-yi, which is in accord with the Will of Heaven which ordered the State of Manchoukuo to be built. The ideal of State construction is to obey Heaven and bring peace to the people. It is but natural that the Chief Executive, fulfilling the hopes of the people, should be enthroned as Emperor and complete the great undertaking of founding the new State. We may hope for the further prosperity of the country.

"On the auspicious day of March 1, the third year of Tatung, marking the second anniversary of the founding of the State, we have decided to enforce an Imperial rule in Manchoukuo and observe the ceremonies of Enthronement. The Enthronement of the Emperor is a natural culmination of the development of Manchoukuo founded in obedience to the Will of Heaven. Noble and virtuous as he is, the Chief Executive has ordered that His Palace be built only after all the government offices have been put up and that his Enthronement ceremonies be observed with simplicity. All these entirely accord with the high virtue of dealing with anxiety first and enjoying comfort after. The significance of the foundation of the State is fully manifest on all sides."

As is explained in the foregoing statement issued by Premier Cheng, the birth of the Empire of Manchoukuo with the Chief Executive enthroned as Emperor is a natural culmination of the spirit of the founding of Manchoukuo. The country was destined sooner or later to settle down as it has. The name of "Shissei," or Chief Executive, is the title which Tuan Chi-juei used and failed. Whether intentional or unintentional, the same title was used by the head of Manchoukuo. At the first announcement Manchoukuo was intended to be a Republic but the title of "Shissei" was a very ambiguous one. It is probable that the title was adopted for a temporary use during the transition days.

H. E. Pu-yi and those close to him must have considered the title as incomplete and felt the impression that the position was still insecure. This was responsible for various rumors about the possibility of Japan annexing Manchuria, or deserting Manchoukuo after finding it difficult to maintain it or Manchoukuo being dissolved and ultimately restored to China. It was actually indicated that no small anxiety was entertained by the people of Manchoukuo be-

cause of these rumors. Chinese circles were calculated to suspect Japan of swallowing Manchoukuo and start undersirable propaganda about it. It was necessary that Manchoukuo should place the position of its head on a permanent basis at the earliest date possible and solidify the independence of Manchoukuo and and thus dispel any unjustified suspicions and the anxiety of the people. It was fortunate the huge task of erecting the new State progressed rapidly and favorably during the short space of time. Especially did the political and economic work register progress at a faster pace

than expected, fulfilling the requirements needed for the adoption of the Imperial rule.

Premier Cheng in an interview with newspapermen explained the reason most explicitly for the change of the national policy of Manchoukuo. He pointed out that China, ever since the adoption of the Republican rule, has been in a state of chaos, and declared: "In view of the constant chaos in which China proper finds itself, Manchoukuo has recognized that Republican form of government does not suit the Orient and decided to adopt the Imperial form of government."

CHAPTER V

POPULATION & IMMIGRATION

Population & Immigration

One of the striking phases of Manchoukuo is the growth of the population in the last fifty years. Unlike Japan, more than a third of the inhabitants, of what was known until recently as Manchuria, are immigrants from North China. In 1907 the population of Manchuria was estimated to be between sixteen and twenty-two millions; in December 1934 it was returned at over thirty one millions.

The great majority of the inhabitants are settled in Central and South Manchuria and 90 percent of them are farmers. Besides the native Manchous and Chinese there are only a sprinkling amount of foreigners, including Koreans, Japanese and Russians.

Immigration

The flood of immigration into Manchuria started some three decades ago and in 1927 reached its highest peak when more than a million persons came into the country. Since 1929 the rate of immigration has fallen off considerably and in 1932 total arrivals were under 500,000. The overwhelming majority of the immigrants are Chinese. Projects towards implanting Japanese immigrants in Manchuria were undertaken several times in the past, but the results have not been totally satisfactory. The Korean immigrants, however, are doing better and at present number about 680,000. Since the Manchurian Incident the Japanese have renewed their efforts at sending emigrants to Manchoukuo and in 1932 and 1933 a total of 1,000 Japanese settlers entered the country.

Manchoukuo claims about forty percent of the entire Japanese overseas population. At the end of 1934 the number of Japanese, not including the Koreans, in the Kwantung Leased Territory, the S.M.R. zone and the open marts, reached 398,317. A study of their occupations shows that most of them were engaged in business and industrial and communication activities. Very few were doing farming. This characteristic of the Japanese in Manchoukuo offers a marked contrast to those immigrants in Brazil, America

and other lands, among whom farmers predominate.

At the end of 1933 the census of the Kwantung Government-General showed that of the entire population of 103,601 within the Leased Territory, 24,180 were merchants, leading all other classes. Those engaged in official duties and free occupations, numbered 23,451; those following industrial pursuits comprised 19,274. The communications industry claimed 18,178; other occupations, 8,839, followed by domestic employees, 4,621; and mining employees, 2,055. In addition 1,138 were engaged in farming, and 432 in fisheries. The latter comprised the smallest occupational group. The unemployed numbered 1,433.

The Japanese communities of the railway towns and the open marts outside the jurisdiction of the Kwantung Government-General had a total population of 38,657 at the end of 1933. Although accurate figures are unavailable, it is known that the merchant class predominated among them.

Before the establishment of Manchoukuo, the Japanese communities in Manchuria were practically limited to the Kwantung Territory, the railway zones and the open marts. With the birth of the new State, however, Japanese nationals began to spread to every section of the country, thanks to the freedom of residence, travel and business which was allowed them by the new regime.

The encouragement of agricultural emigrants to Manchoukuo by the Japanese Government is bringing more settlers of this class into the new State, but their number is only a small fraction of the other classes of Japanese who have swarmed to Manchuria since the Manchurian Incident. Most of these new arrivals are engaged in government service, communications, manufacturing, business and mining. Of those in government service the majority are employed by the Manchoukuo Government. The Manchoukuo State Railways are also using an increasing number of trained Japanese experts, especially since the purchase of the North Manchuria Railway (formerly the C.E.R.) by the Hsinking

Government. The staffs of the numerous industrial firms which have sprung into being during the past three years, are also mostly Japanese.

The Japanese population of Manchoukuo is today estimated at over 400,000, and it is still growing at a rapid pace. This compares with 523,446 in Korea, 286,163 in the Saghalien Island, 247,580 in Formosa, and 28,291 in the South Seas. In future it is believed that greater attention will be given by the Japanese Government to the mass emigration of agricultural settlers to Manchuria. Ambitious plans along this line have been from time to time reported in the press, but none of them have as yet materialized.

New Immigration Plan

An annual immigration of two thousand agricultural families to Manchoukuo and the organization of a Manchoukuo emigration company were the salient features of a plan worked out by the Japanese Overseas Affairs Ministry in the autumn of 1935. The plan is said to have been drafted on the basis of a report submitted by Mr. Sampei Takayama, Director of the Colonial Exploitation Bureau. If the plan is formally accepted by the Ministry as well as by the Government, it is believed that Japanese emigration to Manchoukuo will definitely pass its experimental stage. Funds necessary for carrying out the plan will then be included in the Ministry's budget for the 1936-37 fiscal year. It is said that the authorities of the Overseas Ministry, in order to actively launch Japan's Manchurian emigration policy from 1936, are considering abandoning the project for the establishment of the Manchuria Colonization Company and founding an emigration company with a capitalization of 15,000,000 yen.

According to the tentative plan, the capital stock would be held by the Government of Manchoukuo, the Toa Industrial Development Co., and the Oriental Development Co. (investments by the first two to be made chiefly in kind). The Company would engage in advancing loans, leasing land, and lending seeds, fertilizer, live-stock, and farming implements to Japanese settlers. The colonists would take up cattle-raising in addition to farming. The Government would guarantee a dividend of 6 per cent of the total capital. The Company would send 2,000 families to Manchoukuo in 1936 and lease to each household 20 "cho" of land (one cho equalling 2.45 acres) of which 10 "cho" would be used for cattle raising, two for rice plantation, and eight

for ordinary farming.

Land concessions would be obtained from the Toa Industrial Company, a subsidiary of the South Manchuria Railway Company, which owns 800,000 "cho" of land in Manchoukuo. The first stage of colonization would be completed within 10 or 15 years. Director Takayama's report is, in gist, as follows:

1. Of the 500 immigrants who were sent to Yungfengchen for the first time, there still remain 300, including 280 who are now married. These immigrants are living in 12 villages according to the prefectures from which they came and comprise separate economic units. They maintain elementary schools, hospitals, saw mills, shops for finishing farm products and blacksmith shops. In each village, they are closely housed.

Every village cultivates an area of 550 chobu (130 chobu for wheat, 180 soya beans, 120 for rice and the remainder for barley, potato and millet). From next year the communal system of each village is to be replaced by a system of individual economy. As regards stock-raising, sheep, cattle, horses and pigs are being loaned to the immigrants by the Japan-Manchoukuo Sheep Society.

2. Regarding the second batch of emigrants sent to the Hunanying district, their total number with their families now is 520. By following the same methods of living as the first group they at present cultivate an area of 500 chobu (109 chobu for soya beans, 137 for wheat, 36 for rice and the remainder for tobacco and other promising crops). They even are engaged in spinning wool as a secondary occupation. Divided into 16 villages, they are managing their economics as different units. A contingent of a certain Japanese garrison and a Manchoukuo force are stationed in the Hunanying district.

3. Of the third batch of 300 emigrants sent to Koyinbo, there remain 260. It is less than a year since their settlement here and it is only quite recently that each village has become an independent economic unit. At present, they grow soya beans, wheat, oat, Indian corn and millet. Construction of residential houses is steadily progressing. As the district is free from attacks by bandits, much hope is held for its future development.

Table 1

Population of Manchoukuo including S.M.R. Zone			
	Dec. 1932	Dec. 1933	Dec. 1934
Manchoukuo outside of S.M.R. Zone	29,606,117	30,879,717	30,905,409

S. M. R. Zone	362,718	404,316	434,002	Others	64,420
Total	29,968,835	31,284,033	31,339,411	Total	419,479

Table 2

Population of Kwantung Leased Territory					
	Dec. 1932	Dec. 1933	Dec. 1934		
Japanese including Manchurians	832,488	862,307	886,002	Hsinking	181,882
Koreans	127,937	141,275	148,204	Japanese	45,157
Others	721	857	1,089	Others	1,284
Total	961,146	1,004,439	1,035,295	Total	228,323

Table 3

Comparative population of Manchoukuo Proper and S.M.R. Zone					
	Dec. 1932	Dec. 1933	Dec. 1934		
Manchoukuo Outside of S.M.R. Zone	28,902,592	30,190,526	30,198,254	Antung	168,047
Manchurians	566,471	590,760	624,482	Manchurians	26,145
Japanese	137,054	98,431	82,673	Japanese	38
Others	29,606,117	30,879,717	30,905,409	Others	194,230
Total	29,606,117	30,879,717	30,905,409	Total	143,250

S. M. R. Zone	216,837	235,234	245,999
Manchurians	144,545	167,754	186,780
Japanese	1,336	1,328	1,223
Others	362,718	404,316	434,002

Grand total. . . 29,968,835 31,284,033 31,339,411
* Gradual decrease among others in Manchoukuo proper is due chiefly to exodus of White Russians.

Table 4

Population of Manchoukuo classified by nationality, including S. M. R. Zone:			
	Dec. 1932	Dec. 1933	Dec. 1934
Manchurians	29,119,429	30,425,760	30,444,253
Japanese	711,016*	178,630	213,057
Koreans	579,884	598,205	598,205
Others	188,390	99,759	83,896
Total	29,968,835	31,284,033	31,339,411

* Koreans included in 1932.

Table 5

Comparative population of the principal cities including the S. M. R. Zone in Manchoukuo (Dec. 31, 1934)	
Mokden	457,342
Manchurians	68,029
Japanese	1,508
Others	526,879
Total	334,663
Harbin	20,396
Manchurians	
Japanese	

Others	64,420
Total	419,479
Hsinking	181,882
Manchurians	45,157
Japanese	1,284
Others	228,323
Total	168,047
Antung	26,145
Manchurians	38
Japanese	194,230
Others	143,250
Total	135,756
Yingkow	5,029
Manchurians	90
Japanese	140,875
Others	

Table 6

Population of Other Cities (Dec. 31, 1933)

City or Town	Province	Population
Chinh sien (Capital)	Chinchow	84,595
Tsitsihar (Capital)	Lungkiang	76,101
Fuyu	Kirin	64,969
Hsinmin	Fengtien	64,723
Shwangcheng	Pinkiang	61,618
Taonan	Lungkiang	56,315
Liaoyang	Fengtien	50,160
Tiehling	Fengtien	48,869
Huatien	Kirin	44,848
Tungliao	South Hsingan	42,018
Hulan	Pinkiang	40,940
Chengtê (Capital)	Jehol	39,059
Jaoho	Sankiang	38,606
Ningan	Pinkiang	35,993
Hailun	Pinkiang	32,405
Liaoyuan	Fengtien	31,074
Fushun	Fengtien	29,903
Sanchengchen	Fengtien	29,105
Sifeng	Fengtien	28,741
Suihua	Pinkiang	27,826
Chihfeng	Jehol	27,407
Wangkuei	Pinkiang	27,173
Payen	Pinkiang	26,853
I-hsien	Chinchow	26,803
Paichuan	Lungkiang	25,724
Tunghua	Antung	25,665
Nungan	Kirin	25,041
Talai	Lungkiang	24,921
Taipingchen	Sankiang	24,234
Peichen	Chinchow	24,197
Tunhua	Kirin	24,088
Faku	Fengtien	23,284
Yenki (Capital)	Chientao	23,252
Pingchuan	Jehol	23,009
Panshih	Kirin	22,983
Chaoyangchen	Fengtien	22,759

Têtu	Lungkiang	22,024	Koshan	Lungkiang	20,918
Fengcheng	Antung	21,952	Hailung	Fengtien	20,437
Sian	Fengtien	21,681	Haicheng	Fengtien	20,039
Kaiyuan	Fengtien	21,551	Chiamutsu (Capital)	Sankiang	19,779
Antachan	North Manchuria Special District	21,090	Dairen	K.L.T.	370,871
			Ryojun	K.L.T.	29,737

Table 7

Number of Foreigners Classified by Locality (June 30, 1935)*

Provinces	Japanese excluding Koreans		Koreans		Other Foreigners		Total
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	
Kirin	5,449	3,922	20,151	14,797	113	52	44,484
Lungkiang	4,860	2,936	2,578	2,083	288	238	12,984
Heiho	613	404	393	283	161	700	2,554
Sankiang	1,599	1,005	8,030	5,625	99	72	16,430
Pinkiang	2,337	1,227	25,842	19,077	373	280	49,136
Chientao	6,848	5,018	228,824	207,259	64	45	448,058
Antung	555	252	40,262	33,092	28	31	74,220
Fengtien	5,663	3,740	41,330	35,086	445	358	86,632
Chinchow	3,100	2,484	682	635	23	18	6,942
Jehol	3,782	2,032	375	371	33	12	6,625
Within Jurisdiction of Metropolitan Police Board	5,038	3,546	1,869	1,298	23	31	11,805
Within Jurisdiction of Harbin Police Board	8,177	6,457	2,466	2,373	26,957	28,588	75,018
North Manchuria Special District	5,812	3,149	3,627	2,753	7,919	7,485	30,745
Total	53,833	36,192	376,429	324,732	36,536	37,911	865,633

* Exclusive of Kwantung Leased Territory and S. M. R. Zone.

Table 8

Classification by Nationality (June 30, 1935)

Nationality	Number of Households	Males	Females	Total
Japanese { Japanese excluding Koreans	22,965	53,833	36,192	90,025
{ Koreans	123,625	376,429	324,732	701,161
Denationalized (Originally Russians)	5,891	21,686	22,673	44,359
British	168	217	207	424
Soviets	5,894	10,230	11,042	21,272
Naturalized White Russians	1,479	2,619	2,435	5,054
Americans	134	134	92	226
French	110	110	75	185
Czechoslovaks	61	102	91	193
Belgians	20	26	1	27
Finns	1	—	2	2
Lithuanians	6	13	6	19
Swedes	6	11	8	19
Indians (British)	6	7	2	9
Dutch	14	11	19	30
Australians	1	—	1	1
Hungarians	4	4	4	8
Portuguese	3	6	4	10
Germans	152	256	203	459
Italians	16	24	22	46
Poles	441	781	738	1,519
Turks	14	20	15	35
Danes	42	60	76	136
Canadians	14	29	32	61
Swiss	16	20	18	38
Norwegians	1	2	5	7
Latvians	43	100	79	179
Austrians	11	22	14	36
Armenians	12	23	25	48
Greeks	16	23	22	45
Total	161,167	466,798	398,835	865,633

Table 9

Foreigners in Kwantung Leased Territory and S. M. R. Zone
(As on June 30, 1935)

Locality	Japanese excluding Koreans		Koreans		Other Foreigners		Total	
	Number of Households	Number of Residents	Number of Households	Number of Residents	Number of Households	Number of Residents	Number of Households	Number of Residents
Kwantung Leased Territory	33,036	156,682	534	2,950	410	1,321	33,980	160,953
S. M. R. Zone	41,495	181,487	5,600	29,354	307	1,068	47,402	211,909
Total	74,531	338,169	6,134	32,304	717	2,389	81,382	372,862

Table 10

Coolies Arriving at or Departing from the Port of Dairen
(1933)

Month	Arrivals			Departures		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
January	10,927	1,463	12,390	42,351	3,807	46,158
February	41,323	3,886	45,209	28,206	3,160	31,366
March	58,893	5,724	64,617	27,739	3,129	30,868
April	26,255	3,474	29,729	11,345	1,479	12,824
May	19,956	3,253	23,209	9,413	1,308	10,721
June	14,007	1,896	15,903	10,021	1,380	11,401
July	17,653	2,532	20,185	8,326	1,244	9,570
August	17,335	2,170	19,505	9,263	1,363	10,626
September	18,579	2,298	20,877	8,269	1,029	9,298
October	20,115	2,511	22,626	10,725	1,580	12,305
November	21,290	2,811	24,101	14,383	2,021	16,404
December	22,199	2,512	24,711	23,781	2,549	26,330
Total	288,532	34,530	323,062	203,822	24,049	227,871
Previous year ..	201,419	24,517	225,936	203,139	20,631	223,770
Increase	87,113	10,013	97,126	683	3,418	4,101

(1934)

Month	Male	Female	Total
January	16,875	1,628	18,501
February	13,942	1,122	15,064
March	112,660	6,649	119,309
April	53,287	4,652	57,939

The number of foreigners who were admitted into Manchoukuo in April, May and June of 1935 with their passports duly viséd totalled respectively, 1,094 (including 665 males and 429 females), 1,087 (including 706 males and 381 females) and 1,321 (including 757 males and 564 females). The number of visas issued each month is as follows.

Locality	Male	Female	Total
Blagoveschensk ..	2	1	3
Harbin	26	28	49
Foreign Office, Hsinking	—	1	—
Total	1,094	1,087	1,321

The foreigners admitted, classified by nationality, were as follows:

Nationality	Visés Issued		
	April	May	June
American	179	152	206
British	174	126	129
Soviet	100	87	125
German	92	107	140
Polish	21	14	18
French	46	36	42
Dutch	27	16	2
Danish	9	14	12
Swiss	9	4	14
Austrian	7	1	7
Lithuanian	15	14	17
Swedish	5	7	7
Greek	4	7	9
Norwegian	2	5	1
Czechoslovak ...	13	12	12

POPULATION & IMMIGRATION

			Occupation	April	May	June	
Peruvian	1	1	—				
Belgian	15	17	6	Diplomats & other public officials	49	59	48
Finnish	—	7	2	—	—	—	
Italian	13	8	6	Officials of Ussuri Railway	12	17	23
Estonian	3	3	3	Military officers ..	9	10	9
Latvian	2	6	2	Missionaries	49	39	54
Turkish	1	2	2	Teachers	19	27	61
Canadian	9	6	8	Students	40	51	156
Burman	1	—	—	Scholars	6	6	7
Hungarian	3	1	1	Employees of banks	—	11	12
Portuguese	—	4	1	Businessmen	268	238	220
Egyptian	1	—	1	Engineers	58	80	79
Persian	1	1	—	Journalists	8	12	8
Malayan	1	—	—	Physicians	26	15	29
Siamese	4	17	18	Attorneys at law	6	3	9
African	2	—	—	Housekeepers	249	209	236
Spanish	1	—	—	Entertainers	—	16	9
Hindu	1	1	5	Labourers	26	4	5
Cuban	—	2	—	Musicians	5	—	—
Danzig	—	1	—	Nurses	5	4	10
Brazilian	—	—	1	Artists	6	9	14
Nepal	—	—	1	Police officers ..	1	—	—
Syrian	—	—	1	Others	149	163	204
Others	—	—	1	Unemployed	105	118	128
Denationalized ..	332	408	521				
Total	1,094	1,087	1,321	Total	1,094	1,087	1,321

Classification by occupation is as follows:

CHAPTER VI
ADMINISTRATION

The administration of Manchoukuo is nominally vested in the person of the Emperor. The highest central administrative organ is the State Council which consists of nine departments. It is headed by the Prime Minister, who performs the task of national administration.

The departments of the State Council, and their composition are as follows:

Department of Civil Affairs. 6 bureaux, viz., General Affairs, Local Administration, Colonization, Police, Public Works, Public Health, Land. Other organs: the Metropolitan Police Board, Central Police Institute, Special Police Corps, Harbin Municipal Preparation Council, Provincial Governments, Special Municipality, Harbin Police Board, State Hospitals, Opium Patients' Hospital, Quarantine Stations.

Department of Foreign Affairs. 4 bureaux, viz., General Affairs, Commercial Affairs, Political Affairs, Information & Publicity. Other organs: the Manchoukuo Legation in Japan, Office of the Foreign Commissioner for North China, Consulates, Passport Offices.

Department of Defence. 3 bureaux, viz., General Staff, Military Supply, Horse Administration. Other organs: Central Military Training Institute, Gendarmerie Training Institute, Military Arsenal, Military Clothing Depots, District Army Headquarters, River Patrol Fleet Headquarters, Imperial Guards, Central Military Communications Department.

Department of Finance. 3 bureaux, viz., General Affairs, Revenues, Finance. Other organs: the Tax Bureau, Revenue Inspectorate, Customs Houses, Saltpetre & Nitrate Section, Match Monopoly Bureau, General Monopoly Bureau.

Department of Industry. 5 bureaux, viz., General Affairs, Agriculture, Forestry, Industry & Commerce, Mining. Other organs: Trade Mark Bureau, Central & Local Meteorological Observatories, Bureaux of Weights & Measures, Mining Inspectorate, Forestry Office, Yingkow Marine Products Bureau, Experimental Farms.

Department of Communication. 3 bureaux, viz., General Affairs, Transportation, Posts.

Other organs: Post Offices, Navigation Bureaux.

Department of Justice. 3 bureaux, viz., General Affairs, Civil Affairs, Criminal Affairs. Other organs: Deposits Bureau, Prisons, Law college.

Department of Education. 3 bureaux, viz., General Affairs, Education, Religions & Social Works. Other organs: Committee for Compiling Text-books, Instructors' Training Institute, Higher Normal School.

Department of Mongolia Administration. 3 bureaux, viz., General Affairs, Civil Affairs, Industrial Development. Other organs: Mongolian Text Book Compiling Bureaux.

General Affairs Board. The General Affairs Board is directly attached to the State Council and is controlled by the Prime Minister, and handles affairs relating to secret matters, personnel, accounting, and the requirements of the various departments. The General Affairs Board supervises not only the budgets but also national policies. The basic principles in forming the state budget and its assessment are under its control. The Board consists of 5 bureaux as follows: Secretariat, Personnel, Accountant, Supply and Information.

Supervisory Council. The Council is under the direct control of the Emperor, and is independent of the State Council, entrusted with the work of supervision and auditing. The Supervisory Council consists of the following three bureaux: General Affairs, Supervisory, Auditing. Each of the three bureaux are divided into three or four sections or divisions. General Affairs Bureau: Secretariat Section, Documents Section, General Office Section; Supervisory Bureau: First Division, Second Division, Third Division, Fourth Division; Auditing Bureau: First Division, Second Division, Third Division, Fourth Division.

Legislative Council. Functions of the Legislative Council are to draft and approve laws and budget bills. It possesses the authority to present opinions on state affairs to the State Council. Members of the Council are appointed by the Emperor from among the representatives of the peoples. The Legislative Council consists

References: Tables 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11—The Official Bulletin of Manchoukuo. Table 10—Economic Research Bureau, S.M.R.

of one secretariat and the following four sections: Document, General Office, Treasury, Records.

Privy Council. The Privy Council gives its opinion at the request of the Emperor on Imperial Ordinances, Laws, Budget, Negotiations and Treaties with foreign countries, declarations to foreign countries made in the name of the Emperor, appointment of important officials, and other State affairs, and may also submit its opinion to the Emperor in respect to important State affairs, without the request of the Emperor.

Department of Imperial Household Affairs. This Department was created following the inauguration of the Imperial Regime in March 1934 and is directly responsible to the Emperor. The Department consists of the following 5 bureaux: General Affairs, Domestic, Attendants, Ceremony and Guards.

Courts of Justice. Courts of justice include District Courts, High Courts, and the Supreme Court. In keeping with the spirit of its foundation proclamation, the new Government is seriously endeavouring to abolish all forms of evils and abuses prevalent in the days of the old regime as regards the judicial administration, to protect life and property, and to assure the dispensation of justice by the establishment of modern courts and the appointment of upright and impartial judges.

Local Administration. The founding of Manchoukuo has brought extensive changes in the matter of local administration. While much is yet to be accomplished in consummating a system of smooth and coordinated execution of administrative affairs, it is noteworthy that in the case of local administration a highly unified system has been achieved. The provinces are under the supervision of governors appointed by the Central Government and are directly responsible to it in general matters. Unlike the practise in the previous regime, the collection of taxes, stationing of troops and the compiling of budgets are done under the direction of the central Government. The realization of such a policy has not only brought about unity in local administration, but has considerably eliminated such opportunities as would lead to fraudulent practises and divisional dissensions. As noted elsewhere the Department of Civil Affairs of the Central Government takes charge of provincial affairs, but an exception is made with regard to the administration of the newly established Mongolia Administrative Department which is under the direct supervision of the Prime Minister.

The newly established fourteen provinces of Manchoukuo are divided into districts and the supervision of each district is vested in a magistrate who is responsible to the respective provincial governors.

A province consists of several Hsien or districts, and towns. The districts are classified into four classes according to their area and population. Each Hsien has an administrative office and a chief, who is responsible to the Governor of the respective province.

The administration of special municipalities such as Hsinking and Harbin are under the direct control of the central Government in virtue of the Organic Regulation for Special Municipalities issued in August, 1932 and amended in June 1933. The public affairs of a special municipality are controlled by the Mayor with the assistance of a council chosen from among the inhabitants.

The North Manchuria Special District is under the jurisdiction of the Civil Minister, and is administered by a governor. The Chi or Banner is the administrative unit of Hsingan Province. A Banner is a legal body under the supervision of the State, and handles the public affairs with the sanction of the Mongolian Administration Department. A Banner has an autonomic assembly to determine the budget and other important affairs.

Japan in Administration of Manchoukuo

"We are hereby set to formulate all the far-reaching designs for the safe-guarding of our domain and the future policies for its administration, in close co-operation and harmony with the Empire of Japan": so declared the first Emperor of Manchoukuo on the day he ascended the throne March 1, 1934. The above expression enunciating the fundamental principle of administrative policy becomes tangibly clearer when it is remembered that in 1932 Foreign Minister Hsieh Chieh-shih, in his note addressed to leading nations of the world, declared the intention of his government "to perfect the institution of laws and to establish security for life and property, contrary to the 'corrupt discipline', 'outrageous exaction' and 'anti-foreign policies' which were characteristic of the old militaristic Government." Of the scope and character of what has actually been accomplished to date by way of realizing the above official promise the following parts of this chapter and other sections of the present compilation will afford a comprehensive idea. What engages our attention here is the question how far and in what ways Japan has co-operated, and is co-operating, in the task

of making the new Manchou empire.

The official list of men serving in one capacity or another in the present administration of Manchoukuo is composed of 5,700 names of which about 3,250 are Japanese as judged from their personal names. Of the remaining portion the Chinese and Manchou official are in a preponderate number, the Mongol and Koreans making up each a small percentage. These Japanese officials serving in Manchoukuo are for the most part retired civil or military officers, some having been taken out of active service. The ministerial posts are held without exception by men of Chinese, Manchu or Mongol extraction. These ministers are invariably supported by high executives of Japanese origin.

It is scarcely of less significance to look into the composition of administrative system from the racial point of view. Japanese ability of organization and executive efficiency seem to have been availed of wherever necessary. Where corruption ruled in old days, and is most to be feared, the Manchou officials are assigned to subordinate places. The posts of councillors who in each department are in charge of actual administrative work are held by Japanese officials.

Directly under the State Council, the highest organ headed by the Prime Minister, the Secretariate and the five bureaux constituting the General Affairs Board are each headed by Japanese. In the Legislative Council also responsible only to the throne each of the five sections is headed by Japanese.

The nine departments of state, with the exception of that of Mongolia Administration are under the direction of Manchou Ministers, sometimes assisted by Manchou Vice-Ministers, but in no case are Japanese placed in any of these high places. But the bureaux and sections under these ministers are in charge of Japanese chief executive known as Councillors. The Department of Mongolia Administration is presided over by a Mongol prince. Of the three principal executive sections under him two are in charge of Mongol officials, the one being headed by a Japanese sectional chief.

Under the Department of Civil Affairs the Bureau of Police Affairs comprises numerically the largest staff. The central police force is formed about equally of Manchou and Japanese men. But the frontier police guard forces, forming altogether what is known as the Special Police Corps, is formed of about 170 Japanese against 50 Manchous, the latter being employed as low-ranked patrol men. What is known as the Harbin Mobile Police Force is formed ex-

clusively of Japanese men.

The Department of Foreign Affairs is the only division with a Japanese Vice-Minister, the similar places being held by Manchous in the other departments. Of the four bureaux of General Affairs, Commercial Affairs, Political Affairs and Information and Publicity the former two are in charge of Manchou officials while the latter are headed by Japanese.

In the Department of Defence all important positions are held by Manchou officers. On the general Staff the Manchous far outnumber the Japanese. The advisory body to the General Staff consists of more Japanese than Manchou military men.

The efficient management of finances in Manchoukuo is apparently to be credited to the Japanese officials who by far outnumber the other nationals in the Department of Finance. The monopoly offices of matches, opium, etc., and in the salt administration office actual executive work is chiefly entrusted to Manchou officials who are in a preponderate number.

In the Department of Communications, post and air services are practically carried on by Manchou officials and employees, though the higher places are held by Japanese. The post-offices are without exception in charge of Chinese and Mongol masters.

In judicial administration where the former Chinese authorities had been notoriously guilty of mismanagement, it is not surprising that most of the more responsible places have been filled by men from Japan. Each of the four sections are headed by them. The Districts Courts are also in charge of Japanese jurists. They are also in charge of public prosecution. It is also of significance that six prisons of Kirin and Mukden are entrusted to Japanese officials.

With regard to the matter of public education it is natural that Japan, in view of her bitter experience in the past, should see that it is conducted in ways free from racial antagonism. While the Minister and Vice-minister are both Manchous, the two bureaux of General Affairs and Educational Affairs are in charge of Japanese chiefs, only the bureau of Rites and Religions being left under Manchou management.

The Department of Mongolia Administration is featured by somewhat different policy, if the numbers of Mongol men employed are to be taken as a guide. Different from other departments of administration, a far greater percentage of officers of Mongol extraction are engaged in executive and other branches of work. The total number of men serving at central offices is ap-

proximately 415 of which the Japanese comprise slightly more than a quarter. Of those petty officials serving at sub-provincial or banner offices about 50 are Mongols and 30 Japanese.

At the central offices of local government there are about 450 Japanese against 1,500 Chinese and Mongols. Of the staff engaged at sub-offices and districts offices the Japanese number about 250 against a total slightly more than 300. In the provinces of Kirin, Lunkiang, Jehol, Pinkiang, Chinchou, Heikiang and Sankiang the Hsien (district) and banner offices are under the exclusive direction of Japanese officials who number altogether 300, one or two, and sometimes more petty officials being stationed under the Japanese councillor for each district. So far as local government is concerned the whole matter may be said to be under the direction of these Japanese councillors, a situation quite contrary to that of the pure Mongol areas.

The Japanese administration is entrusted to a figure vested with the dual powers corresponding to those of the commander-in-chief of the Kwantung Army and those of a diplomatic envoy of ambassadorial rank. The figure is directly responsible to the Emperor in matters of military affairs and to the Foreign Minister and the Prime Minister in matters dealing with diplomatic affairs. As regards other matters, such as the supervision of the South Manchuria Railway, a voice is given to both the military and diplomatic authorities.

The main causes influencing the administrative change are the growing responsibility of Japan in looking after the affairs of Manchoukuo. The sphere of Japanese power in Manchoukuo is delineated in the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol signed on September 15, 1932. In virtue of the Protocol Japan is given a free hand in the maintenance of the national security of Manchoukuo from any foreign threat to the country. To execute this purpose Japanese forces are thus allowed to be stationed in Manchoukuo.

Japanese jurisdiction in the Kwantung Leased Territory, prior to the founding of Manchoukuo, was under the direction of the Governor of the Kwantung Province and the Commander-in-Chief of the Kwantung Army. The Governor, a civil appointee, exercised administrative and judicial jurisdiction in the Province, control of the police in the Leased Territory and the Railway Zone and supervision of the business of the South Manchuria Railway Company. The sphere of the Commander-in-Chief of the Kwantung Army was over the garrison troops and the railway guards. Consular jurisdiction outside the Leased

Territory was entrusted to the Japanese consular authorities.

With the establishment of Manchoukuo the system of Japanese jurisdiction underwent a modification and an embassy was founded at Hsinking and matters with regard to the Kwantung Army and diplomatic affairs were entrusted to an ambassador. The first ambassador to represent Japan at Hsinking was the late Marshal Nobuyoshi Muto who was appointed to the post in August 1932. Following his death in July 1933 he was succeeded by General Takashi Hishikari. In December 1934 General Jiro Minami was appointed to succeed General Hishikari at the post.

Japan's Policy for Economic Development of Manchoukuo

Certain principles were laid by the Japanese administration in developing the economic potentialities of Manchoukuo. The policy as announced by Lieut. General Kuniaki Koiso in 1933 when he was Chief of Staff of the Kwantung Army is summed up as follows:—

1. Unification and rationalization of the economic systems of Japan and Manchoukuo.
2. Consolidation of the position of Japan and Manchoukuo and protection of the lives of the two peoples in times of war and peace.
3. Utilization of the economic resources of the two countries as a means for improving their economic positions in the world.

The following measures are to be taken in order to realize the purposes mentioned above:—

- (1) The interest of the two nations at large should receive paramount consideration before that of any individual.
- (2) The economic systems of the two countries should be so arranged as to meet the need in time of war.
- (3) Consolidation of Japan's economic position in Manchoukuo before any of the world powers starts economic activities in that country.
- (4) The kinds of industries to be started in given places are to be decided on with due consideration of the public interest of the two countries.
- (5) The investment of foreign capital in Manchoukuo is to be encouraged in order to show respect for the open door policy and the principle of equal opportunity.

Economic Administration

At the outset of its industrial program the Manchoukuo Government designated the placing

of certain basic enterprises under governmental control. The following kinds of enterprise fall into the category:

- (1) Business of importance relating to traffic and communication.
- (2) Technical industries, mining, and any other kinds of basic industry with close relations with the national defence of the two countries.
- (3) Gold mining.
- (4) Electric industries.
- (5) Leading businesses pertaining to the banking business.
- (6) Industries closely connected with public interest.
- (7) Some of the special industries, which it is necessary to place under the economic control policy of the authorities.

These seven kinds of industry are to be placed under the economic control policy of the authorities by placing them under the direct management of government organs or of semi-official ones, or of allowing some of them to be managed by special people furnished with official licenses issued for the purposes in view.

Table of Industries to be Placed Under the Economic Control of the Authorities

1. Industries to be placed under the direct management of government organs, public office or semi-official offices, or to be carried on by virtue of special licenses:—

- (1) Special banking business
- (2) Savings banking business
- (3) Central banking business
- (4) The business of issuing lottery tickets, debentures with premium, etc.
- (5) Post service
- (6) Railway service (local and private railways, i.e. railways for private use, are excluded)
- (7) Telegraph and telephone service (Radio broadcasting business excluded)
- (8) Aviation service
- (9) Horse-racing business
- (10) Slaughtering business
- (11) Live-stock markets
- (12) Afforestation in state forests
- (13) Trade in opium and cocaine, and the manufacturing of these chemicals
- (14) Gold mining in the mining districts of the State
- (15) The mining of iron, petroleum, ores of such light metals as are necessary for

- (16) the national defence
 - (16) Refining industry of light metals
 - (17) Iron and steel manufacturing industries
 - (18) Oil shale industry
 - (19) Electric industry
 - (20) Gunpowder manufacturing
 - (21) Manufacturing of other kinds of war necessities
 - (22) Manufacturing of weighing and measuring tools.
2. Kinds of industries to be carried on with the official permission.
- (1) Ordinary banking business
 - (2) Insurance business
 - (3) Local railways (All kinds of traffic service by means of track are included)
 - (4) Railways for private use
 - (5) Automobile transportation
 - (6) Small transportation business on rivers
 - (7) Sea-transportation
 - (8) Transportation business on small scale
 - (9) Fishery to be conducted under Fishery rights given to fishing companies, associations, etc.
 - (10) Fishery to be conducted by individuals by virtue of their membership in the fishing companies or associations with fishery right
 - (11) Afforestation
 - (12) Manufacturing of wool and cotton
 - (13) Hunting
 - (14) Cultivation of opium
 - (15) Gold mining outside the state mining districts
 - (16) Mining of coal and other useful ores other than mentioned in (15) of the industries itemized in 1
 - (17) Oil refining (Petroleum)
 - (18) Gas supply
 - (19) Automobile production
 - (20) Ammonium-Sulphate industry
 - (21) Alcohol distillery
 - (22) Sodium industry
 - (23) Tobacco Manufacturing
 - (24) Salt manufacturing
3. Kinds of industries to be started or carried on freely.
- (1) Farming and stock raising under private management
 - (2) Manufacturing of agricultural and live-stock products (Woolen and Cotton manufacturing industries are excluded)
 - (3) Fishery in general
 - (4) Lumber industry
 - (5) Trade in marine products
 - (6) Trade in live-stock products

- (7) Trade in agricultural and forestry products
- (8) Trade in marine products (Salt excluded)
- (13) Provision manufacturing
- (14) Oil and Grease manufacturing
- (15) Cement producing
- (16) Spinning
- (17) Dyeing and weaving
- (18) Production of hides and skins
- (19) Pharmaceutical business at large
- (20) Machinery industry
- (21) Porcelain manufacturing.

Industries Closely Related to National Defence

The Kwantung Army has been doing its best to accelerate the healthy development of various kinds of industry closely connected with national defence of the two countries with the valuable cooperation of the Tokyo Government in consideration of the wishes on the part of the Manchoukuo Government. The present condition of these industries (except the traffic and communication industries) is as follows:—

1. Iron and Steel Industry.—With a view to establishing a complete system of Iron and Steel Industry in Manchoukuo, the establishment of the Showa Steel Mill at Anshan has been decided upon in consideration of the capacity of the Anshan Iron Foundry, and various preparations required for the establishment of the mill are being hurried.

2. Coal Mining Company.—In order to place all the coal mining business in Manchoukuo under the control of the authorities concerned, studies required for the establishment of a large coal mining company, which will be realized at no distant date are being made.

3. The shale oil industry in Manchoukuo is now producing a good deal of crude oil. Plans are being formed to make naphtha of the crude oil, and if the result be successful, the greater portion of the crude oil taken from the oil shale is to be refined into naphtha. The production of some liquid fuels mixed with alcohol in order to secure the supply of fuel for automobiles running in Manchoukuo are being encouraged.

4. Preparations are under way in order to establish an aluminum manufacturing company making use of the abundant supply of ores from various parts of Manchoukuo.

5. Magnesium Industry.—Rich supplies of magnesium ore from Tashihchiao district will before long lead to the establishment of a magnesium manufacturing company.

6. A sulphate of ammonium manufacturing company with an annual production of 18,000 tons will be established at no distant date with a view to meeting the demand for it, not only in Japan and Manchoukuo, but for the markets abroad.

7. Sodium Industry.—Manchoukuo has a bright future in this connection being rich in the supply of salt and fuel which are necessary for the production of electric power required for sodium manufacturing. The authorities are now making a special study in this connection.

8. The alluvial gold and gold mines of North Manchuria are noted for their rich supply. The plan of establishing a special company for the production of gold is now under serious study by a special party organized by the Government.

9. Electric Industry.—Most of the electric industries in Manchoukuo are under the management of the Japanese, very small number of electric works being carried on by the natives owing to their lack of technical knowledge and skill. The Manchuria Electric Association, an organ established by the Japanese and Manchoukuo authorities, is now making studies about the regulations and system for the control of the electric industry of Manchoukuo.

10. Production of Ordnance.—The Joint Stock Company, Mukden Arms Works established by the Japanese capitalists availing themselves of the equipment of the Mukden Arsenal of Chang-Tso-lin is now engaged in the production of various kinds of arms and ammunitions, besides measuring and weighing apparatus. The amount of capital invested therein is not large at present. In case of necessity, however, it will be increased to meet any demand.

11. The authorities are now studying where to establish a works for the production of automobiles. Automobile manufacturing in Manchoukuo is intended for accelerating the growth of a similar industry in Japan proper.

12. The Manchoukuo Government are to abolish all the private works engaged in the manufacture of gunpowder. The business will shortly be monopolized by the government.

13. Weights and Measures.—For the present, the Manchoukuo Government shall adopt the Shaku (foot) and Kin (pound) system, which later will be replaced by the metric system. The weighing and measuring tools of simpler nature will be manufactured by the Manchoukuo Government, while those of a more complex nature by the Mukden Arms Works or by companies appointed by the Commercial and Industrial Office of Japan.

14. In order to obtain goods of the standard quality, all kinds of products in Manchoukuo will in the future be subjected to the same kind of examination as is now being enforced in Japan proper. For this purpose, a special committee has been organized in the Commercial Department of the Manchoukuo Government.

15. In consideration of the defective nature of the present Mining Industry Regulations of Manchoukuo, it is planned to promulgate new and up-to-date regulations before long.

16. Investigations are going on among the authorities concerned in order to improve the physical condition of the native horses of Manchoukuo. According to the plan, the height of the improved Manchoukuo horses will be 1.45 meters, and the required number of the improved horses will be obtainable in 45 years.

17. The authorities are now studying how to improve and enlarge the wool and sheep-raising industry in Manchoukuo in consideration of its importance as one of the war materials during the cold season.

18. The authorities are recommending the cultivation of the upland cotton recommended by the S.M.R. experts. According to the government's plan the area of land under cultivation of cotton will be increased to 300,000 chobu (One cho is equal to 2.45 acres) in 20 years, which will yield 150,000,000 lbs. a year.

19. Meteorological Service System.—The completion of the meteorological service system is essential to the healthy growth and development of the traffic and transportation business. The authorities have already framed a plan in this connection, which will be enforced in about five years beginning the 1st year of Daido in consideration of the financial capacity of the country.

20. The central banking organ, which is essential to the consolidation of the financial and economic basis of Manchoukuo has been established in view of the paramount necessity of Manchoukuo showing the common economic front with Japan in time of peace and war.

Ordinance of Manchoukuo Empire

In March 1934, the Government issued the following ordinance on the inauguration of an Imperial Regime in Manchoukuo.

By the grace and will of Heaven, We have acceded to the Throne and have indicated the fundamentals of the sovereign organization by enacting the Organic Law. In the exercise of the supreme power We shall conform to the provisions of the said Law and shall not suffer the same to be violated.

Imperial sign-manual and Imperial seal

First day of March, 1934, First year of Kangte.

Countersigned by

The Prime Minister and
Ministers of the Departments.

Chapter I. The Emperor

Article I.—The Manchou Empire shall be reigned over and governed by an Emperor. The succession to the Imperial throne shall be as determined separately.

Article II.—The dignity of the Emperor shall be inviolable.

Article III.—The Emperor is the head of the Empire, supervising the sovereign rights, and shall exercise them in accordance with the provisions of the present Law.

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

Article V.—The Emperor shall exercise the legislative powers with the approval of the Legislative Council.

Article VI.—The Emperor shall cause the courts of justice to exercise the judicial powers in accordance with the law.

Article VII.—The Emperor shall issue or cause to be issued ordinances for the maintenance of public peace and order and for the promotion of public welfare, or for the carrying out of laws. But no such ordinance shall in any way alter any of the existing laws.

Article VIII.—The Emperor, in consequence of an urgent necessity of maintaining public safety or averting emergency calamities, shall be empowered to issue, with the approval of the Privy Council, when it is impossible to convene the Legislative Council, Imperial ordinances which shall have the identical force of law. Such Imperial ordinances, however, shall be reported at the following session of the Legislative Council.

Article IX.—The Emperor shall determine the organization of the different branches of administration, appoint or dismiss government officials and shall fix their salaries, except in the case of those especially provided for in the present law or other laws.

Article X.—The Emperor shall have the power to declare war, make peace, and conclude treaties.

Article XI.—The Emperor shall have the supreme command of the military, naval and air forces.

Article XII.—The Emperor shall confer decorations and other marks of distinction.

Article XIII.—The Emperor shall order amnesty, pardon, commutation of punishments and rehabilitations.

Chapter II. The Privy Council

Article XIV.—The Privy Council shall be composed

of Privy Councillors.

Article XV.—The Privy Council shall, when consulted by the Emperor, submit its opinions relative to the following matters:

- (1) Laws;
- (2) Imperial House Law;
- (3) Imperial ordinances;
- (4) Budgets and matters pertaining to contracts other than budgets which entail obligations upon the National Treasury;
- (5) Treaties and agreements negotiated with foreign nations and declarations issued in the name of the Emperor;
- (6) Major appointments and dismissals of government officials;
- (7) Other important matters of state.

Article XVI.—The Privy Council may report its views to the Throne on important matters relating to the affairs of the State.

Chapter III. The Legislative Council

Article XVII.—The organization of the Legislative Council shall be as determined separately by law.

Article XVIII.—All legislative and budgetary bills and matters pertaining to contracts other than budgets entailing obligations upon the National Treasury shall require the approval of the Legislative Council.

Article XIX.—The Legislative Council may present proposals relating to affairs of the State to the State Council.

Article XX.—The Legislative Council may receive petitions presented by the People.

Article XXI.—The Legislative Council shall be convoked annually by the Emperor. The duration of the ordinary session shall be one month which may, however, be prolonged by the Emperor in case of necessity.

Article XXII.—No session of the Legislative Council can be opened unless more than one third of the total number of the members are present.

Article XXIII.—The proceedings at a session of the Legislative Council shall be decided by a majority vote. In case of a tie-vote, the chairman shall have the casting vote.

Article XXIV.—The deliberations of the Legislative Council shall be held in public. Closed sessions may, however, be held upon demand by the State Council or by a resolution of the Legislative Council.

Article XXV.—All legislative and budgetary bills and matters pertaining to contracts other than budgets which entail obligations upon the National Treasury shall be sanctioned, promulgated and put into force by the Emperor.

In the event of the legislative and budgetary bills and matters other than budgets pertaining to con-

tracts which entail obligations upon the National Treasury being rejected by the Legislative Council, the Emperor shall represent them to the Legislative Council by indicating his reasons therefore. When further rejected, the Privy Council shall be consulted for its decision thereon.

Article XXVI.—No member of the Legislative Council shall be held responsible outside the Council for his opinions uttered or for any vote given within the Council.

Chapter IV. The State Council

Article XXVII.—The State Council shall take charge of all administrative affairs.

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

Article XXIX.—The State Council shall have a Prime Minister and each of the Departments a Minister.

The Minister of each Department shall be responsible for the affairs over which he exercises jurisdiction.

Article XXX.—The Prime Minister and the Ministers of the Departments may attend the sessions of the Legislative Council at any time and may have a voice in its deliberations, but shall have no vote.

Article XXXI.—All Imperial edicts or rescripts, Imperial messages, laws and Imperial Ordinances relating to State Affairs shall bear the countersignatures of the Prime Minister and the Ministers of the Departments concerned.

Chapter V. The Courts

Article XXXII.—The Courts shall, in accordance with law, conduct trials of civil and criminal cases. In respect to administrative and other special litigations, however, special provisions shall be made by law.

Article XXXIII.—The organization of the courts and the qualifications of the judicial officials shall be determined by law.

Article XXXIV.—The judicial officials shall command independence in the discharge of their duties.

Article XXXV.—No judicial official shall be dismissed except by trials on criminal offence or disciplinary punishment, nor shall he be subjected to suspension, transfer of position or office and reduction of salary, against his will.

Article XXXVI.—The trials and judgements of the Courts shall be open to the public. Cases which threaten to disturb the public order and peace, or in which public morals are liable to be in danger, however, may be closed to the public in accordance with the law or by a decision of the Courts concerned.

Chapter IV. The Supervisory Council

Article XXXVII.—The Supervisory Council shall conduct supervisory duties and audit the accounts. The organization and duties of the supervisory council shall be determined separately by law.

Article XXXVIII.—The Supervisory Council shall have supervisors and auditors.

Article XXXIX.—No supervisor or auditor shall be dismissed except by trials on criminal offence or disciplinary punishment, nor shall any supervisor or auditor be subjected to suspension, transfer of position and reduction of salary, against his will.

Supplementary Provisions

Article XL.—The present Law shall come into force on the First day of March, First year of Kangte.

Article XLI.—The Emperor may, for the time being, issue Imperial ordinances or decrees possessing the identical force of laws, fix the budgets or make contracts other than budgets which entail obligations on the National Treasury, with the approval of the Privy Council.

Articles XLII.—All previous ordinances, Council orders, and other laws and ordinances irrespective of their designations or titles shall continue to remain in force.

Theory of "Wangtao"

Manchoukuo's administrative policies, both internal and external, are based upon the theory of "Wangtao." This word which literally means the "Way of the King," but which may be freely translated as the "Way of Benevolent Ruler" is by no means a product of modern times; it is the fundamental idea of Confucianism. The great masses of Manchoukuo, tired of the imported ideas of Republicanism, Nationalism or Dr. Sun Yat-sen's "Three People's Principles," which have all proved gross failures in China, quite naturally turned their minds to their own traditional political ideas inherent in Confucianism. The golden age of such ancient sage-kings as Yao and Shun loomed large and fascinating in their eyes and the result was the unanimous voice of the 30,000,000 people, "Back to Wangtao."

As to the essential ideas of "Wangtao," H.E. Mr. Cheng Hsiao-hsu, Former Premier of the Manchoukuo Government and staunch advocate of the doctrine, has the following to say:

Yen Yuan asked about perfect virtue. The Master (Confucius) said: "To subdue one's self and return to propriety is perfect virtue. If a man can for one day subdue himself and return

to propriety, all under heaven will ascribe perfect virtue to him." Tzu-lu asked what constituted the superior man. The Master (Confucius) said, "The cultivation of himself in reverential carefulness." "And is this all?" said Tzu-lu. "He cultivates himself so as to give peace to others," was the reply. "And is that all?" asked Tzu-lu again. The Master said, "He cultivates himself so as to give peace to all people, even Yao and Shun were solicitous about this."

The sentence "He cultivates himself so as to give peace to others" means that in regard to the aged, to give them rest; in regard to friends to show them sincerity; in regard to the young, to treat them tenderly. The sentence "He cultivates himself so as to give peace to all people" has the same meaning as "Yu (the King who succeeded Shun) thought that if any one in the empire were drowned, it was as if he drowned himself." Tzu-lu thought that if any one in the empire suffered hunger, it was as if he famished himself. Yao and Shun took the responsibility of the empire as their own.

In the ancient Chinese "Book of Rites" we find the following:

"When the great doctrine prevails all under heaven will work for the common good. The virtuous will be elected to office, and the able will be given responsibility. Faithfulness will be in constant practice and harmony will rule. Consequently, mankind will not only love their own parents and give care to their own children; all the aged will be provided for, and all the young employed in work. Infants will be fathered; widows and widowers, the fatherless and the unmarried, the disabled and the sick, will all be cared for. The men will have their rights and the women their home. No goods will go to waste, nor need they be stored for private possession. No energy should be used for personal gain. Self-interest ceases and theft and disorder are unknown. Therefore, the gates of the houses are never closed.

The "Way of the King," according to Premier Cheng Hsiao-hsu, should rule not only internal politics but also international relations. He says:

It is argued that, in this age of rationalism and militarism, no nation can exist without militarism, no nation can exist without military power. Yet history tells us that men like Napoleon and William the Second failed to achieve their ambitions though their military forces were more than sufficient for their own protection. Today we find small countries existing as independent nations regardless of their military strength.

Larger and stronger nations are prevented from annexing them by the principle of the "balance of power," which protects the small nation from the fear of the larger. The safety of the small nations likewise is the protection of the larger.

Hence a similarly developed nation, a "Wangtao" nation in the Far East, if brought into existence should be of enormous advantage to the whole and would be under the protection of the great nations. Its weakness will be its strength, for unjustifiable force used against it by any one Power would excite the rest of the powers to come to its assistance and prevent invasion. As a result of a surfeit of war the world is sick of war. "If Wangtao" is adopted the outlook of the whole world will be changed. The development of such an attitude should contribute to the solution of naval and military armament reduction problems. But the most serious menace which confronts us is Communism, because its aims is to overthrow world morality. Communism is our chief enemy, as its very use of the principles of force is contrary to the teachings of "Wangtao."

It may be said that "Wangtaoism" is neither nationalistic nor communistic but represents the golden mean between fascism and bolshevism. By buttressing "Wangtaoism" with modern science in all government administration leaders of Manchoukuo feel confident that they can build up a nation that will at once receive the full support of the populace and at the same time hold promise for a bright and progressive

the First Order of Merit and who have been granted the Order of the Lungkuang.

The orders of merit consist of nine grades. They are the Grand Order of Merit and those from the first to the eighth order. The orders of merit are conferred through letters patent. The letters patent for holders of the Grand Order of Merit, the First or the Second Order of Merit shall bear the Imperial Sign Manual and the Seal of the State as well as the signature of the Prime Minister who also enters the date by Imperial command. The letters patent for holders of any of the orders of merit of or below the Third Order of Merit shall bear the Seal of the State and the signature of the Prime Minister who shall also enter the date by Imperial command. The Director of the Bureau of Decorations (of the General Affairs Board) shall enter in each letter patent a number according to the grade of decoration to be conferred, and shall append a note to the effect that the number has been entered in the Register provided for the purpose, and shall also affix the Seal of the State Council and his signature.

Allowance to Officials

- (1) For medical treatment.
 - (a) at home... MY 2.00 a day.
MY 1.50 a day after 20 days.
 - (b) at hospital:—
 - Te-jen & Chien-jeh ... MY10.00 a day.
 - 1st to 4th classes, of Chien-jen MY 8.00 ..
 - 5th class of Chien-jen to 2nd class of Wei-jen MY 6.00 ..
 - Others MY 4.00 ..
 The limit of period is 180 days.
- (2) For injuries.

The sum differs according to the kinds of injuries.

 - 1st class18 months' salary.
 - 16th classhalf a month's salary.
- (3) For the family of the deceased.
 - Ordinary case....15 months' salary.
 - Special case.....18 months' salary.

(Battle, etc.)

Persons qualified to the above allowance in their respective order are given below: 1. Wife. 2. Son. 3. Grandson. 4. Parents or parents-in-law or sisters-in-law and brothers-in-law. When the persons qualified in the same class exceed a certain number, the allowance is divided in equal portions.

Grant to Officials

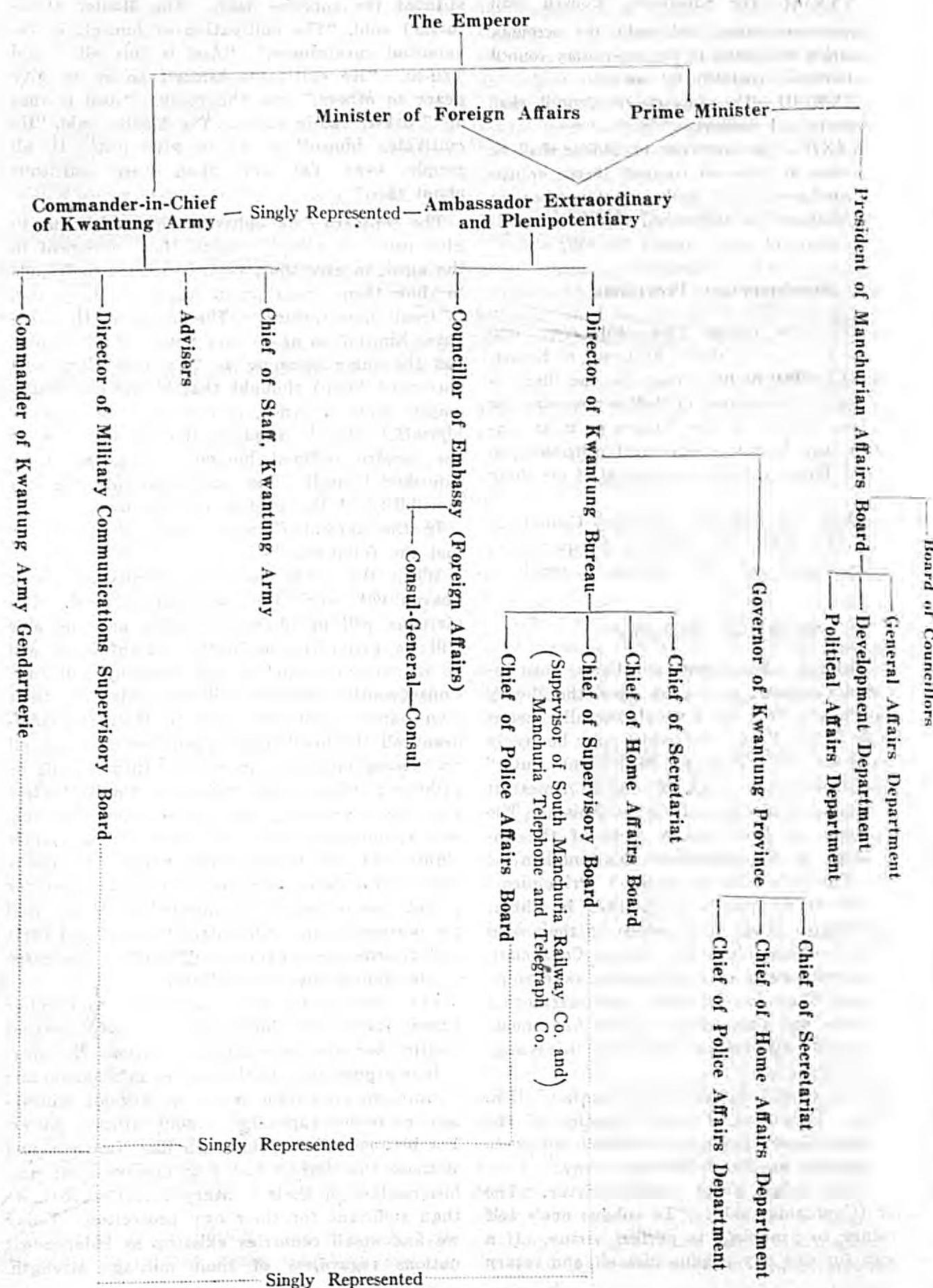
- (1) Resigned officials. (after more than one year's service). This rule is applied

Decorations

Decorations granted by the Imperial Court of Manchoukou are divided into four classifications as follows:

- (1) Ta-hsun-wei-lan-hua-chang-king-shin (the Collar of the Grand Order of the Lanhua), grantable only to holders of the Grand Order of Merit.
- (2) Ta-hsun-wei-lan-hua-ta-shou-chang (the Grand Cordon of the Lanhua), grantable to those with or to be conferred the Grand Order of Merit.
- (3) Lung-kung-ta-shou-chang (the Order of Lungkuang), grantable only to those who are to be conferred or who have been conferred the First Order of Merit.
- (4) Ching-yun-chang (the Order of Chingyun), grantable to those who are to be conferred any of the decorations from the First to the Eighth Order of Merit, excepting those who have been conferred

Diagrammatic Chart of Japanese Administration in Manchoukuo



to the officials who resigned due to public injuries or disease after over a year's service.

Period of service	Pension
1 year	1 month's salary
2 years	2 " "
3 years	3 " "
4 years	4 " "
5 years	6 " "
6 years	8 " "
7 years	10 " "
8 years	12 " "
9 years	14 " "
10 years	16 " "

More than 10 year.....An additional monthly salary for one year.

The official may appoint the person qualified for this pension. Otherwise, the order shall be the same as the allowance mentioned above.

(2) To the deceased during his service.

The pension shall be his last salary multiplied by the number of his service years plus 2 years.)

The official can nominate the person qualified for the pension.

Order & Salary of Officilas

Officials of Manchoukuo are divided into four

ranks. They are the following:

- (1) Te-jen. Appointed by the Emperor himself. Monthly Salary....between MY 1,800 and MY 1,000.
- (2) Chien-jen Appointed by the Imperial Command. Monthly Salary....between MY 1,000 and MY 500.
- (3) Chien-jen Appointed by the approval of the Emperor. Monthly Salary....between MY 450 and MY 75.
- (4) Wei-jen Appointed by the judgment of the Government. Monthly Salary....between MY 170 and MY 30.

The number of officials, exclusive of the Army and Navy, classified by ranks, was returned as follows at the end of May 1935.

Rank	Number
Te-jen	31
Chien-jen	111
*Chien-jen	1,305
Wei-jen	5,368
Total	6,815

* Though pronounced alike as the rank which it follows, the Chinese characters which identify them are different.

**CHAPTER VII
JUDICATURE**

General

The judicial administration of Manchoukuo is in a state of transition. That the present laws and their administration are far from adequate to meet the actual condition of the country is officially admitted. What with the envisaged abolition of extritoriality and the social and economic issues arising from the conditions peculiar to the new Empire, the jurists of Manchoukuo are expected to work out innovations along many lines in 1935 and the next few years. The officials charged with such undertakings are chiefly those who were taken from Japanese schools and courts. Under the circumstances it is not unnatural that the judicial system of Manchoukuo should in future be modelled after Japanese jurisprudence just as it has been done in China.

It is therefore of interest to know that the present judicial system of Manchoukuo is in part and parcel the same as that of the Nanking Government which in turn had practically adopted the laws which were in force toward the end of the Manchou regime.

Courts and Jurisdiction

District Court (Tifang Fayuan).—This is a court of the mixed system corresponding in general to the Japanese District Court (Chiho Saibansho) and, in some respects, to the Japanese local Court (Kusaibansho). Tifang Fayuan is composed of Chienteng or the Subordinate Court where trials are held by a single judge on such cases as are handled at the Subdistrict Court in Japan, and of the regular court where a bench of three judges sit on cases such as are handled at the District Court in Japan. The civil cases handled are of two kinds: (1) "Local Cases" which are cases involving less than 1000 yuan and tried in the collegiate section of the District Court; and (2) "First Grade Cases" which are cases involving less than 1000 yuan (800 yuan in Jehol) tried by a single justice.

A feature of the latter section of the District Court is that the judge as a rule tries to effect a settlement out of court wherever possible. Only upon his failure so to do is the case formally tried. From his decisions appeals may be

made to the collegiate section of the same court which handles them as second instance hearings.

The District Court handles appeals from summary decisions or orders other than those given by single judge trial. The collegiate section may also take up as cases of second instance any decision made on first grade cases by Hsien (county) judicial offices of country magistrates.

The criminal cases handled by the District Court are also divided in two classes; (1) "First Grade Cases" which are provided under Article 8 of the Criminal Trial Law, or the offences liable to punishment with "the maximum imprisonment of less than three years, or to detention or fines. (2) Local Cases other than classified under the above. Thefts, swindles and breach of trust and some others, though punishable by imprisonment of more than three years, are treated as first grade cases.

In criminal procedure as in civil all "First Grade Cases" are tried by single judges, while the "Local Cases" are handled by the collegiate section of the District Court.

There are two exceptional judicial organs with the same ranking as the District Court: (1) the District Court attached to the High Court in Jehol, and (2) the District Court attached to certain Branch High Courts. The former institution, confined to Jehol, deals with second instance trials of First Grade Cases. The latter district court deals with first instance trials of both "Local" and "First Grade Cases" within its judicial district, and also with second instance trials of both "Local and First Grade Cases" within the district over which extends the jurisdiction of the Branch High Court to which it belongs.

Branch District Court (Tifang Fayuan Fenting).—This branch of the District Court handles second instance trials of "First Grade Cases" and first instance trials of all cases other than those handled by the Supreme Court, High Court, or Chientiting of the District Court. In other words, the Branch District Court handles cases of first instance of both "Local and First Grade" classes. The bench is of one judge except in exceptional cases where three judges may be ordered to it.

High Court (Kaoteng Fayuan). This court

corresponds to the Japanese Court of Appeal, though its function covers a wider field. The High Court deals with second instance trials of "Local Cases" third of final trials of "First Grade Cases." The Court also handles offenses against the internal as well as external security of the state. The bench usually consists of three judges, and sometimes of five for cases of third instance.

In this connection it may be noted that since for civil cases involving less than 100 yuan the second instance is final, the High Court is concerned with no civil suits involving any amount less than same.

Branch High Court (Kaoteng Fayuan Fen-yuan).—The Branch High Court may be regarded as a local division of the above High Court. It is established where the territorial division of which the High Court is the judicial centre is too extensive for practical purposes. It is constituted practically the same as the High Court, consisting of both civil and criminal sections. The only point of difference is that the Branch High Court, with the exception of the Fengtien court, handles no third instance trial of the so-called first grade cases.

Supreme Court (Tsukao Fayuan). This is the highest Court of Appeal, corresponding to the Japanese Court of Cassation. The court deals with trials of third instance of the so-called local cases, and hears appeals from trials of the High Court. It is presided over by a bench of five judges.

Procurator's Office (Chienchating).—In the early days of the Chinese Republican Government the procurators were set up side by side with the law courts. These institutions were placed under the supervision of the General Procurator's Office of Nanking. In the 16th year of its regime the Republican Government altered the system, attaching the procurator's offices to the law courts. In Manchoukuo, however, the old system has been adopted. There is the Supreme Procurator's Office (Tsukao Chinchating) which supervises the work of the High Procurator's Office (Kaoteng Chienchating) and the District Procurator's Office (Tifang Chienchating). The procurators institute investigations and make indictments, carry on legal suits, supervise the execution of sentences, and oversee the judicial police. In civil cases or cases relating to public interests or morals, they perform duties as suitors or representatives of the public. The Procurator's Office functions independently of the Courts.

Hsien Judicial Office, (Hsien Ssufa Kungshu). These local judicial offices are set up within

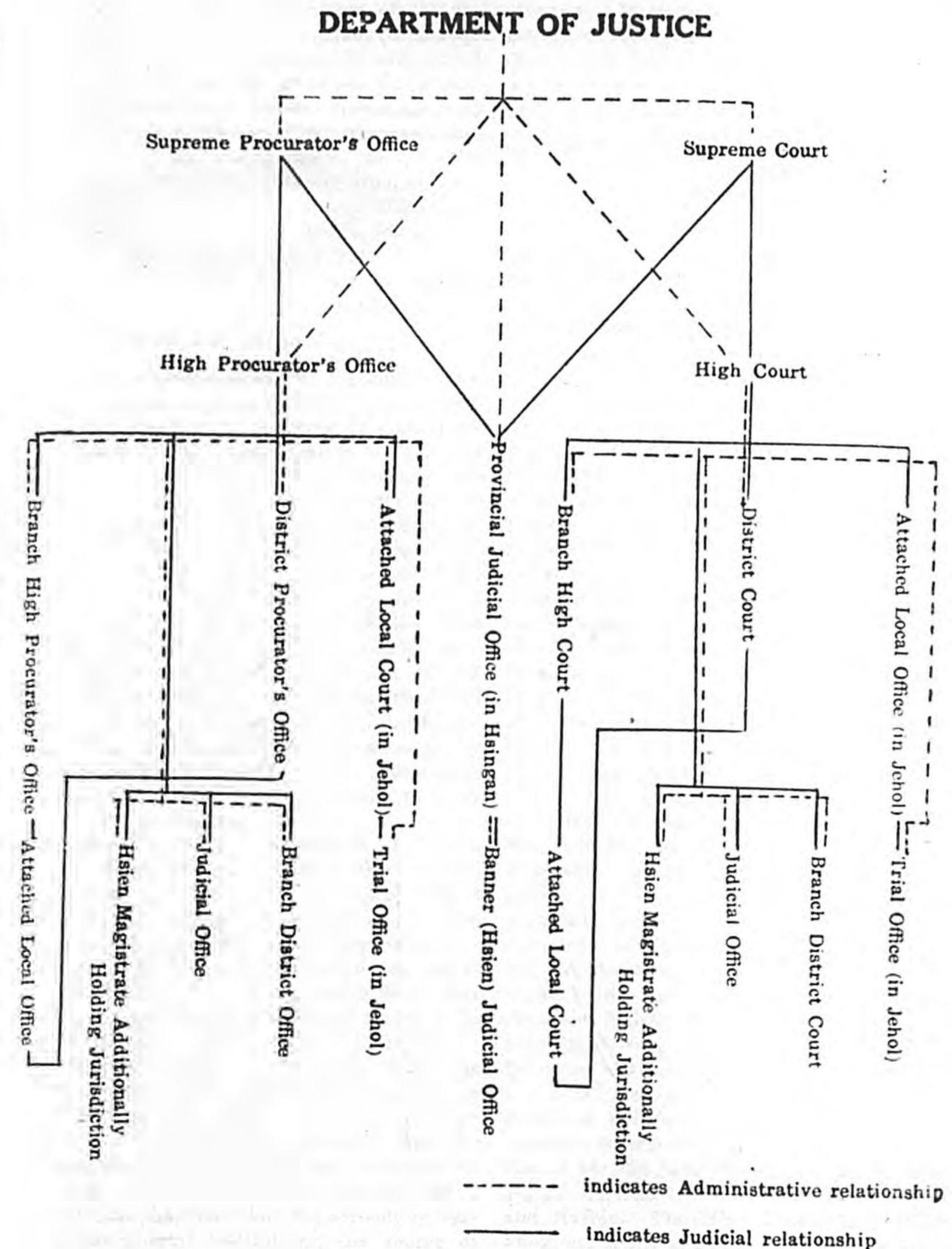
Hsien or county administrative offices where there is no law court within the same area. "First Grade and Local Cases" of first instance are tried by judges who assume entire responsibility for legal proceedings. The public prosecution is instituted either by the chief or magistrate of the Hsien or procurators, the former in all cases assuming responsibility. From decisions of the office appeals may be made to the collegiate section of the supervising District Court, if the case is of the first grade class, and to the High Court if it is a "Local Case".

Office of Hsien Magistrate Additionally Handling Jurisdiction. (Chienli Ssufa Hsien Kungshu).—This is a transitory legal system adopted preliminary to the establishment of district courts. These judicial offices are set up at local places where there is no District Court, or Hsien Judicial Office. Trials are made in charge of the county chief or magistrate on "first grade and local cases" of first instance. These offices are assisted by Chengshen or trial officers who are under the supervision of the county chief. The decisions by the office on all criminal cases are always submitted to the High Court or to the Branch High Court, no matter if the accused makes appeal or not. When retrial is deemed necessary the supervising court may order the Hsien Judicial Office, or appoint judges to review the case.

Trial Office (Cheng Shen Cku).—The local judicial offices of this class are found in Jehol and Kirin provinces. They correspond to the Office of Hsien Magistrate Additionally Handling Jurisdiction above mentioned. In the former province these offices are in charge of "trial officers" and the prosecution is done by the county magistrate. In the latter province, judges of these offices are sent out to places where, because of lack of transportation facilities or other geographic considerations, the regular judicial courts or offices find difficulty in extending this legal authority.

Trial System In Mongolia.—Under the previous regime it was a rule to try cases of first instance by the Jassack or banner chief, cases of second instance by the League Chief, and those of third instance by the Judicial Department. This system was changed in 1932. Under the present system all cases for the District Court are dealt with by the banner or Hsien (County) office, and those for the High Court by the Hsien provincial Office. Cases of third instance are handled by the Supreme Court. At the former offices trials are conducted by the banner or chief or magistrate. At the provincial offices trials are in charge of a collegiate court of the administra-

JUDICIAL SYSTEM OF MANCHOUKUO.



tive councillor and judicial officials, with the chief of the province presiding as chief judges. The prosecution is represented by one of the police inspectors of the Hsingan Police Office.

Prisons.—The administration of the prisons is placed under the direct supervision of the Department of Justice, which in practice entrusts the chief of the High procurator's with supervisory duties. In some places Hsien Magistrates are in charge of the prisons, dispensing with regular warders. The warders, wherever they are appointed, are placed under the direction of the chief of the High Court who in some cases appoints the chief of the Branch High Court or District Court to take charge of prisons. Under the same system, as a rule, the local prisons are in charge of the district procuratorates.

Reformed Jurisdiction

Under the previous regime of Manchuria legal practices, despite the improvements made in codification and other lines, remained in quite inefficient hands. The administration of the law courts was seldom free from political interference. In view of this fact, the judicial authorities of Manchoukuo have bent their efforts on securing the independence of the judicial administration of the country. In consequence the law courts higher than the local branches have all been placed in positions to function their authority, maintaining their dignity and independence. The only direction where reform has yet to be made is where the local judicial offices and Hsien chiefs are entrusted with dispensation of justice. The system, however, being a transitory one, is to be done away with when local courts have been added to extend their work over all parts of the country.

The attention of the Department of Justice has since its establishment been mostly engaged in adjustment of the conditions in which it found the matter of judicial administration. In the first fiscal year the Department appropriated no more than 3,181,126 yuan with additional appropriations of 3,547,444. In the second fiscal year the budget appropriations advanced to the total of 5,897,135 yuan, and in 1934 to 8,024,000.

One of the earliest reforms made under the present administration was to raise the salaries of the justices and other officials. Under the previous regime the legal authorities were so underpaid that they were perforce compelled to corruption, courting in consequence open public contempt. At the same time the accounting system of all judicial institutions, the source of confusion and maladministration in the past, has

been unified on a countrywide basis. Appropriations have been made for recodification of the laws with the object of reviewing them to meet the sanitary and other conditions of the prisons, laws being in substance those of the old Manchu dynasty. Work has also been started on repairs and reconstruction of court and other buildings which had been suffered to fall into decay by the former militarist rules. Improvement on the sanitary and other conditions of the prisons was also a matter of early concern under the present administration.

Consular Jurisdiction

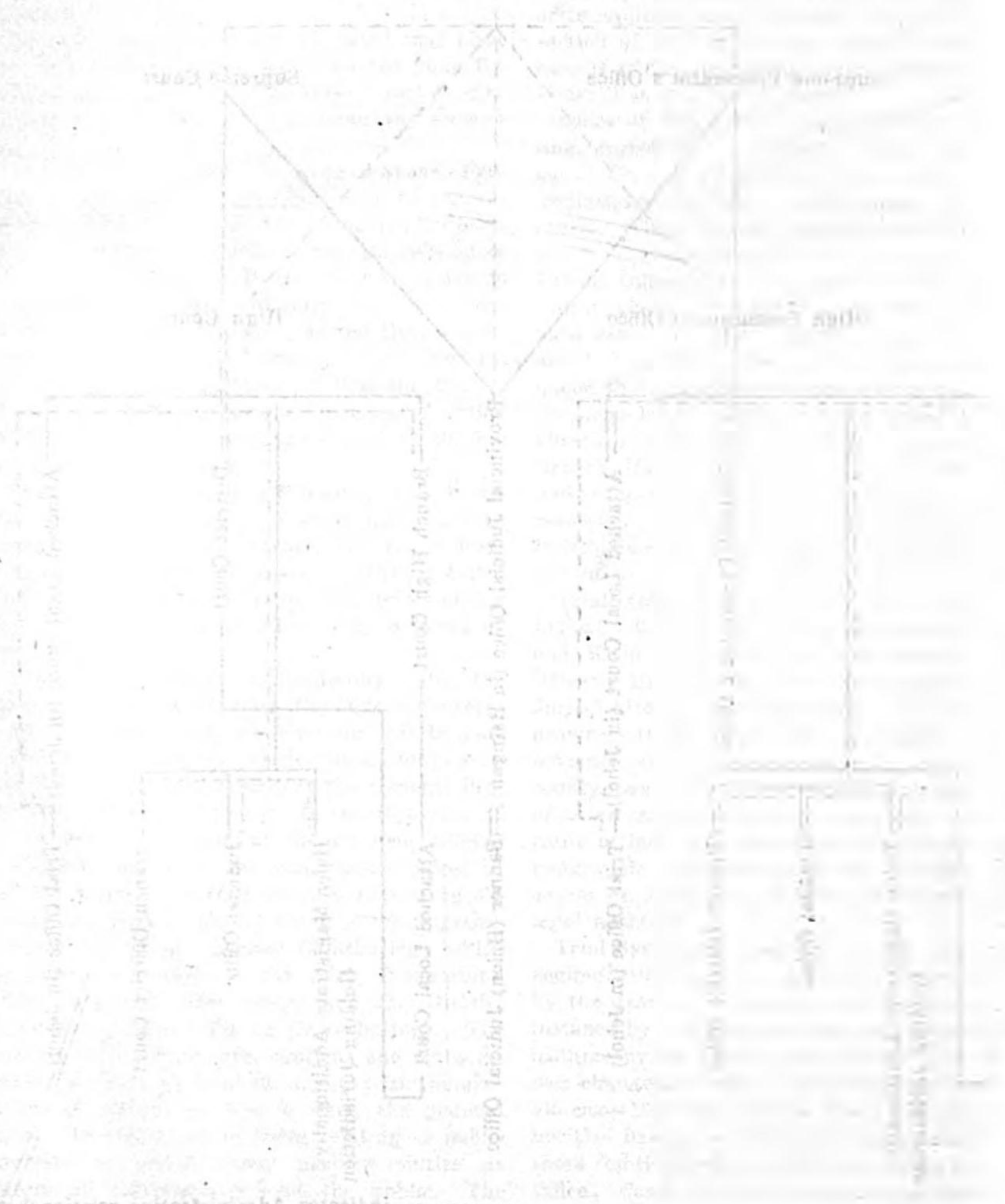
Among all reforms and changes under contemplation, by far the most important is the question of abolishing the system of consular jurisdiction, an undertaking involved in the envisaged work of withdrawing Japanese extraterritoriality. So far as Manchoukuo is concerned, extraterritoriality is part of the treaty obligations she undertook from the former regime. The Department of Justice has since the first year of Tatung been striving for improvement of the judicial system, a condition to abolishment of the consular courts. Some of the more important things accomplished to date are described below.

Participation of Japanese Jurists.—The contempt in which the courts of justice and its administrators were held under the former Chinese rule had kept men of quality or ability away from jurisdiction. Of these legal officials many, especially of South China origin, left the country when the new state of Manchoukuo was established. To meet this situation a number of jurists were engaged from Japan. The law School of the Department of Justice was hurriedly called into being, though the depleted force will not be filled yet another year by its graduates. Wherever Manchu officials are engaged they are placed under the direction of Japanese jurists.

In view of Japan's successful abolishment of extraterritoriality in a period of 30 years, Manchoukuo has since its first year been engaging Japanese jurists of high scholarship and practical experience. In the latter part of 1932, 82,200 yuan was appropriated for this purpose. An initial undertaking a collegiate section was formed at the Fengtien High Court of two Japanese and as many Manchou judges. In 1933, the sum of 198,329 yuan was appropriated to appoint Japanese officials at the High Courts of Kirin and Harbin. The High Procurator's Office of Fengtien, Kirin and Harbin as well as the Dis-scholars being examined for entrance for their

JUDICIAL SYSTEM OF MANCHOUKUO

DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE



named district were likewise reenforced by judges of Japanese nationality. These experimental arrangement having proved successful, the budget appropriation was substantially in-

Table 1
No. of Judicial Officials

Court	Number	Chief Judge	Judge	Prosecutor	Clerks	Interpreters
Mukden High Courts						
Fengtien High Procurator's Office ..	12	1	1	1	5	4
Kirin High Courts						
Kirin High Procurator's Office	9	1	1	1	4	2
North Manchuria Special District High Courts						
North Manchuria Special High Procurator's Office	10	1	1	1	5	1
North Manchuria Special District Courts						
North Manchuria Special District Procurator's Office	6	—	1	1	3	1
Total	37	3	4	4	17	9

In 1934 the Department of Justice appropriated some 30,000 yuan with the object of sending Manchou officials to Japan and to the Kwantung Leased territory for study of Japanese legal system and institutions.

Law School of Department of Justice.—In order to meet the urgent situation as regards judicial administration, the Department of Justice set up its Law School in 1934. The regular course is to be completed in three years, the scholars being examined for entrance for their health and scholarship of higher middle school grade. Scholars are also taken to a certain number by recommendation and otherwise from among the clerks serving at courts.

The secondary course is to be completed in six months. The scholars are enrolled by recommendation of chief judges and otherwise from those who are serving as judges and prosecutors at district and other courts and not older than 40 years of age.

Attached to the school is the goalers' training institute where officials selected by recommendation from those who are serving as warders or chief goalers and not older than 40 years of age. The training course is completed in 4 months.

Other Reforms.—Manchoukuo's interest in penology was early shown in the matter of improving the prisons and the detention quarters where unconvicted prisoners are kept. Under the former administration any idea of improving the prisons was frowned upon as encouraging crime. Evil practices were especially notorious where the prisons were administered under contract.

Manchoukuo's earliest improvement in this direction was seen in the abolishment of the old system of commuting prison terms to payment of fines, a system by which any one could buy

his freedom. Improvement of food and regular supply of clothing to the prison inmates were also undertaken. Special funds are also being appropriated each year for training under Japanese direction Manchu jailers who were often in the past men of undesirable character and not above unscrupulous practices.

At the end of June 1934 there were 24 new style prisons and 110 old style prisons.

Prison Law

The organization law of prisons was promulgated by Imperial Ordinance No. 32 on April 1, 1935:

An official translation of the new prison law follows:

ARTICLE I

The prisons shall come under the supervision of the minister of justice.

ARTICLE II

When he deems it necessary, the minister of justice may establish sub-prisons.

ARTICLE III

The entire personnel of the various prisons shall be composed of the following members:

- Twenty-three governors (Tienyu) of the grade of recommended appointment;
- Eight health experts (Pochienchitso) of the grade of recommended appointment;
- Thirty assistant-governors (Tienyutso) of the delegated appointment (eight of whom may be of the grade of recommended appointment);

Twenty-nine instructors (Chiaowukuan) of the grade delegated appointment;

One hundred fifty-seven chief warders (Kanschouchang) of the grade of delegated appointment.

In addition to the above personnel, the prisons shall have chief warders who shall be in charge of general affairs, (Chujenkanshou) and warders (Kanshou), all of whom shall be treated as officials of the grade of delegated appointment.

ARTICLE IV

Prison superintendents shall be appointed from among the governors.

Sub-prison superintendents shall be appointed from among the assistant governors of the chief warders.

ARTICLE V

The prison superintendents shall, under the direction and supervision of the minister of justice, administer the affairs of their respective prisons, and direct and supervise their subordinate officials. They shall also, by their decisions, execute all matters concerning the promotion and degradation of chief warders or warders.

ARTICLE VI

The sub-prison superintendents shall administer the affairs of their respective sub-prisons, and direct and supervise their subordinate officials, under the direction and supervision of prison superintendents.

ARTICLE VII

The health expert shall take charge of all matters concerning the medical examination and treatment of prisoners, and matters concerning prison sanitation.

ARTICLE VIII

Those assistant-governors, who are not sub-prison superintendents, shall attend to prison affairs under the direction of their superior officials.

ARTICLE IX

The instructors shall, under the direction of their superior officials, take charge of all matters concerning the building of character and education of prisoners.

ARTICLE X

Those chief warders, who are not sub-prison superintendents, shall attend to prison duties under the direction of their superior officials.

ARTICLE XI

Regulations concerning the regular numbers of chief warders and warders, their duties and discipline, shall be determined by the minister of justice.

ARTICLE XII

The allotment of prison duties shall be determined by the minister of justice.

ARTICLE XIII

The names and locations of the prisons shall be as listed in a separate table.

SUPPLEMENTARY

The present law shall come into force on May 1, 2nd year of Kangte.

As for all existing prisons excepting those that are listed in the following table, and excluding those that have become sub-prisons in accordance with the provision of Article 11 of the present law, all affairs relating to such prisons shall, for the time being, be dealt with in accordance with the practice obtaining hitherto.

The table of the names and locations of prisons follows:

Name	Location
Hsinking Prison,	Hsinking Special Municipality;
Kirin Prison,	Kirin City, Kirin Province;
Lungkiang Prison,	Tsistihar City, Lungkiang Province;
Paichuan,	Paichuan-hsien, Lungkiang Province;
Taonan Prison,	Taonan-hsien, Lungkiang Province;
Ilan Prison,	Man-hsien, Sankiang Province;
Pinkiang Prison,	Harbin Special Municipality;
Hulan Prison,	Hulan-hsien, Pinkiang Province;
Yenki Prison,	Yenki-hsien, Chientao Province;
Antung Prison,	Antung-hsien, Antung Province;
Mukden Prison,	Mukden City, Fengtien Province;
Fushun Prison,	Fushun-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Liaoyang Prison,	Liaoyang-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Yingkow Prison,	Yingkow-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Fuchow Prison,	Wafangtien, Fu-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Tiehling Prison,	Tiehling-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Liaoyuan Prison,	Chengchiatun, Liaoyuan-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Sian Prison,	Sian-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Changtu Prison,	Changtu-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Hailung Prison,	Hailung-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Hsinking Prison,	Hsinking-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Chinchow Prison,	Chin-hsien, Chinchow Province;
and	
Chengteh Prison,	Chengteh-hsien, Jehol Province.

CHAPTER VIII

DIPLOMACY

Recognition of Manchoukuo

The diplomatic policy of Manchoukuo has been obviously concerned in the question of recognition by foreign nations. Since the formal recognition of the country first by Japan in September 1932 and next by El Salvador in March 1934, there has been no other diplomatic procedure of the same kind, though any diplomatic gesture suggestive of such movement has naturally received serious considerations at Hsinking.

The visit therefore to Manchoukuo in the autumn of 1934 of the F. B. I. delegation under Lord Barnby, though its mission was one of strictly economic nature, was regarded in Manchoukuo as something of more than economic significance. It was equally significant that the British industrial delegation's report on its Manchurian trip was couched in language very favourable to the new empire. The British paper "Observer" was quoted about this time as having expressed its inclination to question anew whether it would not be politic to recognize Manchoukuo in order to maintain the British commercial relations unimpaired.

The sale agreement of the North Manchuria (Chinese Eastern) Railway was regarded by a large section of opinion in Manchoukuo and Japan as implying a *de facto* recognition of the former by the Soviet Union. Whatever technical view of the matter may be taken, Manchoukuo has been diplomatically dealing with the Soviet through the consular channels since 1932.

The opening at Dairen of the Norwegian Consulate in January 1935, and of the Esthonian Consulate in October, followed by the establishment of the Czechoslovakia Consulate at the same city, as well as the appointment by Berlin in March 1935 of Dr. Knoll as Commercial Councillor at Mukden, were all received in Manchoukuo as gratifying indications of its growing importance in international trade and of the changing attitude of the powers.

As one of the indications of the world situation as regards the same question, it is not without interest to note that the New York "Times," in its issue of May 5th 1935, contained a wireless despatch from its Belgium correspon-

dent, saying that the matter of recognizing Manchoukuo had been discussed there, and that a group of metallurgists had put themselves on record as favouring the recognition. Other interests, it added, were inclined to oppose an immediate move because recognition might be used as a valuable argument in future commercial negotiations.

However that may be, opinion in Manchoukuo, and in Japan for that matter, holds that the only way to secure a *de jure* recognition of Manchoukuo by any foreign nation can be conceived only as a logical issue of the commercial and industrial developments to be made on Manchurian soil.

Under the circumstances Manchoukuo's diplomacy during the past year has perforce had to be confined mostly to Japan and Soviet Russia, and in a lesser degree and in indirect ways to China across the Great Wall.

Manchoukuo Emperor's Visit to Japan

One of the most outstanding events in the relations between Manchoukuo and Japan during the past year was the visit in April 1935 of the Emperor of Manchoukuo to Japan as state guest. The purpose of the same Imperial journey was partly to reciprocate the visit to Manchoukuo of Prince Chichibu in the previous year, and partly to exchange courtesies with the Emperor of Japan which has been the most friendly and loyal ally of the new Manchu Empire since its earliest days.

The visiting ruler arrived at Yokohama from Dairen aboard the battle-cruiser Hiei on the morning of April 6th and was met by Prince Chichibu and a great number of Japanese dignitaries. Proceeding to Tokyo, the Imperial visitor was met by His Majesty in person at the central railway station. In the afternoon he made a state call at the Imperial palace. Later in the same afternoon His Majesty called on the visiting Majesty at the Akasaka palace. After a stay in the Japanese capital for ten days, memorable for manifold reasons, the Manchou Emperor departed on his western trip on the 15th, arriving at Kyoto in the evening. It may be noted that besides

the elaborate state programme prepared for the distinguished visitor, tens of thousands of students and school children and various organizations made lantern parades almost every night while the Manchou Emperor stayed in Tokyo, Kyoto and Nara.

On the morning of the 23rd His Majesty went aboard the Hiei at Kobe, leaving on his homeward trip through the Inland Sea. On his way back he was entertained in the evening at the Kurishima straits by a number of local fishermen operating the nets for the nationally renowned Tai fish. On the following day he visited Miyashima, resuming his journey in the evening amidst 20,000 lanterns set afloat the sea and many fireworks set off in his honour.

Japanese Diplomacy Under New System

The unification of Japanese diplomacy, as seen in the new system inaugurated in December 1934, while pregnant with potentialities, is important, so far as Manchukuo is concerned, because of the fact that Japanese diplomacy will hereafter be conducted only through one channel represented by the commander of the Japanese garrison in Manchuria. Under the altered system Japanese diplomacy is to be conducted, no longer by consular representatives as in the past, but by the military chief, with the Councillor and his diplomatic staff to assist him in technical matters. The general-ambassador is responsible only to the Prime Minister. The Foreign Minister at Tokyo, so far as Manchuria is concerned, has the nominal power to supervise the work of the military-diplomat, though in reality he is only to get reports from the latter on the diplomatic situation.

This change was foreshadowed in 1933 when General Muto was appointed as Japanese Ambassador in Hsinking at the same time that he assumed command of the Kwantung army. In the past, Japanese diplomacy in Manchuria used to be accused of being "four-headed", orders emanating from the South Manchuria Railway, Consulate, Kwantung Civil Government and Kwantung army.

Another notable feature of the administrative change is seen in the virtual elimination from the Manchurian field of the Ministry of Overseas Affairs under which the Kwantung Civil Government had been operating. The Kwantung Government, reduced to the status of a bureau, is placed under the direction of the military ambassador. The police force previously of the same Kwantung Government has been placed under the commander of the Gendarme force

in Manchuria.

Abolition of Exterritoriality

Exterritoriality of Manchoukuo will be one of the major diplomatic questions which will be made the subject of expert study for some years to come. According to the official schedule the Japanese extrterritoriality will be abolished before the end of 1937.

On the Japanese side a special committee was organized at the Foreign Office in February 1935, to attend to all matters relating to the contemplated judicial change in Manchuria. The committee is composed of representatives of the Foreign Affairs, Army and Justice Departments.

On the Manchou side a committee was formed about the same time to make study of the actual conditions on the area to be affected by the withdrawal of Japanese jurisdiction. The Japanese Committee is composed of Councillor Tani, General Itagaki, Chief of Staff of the Kwantung Army, Mr. Nagaoka, Chief of the Kwantung Bureau, Mr. Endo, Chief of the Department of General Affairs, Mr. Kanki, Chief of the Administrative Division of the Foreign Office, and Mr. Yoshida, Chief of the General Affairs Division of the Department of Justice.

According to the plan under consideration in Tokyo and Hsinking, the police forces under the direction of the Kwantung Bureau and those under consular jurisdiction will be transferred to the Manchoukuo Government, when the consular court will be abolished at the end of 1937. Taxation and industrial jurisdiction will be turned over to a Manchou-Japanese joint committee. The change will also entail a thorough revision and a gradual extension of the taxation system of Manchoukuo.

A division of official opinion is seen with regard to the date and order of carrying out the proposed measures. The Japanese officials in Hsinking are in favour of simultaneous abolition of civil and criminal court and of the immediate transference to Manchoukuo of the jurisdiction of the railway zone. The prevailing view on the Tokyo side is marked by more conservative considerations. Alteration of the Manchou judicial system on modern lines and the improvement of prisons are being considered as necessary prior to the complete withdrawal of Japanese extrterritoriality.

Japan-Manchoukuo Economic Council

A special agreement concerning the Japan-Manchoukuo Economic Council was formally signed at the end of June 1935. The new Council will be composed, on the Japanese side, of

the chief of the Kwantung army staff, councillor, chief of the Kwantung Bureau, and, on the Manchu side, of the Ministers of Finance and Commerce and the Japanese chief of the General Affairs Board.

The purpose of the Council, as indicated by its name, is to arrange, settle and readjust economic relations between the two countries so as to establish a thorough and effective economic bloc based on actual needs of the two nations.

Question of Soviet Border Invasion

Excepting the negotiations on the sale of the North Manchuria (Chinese Eastern) Railway, the account of which is given elsewhere, Manchoukuo's diplomacy with the Soviet Union during the past year has been concerned on the face of it with issues of relatively minor importance. Earlier in the year there were frequent occurrences of Soviet armed soldiers crossing or firing across the border into Manchoukuo territory. There were also more than one instance of a Soviet aeroplane flying across the frontier line. Each of these cases called forth Japanese protest, though without any tangible result.

The situation, however, became visibly changed towards the close of 1934 when negotiations were resumed on the North Manchuria Railway question in an atmosphere unmistakably of mutual friendship. For more than six months now nothing has been heard of frontier invasion by a Soviet soldier. The matter of non-aggression agreement between Soviet and Manchoukuo, if brought to successful conclusion, as is expected in some quarters, will undoubtedly serve materially to improve the border situation of Manchoukuo.

The Soviet Union still retains along the Ussuri-Amur frontier military forces which are said to be no less than 250,000, a number quite equal to the whole standing army of Japan. Their feverish efforts are said to be continued in fortifying their frontier. Vladivostok is reported to have become the base of a submarine force of considerable strength. Another naval port, reports the press, is being built closer to the Korean coast. This appears in striking contrast when it is known that Manchoukuo has been making no military preparation to speak of, on her Siberian border. What is more, the Japanese military overtures for a mutual withdrawal of armed forces for a distance of 25 miles back from the border are said to have met with a flat refusal on the part of the Soviet army. It might be in the light of this situation that

General Hayashi, the late War Minister, returning from his tour in Manchoukuo in May-June, 1935, said that there was no early prospect of reducing military expense so far as the defence of Manchoukuo was concerned.

Of the strained situation of the Siberian border not a few writers of not only Japan but Europe and America have been at pains to give their full accounts. That it was at a time the cause of grave concern to Manchu and Japanese statesmen there can be no doubt. It was in view of this state of affairs that the conclusion of negotiation for the sale of the North Manchuria (Chinese Eastern) Railway effected early in the year was applauded on all sides as a diplomatic success of far reaching significance. It can never be doubted that the sale of the same railway has materially contributed toward relieving the strained relations that had existed between Soviet on one side, and Japan and Manchoukuo on the other, for many months. It must be noted, however, as a matter of equal truth that this diplomatic achievement, important as it was, has so far failed to produce any encouraging change in the military situation of Siberia or Manchoukuo.

Harha or Lake Buir-nor Trouble

The first diplomatic issue between Outer Mongolia and Manchoukuo was raised on January 8th 1935 over the frontier question of the river Harha and lake Buir-nor.

A squad of the Manchoukuo-Japanese guard of Hsingan, journeying for inspection under the leadership of Major Hayashi, were unexpectedly fired upon by a number of Mongol soldiers on January 18th near Lake Buir-nor. As a result of this firing, Lieutenant Seo and three men were killed and wounded. On the 26th a reinforcement arrived on the scene from Hailar. The protest subsequently made by the Japan-Manchoukuo force only served to aggravate the situation. On the morning of the 30th military action was opened against the Mongol soldiers who were driven out of Harha Miao.

It is alleged that the Mongols, in their attempt to take possession of Buir-nor lake, had made themselves masters of Harha Miao, having invaded the Manchu frontier to the east side of the Harha river. According to the information available from the Manchu and Japanese side, the present trouble began when the Mongols took steps to monopolize the fishing in the lake, preventing fish from passing into the river Harha which flows from the same lake and follows a course of 150 kilometers due north until it

empties into Dalai-nor lake. The river, though nowhere more than 200 meters wide, ordinarily abounds in fresh water fish. Since the military outbreak in Manchuria, it is said, the Outer Mongols had put down wire netting before the mouth of the river, preventing fish from descending the stream. The Outer Mongol attempt to occupy the rich pastures along the above river is given as a second cause of trouble. Under the old regime the Outer Mongols had been making frequent incursions into the Holunbuir districts to take possession of the pastures. Since the establishment of Manchoukuo, they had ceased to invade, but kept their armed pickets along the river to shoot on any Inner Mongols appearing in the pasture areas. The fishing rights of the river Harha were held both by Chinese and Japanese under the old regime. The Mongols whose religious belief makes fishing taboo were said to have been interesting themselves in the same line under Soviet inspiration.

Following the retirement of the Mongol soldiers there ensued some diplomatic parleys between Manchoukuo and Outer Mongolia. In consequence, the two sides agreed to appoint their representatives for settlement of the disputed matter. On June 1st the two delegations met at Manchuli according to Manchoukuo's proposal. The conference, however, opened under scarcely friendly auspices. Difficulty was early seen when the Manchoukuo delegation made clear that they were disposed to discuss and settle, if possible, in addition to the Harha dispute, some other issues to the avowed end of improving relations between the two nations. The Mongol delegates objected on the ground that their power was limited to the Harha question alone.

Intermittent meetings took place after this, but with little signs of progress. In August the conference was broken up after unsuccessful efforts for agreement.

The Mongol delegation was composed of Mr. Sanbowa, Vice-chief of the Department of Military Administration, Mr. Damba, commander-in-chief of the Eastern Border Defence Army; Mr. Hatondobutashy, Left Banner Office representative, and Mr. Toksumu, secretary of the Local Administration Bureau.

The Manchoukuo government was represented by Mr. Ling Sheng, governor of North Hsingan, Mr. Wu Erh-kin, commander-in-chief of the North Hsingan Garrison Army, Mr. Masaichi Kanki, director of the Political Affairs Bureau of the Foreign Office, and Mr. Masatoshi Saito of the Department of Defence.

Diplomatic Situation as Regards China

Manchoukuo's diplomacy vis-a-vis China during the past one year may be said to have been occupied for the most part with the issues raised in consequence of the Tangku truce concluded at the end of May 1934, after the Manchoukuo-Japanese campaign in North China. The attempt of the Nanking government to restore "normal" conditions in North China by abrogation of the truce terms met with flat refusal on the part of the Manchou empire. On the other hand, the Manchoukuo attempts, if somewhat veiled, to win Chinese recognition of its imperial status met with an equally strong refusal on the part of Chang Kai-shek's administration.

The successful conclusion in January of agreement relating to the thorough postal service between China and Manchoukuo may be regarded as an only successful feature of the diplomatic relations between the two nations in the past year.

In view of the situation, the strong attitude assumed by the Kwantung army in the summer of 1935 toward the so-called anti-Japanese elements in Tientsin, Peking and Kalgan, is interpreted as significant of the determination on the part of Manchoukuo to bring about closer economic relations with North China at least, if the South China statesmen are as yet in no mood to entertain such proposals.

As a result of the military pressure brought to bear on the Chinese authorities in North China, significant changes became apparent in the situation, though it is still premature to say that Nanking will really adopt a more friendly attitude toward Manchoukuo. In any case, the remnants of the old Mukden army, still alleged subjects of Chang Hsueh-liang, have been removed far away. A death blow has been dealt to organizations and institutions which had been accused of anti-Japanese movements throughout North China. All officials but of proved friendly disposition to Japan have been caused to be driven off. The situation in North China seems prepared for many new developments, whatever lines Manchoukuo's foreign and economic policy may take under the altered state of affairs.

Trouble in Charhar

What is known as the "Charhar incident", an incident which resulted in the dismissal of the Military Governor of this Inner Mongolia province, took place at a most dramatic moment in June 1935, when war clouds hung low all over North China, with large Japanese military forces concentrated at Shanhaikwan in readiness

to sally forth with the avowed purpose of summarily putting an end to the anti-Japanese movements in that part of China.

On May 29th the Japanese military representative in Peiping called on Ho Ying-chin, Chairman of the North China Branch of the National Military Council, and presented the Japanese demands consisting to four major points. The tenor of the conversation between these men on the occasion left little doubt as to the lines the Japanese military were bent upon following under given conditions. There developed military and diplomatic situations of far-reaching consequences, which are dealt with in another section of the present issue.

Scarcely more than a week had passed when Manchoukuo was to see discord brewing in another part of her western frontier, close to the scene of disturbance in North China. This was all the more shocking since on June 4th the Chinese authorities in Peiping had practically agreed to accept the Japanese terms, and five days later the military and gendarme forces were to be withdrawn from Peiping, Tientsin and other parts of North China, removing all that had been the cause of friction between China and Japan.

Cause. On May 30th a party of four men of the intelligence service of the Kwantung army left Dalin by motor truck. They were reported as missing until they were found in Changchiakou on June 6th. It was found that the Japanese travellers had been detained at Changpei, despite the identification papers they carried, by some soldiers of the army under the direction of the Military Governor of Charhar Sung Che-yuan. They had been taken for examination to the headquarters of the 62nd division. According to the information emanating from the Chinese side it was said that the Japanese in question had been arrested on the ground that they carried no regular passports. The Japanese were confined in a room attached to martial court and examined at the point of the rapiers and bayonets. From these it was thought evident that the whole procedure had been taken by the orders of the chief of the staff of General Sung.

The incident, however, would in all probability have passed off without much difficulty but for the fact that General Sung's army had always been known as least friendly disposed towards the Japanese. What is more, an incident of similar character had occurred in October 1934 at the same place. A travelling party of a Japanese military officer and some men connected

with the consular service was subjected to humiliating treatment by Chinese soldiers stationed in Charhar. The incident was closed when General Sung tendered his apologies, promising that there would be no recurrence of the sort in the future. Of General Sung himself the Japanese had always had a definite opinion. He had formerly been on the staff of Feng Yushiang, the "Christian General", who was never accused throughout his military career of friendship towards Japan. General Sung had been in command of the troops who offered the most stubborn resistance to the Japanese at Hsifengkou during the late Jehol campaign. More recently he was said to have entered into rather close relations with Chang Hsueh-liang, the former Mukdeen overlord.

What was also unfortunate was that the present trouble, which was now called the "second Changchiakou incident," occurred just when the Japanese military were openly determined to carry out their North China policy the ultimate end of which was to set up over that part of China a demilitarized, pro-Japanese, pro-Manchoukuo federation of provinces of which Charhar was to be part. That General Sung was aware better than anybody else of the seriousness of the situation he found himself in may be seen from the fact that on June 12th he despatched Tsin Teh-chun, Civil Governor of Charhar, to Peiping to counsel with General Ho Ying-chin, just on the eve of the latter's hurried departure for Nanking.

Japanese Adopt Strong Attitude.—On June 11th the Kwantung army ordered Major-General Doihara, proceeding to Tientsin after a staff conference at Hsinking, to take up the Charhar issue with General Ho-Ying-chin with whom he had been negotiating on the North China question. On the night of June 13 Lieutenant-Colonel Matsui arrived in Tientsin from Changpeikou to join General Doihara and take part in the council in progress in the same city. It was reported that General Sung had been recruiting soldiers who now numbered about 60,000, part of them having already been set in motion. The same council decided to treat the Charhar incident as an issue separate from the North China question, and to despatch Lieutenant-Colonel Matsui back to Chankpeikou to take up the matter with General Sung.

Gen. Sung Yields.—On June 15th General Sung formally conveyed to the Kwantung army his promise to put an end to the Anti-Japanese activity within his province. The situation at once began to improve when, however, some

soldiers of the troops stationed at Tushiehkou crossed the border and fired over 100 shots on the Manchoukuo officials who were passing near Tungts'etzu. These soldiers were identified as those of the 132nd army division stationed at Tushiehkou by orders of General Sung. This military force had been guilty of a similar offence in February 1934 and at the military parley later held at Tatan at the time it was agreed that "should the army of Sung Cho-yuan in the future invade the territory of or border region of Manchoukuo, or increase the Chinese soldiers or strengthen their fortifications, the Kwantung army would deem the same as an offensive attitude assumed toward itself."

On June 18th General Doihara had an interview with General Sung's personal representative and after the meeting expressed himself as having arrived at understanding with the Charhar general. On the same day the Nanking Government decided to dismiss General Sung from his post, and to cause the 132nd division to be removed from Charhar. On the night of the 19th General Sung, formally announcing his resignation as commander of the 39th army division, left Changchiakou for Peiping and Tientsin.

Terms of Settlement.—One June 23rd the settlement of the Charhar question was practically seen when General Doihara met General Tsin Teh-chun and formally signed the memorandum of agreement. The terms of the same agreement consisted in substance of the following points:

(1) That Sung Che-yuan should retire from his office as chief of the Charhar provincial government and commander of the 29th army; (2) that guarantee should be given against recurrence of anti-Japanese movement within Charhar province, disbanding all existing anti-Japanese institutions and prohibiting organization of

similar bodies in future; (3) that the military forces in the area of Dolin, Kuyuan, Tushienkou, Huailai, Yench'ing should be removed to the border region in the southwest, and that no military forces should be stationed in the same region in the future; (4) that the 132nd division which was responsible for the present issue should be removed to Yangkao.

On the night of June 24th soldiers, about 500 strong, coming from the Chinese garrison at Tushiehkou again crossed the border into Manchoukuo and fired on the guards. The situation again threatened to be aggravated; but the new governor Tsin succeeded in transferring the whole military force from Tushiehkou on June 26th, giving the discontent military elements no further chance of causing trouble along the border lines.

Charhar Settlement and After.—Apart from making any attempt at prophecy, it may not be out of place to observe that the Charhar incident, though in itself a passing of none too great significance, has been seized as an opportunity for settling the question of opening the province of Charhar, hitherto closed to all outside intercourse. It is above all significant as reflective of the continental policy the Japanese are bent on pursuing towards Inner Mongolia. Under the altered conditions of things Manchoukuo and Japan will have free access to that part of Eastern Inner Mongolia for the products of which Tientsin has been a natural outlet and for which some more ports will undoubtedly be provided in North China through the establishment of a regime ready to cooperate with Manchoukuo and Japan. For the same geographical reason it may be said that Japan's trade route has now been opened to Inner Mongolia without which it would scarcely be possible to hope for a full economic development of North China.

Foreign Diplomats and Consular Officials in Manchoukuo

(Standing October 1935)

Japanese Embassy at Hsinking	General Jiro Minami, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary.
Japanese Consulate General at Hsinking	H. Kawamura, Consul General.
" " " " Kirin	S. Morioka, "
" " " " Tunhua Branch Office	M. Kusano, Vice-Consul.
Japanese Consulate General at Mukden	U. Usami, Consul General.
" " " " Hsinminhu Branch Office	S. Inui, Chief.
" " " " Tunghua Branch Office	K. Mori, "
" " " " Hailung Branch Office	K. Matsuura, Vice-Consul.
" " " " Taolu Branch Office	S. Imai, Chief.
Japanese Consulate General at Harbin	S. Sato, Consul General.
" " " " Chientao	K. Nagai, Consul General.
" " " " Hunchun Branch Office	T. Katagiri, Chief.
" " " " Paitsaokou Branch Office	H. Sugiura, Vice-Consul.

	Yenki Branch Office.....	O. Tanaka, Vice-Consul.
	Toutoukuo Branch Office..	D. Asaha,
	Tumen Branch Office....	K. Furuya, Chief.
Japanese Consulate at	Antung	H. Matsutani, Consul.
" "	Yingkow	T. Mimura, Chief.
" "	Chinchow	R. Goto, Consul.
" "	Chihfeng	C. Seino, Consul.
" "	Chengteh	K. Matsuura, Acting Consul.
" "	Chengchiatun.....	S. Takiyama,
" "	Suifenho	Y. Okitsu,
" "	Tsitsihar	G. Uchida, Consul.
" "	Hailar	Y. Yonaiyama, Consul.
" "	Manchouli	B. Tanaka, Consul.
British Consulate General at	Mukden	P. D. Butler, Consul General.
" "	Harbin	E. G. Jamieson, Acting Consul General.
British Consulate at	Dairen.....	R. McP. Austin, Consul.
American Consulate General at	Mukden.....	J. W. Ballantine, Consul General.
" "	Harbin	W. A. Adams, Consul General.
American Consulate at	Dairen	S. E. Grummon, Consul.
French Consulate at	Mukden.....	M. Rhein, Consul.
" "	Harbin	L. Reynaud, Consul.
" "	Dairen.....	F. Bryner, Consular Agent.
U.S.S.R. Consulate General at	Mukden	N. G. Erofeev, Consul General.
" "	Harbin	M. M. Slavutsky, Consul General.
U.S.S.R. Consulate at	Dairen	E. Goloubtsoff, Consul.
" "	Tsitsihar	V. V. Kuznetsoff, Consul.
" "	Manchouli	V. V. Smirnof, Consul.
" "	Suifenho	E. B. Stermac, Consul.
" "	Heiho.....	
German Consulate at	Mukden	A. Tigges, Consul.
" "	Harbin	K. A. Balsler, Consul.
" "	Dairen	Dr. E. Bishoff, Consul.
Italian Consulate at	Harbin.....	A. Maffei, Consul.
Polish Consulate at	Harbin.....	A. Kwiatkowski, Consul.
Czechoslovak Consulate at	Harbin.....	R. Hejny, Consul.
Portuguese Consulate at	Harbin.....	S. L. Skidelsky, Consul.
Danish Consulate at	Harbin.....	A. R. Jorgensen, Hon. Consul.
Dutch Consulate at	Harbin.....	L. V. D. Hoeven, Hon. Consul.
Norwegian Consulate at	Yingkow	P. Farmer, Hon. Vice-Consul.
Norwegian Consulate at	Dairen.....	G. I. Larkins, Hon. Consul.
Finnish Vice-Consulate at	Dairen.....	P. Pansing, Hon. Vice-Consul.
Dutch Consulate at	Dairen.....	W. H. Winning, Hon. Vice-Consul.
Swedish Consulate at	Dairen.....	
Lithuanian Consulate at	Harbin.....	A. M. Lohmus, Hon. Consul.
Esthonian Consulate at	Harbin.....	
Esthonian Consulate at	Dairen.....	A. E. Ruthe, Hon. Consul.
Belgian Consulate at	Mukden.....	A. V. Cutsem, Gerant.
Belgian Vice-Consulate at	Dairen.....	J. Furusawa, Hon. Consul.
Latvian Consulate at	Harbin.....	P. Meschak, Consul.
Austrian Consulate at	Mukden.....	Dr. H. Baumann, Consul.

Manchoukuo's Diplomatic and Consular Services

Embassy in Tokyo	Hsieh Chieh-shih, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary.
Consulate at Blagoveschensk	Kuei Heng-chi, Consul.
" " Chita	Li Huan, Consul.
" " Shingishu	Yuan Tao, Acting Consul.
" " Moji	S. Idemitsu, Hon. Consul.
Office of Foreign Affairs Commissioner at Harbin	Shih Li-pen, Commissioner.

CHAPTER IX

NATIONAL DEFENCE

The national defence of Manchoukuo is under the joint supervision of the governments of Manchoukuo and Japan. By the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol signed on September 15, 1932, Japan is given the privilege of stationing troops at any location in the new Empire.

Due to geographical reasons the army takes the dominant role in the national defence of the country. The navy is a very insignificant element, and is represented at present by a small fleet of river gunboats.

The efforts of the Department of Defence have been concentrated for the past two years in quelling banditry within the country and in building up a systematic army, composed of Manchoukuo and Japanese officers and soldiers. Much attention has been directed also towards improving the air force.

For the military services rendered by the Japanese army in Manchoukuo the Manchoukuo government has commenced appropriating annually since the fiscal year 1934-35 a certain percent of its total revenue to the Japanese government. For the fiscal year 1934-35 the appropriation for this purpose amounted to 9,000,000 yuan.

The amount shouldered by the Ministries of War and Navy of Japan for the national defence of Manchoukuo, as given in the state budget under the item "Manchurian Incident Expenses", amounted to ¥820,866,000 for the fiscal years 1931 to 1935, classified as follows:

Year	Amount (Yen)
1931	82,919,000
1932	258,941,000
1933	161,564,000
1934	145,471,000
1935	171,971,000
Total	820,866,000

Organization The administration of national defence is entrusted to the Department of National Defence. The Department may be conveniently divided into a triad of parts. One part consists of a General Staff, a Military Supplies Bureau and an Advisory Bureau. A second, consists of a Horse Administration

Bureau. The third has nineteen sections under its supervision, representing military institutes, military headquarters, etc. as shown below:

Section 1	General Staff Military Supply Bureau Advisory Bureau
Section 2	Horse Administration Bureau (a) State Race Courses (at Mukden and Harbin) (b) State Stud-Farms (at Hailar and Taonan)
Section 3	1-5 Army District Headquarters Hsingan Provincial Garrisons Headquarters Central Military Academy Gendarmes Training School Hsingan Military Academy Independent 1st Motor Corps Army Clothing Depots (Mukden, Hsinking, Tsitsihar) Arsenals (Mukden, Kirin, Tsitsihar) Metropolitan Gendarmerie Headquarters Chingan-Army Headquarters (Mukden) Aide-de-camp's Office Imperial Guards Regimental Headquarters Hsinking Military Band Intelligence Department Military Communications Headquarters 1st Cavalry Brigade Headquarters River Patrol Fleet Headquarters (Harbin) Horse Administration Committee Central Military Publicity Committee Military Surgeons Institute (Harbin)

Standing Army:—The standing army of Manchoukuo consisted at the end of September 1935 of 26 brigades, and 8 cavalry brigades. The country, excluding Hsingan Province, is divided into five army districts. Hsingan Province possesses two garrisons consisting of four mixed brigades. Besides the brigades the army districts are supplemented with the usual auxiliary corps.

ARMY ORGANIZATION OF MANCHOUKURO
(Sept., 1935)

- 1ST ARMY DISTRICT (Mukden)**.....
Fengtien & Antung Provs.
Comdr. Gen. Yu Shen-chang
1st Local Army District (Antung)...3 mixed brigades
Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Wang Tien-chung
2nd Local Army District (Mukden)...2 mixed brigades
Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Liao Pi-tsin
- 2ND ARMY DISTRICT (Kirin)**.....
Kirin & Chientao Provs.
Comdr. Gen. Kie Hsing
3rd Local Army District (Kirin)...3 mixed brigades
Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Wu Yuan-min
4th Local Army District (Hsinking)...1 mixed brigade & 3 cavalry brigades
Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Li Wen-ping
- 3RD ARMY DISTRICT (Tsitsihar)**.....
Lungkiang & Heiho Provs.
Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Chang Wen-chu
5th Local Army District (Heiho)...1 mixed brigade
Comdr. Major-Gen. Chao Chen-pang
6th Local Army District (Tsitsihar)...4 mixed brigades & 1 cavalry brigade
Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Chang Wen-chu
- 4TH ARMY DISTRICT (Harbin)**.....
Pinkiang & Sankiang Provs.
Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Kuo En-lin
7th Local Army District (Harbin)...3 mixed brigades
Comdr. Major-Gen. Chu Yung
8th Local Army District (Eastern Frontier) 2 mixed brigades
Comdr. Major-Gen. Wang Shou-tang
9th Local Army District (Chiamussu)...3 mixed brigades & 1 cavalry brigade
Comdr. Major-Gen. Li Yu-chiu
- 5TH ARMY DISTRICT (Chengteh)**.....
Jehol & Chinchow Provs.
Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Wang Ching-hsiu
10th Local Army District (Chinchow)...2 mixed brigades
Comdr. Major-Gen. Tien Teh-sheng
11th Local Army District (Chengteh)...1 mixed brigade & 1 cavalry brigade
Comdr. Major-Gen. Wang Yung-ching

HSINGAN PROVINCIAL GARRISONS

- 1st Garrison (Hailar).....2 mixed brigades
Comdr. Major-Gen. Ulujin

2nd Garrison (Chienchiatien)2 mixed brigades
Comdr. Major-Gen. Batemalabutan

Note: 1st Garrison consists of the former Hsingan North & East Provincial Guards.
2nd Garrison consists of the former Hsingan West & South Provincial Guards.

The steps in the military reorganization of Manchoukuo since March, 1932 is given in the following table by periods.

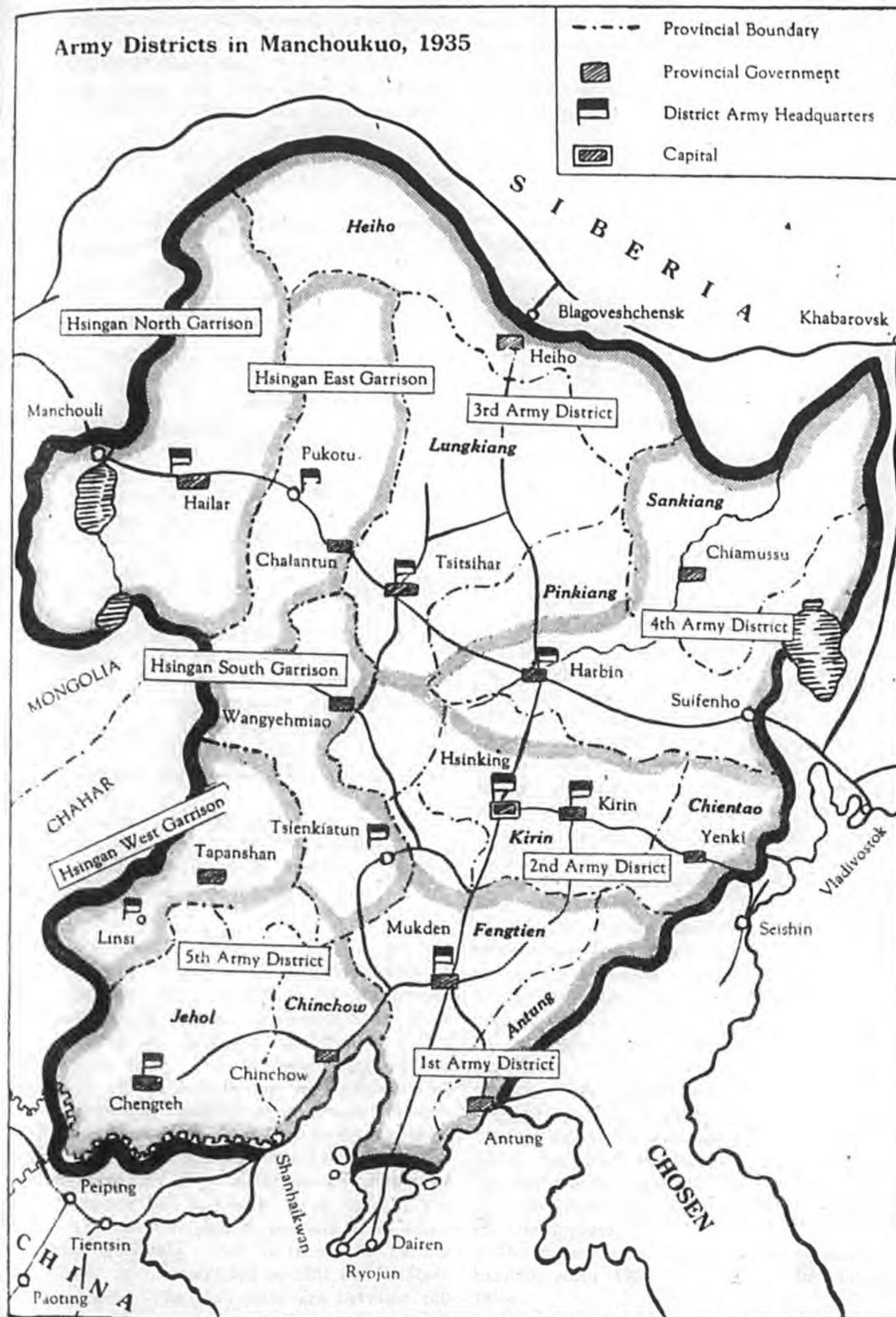
FIRST PERIOD
(March, 1932-April, 1933)

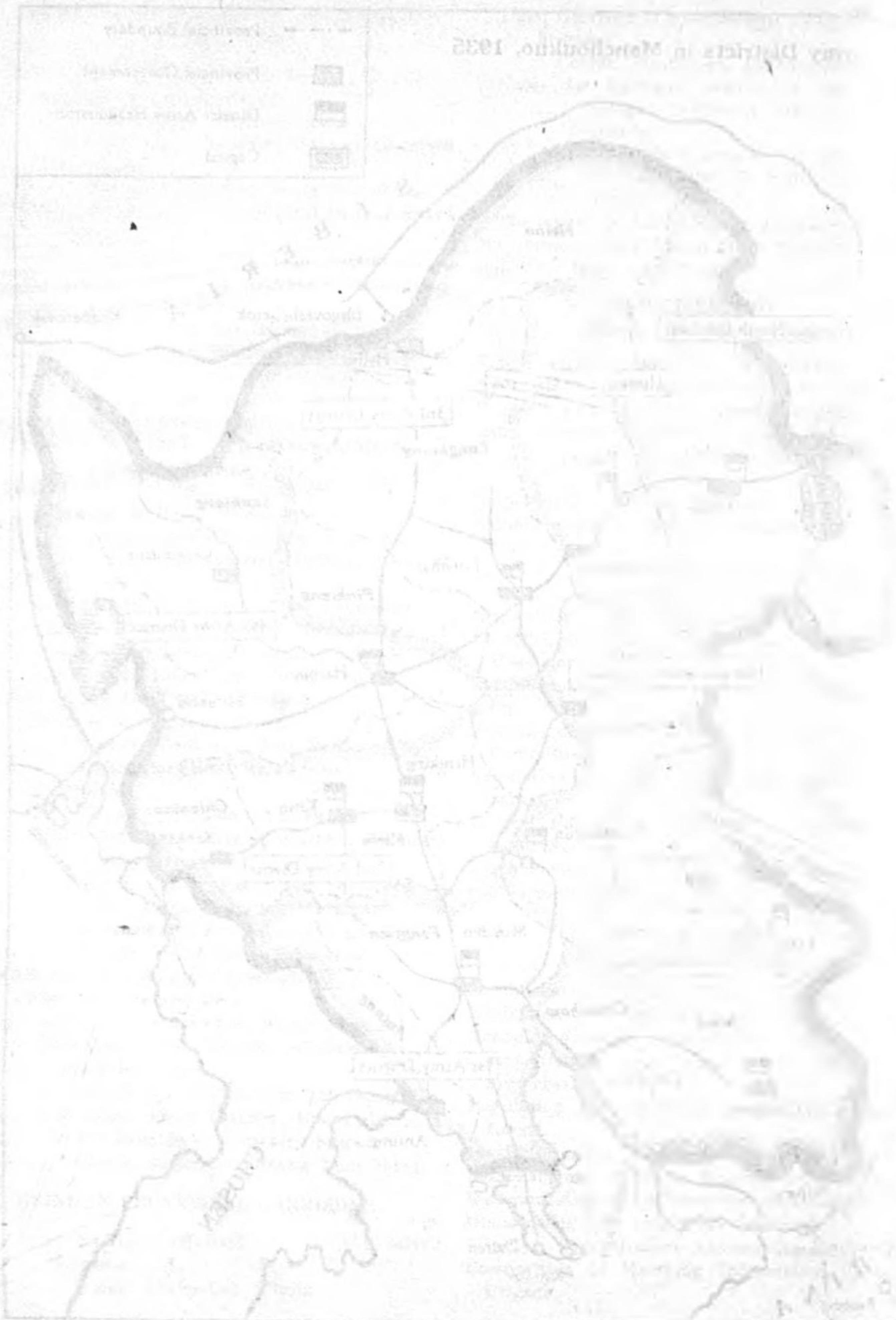
- Proclamation of Army & Navy Laws.
- Appointment of Provincial Guards Commanders.
- Regulation of Provincial Army Jurisdictions.
- Establishment of National Defence Department.
- of Army Clothing Depots.
- of Arsenals.
- Regulation of Military Ranks.
- Establishment of Military Carrier-pigeons section.
- of Central Military Academy.
- of Hsingan Provincial Guards.
- Regulation of Military Uniforms.
- Establishment of Metropolitan Gendarmerie Headquarters.
- Establishment of River Patrol Fleet Headquarters.
- Establishment of Central Military Publicity Committee.
- Regulation of Army Aid-de-Camp of the Emperor.
- Central Control of Arms & Ammunitions of Local Forces.
- Establishment of Central Bandit Suppression Committee.

SECOND PERIOD
(May, 1933-March, 1934)

- Establishment of Jehol Provincial Army.
- Abolishment of Taoliao Guards Corps.
- Changing of Army Jurisdictions.
- Composition of Non-Commissioned Officers of Provinces.
- Regulation for admitting recruits to depleted forces.
- 1st Reformation of District Army System.
- Establishment of Horse Administration Bureau.
- Reorganization of Military Communications.
- Undertaking of Gendarmerie Training.
- of Military Automobiles Equipment.
- Composition of Hsinking Independent Cavalry Brigade.

Army Districts in Manchoukuo, 1935





- Establishment of Central & Local Peace Preservation Committees.
- Construction of Gun-Boats.
- Memorial Service for those killed in founding Manchoukuo, presided by the Emperor, Sept., 1933.
- Establishment of Hsingan West Garrison.
- " of Military Propaganda Cinema Company.
- Despatchment of Military Officers to Japan for investigation.

THIRD PERIOD
(March, 1934-May, 1935)

- Sanction of Imperial Mandate to Army, Mar., 1934.
- Regulation of Military Colours.
- " of Decorations.
- Relief to meritorious people for founding Manchoukuo.
- 2nd Despatchment of Military Officers to Japan for investigation.
- Grand Military Review in presence of the Emperor, June, 1934.
- 2nd Reformation of District Army System, July, 1934.
- Construction of 3 Gun-Boats.
- Changing of Army Jurisdictions.
- Appointment of Commanders of Army Districts.
- Establishment of Gendarmerie Training School.
- Reformation of Army & Navy Laws.
- " of Military Salaries.
- Grand Military Manoeuvre under the Emperor, Oct., 1934.
- Establishment of Gendarmerie Corps.
- Opening of Hsingan Military Academy.
- Establishment of Military Motor Corps.
- Adoption of Army & Navy Songs.

NAVY

The navy of Manchoukuo consists chiefly of river gunboats taken over from the old regime and supplemented by a few vessels built after the founding of the new government. The Manchoukuo navy was officially organized in June 1934 on the occasion of the completion of several warships. Because of the shallow waters in which such crafts have to cruise in their defense areas, which are mostly along the Sungari river, the ships of the Manchoukuo navy do not exceed but a few hundred tons at the most. The navy at present consists of 15 small and large gunboats. Two of them, the Tatung and Limin, were completed in 1934 and displace 60 tons each. The old crafts are between 150

and 275 tons in displacement. In 1935 two more gunboats, each displacing 270 tons were launched. They are the Tingpien and the Chinien which were built at the dockyard of the River Patrol Fleet at Harbin.

Table 1
Gunboats of Manchoukuo

Name	Displacement (tons)	When launched
Lisui	275	1903
Shuntien	270	1934
Yangmin	270	1934
Tingpien	270	1935
Chinjen	270	1935
Kiangping	200	1900
Kiangching	210	1897
Litsi	210	1898
Kiangtung	150	1903
Tatung	60	1933
Limin	60	1933
Tsimin	20	1934
Enmin	15	1932
Huimin	15	1932
Pumin	15	1932

Bandit Suppression

The betterment in national defence, as compared to the condition obtaining in the former regime, is reflected in the strides taken in the suppression of bandit activity. At the time of the founding of Manchoukuo in the spring of 1932 the total number of bandits exceeded 30,000. By September of the same year the number had increased to 360,000 due principally to the subversive activities of Chang Hsueh-Liang's remnant troops who were thrown out of employment following the downfall of the young marshal. Since then, however the number of such bandits has been on the decrease as a result of their suppression by Manchoukuo and Japanese forces.

Compared to the condition obtaining in 1932 two factors loom in prominence with regard to the bandit situation. Firstly, may be noted the actual reduction of bandits as a whole, and, secondly, the shrinkage in size of bandit groups. In 1932 some bandit groups had an active fighting force of 3,000 men, but at present the average is between a force of 40 to 50 bandits per group. The chief cause for the existence of the bandits in Manchoukuo is an economic one, and is the result of unemployment. As soon as the farming distress shows signs of alleviation it is believed that the remaining bandits will soon disappear.

The progress in the reduction in number of bandits since 1932 is given in the following table:

Year	Month	No. of Bandits	
1932:	March	130,000	
	April	130,000	
	May	150,000	
	June	183,000	
	July	200,000	
	August	360,000	
	September	360,000	
	October	284,000	
	November	173,300	
	December	173,300	
	1933:	January	212,300
		February	191,100
1934:	March	56,000	
	April	60,900	
	May	52,000	
	June	64,500	
	July	55,700	
	August	71,200	
	September	70,500	
	October	36,000	
	November	30,000	
	December	39,000	
	1934:	January	15,300
	1934:	February	10,400
1934:	March	15,000	
1934:	April	12,800	
1934:	May	12,400	
1934:	June	15,900	
1934:	July	20,100	

Table
CHRONOLOGY OF BANDIT SUPPRESSION

Date	Engagement	No. of Enemy Forces	No. of Manchoukuo Forces
March-June, 1932.	Suppression of Anti-Kirin Troops.	20,000	7,000
May-June, 1932.	1st Pacification of the Tungpien-Tao Region.	20,000	4,000
April-July, 1932.	Suppression of Ma Chan-shan.	16,000	5,000
May, 1932.	Suppression of Li Hai-ching.	10,000	6,000
June, 1932.	Punitive expedition against Feng Chan-hai near Yushou (Kirin).	15,000	1,600

August	19,300
September	23,800
October	25,500
November	24,500
December	21,800
1935:	
January	22,400
February	21,310
March	21,270
April	25,000

Casualties in the bandit suppression campaign extending from May 1932 to May 1935 a total of 1,470 Manchoukuo officers and soldiers were killed, and 1,261 wounded. Japanese casualties amounted to 41 killed and 7 injured. Details are given in the subjoined table:

Killed:	
Officers	313 (37)
Non-Commissioned	
Officers	216 (1)
Private	933
Others	8 (3)
Total	1,470 (41)
Wounded:	
Officers	111 (5)
Non-Commissioned	
Officers	167
Private	964
Others	19 (2)
Total	1,261 (7)

Figures in brackets indicate Japanese Officers.

4
BY THE MANCHOUKUO ARMY

Description of Manchoukuo and Enemy Forces	Remarks
Manchoukuo: Kirin Army & River Patrol Fleet. Comdr. Gen. Yu Shen-chang. The Enemy: Anti-Kirin Troops. Leaders. Li Ting Tiao, etc.	The Manchoukuo Army cooperating with the Japanese Forces, drove back the Anti-Kirin Troops to the northern part of Kirin Prov., secured the water routes of the Sungari River and regained Iran-hsien.
Manchoukuo: Fengtien Army. Comdr. Gen. Yu Chi-shan. The Enemy: North Eastern People Salvation Army & Ta-ta-hui (Big Sword League). Leaders. Tang Tsu-wu & Wang Feng-ke.	Tang Tsu-wu revolted and attacked the Japanese Consulate at Tunghua. The Fengtien Army cooperating with the Japanese Police Corps, tried to drive the bandits but were repulsed.
Manchoukuo: Heilungkiang Army cooperating with the Japanese Army. Comdr. Cheng Chin-yuan. The Enemy: Ma Chan-shan Troops & Li Bandits. Leaders. Ma Chan-shan & Li Hai-ching.	Ma Chan-shan escaping from Tsitsihar in April, gathered his troops again and revolted. The Manchoukuo Army sent two troops and attacked his headquarters at Hailin, cooperating with the Japanese Army.
Manchoukuo: Heilungkiang, Kirin and Taoliao Army assisted by the Japanese Air Corps. The Enemy: A part of Ma Chan-shan's Troops & Li Bandits. Leaders. Li Hai-ching.	Bandit Li occupying the southern part of Heilungkiang Province and Fuyu of Kirin Province, took sway of the district. The Manchoukuo Army attacked the bandits with the aid of the Japanese air corps.
Manchoukuo: Kirin Army. The Enemy: Anti-Kirin Troops. Leaders. Feng Chan-hai & Kung Chang-hai.	Anti-Kirin Troops gathered in the south of Harbin. The Manchoukuo Army encountered the enemy near Ssuhocheng (Pinkiang), but were repulsed.